National Human Development Report, **2015**

Human Security and Human Development in Nigeria

December, 2015

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ACRONYMS

AFR	Adolescent Fertility Rate
ANPP	All Nigerian Peoples' Party
APC	All Progressives Congress
APGA	All Progressive Grand Alliance
APRM	African Peer Review Mechanism
ATA	Agricultural Transformation Agenda
CBN	Central Bank of Nigeria
CEDAW	Conventions on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CPC	Congress for Progressive Change
EBBC	Ebonyi/Benue Boundary Commission
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EFCC	Economic and Financial Crimes Com
EYS	Expected Years of Schooling
FCT	Federal Capital Territory
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GES	Growth Enhancement Scheme
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GTI	Global Terrorism Index
HDI	Human Development Index
ICPC	Independent and Corrupt Practices Commission
IE&P	Institute for Economics and Peace
INEC	Independent National Electoral Commission
LEEDS	Local Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
LGAs	Local Government Areas
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MMR	Maternal Mortality Rate
MOSSOB	Movement for the Actualisation of a Sovereign State of Biafra
MPI	multi-dimensional poverty index
MYS	Mean Years of Schooling
NEEDS	National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
NEPAD	New Partnership for African Development
NIP	National Implementation Plan
NIREC	Nigeria Inter Religious Council
NPC	National Planning Commission
OPC	Oodua People's Congress
PDP	Peoples Democratic Party
RTAs	Road Traffic Accidents
SEEDS	State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
UBEP	Universal Basic Education Programme
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UPE	Universal Primary Education
WEF	World Economic Forum

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REPORT OVERVIEW AND SUMMARY

1. A Short History of Nigeria's 'Human Development Reports', 1996 – 2009

Past NHDRs for Nigeria have helped sensitise and draw attention of government and other development stakeholders to pertinent human development issues and challenges that merit urgent national attention. The key stakeholders in this regard have included development practitioners, academics, development partners, policy makers, the media as well as the general public. A good example is the 2006: *Niger Delta Human Development Report* which provided data, facts as well as information which assisted government in designing the Niger Delta Master Plan. Similarly, the 2004 *HIV&AIDS Report* provided facts and figures which assisted the Federal Ministry of Health in designing the National Response to HIV&AIDS. The Report on 'achieving growth with equity' had as its major innovation, the computation of States' Human Development Index (SHDI) for the first time in Nigeria and thereby becoming an important input in the development planning process. Indeed, it is now possible to compare states in Nigeria on the basis of their respective Human Development Indicators. The report also featured preliminary estimates of the level of economic activity at the state level that gave birth to the State GDP project by Government and further provided inputs into the production of *Nigeria's Vision 2020* policy blueprint. In a nutshell only, these past NHDRs have helped stimulate government policy interest in specific and critically important development issues.

2. The Rationale for the Current Focus on Human Security

The current thematic focus of Nigeria's Seventh National Human Development Report is 'Human Security and Human Development'. The general rationale for this particular focus has been the need for seeking practical and empirical connections between human security and human development in Nigeria. The recent improvements in development policy and growth performance in Nigeria have themselves signalled a positive overall medium-term economic outlook for the country. Yet in spite of these signs of progress, Nigeria's dependence on oil and gas, non-transforming agriculture and its wider social and political realities have continued to portray fragility. At the household level, progress is less visible as unemployment, poverty, violence and other threats to day-today existence appear to have deepened or at least persisted. One indication of this situation is that the country is on track towards achieving, in part or in whole, only some of the MDGs. Such development shortfalls may be attributed to some underlying causes, including persistent poverty and inequality, poor state of social service delivery as well as insecurity and conflict. These causes and the accompanying development deficits can also be traced to a structural problem; namely, poor governance arising from elite competition and control over a narrow but lucrative revenue base derived from oil and gas.

In general therefore, the concept of human security helps to bring to the fore the fact that poverty, hunger, lack of access, diseases, natural disasters, natural resources exploitation and use are all part of those general issues that represent risk for human development. Those general issues include the following:

- Citizenship and social capital; specifically the challenge of looking at horizontal and vertical bonds within the Nigerian society;
- Natural resources and the environment;
- Economic security; specifically, diversifying the economy and generating employment and income;
- Personal security (violence, communal conflict, illicit trafficking of small arms, drugs, people);
- Access to services such as health, education, justice, information and power;
- Food security, and;
- Natural disasters.

3. Aims and Objectives of the 2015 Report

The overall objective of this 2015 report is to assess the status of human security and human development in Nigeria. Specifically, the project had at least five spelt out aims; namely:

i. Gather first-hand information about human security threats and challenges in Nigeria;

ii. Analyse information and data in order to gain a reliable sense of the nature, depth and ramifications of threats to life and livelihoods, and possible remedies;

iii. Aggregate findings to stimulate the application of the human security framework in the human development approach at national, state and local levels; and

iv. Offer recommendations that can contribute to the on-going processes of policy development and implementation that in turn address the opportunities and challenges facing human security in the country.

4. The Report Preparation Methodology

In order to achieve the aims and objectives of this report, both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered from primary and secondary sources. Primary data was obtained from households and officials of Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) relevant to human security and human development. Secondary data was collected from officials of relevant MDAs, published and unpublished materials such as background documentation, periodicals, reports, books and online sources.

The study was conducted in the six geo-political zones and Abuja, also the Federal Capital territory (FCT) of the country. Two states were randomly selected from each geo-political zone, while the FCT was sampled in its own right as the national capital city. For the household survey, an adult member of a randomly selected household was interviewed for the study. The major instrument used in collecting primary data for this study was the structured questionnaire. The data collected through the questionnaire was statistically analysed by relevant descriptive analyses using frequencies, percentages, mean and median.

For each of the realms of human security, scores were computed to generate scales for each realm. The scales were tested using the Cronbach alpha in order to obtain the optimal scale for each realm. Min-Max rescaling method was used in computing the index in which each variable is decomposed into an identical range between zero and one (0 being the worst rank for a specific indicator and a score of 1 being the best). At both the sub-index and composite indicator level, equal weights was adopted for the indicator level due to the fact that first, this simple method of aggregation is transparent and easy to understand. Second, we find no theoretical or practical justification for the differential allocation of importance across indicators. While methods exist for determining weights that are subjective or data reliant, such weighting schemes do not always reflect the priorities of decision makers.

5. Report Findings: The Seven Realms of Human Security

This report has been divided into seven chapters with the first providing a basis for the understanding of the concepts of human security and human development. Accordingly, the first chapter highlights the seven realms of human security and provides an insight into the nexus between human development and human security. The second chapter examines the status of human development in Nigeria and the attendant socio-economic profile. It is to be noted that the status of human development in Nigeria has not shown remarkable improvement in spite of the changes in the social and economic conditions in recent years. Economic growth in Nigeria has not been associated with poverty reduction and unemployment has not abated in turn slowing down the rate of improvement in human development as evidenced by only marginal improvements in the HDI between 2012 and 2013. Generally, demographic and health indicators such as access to water, sanitation, life expectancy at birth, infant mortality, under-5 mortality and incidence of poverty have shown improvement over the years but the harmful social conditions, specifically, terrorist attacks, religious and ethnic conflicts and related crimes pose threats to sustainability. In addition, there still exists gender inequality which is more pronounced in the northern parts of the country than in the southern part.

The third chapter looks at the economic and food dimensions of human security. With respect to the economic dimension, the greatest threats to security at the individual level, as perceived by the people are

the trio experiences of needing to bribe someone in order to obtain a service; the inability to pay for one's children's or one's own education and thirdly, being unable to support oneself. Similarly, the perceived most important threat is the fear of inflation and its attendant consequences. Most people perceive their ability to cope with devaluation of the Naira and price increase as very low. The ability to cope with price increase is lowest in the North-West and FCT, and highest in the South-South while ability to cope with risks associated with the devaluation of the Naira is lowest in the North-West and South-South and highest in the South-East.

With respect to job security, the perceived dominant threat at individual level is the fear of losing one's job or inability to find work. With respect to perceived threat at the general level, the dominant ones are the inability to compete at the job market as well as insufficient pension to live on after retirement. The factors perceived to contribute to a sense of job security include government employment support system, social insurance coverage, and social welfare system.

The perception of government employment support system' is most pronounced in the North-West and South-South and least pronounced in the North-East and FCT. The perception of social insurance coverage', is most pronounced in the North-East and South-South and least pronounced in the FCT and North-Central. Similarly, perception of 'social welfare system' is most pronounced in the South-East and North-West and least pronounced in the North-East and FCT. The pattern of food consumption shows that the North-West has the highest proportion of food expenditure followed by the South-West while the South-South has the lowest proportion. The South-East has the highest proportion of household reporting food inadequacy followed by the South-South and South-West. With respect to threat to food security at the individual level, the possibility of their children becoming undernourished is perceived as the greatest threat. At the general level, the perceived greatest threats are fear of low crop yield and decreased local food production.

Chapter four of the report examines the environment and health dimensions of human security. The North-East zone had the highest proportion of survey respondents who perceived their inability to access portable water as a personal threat in the environment domain. Deforestation, has persisted as a challenge in the environment sector and constitutes a threat to human security. In order to curb the trend, indiscriminate logging would have to be monitored. Gas flaring was observed as an activity constituting threat to human security in the environment domain. Adequate infrastructure to enable storage of natural gas for domestic and commercial use is essential in sustaining trends of reduced gas flaring activities in Nigeria. Disasters; whether natural or human induced will be better managed by improved institutional capacity of relevant bodies such as NEMA. Some gains have been recorded in the health sector in the area of ante-natal care provision; notably being attended by skilled personnel as well as the declining HIV/AIDS prevalence. Nevertheless, the majority of survey respondents still expressed the fear of high prevalence of HIV/AIDS. Generally, the state of health institutions is perceived as a factor which increases respondents' sense of security, thereby implying that the provision of functional and qualitative health facilities are necessary for improved human security.

Chapter five of the report looks at personal, community and political dimensions of human security. Crime poses a critical threat to citizens' personal security. Discussions on reported cases of armed robbery show increasing trends for the period reviewed while the number of violent deaths was particularly high in 2013. The fear of kidnapping as constituting a threat was more prevalent in the South-South zone, while the fear of armed robbery was prominent among all urban respondents. Given that kidnapping and other related organised crimes have been attributed to poverty and social inequality, policies geared towards poverty reduction and inclusive growth are desirable in order to curb the malaise. In the political domain, women's representation in parliament dwindled from 2007 till the present. This trend threatens inclusiveness in the political space and imposes limitations on democratic participation. Reduced crime rates will improve human security in the personal and community domains, while increased female participation in parliament will engender more inclusive representation and possibly, more inclusive growth.

Chapter six looks at human security; first from the seven realms before the composite as well as the linkage between human development and human security. In the economic domain, the North-Central zone is the most economically secure geo-political zone while the South-South is the least economically secure geo-political zone. This zone is known to be vast in agriculture, a sector which could be key in providing employment. Residents in the South-South geo-political zone do not feel economically secure, partly because the locals may often not be qualified to participate in the enclave oil

industries which are predominant in the South-South zone. In view of this, capacity building of the youth in the South-South as well as the programme to make agriculture more of a business need to be pursued vigorously. Similarly, residents of the North-East are the least economically secure from the perspective of citizens and this may not be far-fetched considering the spate of insurgency in the zone. On the whole, residents of the rural areas are more secure economically than those in the urban areas owing to the fact that rural residents are mostly self-employed in agriculture and petty trade.

In the food domain, residents of the geo-political zones in the southern part of Nigeria are more food secure than those in the northern zones. This results from the fact that the indicators used for calculating HSI in the food domain pertain to child malnutrition which is associated with factors such as mother's education and age, family size and vaccination status; which risk factors are more prevalent among families in the northern zones of Nigeria. Residents in the South-East are the most food secure based on the secondary data while those in the North-West are the least food secure. The residents of the South-South are the most food secure from the citizen's perspective, though from the secondary data they are the second most food secure geo-political zone.

In the health Domain, the Human Security Index across the geo-political zones is low and therefore an indication that Nigerians are not health secure. Residents in the South-West are the most secure while the opposite is the situation for the residents in the North-West geo-political zone. An examination of the Citizens' Human Security Index in the health realm shows that males are more secure than females in virtually all the geo-political zones. The residents in the South-West geo-political zone are the second most health secure from the perspective of the citizens while residents in the South-South geo-political zone are the least health secure.

In the environment domain, Nigerians are not secure, due to the fact that the environment domain Human Security Index is below 0.5. The residents of the South-South and South-East geo-political zones are however the top two-ranked zones, relative to residents in the other geo-political zones. Residents in the North-East are the most vulnerable in terms of the environment domain and thus the least environmentally secure. From the perspective of the citizens, residents of the South-East are the most-secure.

In the personal domain, Nigerians are not secure. Residents in the North-West geo-political zones are the most secure in the personal realm of human security while residents of the South-South are the least secure. From the perspectives of the citizens, the residents of the South-West zone are the most secure while those in the North-East are the least secure at the personal realm; itself a reflection of the current realities.

Nigerians have a low sense of security in the community domain. Nevertheless, residents of the South-South and South-West geo-political zones are the top two zones where people are most secure in the community realm of human security. The geo-political zone where residents are least secure is the North-East geo-political zone. This may be due to the spate of insurgency and the attendant consequences on citizens. In the North-East geo-political zones those in the urban areas feel more secure compared with those in the rural areas due to the fact that the military infrastructure against the insurgency is more pronounced in the urban areas than the rural areas.

Political Security

Nigerians are not secure in the political realm of human security, nevertheless, the top two zones in which residents are relatively secured in the political domain are the South-East and South-West zones. The zone with the lowest sense of security in the political domain is the North-West geo-political zone and this may be due to cultural and religious barriers that tend to limit the women from aspiring to be involved in politics and thereby representing their constituencies at the parliamentary level. From the Citizen's perspective, the residents in the South-East geo-political zone feel most secure compared to those in the other zones, with the North-West zone being the lowest.

Human Security

The most human security secure geo-political zone is the South-East where citizen perspective also confirms it. However the North-West and the North-East geo-political zones are the least human security secured. The results show that residents of the Federal Capital Territory were virtually the worst in most realms of the Human Security Index and thus bringing to the fore the necessity for action in ameliorating the situation. Indeed, human development and human security can be seen as two processes that go hand in hand owing to the fact that the utmost effect of the two is enhanced

quality of life for the ordinary citizen. Progress on one is likely to enhance the chances of progress in the other, while the reverse is also possible. The Human Security Index for Nigeria in this report was computed from two approaches and there is not much difference in the computation from both hence also its validation. There is the likelihood that Nigeria's low HDI may be due to the fact that the HSI is low and hence the need to explore more than ever before, all options aimed at mitigating threats to the insecurity of individuals.

The report ends with chapter seven, essentially crystallising the critical conclusions as well as recommendations for the way ahead.

Key Messages from the Report

The key messages of this report can be surmised as follows:

- **A pioneering HSI Report:** This is the first attempt at computing HSI for Nigeria with an emerging picture that there is the likelihood that Nigeria's Human Development Index is low as a result of a low HSI. It thus suggests the need to explore, more than ever before, all options aimed at mitigating threats to the security of individuals;

- **The Economic Dimensions:** In the economic domain, human security is mainly constrained by threats of economic access, high unemployment rates, and low perception of job security. It means that the choice of sufficient and predictable income is a most important factor that contributes to economic security at the personal level and also suggesting that economic empowerment of citizens is critical to human security;

- **Role of Scientific Discoveries and new Technologies:** It is also noteworthy that a relatively high recognition is given to the role of scientific discovery as well as new technologies as factors contributing to human security in the economic domain. This is a particularly interesting revelation suggesting an increasing awareness of the strategic importance of new technologies in the economic domain of human security;

- **Political Will:** The perception of the ability to influence selected security risks in the area of economic access is generally low and clearly a demonstration of a feeling of powerlessness or lack of voice by the respondents to change things. It therefore suggests that interventions that are backed by strong political will are needed to ensure that human security is improved in the economic domain;

- **Job Security:** The economic factors that contribute to people's sense of job security include government employment support system (government provision of credit facilities for business start-ups, and government policies geared towards job creation), social insurance coverage, and social welfare system.

- **Gender:** There is no evidence of remarkable gender differentials in citizens' perception of each of the three factors contributing to the people's sense of job security.

- In the food domain, the possibility of children becoming undernourished is perceived to be the greatest threat to food security at the individual level, while low crop yield is perceived as the most important threat at the general level. Thus, a policy focus on children nourishment would be of great help in improving human security in the food domain. This can be done through social protection programmes that target feeding of children (e.g., free school meals), and subsidy for infant feeding formulas and other children food products. Large corporations can also be encouraged to promote children nourishment as a major component of their corporate social responsibility.

- The challenge of low crop yield can be tackled through encouragement of the adoption of high yield crop varieties and improved access to fertiliser. Nigeria is currently in pursuit of these through the agricultural sector Growth Enhancement Scheme (i.e., E-Wallet Programme), and efforts in this respect should be intensified.

- Concerted effort is needed to ensure that growth is people oriented. The specific domains of human security must be tackled holistically as situations in some domains have effect in other domain.

Specifically, the environmental domain must be given adequate attention as it impacts on several other domains such as the health, food and even the economic domain.

- Climate change adaptation activities should be promoted among local communities to reduce the impacts of climate change at the community level.

- Improving education, health conditions and decent living standards is a task to be achieved nationally, and must be done with a focus on reducing inequality between gender groups as well as between northern and southern geopolitical zones.

- Poor state of health becomes a constraint against ability and capacity to enhance personal development, be productive and earn good income. This could aggravate intergenerational poverty crisis. There is need to focus on improving the situation in the health sector by making health facilities more accessible to the people, making medical services more affordable, and improving health staff-patient relations.

- Programmes such as free maternal and child health schemes should be encouraged to be implemented by the states that are yet to implement them, while efforts should be made to improve the implementation of the scheme in states where they are already being implemented.

- Implementation of the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) should be improved so that people derive maximum benefits from it.

- Generally, people have a high sense of community belonging, which is a positive development and could be attributed to the need for people to come together to improve their communities and provide support to community members. This could have positive impact on human development especially with citizens reporting that neighbours cooperation increase their sense of security. Since substantial proportion of respondents perceive police and the armed forces and the justice system as factors for increasing sense of security, more attention should be focused on improving the performance of the relevant agencies and bodies.

1.
UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPTUAL LINKAGES BETWEEN HUMAN SECURITY AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

1.0 Introduction

This chapter provides the theoretical and conceptual basis for linking human security to human development. In doing so, it necessarily highlights the 'seven realms' of human security and thereby providing a nuanced insight into the nexus between human development and human security.

1.1 Concepts of Human Development and Human Security

1.1.1 Human Development

The concept of human development has been at the heart of the United Nations Development Program since 1990 when the foundations were laid for a perspective on development aspirations that is today widely known and accepted. As argued first in the UNDP global Human Development Report of 1990 (UNDP, 1990), the concept of "human development" has been conceived first and foremost, as an alternative vision to the prevailing development paradigms of the time. This approach not only questioned what was until recently a deeply rooted vision in development thought in which the success or failure of the development process was measured in economic terms, but also encouraged an exploration of the multiple obstacles restricting human freedom. From this viewpoint, factors that are normally overlooked, such as those having to do with the social surroundings in which people lead their lives, are now the subject of renewed interest in the extensive literature produced in this area. 'Human Development' is therefore now regarded as development that improves people's lives and their livelihoods and places human beings at the centre of all development efforts. It refers to the process of enlarging the range of people's choices; increasing their opportunities for education, health-care, income and employment – and covers a full range of human choices; from a sound physical environment to economic and political freedom. It involves an accumulation of material wealth as well as social capital. The concept of human development is designed to promote development which addresses the root causes of poverty and human deprivation.

As is thus self-evident, Human development is thus defined as the expansion of capabilities and opportunities for human beings to lead full lives. In addition to income, it focuses on education, health, freedom of choice, participation and other aspects deemed relevant in specific local contexts. Human development is generally measured by the Human Development Index (HDI)[1], which includes indicators on income, literacy levels, and life expectancy. These indicators are often reviewed to reflect country-relevant situations.

The human development paradigm includes various analytical aspects, such as human poverty and human security. Human poverty is a state of deprivation with regard to the capabilities and opportunities essential for human development. Poverty may manifest itself as the lack of the capability to live beyond a certain age, the lack of the opportunity to participate in government decisions affecting one's life at a local or national level, and, of course, the lack of a sufficient level of income. Human poverty is generally measured by the Human Poverty Index (HPI), which is based on the number of people living below poverty thresholds set in each dimension of human development, i.e the percentage of people not expected to surpass the age of 60; the percentage of functionally illiterate adults; the percentage of people with disposable incomes of less than 50% of the median; the proportion of long-term unemployed (12 months and more). Human poverty indicators and poverty threshold levels may be adjusted to reflect country-relevant situations.

This report adopts the UNDP human development concepts outlined therein.

1.1.2 Human Security

Human security is an emerging paradigm for understanding global vulnerabilities that have evolved over the past two decades from being a traditional notion of national security with heavy investments in military preparedness and response to focusing more on the dimensions that sustain the security of people through investing in human and community development.

1 UNDP HDR Toolkit for National and Regional HDR Teams.

Today, the human security paradigm maintains that a people-centred view of security is vitally essential for national, regional, and global stability.

The concept of human security emerged as part of the holistic paradigm of human development cultivated at the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) by former Pakistani Finance Minister Mahbub ul Haq,[2] with strong support from economist Amartya Sen.[3]

The concept's dimensions were first presented in the UNDP *Human Development Report, 1994: New Dimensions of Human Security* (UNDP, 1994) – considered a milestone publication in the field of human security – which put forth the critical proposal that ensuring "freedom from want" and "freedom from fear" for all persons is the best path to tackle the problem of global insecurity. UNDP's 1994 global HDR was the first major international document to articulate human security in conceptual terms with proposals for policy and action.

The concept of human security emphasises the protection of individuals. It takes as its objectives peace, international stability and protection for individuals and communities (Fuentes and Aravena, 2005). It comprises everything that is 'empowering' for individuals: human rights, including economic social and cultural rights, access to education and health care, equal opportunities, good governance, etc.

The UNDP's 1994 *Human Development Report*, is thus correct to call human security people-centred because it concerns how people live and breathe in a society, how safely and freely they can exercise their many choices, how much access they have to market and social opportunities, whether they live in conflict or peace, how confident they can feel that the opportunities they enjoy one day will not be totally lost the next.

Simply put, human security debunks the question of 'security' from its traditional conception of the safety of states from military threats to concentrate on the safety of people and communities. Once the referent object of security is changed to individuals, it then proposes to extend the notion of 'safety' to a condition beyond mere existence (survival) to life worth living, hence, well-being and dignity of human beings. Thus, poverty, for example, is conceptualised as a human security threat – not because it can induce violence which threatens the stability of the state, but because it is a threat to the dignity of individuals. This is human security in a nutshell.

2 The late Dr. Mahbub ul Haq was the creator of the widely acclaimed Human Development Report first issued in 1990. See also Haq, 1995.
3 See Amartya Sen, 1999.

The UNDP devoted a chapter of the report to the need to shift the paradigm from state-centred security to people-centred security; from nuclear security to human security. The chapter on the new dimensions of human security states:

> *The concept of security has for too long been interpreted narrowly as security of territory from external aggression, or as protection of national interests in foreign policy, or as global security from the threat of a nuclear holocaust. It has been related more to nation-states than to people.*[4]

In light of the new geopolitical realities, in 2005 the Human Security Centre of the Liu Institute for Global Issues at Canada's University of British Columbia published the *Human Security Report,*[5] which points to the significant reduction in post–Cold War armed conflict. The marked reduction in inter and intra-state warfare, both worldwide and in the Americas, over the past two decades, has shifted attention to other challenges that affect people's security and enabled them to become more visible.

Prior to the ground-breaking ideas presented in these two reports, threats to the safety and security of people in general – or to women, children, ethnic groups, and other vulnerable sectors, in particular – were not sufficiently assessed as representing potential threats to the welfare of society as a whole. Poverty, the spread of diseases, environmental destruction, lack of access to clean drinking water, poor maternal health, and unemployment were not contextualised on the human security agenda, since the overriding threat was perceived as existing outside national borders and basically as a distant confrontation among the global superpowers.

Concerned with this very narrow interpretation, the UNDP proposed modifying the concept of safety, from being one based on the excessive emphasis on weapons and territorial defence to a broader one incorporating equitable access to: education, work, health, as well as a respect for human rights, as essential components of safety. This paradigmatic shift, while not relieving governments of their obligation to guarantee national security to their respective citizenry, redirects the focus

4 United Nations Development Programme. Human Development Report 1994. New York: Oxford University Press; 1994. Chapter 2: New dimensions of human security. Available from: *http://hdr.undp.org/en/reports/global/hdr1994*
5 University of British Columbia, Human Security Centre, Human security report 2005: war and peace in the 21st century. New York: Oxford University Press; 2005. Available from: *http://www.hsrgroup.org/human-security-reports/2005*

away from external threats and conflict toward the peaceful, cooperative, sustainable internal development of nations and their people.

The new paradigm of human security, as part of a larger development process, recognises the responsibility of governments to safeguard vital human freedoms. This includes protecting the population from risks and threats that can adversely affect their aspirations and quality of life, as well as creating systems that facilitate people's access to the basic rights of survival, dignity, and decent work. In this context, the gamut of human freedoms and their interrelationship become more transparent – freedom from hunger and other basic needs, freedom in the face of fear, and freedom to act in one's own name and on one's own behalf – within a framework that promotes the full realisation of human potential. The evolution of these concepts has provided new opportunities to countries and communities everywhere to address the risks and threats to human development and to implement strategies that strengthen human security.

The Commission on Human Security adopted a broad definition in its 2003 report: "to protect the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and human fulfilment." The Commission elaborated on this definition with the following explanation:

> *Human security means protecting fundamental freedoms – freedoms that are the essence of life. It means protecting people from critical (severe) and pervasive (widespread) threats and situations. It means using processes that build on people's strengths and aspirations.*[6]

The definitional problem has been chiefly in identifying where human security begins and ends. The UNDP Report discussed seven "main categories" of human security: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political.[7] The 2003 report of the Commission on Human Security referred to "political, social, environmental, economic, military, and cultural systems that together give people the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity,"[8] and suggested a list of ten "starting points" to address human security.[9] The ten "starting points" included: protecting people in violent conflict; protecting people from the proliferation of arms; supporting the human security of people on the move; establishing human security transition funds for post-conflict situations; encouraging fair trade and markets to benefit the extreme poor; providing minimum living standards everywhere; according high priority to universal access to basic health care; developing an efficient and equitable system for patent rights; empowering all people with universal basic education, through much stronger global and national efforts; clarifying the need for a global human identity while respecting the freedom of individuals to have diverse identities and affiliations.

United Nations Secretary General, Kofi Annan, suggested the broadest definition of all:

> *Human security in its broadest sense embraces far more than the absence of violent conflict. It embraces human rights and good governance, access to education and health care and ensuring that each individual has opportunities and choices to fulfil his or her own potential.*[10]

For the human security concept different users have had different primary purposes, leading to different interpretations. Some relate, as we have seen, to re-focusing discussions around questions of, 'whose security?' for instance. Two other widespread purposes have involved adding to UNDP's original concept of 'human development' (UNDP 1990): firstly, by a concern with the stability of attainment of the goods in human development; secondly, by including the good of physical security of persons.

The first of these latter two concerns leads to definitions of human security in terms of the stability of the achievement or access to goods; in particular when coping with 'downside risks', a phrase of Amartya Sen (2003). But 'human security', if defined only in terms of that phrase, would concern also the degree of stability with which the super-rich hold their super-riches. His partner phrase 'downturn with security' does not equate security to the stability of everything but rather to the removal of unacceptable risks for weaker groups. Reflecting that security is a prioritising term, and that Sen, here, discusses 'human' security, 'downturn with security' refers to securing the fulfilment of basic needs or the ability to fulfil them.

The second of the two concerns – broadening human development thinking by adding 'freedom from fear' to 'freedom from want' – involves addition of

6 Commission on Human Security, *Human Security Now,* New York, 2003 (hereinafter referred to as "Commission Report"), page 4.
7 UNDP 1994 Report, pages 24-25.
8 Commission Report, page 4.
9 Commission Report, page 13.
10 Commission Report, page 4.

personal physical security, in the sense of freedom from violence, to the list of component objectives within 'human development'. Physical security was from the mid-1990s incorporated into the definition of human development (see e.g. UNDP, 1996:56). This contributed to a confusion that some people felt in distinguishing between human security and human development.

Some users sought then to limit the meaning of human security to physical security of individuals, as sometimes espoused by the Canadian government and the Human Security Network of like-minded countries. Some authors even want to limit the concept to the physical security of persons against violent threats or, even narrower, the physical security of persons (especially non-military) during violent conflicts and against organised intentional violence. The purpose of this third answer is to broaden the scope of the security studies concept of security, beyond state and military security, and/or to change the focus, to a concern with the physical security of persons. It reacts against both the UNDP notion of human security, felt to be too broad, and the traditional notion of national security, felt to be increasingly misleading or insufficient in an era when most violent conflict is intra-national and overwhelmingly most of the casualties are civilian.

The answer of the UN Commission on Human Security (CHS 2003) gave more careful attention to the notion of 'human'. It considers what the requirements of being 'human' are, in addition to sheer existence. These requirements go beyond freedoms from fear and from want. We may add freedom from humiliation and indignity, perhaps also freedom from despair (Robinson, 2003), and, for example, the freedom of future generations to inherit a healthy natural environment. The Commission defined human security as: 'to protect the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and human fulfilment' (CHS, 2003:4). Human security so conceived concerns the securing of humanity, humankind; which must be ensured before its fuller flourishing is possible. Seen from the side of military security studies and policy, this interpretation represents an extension beyond freedom from fear. Seen from the side of human development thinking, it represents an extension beyond freedom from want, but also a narrowing to concentrate on the highest priorities within each category.

Human security, in this report, is primarily an analytical tool that focuses on ensuring security for the individual, not the state.[11]Human security will however be determined, among other factors by macro issues in the wider economic, social and political climate of a nation. These trickle down and in addition to pre-existing conditions at the micro scale, result in different degrees of human security for individuals in various households. Security can thus be summarised as 'absence of insecurity and threats', i.e. freedom from both 'fear' (of physical, sexual or psychological abuse, violence, persecution, or death) and 'want' (of gainful employment, food, and health). Human security, therefore, deals with the capacity to identify threats, to avoid them when possible, and to mitigate their effects when they do occur. This broadened use of the word 'security' encompasses two ideas: one is the notion of 'safety' that goes beyond the concept of mere physical security in the traditional sense, and the other, the idea that people's livelihoods should be guaranteed against sudden disruptions. Exploring options aimed at mitigating threats to the insecurity of individuals thus becomes a central goal of policy recommendations and actions.

1.1.3 A 'New' Computation of Human Development Indices

Prior to the computation of the 2008 Human Development Index (HDI) for the 2009 National Human Development Report (NHDR), which had as its theme "Achieving Growth with Equity", the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) had computed and published HDIs for Nigeria within the Global HDR. A key feature of the current HDI computation is the change in the method of aggregation from a simple arithmetic average to a more holistic "geometric" average. Indeed, up and till 2010, the HDI was seen and defined rather simplistically as *an arithmetic average of normalized indices* in the dimensions of health, education and income. In this report, three complementary indices are presented; namely: the Human Development Index (HDI); the *Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index* (IHDI) and the *Gender Inequality Index* (GII). It is considered that these three indices captures more accurately, the state of deprivations as well as the attendant disparities across the geo-political devide.

11 The state should be defined and understood herein as the collection of those elites, structures, mechanisms and institutions necessary to make a country function effectively.

Measuring Human Development

The Human Development Index (HDI) can be defined as a summary measure of human development within a country and based on three basic dimensions; namely: a **long and healthy life; access to knowledge** as well as **a decent standard of living.** The HDI is the geometric mean of normalized indices measuring the achievements in each dimension. The IHDI on the other hand is the actual level of human development that is accounting for the inequality. Whereas the HDI can be viewed as an index of "potential" human development that could be achieved if there was no inequality, the IHDI is an improvement over the Human Development Index; with the adjustment made for inequality in the distribution of the dimensions of Education, Income and Health. It is to say that the IHDI adjusts the HDI for inequality in the distribution of each of the dimensions across the population. The IHDI is thus computed as a geometric mean and is calculated across the population for each dimension and accounts for inequalities in HDI dimensions by discounting each dimension's average value according to its level of inequality. It thus means that the IHDI equals the HDI when there is (at least in theory) no inequality across people but is expectedly less than the HDI as inequality rises.

Measuring Gender Inequalities

Gender Inequality Index (GII) is, on the other hand, defined as the percentage of potential human development lost due to the reality of gender inequality. The GII thus reflects gender-based disadvantage or inequality in achievement and the extent to which such inequality affects human development. The GII therefore shows the loss in potential human development occurring as a result of inequality between female and male achievements in any number of dimensions. The GII measurement varies between 0 (when women and men fairly equally) - and 1 (when one gender fares as poorly as possible) in all measured dimensions. For example, a GII of 0.579 indicates a 57.9 percent loss in potential human development due to gender inequality.

In summary, in this round of Nigeria's HDI, human development is measured in three dimensions; namely: in reproductive health (measured by maternal mortality and adolescent mortality); empowerment (measured by parliamentary seats held by each gender and above secondary level educational attainment by gender) as well as by labour market (measured by labour force participation). The detailed technical notes are available at www.hdr.undp.org/en/rethinking-work-for-human-development.

1.2 The Seven Realms of Human Security and Issues of Concern

According to the 1994 UNDP HDR (UNDP, 1994), the list of threats to human security is long, but most can be considered under seven main categories:

- Economic security
- Food security
- Health security
- Environmental security
- Personal security
- Community security
- Political security

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 arises in developed countries as well. Unemployment problems constitute an important factor underlying economic security. There are other key macroeconomic indicators that affect economic security, these include real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth; agriculture, industry and service sector growth, as well as employment and poverty rates. There are also micro level issues of personal debt, personal savings, capacity for payment of mandatory bills and macro level issues of price increase, Naira devaluation and dominance of foreign producers that have the propensity to affect economic security.

Food security – Food security requires that all people at all times have both physical and economic access to basic food. This requires not just enough food to go round. It requires that people have ready access to food – that they have an "entitlement" to food, by growing it for themselves, by buying it or by taking advantage of a public food distribution system. The availability of food is thus a necessary condition of security – but not

STATE	Life Expectancy at birth	Life Expectancy Index	GNI in Million ($)	GNI Index	Educational Index	HDI Value	IHDI	Loss	Life Expectancy at birth (MALE)	Life Expectancy at birth (FEMALE)
Abia	51	0.4905	3,427.592	0.4687	0.9477	0.4923	0.4238	0.1391	50	53
Adamawa	45	0.3956	2,834.209	0.4395	0.7672	0.3653	0.3090	0.1541	42	45
Akwa Ibom	50	0.4747	4,926.994	0.5246	0.9477	0.5698	0.4816	0.1548	48	52
Anambra	49	0.4589	1,330.595	0.3231	0.9682	0.4281	0.3362	0.2147	46	51
Bauchi	46	0.4114	2,432.673	0.4160	0.5142	0.2636	0.2176	0.1745	45	50
Bayelsa	50	0.4747	15,271.836	0.6987	0.9663	0.6121	0.5577	0.0889	47	53
Benue	48	0.4430	1,732.709	0.3638	0.8558	0.4038	0.3265	0.1914	46	50
Borno	43	0.3639	1,737.369	0.3642	0.4819	0.2135	0.1744	0.1831	44	50
Cross River	55	0.5538	2,077.129	0.3917	0.9814	0.4726	0.3990	0.1557	51	57
Delta	49	0.4589	6,297.674	0.5623	0.9695	0.6090	0.5132	0.1573	47	51
Ebonyi	47	0.4272	2,486.099	0.4193	0.8009	0.3433	0.3000	0.1261	47	52
Edo	49	0.4589	3,629.771	0.4776	0.9598	0.5087	0.4309	0.1529	46	49
Ekiti	53	0.5222	2,243.520	0.4035	0.9414	0.4333	0.3725	0.1403	49	54
Enugu	52	0.5063	1,827.289	0.3719	0.9339	0.4366	0.3622	0.1704	49	53
Gombe	47	0.4272	2,311.277	0.4081	0.5467	0.2368	0.2095	0.1153	45	49
Imo	53	0.5222	2,736.138	0.4341	0.9511	0.5200	0.4346	0.1642	50	53
Jigawa	46	0.4114	1,657.163	0.3569	0.4304	0.1968	0.1613	0.1804	45	49
Kaduna	45	0.3956	2,120.885	0.3949	0.8553	0.4432	0.3473	0.2164	43	50
Kano	49	0.4589	3,038.175	0.4502	0.5950	0.3812	0.3018	0.2083	47	50
Katsina	50	0.4747	862.095	0.2563	0.5419	0.2364	0.1817	0.2314	47	52
Kebbi	52	0.5063	2,160.422	0.3977	0.4472	0.2184	0.1876	0.1410	48	50
Kogi	47	0.4272	1,889.238	0.3771	0.9071	0.4057	0.3326	0.1802	45	49
Kwara	52	0.5063	3,808.941	0.4850	0.8334	0.4316	0.3835	0.1114	49	54
Lagos	49	0.4589	3,356.092	0.4655	0.9893	0.6716	0.5245	0.2190	48	51
Nasarawa	49	0.4589	3,811.504	0.4851	0.8415	0.3983	0.3573	0.1029	45	52
Niger	50	0.4747	1,684.789	0.3594	0.6869	0.3256	0.2701	0.1705	48	54
Ogun	54	0.5380	3,491.561	0.4716	0.9331	0.5393	0.4587	0.1495	52	53
Ondo	52	0.5063	2,732.637	0.4339	0.9102	0.4768	0.4033	0.1542	50	52
Osun	54	0.5380	2,700.872	0.4321	0.9260	0.4938	0.4189	0.1517	53	56
Oyo	52	0.5063	2,197.518	0.4003	0.8523	0.4765	0.3864	0.1891	52	55
Plateau	46	0.4114	2,130.468	0.3956	0.8895	0.3995	0.3141	0.2138	43	48
Rivers	48	0.4430	4,266.860	0.5024	0.9899	0.3881	0.3158	0.1863	45	49
Sokoto	50	0.4747	867.111	0.2572	0.5070	0.1942	0.1561	0.1962	49	52
Taraba	48	0.4430	2,334.326	0.4096	0.7646	0.3315	0.2900	0.1252	47	52
Yobe	45	0.3956	1,084.112	0.2916	0.3703	0.1247	0.1063	0.1476	42	48
Zamfara	49	0.4589	1,532.215	0.3448	0.6050	0.2623	0.2217	0.1548	47	51
FCT	53	0.5222	5,309.705	0.5361	0.9218	0.5112	0.4577	0.1047	51	54
National	**48**	**0.4430**	**2,786.631**	**0.4369**	**0.8139**	**0.2712**	**0.2591**	**0.0446**	**47**	**50**

	Health				Empowerment				Labour Market		Aggregate Across Dimension Within Each Gender Group Using Geometric Means		Dimension Indices			Aggregate Across Gender Groups Using Harmonic Mean - HARM(G_F,G_M)	Geometric Mean of the Arithmetic Means of Each Indicator - G_{F+M}	GII
	Maternal Mortality Ratio** (Value)		Adolescent Fertility Rate (% aged 15-19)		Educational Attainments (%)		Share of Parliamentary Seat (%)		Labour Force Participation Rate (% of Total)				Repro-ductive Health Index	Em-power-ment Index	Labour Market Index			
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	G_F	G_M						
Nigeria	**243**	**0**	**89.0**	**0.0**	**45.0**	**55.0**	**5.8**	**94.2**	**64.5**	**70.3**	**0.131**	**0.797**	**0.511**	**0.441**	**0.674**	**0.225**	**0.533**	**0.579**
Abia	149	0	53.8	0.0	53.0	47.0	17.1	82.9	80.3	80.6	0.204	0.795	0.518	0.463	0.804	0.325	0.578	0.437
Adamawa	459	0	83.2	0.0	40.5	59.5	2.8	97.2	42.1	39.9	0.090	0.672	0.508	0.433	0.410	0.158	0.449	0.647
Akwa-Ibom	356	0	80.2	0.0	50.7	49.3	5.1	94.9	71.5	72.3	0.129	0.791	0.509	0.423	0.719	0.222	0.537	0.586
Anambra	124	0	44.1	0.0	52.2	47.8	18.2	81.8	72.6	75.3	0.212	0.778	0.521	0.467	0.740	0.334	0.565	0.409
Bauchi	379	0	73.3	0.0	30.8	69.2	0.1	100.0	50.2	49.5	0.055	0.744	0.509	0.425	0.498	0.103	0.476	0.785
Bayelsa	102	0	120.4	0.0	44.0	56.0	3.1	96.9	71.2	70.7	0.134	0.805	0.514	0.427	0.710	0.229	0.538	0.574
Benue	377	0	72.0	0.0	41.6	58.4	9.5	90.5	85.1	80.7	0.148	0.837	0.510	0.463	0.829	0.252	0.580	0.566
Borno	190	0	122.5	0.0	40.0	60.0	2.4	97.6	57.8	58.9	0.106	0.767	0.510	0.432	0.583	0.186	0.505	0.632
Cross River	179	0	104.5	0.0	46.1	53.9	5.6	94.4	72.1	68.0	0.139	0.786	0.512	0.437	0.701	0.236	0.539	0.562
Delta	203	0	40.8	0.0	49.3	50.7	7.1	92.9	69.8	69.7	0.166	0.782	0.517	0.437	0.698	0.273	0.540	0.494
Ebonyi	171	0	13.7	0.0	48.2	51.8	9.1	90.9	80.5	74.2	0.222	0.798	0.533	0.448	0.773	0.348	0.569	0.389
Edo	273	0	12.3	0.0	48.4	51.6	2.8	97.2	69.4	67.4	0.164	0.781	0.527	0.412	0.684	0.271	0.530	0.489
Ekiti	255	0	16.4	0.0	49.1	50.9	8.6	91.4	73.5	71.5	0.195	0.787	0.524	0.444	0.725	0.312	0.553	0.435
Enugu	134	0	31.5	0.0	55.8	44.2	14.3	85.7	71.3	70.9	0.214	0.759	0.524	0.449	0.711	0.334	0.551	0.395
Gombe	241	0	126.9	0.0	34.9	65.1	3.0	97.0	43.5	44.4	0.093	0.707	0.509	0.449	0.439	0.165	0.465	0.646
Imo	111	0	14.4	0.0	53.8	46.2	8.1	91.9	71.1	68.1	0.227	0.763	0.540	0.430	0.696	0.350	0.545	0.357
Jigawa	410	0	161.3	0.0	20.8	79.2	0.1	100.0	36.4	81.3	0.040	0.898	0.506	0.452	0.589	0.077	0.513	0.850
Kaduna	164	0	99.9	0.0	41.1	58.9	5.8	94.3	59.4	78.2	0.131	0.836	0.512	0.450	0.688	0.227	0.541	0.581
Kano	478	0	127.6	0.0	34.9	65.1	0.1	100.0	51.4	75.5	0.050	0.848	0.506	0.413	0.634	0.094	0.510	0.816
Katsina	433	0	149.2	0.0	29.9	70.1	0.1	100.0	57.8	83.3	0.050	0.887	0.506	0.427	0.705	0.095	0.534	0.823
Kebbi	328	0	168.5	0.0	27.3	72.7	2.9	97.1	63.3	83.4	0.091	0.888	0.507	0.464	0.733	0.165	0.557	0.704
Kogi	479	0	5.5	0.0	43.6	56.4	2.7	97.3	70.3	68.0	0.168	0.796	0.531	0.425	0.692	0.277	0.538	0.486
Kwara	489	0	15.7	0.0	44.8	55.2	21.2	78.8	79.8	69.6	0.207	0.771	0.518	0.484	0.747	0.326	0.572	0.429
Lagos	273	0	47.5	0.0	50.7	49.3	13.4	86.6	70.5	75.9	0.172	0.791	0.514	0.457	0.732	0.283	0.556	0.491
Nasarawa	332	0	56.2	0.0	39.7	60.3	0.1	100.0	51.0	69.7	0.062	0.815	0.512	0.398	0.604	0.115	0.497	0.769
Niger	260	0	100.5	0.0	38.8	61.2	10.0	90.0	33.5	53.5	0.109	0.735	0.510	0.470	0.435	0.190	0.470	0.597
Ogun	134	0	82.2	0.0	49.0	51.0	5.3	94.7	77.3	74.0	0.155	0.801	0.515	0.428	0.756	0.260	0.550	0.527
Ondo	120	0	7.4	0.0	49.3	50.7	5.3	94.7	76.4	69.3	0.236	0.783	0.553	0.427	0.728	0.362	0.556	0.349
Osun	157	0	39.1	0.0	48.2	51.8	5.3	94.7	70.0	70.6	0.165	0.791	0.520	0.430	0.703	0.273	0.540	0.494
Oyo	148	0	16.6	0.0	48.9	51.1	6.1	93.9	78.1	76.3	0.205	0.808	0.532	0.433	0.772	0.327	0.562	0.418
Plateau	257	0	53.6	0.0	43.6	56.4	0.1	100.0	44.3	41.2	0.063	0.676	0.513	0.386	0.428	0.115	0.439	0.738
Rivers	171	0	52.3	0.0	50.8	49.2	6.3	93.8	77.4	77.9	0.166	0.809	0.517	0.429	0.777	0.276	0.556	0.503
Sokoto	451	0	85.6	0.0	26.7	73.3	0.1	100.0	35.4	88.0	0.045	0.910	0.508	0.436	0.617	0.086	0.515	0.832
Taraba	212	0	51.6	0.0	35.3	64.7	6.1	93.9	52.1	52.9	0.132	0.745	0.515	0.463	0.525	0.224	0.500	0.552
Yobe	113	0	153.8	0.0	27.4	72.6	3.1	97.0	61.6	61.1	0.111	0.800	0.512	0.466	0.614	0.195	0.527	0.630
Zamfara	378	0	118.3	0.0	24.7	75.3	0.1	100.0	82.4	88.8	0.058	0.917	0.507	0.442	0.856	0.109	0.577	0.811
FCT, Abuja	349	0	28.9	0.0	52.6	47.4	0.1	100.0	48.7	45.1	0.071	0.677	0.516	0.356	0.469	0.128	0.442	0.710

a sufficient one. 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 the UN, the key is to tackle the problems relating to access to assets, work and assured income (related to economic security).

Trends and discussions on underweight children and food deficit in Nigeria help enrich our understanding of human security in the food domain. These factors are related to food availability, accessibility and adequacy. With the use of our survey data, we also discussed respondents' fear of hunger and undernourishment (household issues) as well as their fear of wider level issues of farmland abandonment, low crop yield and increased importation of food and food products.

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 industrialised 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 order to provide a clear understanding of the situation of health security in Nigeria, we analysed health/facility population ratio, health workers/population ratio and immunisation coverage which are basic issues in public health provision. Child/infant mortality rates are discussed as these are significant indicators of level of access to and quality of healthcare. Our survey data further provide insights into citizens' satisfaction with their family's health status. We also analysed citizens' perception of threats that are health related. These include the fear of becoming ill and fear of contracting diseases like HIV/AIDS and Ebola.

Environmental security – Environmental security aims to protect people from the short- and long-term ravages of nature, man-made threats, and deterioration of the natural environment. Human beings rely on a healthy physical environment to sustain their livelihoods and wellbeing. 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 of concern in developing and developed countries alike.

In our analysis of environmental security in Nigeria, we focused on the globally defined Environmental Performance Index (EPI). The index provides an aggregate performance of the environment in each country. Other indicators discussed in the study pertain to the use of improved drinking water sources/improved sanitation facility, volume of rainfall, gas flaring, CO_2 emissions and deforestation. In the same vein, we sought the citizens' perception on the extent to which environmental threats affect their sense of security.

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. Perhaps no other aspect of human security is so vital for people as their security from physical violence. In poor nations and rich, human life is increasingly threatened by sudden, unpredictable violence. The threats take several forms:

- Threats from the state (physical torture)
- Threats from other states (war)
- Threats from other groups of people (ethnic tension)
- Threats from individuals or gangs against other individuals or gangs (crime, street violence)
- Threats directed against women (rape, domestic violence)
- Threats directed at children based on their vulnerability and dependence (child abuse)
- Threats to self (suicide, drug use)
- Crime, physical and sexual violence are core issues relating to personal security in Nigeria and are discussed in this report.

Community security – Community security aims to protect people from the loss of traditional relationships and values and from sectarian and ethnic violence. Most people derive security from their membership in a group-a family, a community, an organisation, a racial or ethnic group that can provide a cultural identity and a reassuring set of values. Such groups also offer practical support. The extended family system, for example, offers protection to its weaker members, and many tribal societies work on the principle that heads of households are entitled to enough land to support their family – so land is distributed accordingly. But traditional communities can also perpetuate oppressive practices: employing bonded labour and slaves and treating women particularly harshly. In Africa, hundreds of thousands of girls suffer genital mutilation each year because of the traditional practice of female circumcision. Some of these traditional practices are breaking down under the steady process of modernisation. The extended family is now less likely to offer support to a member in distress. Traditional languages and cultures are withering under the onslaught of mass media. On the other hand, many oppressive practices are being fought by people's organisations and through legal action. Traditional communities, particularly ethnic groups, can also come under much more direct attack – from each other. About half of the world's states have experienced some inter-ethnic strife. The United Nations declared 1993 the Year of Indigenous Peoples to highlight the continuing vulnerability of the 300 million aboriginal people in 70 countries as they face a widening spiral of violence.

Given that crime is central to the issue of community security, this report discussed crime and related issues of prison inmate population and violent deaths to enable us appreciate levels of community security in Nigeria. Survey respondents also gave their perception of security concerns at the community level and their satisfaction with sense of community belonging.

Political security – Political security is concerned with whether people live in a society that honours their basic human rights. According to a survey conducted by Amnesty International, political repression, systematic torture, ill treatment or disappearance was still practised in 110 countries. Human rights violations are most frequent during periods of political unrest. Along with repressing individuals and groups, governments may try to exercise control over ideas and information. These issues form the core components of political security. However, due to unavailability of data on these in the Nigerian context, we have employed other proxies to enable us demonstrate the situation of political security in the Nigerian environment. We therefore discussed issues of women participation in the political space and limitations on democracy (which is a form of political repression) in addition to discussions of survey findings on respondents' self-assessed abilities to influence risks in the political space.

The above realms of human security contain a listing of threatened values (or sets of values), not of specific threats/threat vectors. It was presented as an initial framework for looking at values at risk, and the systems of threats that can endanger them. It was not intended to entrench a silo-approach in which the categories are considered in isolation. As articulated by Haq (1995), a human focus demands a comprehensive analytical perspective; a transdisciplinary systems approach, that captures O'Brien and Leichenko's (2007) 'connectivity dimension'. For human lives are not sectoral, but are created and constituted by the intersections of all aspects; the intersections involve not merely the addition of separate effects, but major interactions. Unless this interconnectedness is kept in mind, there is a danger that freedoms and choices will be analysed as if they were separable, additive goods that can be aggregated like the commodities in a budget set.

The 1994 Human Development Report, in fact, noted that the categories overlap and do not cover all relevant issues. Overlaps arise because the seven areas were not all identified by the same criterion, and they were somewhat arbitrarily selected and delineated. For example:

- Food security and environmental security can be seen as inputs towards health and other more fundamental values. Reflecting this, the 1994 report's discussion of environmental (in)security was about a diverse set of threats more than about a separate set of 'environmental' values.

- 'Economic security' included housing as well as employment and income, but we could easily make 'shelter' a separate security category. Further, economic security and food security are often closely related, especially in rural settings.

- 'Personal security' covered diverse concerns: security from physical violence, other crimes against life and property, accidents, abuse and self-abuse (e.g. drugs), and neglect.

- 'Community security' covered threats from intercommunity conflict, plus the rights of indigenous peoples, and more. Intercommunity conflict is indeed worth considering separately from (other) physical violence (which was placed under 'personal security') if group identity is considered an important value and psychological violence an important threat.

- 'Political security' referred to respect for 'basic human rights'. If the phrase meant basic civil and political rights, then 'political security' could absorb much or all of 'personal security'. It perhaps then refers instead to basic political rights alone.

A major gap in the 1994 list concerns psychological security, which rarely corresponds to an existing policy portfolio or department title. Instead this theme can and should be combined with every type of sectoral focus. Over time, the centrality of psychological security and insecurity to human security analysis and human security policies has become increasingly clear. They are central to well-being and ill-being, to peace and conflict, and to effective personal agency. 'Personal security' is perhaps the 1994 category that links most readily to psychological security (though community security and health security also connect). This is one reason why, despite its weak conceptualisation in 1994, 'personal security' has become a robust area of attention in work on human security.

1.3 Human Development and Human Security: A Nexus

Human security analysis is an aspect of human development analysis broadly conceived, an approach initiated by Haq, Sen and associates. The same researchers formulated human security and human development as part of the same enterprise.

Human development and human security are, in fact, inseparable: whereas human development seeks to increase peoples' options, opportunities and access to public services and goods, and emphasises what can be achieved, human security focuses on the risks, dangers, and threats to human development, evaluates the degree of confidence that people have in public services and goods, and emphasises what can be lost when human potential is thwarted (Tadjbakhsh and Chenoy, 2007).

If we see human development analysis as including attention to basic needs and to threats, disruptions and fluctuations, as it should and typically does, then human security analysis is a wing or dimension within it. If though human development analysis looks only at creation and expansion of valuable capabilities, then human security analysis adds special attention to the counterpart concerns: vulnerabilities, risks and forces of disruption and destruction. The two types of analysis can then be described as partners: "…work on human security recognises that situations are not stable, and that we must plan not only for how to fulfil aspirations but how to deal with threats and adversities, many of which are situation-specific, group-specific, intersectional" and require locally determined response (Frediani et al. 2014, p. 7).[12]

Human development is measured by the Human Development Index (HDI). This index actually measures the average achievements in a country in three basic dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living.[13] The strong connection between human development and human security brings us to consider if conceptualising the human security index would be possible.

Fundamental precondition for sustainable development is empowerment of people, referring to their education. By educating them, the key barrier to human development – human mind – can be surpassed. Means for achieving sustainable human development are rule of law, respect for human rights, economic development, social development, environmental development and creation of adequate norms and regimes. Many peace-building practices around the world reflect how development is connected to safety of people. Safe environment is a precondition for implementation of any kind of developmental projects, which further influence the wellbeing of population. A population with more satisfied basic needs is less likely to turn to violence in solving its problems.

The paper by Tadjbakhsh and Chenoy (2007) posit that human development and human security are indistinctly linked given that progress in one enhances the choices of progress in another, while failure in one increases risk of failure of another. Human security is a necessary condition for both development and

12 The 2010 Human Development Report adopted the 'separate but equal' formulation: "Human development and human security are distinct concepts—the first relating to expanding people's freedoms and the second to ensuring against threats to those freedoms." (UNDP 2010, p. 17). But later on the same page it moved to the 'part of the whole' formulation: "Human security is not an alternative to human development – it is a critical part of it that focuses on creating a minimum set of capabilities and protecting them from pervasive threats" (ibid.). Staying with the latter formulation, we can say that human (in)security covers both deprivation and vulnerability, not only the latter as proposed on p. 85 of the report.

13 Human development index is calculated for 177 countries and areas of the world. Information. Available online at: *http://hdr.undp.org/en/*.

human development. Beyond a certain threshold of human security crisis, development may get disrupted. Development on the other hand, is only a sufficient condition for human security. In severely deteriorated human security conditions, human development conditions also regress and *vice versa*. Human security is therefore a condition defined by an approximate threshold of security conditions. Beyond these threshold conditions, there is high insecurity and increased threat to life and existence for humans and it is here that human security acquires its greatest relevance. Human development, meanwhile, is a gradient of human condition measurable by indicators. Conditions generated by development are conducive to the enhancement of human security. They may actually contribute positively to a fragile security situation. There is positive reinforcement from enhanced human security to development again.

Lack of development and the prevalence of insecurity have common roots in horizontal inequalities – unequal allocation of economic, cultural and political resources among identity groups defined by characteristics such as class, ethnicity, profession, geographic origin or religion. Human security is necessary but not sufficient for human fulfilment and should be consistent with ongoing human development by supporting participation, freedom, institutional appropriateness and diversity. Human rights can be seen as a bridge between human security and human development. Neither human development nor human security can occur where human rights are routinely violated. But at the same time, development cannot ensure horizontal equality, without which insecurities remain as do potential conflicts.

Human development and human security are both concerned with human freedoms, and they both seek to address the same root causes: horizontal inequalities, human insecurities. 'Same goals, different scopes', as the *Human Security Now* report states (CHS, 2003). Human development and human security thus appear as two parallel processes that go hand in hand. Progress in one enhances the chances of progress in the other, while failure in one enhances the chances of failure in the other. Human security and human development are therefore overall sister concepts with mutually beneficial cross-contributions. Narrow human security is the pre-condition for development, the initial impetus of development then helping to widen human security concerns, while human security is also a way to prioritise efforts, which is sometimes lacking in strict development thinking.

In Nigeria, underdevelopment continues to be deeply rooted in poverty. Its impact on the capacity of individuals and societies to assume a leading role in their own change remains the main obstacle to achieving equitable and sustainable development. The real wealth of the nation is its people, both men and women, and the purpose of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives. The underlying human development issues of today are both achieving an ethical distribution of the available wealth, and an equitable access to the benefits of growth. A refurbished discourse about development emphasises the availability and better use of resources, both natural and economic, as keys to poverty eradication and alleviation efforts. However, it is the persistent accumulation of wealth among a few and the unequal distribution of the benefits of growth that continue to make development unsustainable. Despite economic growth, Nigeria faces severe social problems. In other words, recent progress has not generated more opportunities for the poor nor has it distributed benefits more efficiently. If the policies and adjustments to combat poverty do not go beyond the predominant neo-classical economic interpretation of development, the solutions to be found are likely to have limited impact on the pervading inequities affecting the growing disadvantaged sectors of society.

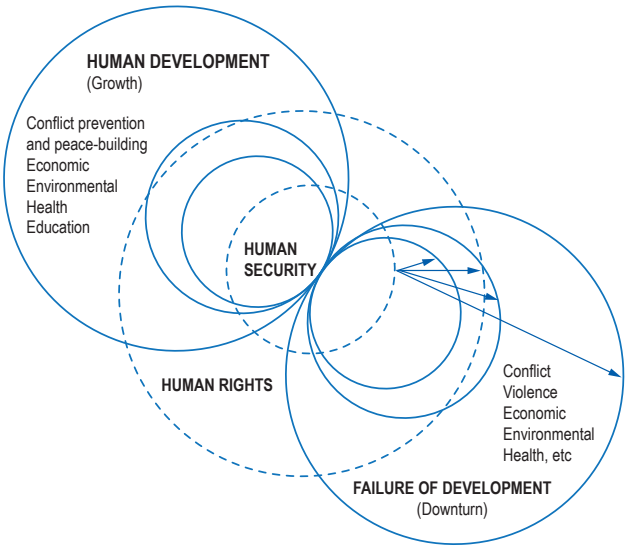
As defined by the UNDP (1990), human development is a process of enlarging people's choices. In principle, these choices can be infinite and can change over time. But at all levels of development, the three essential issues are for people to lead a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge and to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living. If these essential choices are not available, many other opportunities remain inaccessible. But human development does not end there. Additional choices, highly valued by many people, range from political, economic and social freedom to opportunities for being creative and productive and enjoying personal self-respect and guaranteed human rights.

Sustainable human development addresses both equity within and among generations – enabling all generations, present and future, to make the best of their capabilities. It brings the development process within the carrying capacity of nature, giving the highest priority to environmental regeneration – to protect the opportunities of future generations. Tadjbakhsh and Chenoy (2007), provide a succinct description of the relationship between human development and human security. See Figure 1.1.

1.4 The Responsibility for Human Security

As highlighted in the Afghanistan NHDR 2004, because human security is a public good that belongs to all and cannot be exclusive, it entails a responsibility for the state to provide guarantees that people will not fall below an acceptable threshold, but also a corresponding duty among people to remain engaged. It is in response to its citizens that the state finds its meaning and moral legitimacy. As the *Human Security Now* report puts it, "achieving Human Security includes not just protecting people but also empowering people to fend for themselves."[14] Human security is thus not a mere challenge of "protection" and "provision", but one of empowerment and participation. If the state is to be entrusted with the responsibility to provide public goods, people have to be able to engage it in order to hold it accountable. People are not only passive recipients of "security", or even mere victims of its absence, but active subjects who can contribute directly to identifying and implementing solutions to the dilemma of insecurity. Security is not an objective good that can be delivered from the outside, but ultimately a public good and a subjective feeling that requires a conscious willingness to be "provided" by the state and the capacity to be requested by the people.

Figure 1. 1: Human Security as the securitisation of human development (growth) to protect from threats and failures of development (downturn)



Source: Tadjbakhsh, S and Chenoy, A.M (2007).

14 Commission on Human Security 2003

1.5 Security and Sense of Security

The concepts of 'security' and 'insecurity' have relative connotations in different contexts. For some, insecurity comes from sudden loss of guarantee of access to jobs, health care, social welfare, education, etc. For others insecurity stems from violation of human rights, extremism, domestic violence, spread of conflicts, displacement, etc. To be meaningful, therefore, security needs to be redefined as a subjective experience at the micro level in terms of people's experience. For example, 'security' for a farmer in Benue State, a food basket in Nigeria, is the livelihood he gains from selling his crops, but this form of security is very different from the 'security' interests of a Lagos indigene who is keen to become a financial giant. For a school teacher in Ekiti State, security is the possibility to educate his children and invest in the construction of his house, confident that the little he has today would not be taken away from him tomorrow – a different matter from that of the coalition troops in Borno State, fearful of a suicide attack or a renewal of insurgency by the Boko Haram.

The original feature of the Latvia report (UNDP, 2003) is its development of the concept of 'securitability' – the aggregation of subjective and objective factors that impact a person's sense of security. Through this framework, the report assesses the status of human security in Latvia, using the ratings of different levels of insecurity experienced by individuals. Human security involves two interconnected dimensions – an objective state of security and a subjective sense of security. *Security* is the actual state of being free from threat, while *sense of security* can be defined as the inner state of feeling secure. A *sense of security* is the cumulative effect of a set of subjective and objective factors.

People stand to improve their circumstances greatly by improving their *securitability. Securitability* implies that there are both objective and subjective issues at play in achieving a sense of security. Each person is influenced by a series of situations (events and conditions) in their lives. Depending on whether an individual has a high or low degree of *securitability,* he or she can perceive a given situation as either an opportunity, a warning signal to avoid or prevent a risk, or a risk itself.

The degree of securitability that one has affects how one will react to situations. Individuals possessing a high degree of *securitability* are able to act on their own or together with like-minded people at the family, community and national levels to increase their security. Their sense of security may occasionally suffer, but only temporarily. Even if they are not aware of it, they

use risk-management skills to deal with the situation at hand. They make use of the lessons they have learnt and develop their own personal security strategies to regain both their subjective sense of security and objective state of security.

This report includes the *securitability* framework in assessing the status of human security in Nigeria.

The Centrality of Studying Perceptions

Relevant to all experiences is a methodological feature that has become recognized as central in the study of human security: identifying and examining perceptions about insecurity (Jolly and Basu Ray 2006, Gómez *et. al.*, 2013). There are several reasons for the crucial role of perceptions in human security studies, not limited to cases of conflict or crime but crossing all study of insecurity (Acharya et al. 2011, Inglehart and Norris 2012, Kostovicova *et. al.*, 2012, Mine and Gómez 2013). The process of capturing perceptions offers a good opportunity to give voice to affected populations. The plurality of these voices becomes essential to grasping the complexity of situations and carefully tailoring sustainable strategies in response. The methodology reveals the human face of vulnerability and shows how insecurity and agency interact in daily life (Kostovicova *et. al.*, 2012). Evidence-gathering through dialogue also allows insight into aspects of security that cannot be documented in any other form. Research on people's perceptions offers direct feedback on policy efforts and sheds light on the burden of fear in their lives. Perception-gathering on crime in particular enables us to: contrast perceptions with official statistics, capture public opinion on institutional performance, and understand the consequences and costs of possibly disproportionate fear of crime among the population.

The inclusion of perceptions in the assessment of personal insecurity makes the 'personal security' category a gateway for enriching security thinking and practice. As a result of the heterogeneous nature of the Nigerian state, human security means different things to different people. In some geo-political zones of the country, human security is seen from the lens of violence occasioned by terrorism. Terrorism causes fear and anxiety, affecting the psychological well-being of the populations that feel targeted. It is malevolent, in large part random, and directed not only to immediate victims but also to an audience, delivering a message about the zero moral worth of some of them. Terrorism, like other violence and crime, "disrupts one's sense of being safe within one's own community; the sense of trust in the normal everyday workings of life" (Wolfendale 2007, pp. 81-82). The general population often becomes ready to forego some freedoms and to support harsher punishments in order to regain a sense of security. In other zones of Nigeria, human (in) security is seen as deprivation of the good things of life (particularly economic, political, personal, food and health security issues), mostly as a result of poor governance and the nation's failure to harness its rich natural resources and considerable growth potential for broad-based development. For Nigeria, we can broadly define human security as the protection of individuals from risks to their physical or psychological safety, dignity and wellbeing.

1.6 Conclusions

This chapter has traced the origin and the reasons for a report on human security. It has provided an insight into the seven realms of human security and given an understanding into the nexus between human development and human security. The next chapter therefore examines the status of human development as well as a socio-economic profile of Nigeria.

"In other zones of Nigeria, human (in)security is seen as deprivation of the good things of life (particularly economic, political, personal, food and health security issues), mostly as a result of poor governance and the nation's failure to harness its rich natural resources and considerable growth potential for broad-based development."

2.
STATUS OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND NIGERIA'S SOCIO-ECONOMIC

2.0 Introduction

This chapter dwells on the status of human development and the Nigeria specific country profile. The first component of this chapter discusses the status of human development in Nigeria looking at trends in human development indicators such as human development index (HDI), GNI per capita, GNI index, life expectancy at birth (in years), life expectancy Index, Under 5 Mortality rate over 1000 live births, educational index and multidimensional poverty Index. It also dwells on analysis of development and progress in components of human development indices and factors influencing them. In this respect, focus is on life expectancy, the economy and the role of harmful social conditions, knowledge, learning and literacy as well as income and standard of living.

The second component of the chapter dwells on the country's profile and how the status of the components of the profile influence state of security. The profile components analysed are economic, social and institutional contexts. Under economic context, focus is on the GDP, the economic blueprints, poverty and unemployment while under social context, focus is on population dynamics, gender issues, conflicts, health and education. The aspect of institutional components dwells on traditional, social, cultural organisations and conflict resolutions while under political components, attention is given to post independence government and politics, foreign relations, resource and environmental issues.

2.1 The Status of Human Development in Nigeria

2.1.1 The Status of Composite Human Development Indicators in Nigeria

The status of human development in Nigeria has not shown remarkable improvement in spite of the changes in the social and economic conditions in recent years. The social conditions can be explained by the trends in the political development and investments in the social sectors, particularly education and health; while economic conditions can be assessed by the trends in key economic development indicators such as per capita income, GDP growth, poverty headcount ratio, and unemployment rate. Investments in education and health sectors are still considered relatively far below the level that can appreciably result in rapid improvement in the human capital outlay of the country. The economic conditions with respect to income and national output has increased in recent years resulting in Nigeria's being one of fastest growing economies in the world and the largest economy in Africa. As shown in Table 2.2, the GNI per capita progressively increased from ₦4,597 in 2009 to ₦5,353 in 2013. However, economic growth in Nigeria has not been associated with poverty reduction and unemployment has not abated. This paradox of growth with increasing poverty and unemployment has limited the capacity to improve human development status of Nigeria in spite of the positive influence of participatory democracy. As shown in Table 2.1, the

Table 2. 1 Trends in human development indicators

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
HDI		0.462	0.467	0.50	0.504
IHDI				0.276	0.300
GNI per capita (2011 ppp$)	4597	4716	4949	5176	5353
GNI index	0.578	0.582	0.589	0.596	0.601
Life expectancy at birth (in years)	50.8	51.3	51.7	52.1	52.5
Life expectancy index	0.474	0.481	0.488	0.494	0.5
Mean years of schooling	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2
< 5 mortality rate (per 1000 life births)		132	128	12.4	124
Educational Index		0.8686			0.8139
(Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI)	0.31*				0.247

*2008 value

Sources: Human Development Report (various years), NBS (2015)

Human development index (HDI) increased from 0.50 in 2012 to 0.504 in 2013. The inequality adjusted HDI (IHDI) also declined from 0.276 in 2012 to 0.259 in 2013. This suggests that the status of human progress in Nigeria has improved slightly from 2012 to 2013. The level of improvement could have been higher if there had not been precarious environment created by insurgency and political tension arising from the contentious preparations for the 2015 general elections by political parties. In the next section, the status of various components of the HDI in Nigeria is discussed.

2.1.2 Components of Human Development Indices

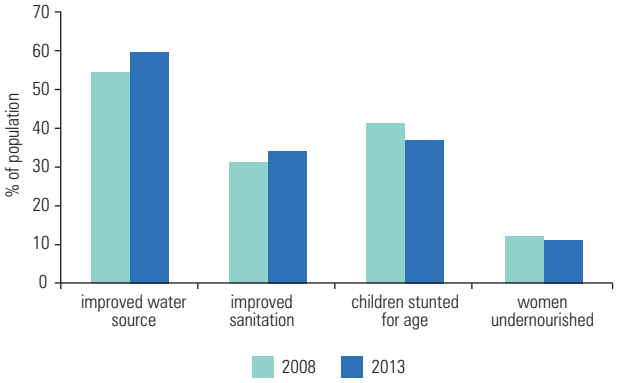
The basic dimensions of human development which are aggregated to form the HDI are discussed in this section. These dimensions are – a long and healthy life; knowledge, learning and literacy; income and a decent standard of living. A fourth dimension – participation and rights has been added for completeness. Given the fact that underlying data and methods for computing the HDI has changed over the years, comparing values and rankings in HDI and composite indices over time may be misleading. A safer and more meaningful analysis of trends can however be achieved when the component indicators which portray performance in the various dimensions are considered as attempted in this section.

A long and healthy life

Currently, life expectancy remains the only indicator for the health dimension of HDI. This however encapsulates several variables and is itself determined by various factors, hence its comprehensiveness. Life expectancy at birth is the average number of years a new-born infant would be expected to live if health and living conditions at the time of birth remained the same throughout life. It reflects the health of a people, the quality of care they receive when ill as well as social, economic and environmental conditions which mitigates or predisposes to morbidity and mortality. Life expectancy has been on the increase since 2009. However, NBS statistics in this respect differs. Demographic and health factors such as the quality of preventive and curative healthcare facilities and access to these, impact on life expectancy directly; while social conditions equally impact length and quality of life through a less direct path. The persistence of harmful social conditions such as war, conflict, crime, terrorist attacks and accidents in various forms will ultimately diminish life expectancy at birth.

Reductions in infant and under five mortality rates, increased access to nutritious food, and to primary health care, access to improved water sources and sanitation are all expected to be positively correlated with increased life expectancy at birth. Education is equally a key factor as it moderates behaviour and influences lifestyle habits alongside with preventive care. A number of these correlates have shown improvement in the past couple of years as depicted in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2. 1: Factors Associated with Life Expectancy (demographic and health)



Sources: National Population Commission, DHS 2008&2013

The proportion of the population with access to an improved water source increased in 2013 from what it was in 2008. Similarly there was increase in proportion with access to improved sanitation between the same periods. For nutrition related variables, data shows a decrease in the proportion of stunted children, while proportion of undernourished women declined marginally. Given that demographic and health factors are showing improvements, declining life expectancy at birth between the years 2012 and 2013 may be attributed to harmful social conditions, specifically, terrorist attacks, religious and ethnic conflicts and related crimes. These have increased in scope and intensity across the Nigerian landscape in recent years.

Factors associated with life expectancy – role of harmful social conditions

Nigeria has not been spared violent crimes, ethnic conflicts and terror attacks in the past couple of years. The Institute for Economics and Peace (IE&P), 2014 reports that over 80 per cent of lives lost to terrorist activities in 2013 occurred in only five countries, of which Nigeria is one. While IE&P (2014) observes

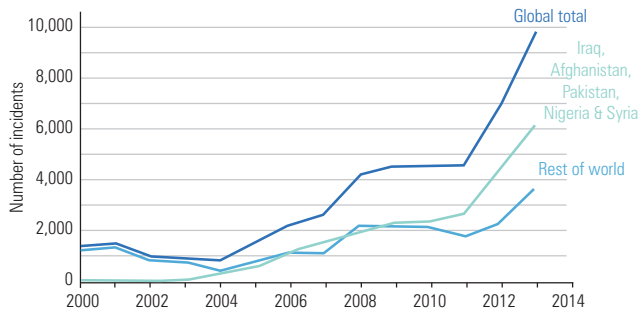
that poverty, other economic factors and broader development factors such as life expectancy and mean years of schooling have little explanatory power on the onset of terrorism, there is reason to believe that reverse effects may occur with respect to terrorism and other such harmful social conditions. This is especially so in Nigeria where improvements have been recorded with respect to demographic and health factors but life expectancy figures have dipped all the same.

Figure 2.2 shows Nigeria along with Iraq, Afghanistan, Pakistan and Syria accounting for the highest number of terrorist incidents and driving up the global trend over the last fourteen years. The Global Terrorism Index (GTI) is a comprehensive measure based on a study that accounts for the direct and indirect impact of terrorism in terms of lives lost, injuries, property damage and the psychological after effects of terror acts. The study covers 99.6 per cent of the world's population. In 2013, Nigeria's GTI score was 8.58/10, with 10 representing the worst case value. The country ranked fourth in terms of number of terror attacks.

According to IE&P (2014) over 107,000 lives have been claimed as a result of terrorist incidents over the period 2000-2013. Since the year 2000, there has been a five-fold surge in such incidents and in 2013 alone, 18,000 deaths were attributed to terrorist incidents.

Figure 2. 2: Terrorism Incidents 2000-2013

In 2013, 60per cent of all attacks occurred in five countries, iraq, Afghanistan, Pakistan, Nigeria and Syria. However the rest of the world suffered a 54 per cent increase in terrorist incidents in 2013.



Source: Global Terrorism Database (GTD) in IE&P (2014)

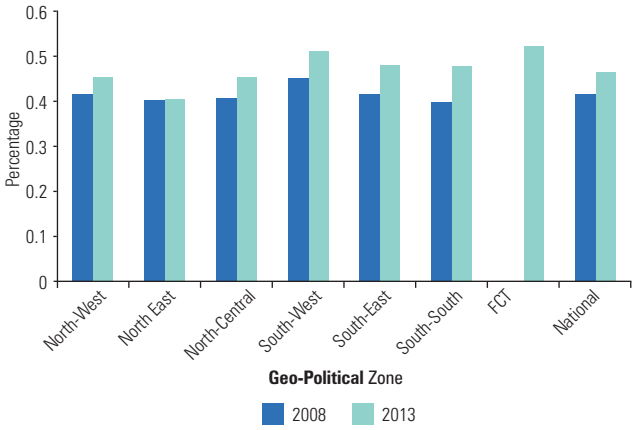
Road Traffic Accidents (RTAs) and other forms of accidents such as domestic private fires also feature as harmful social conditions in Nigeria as a result of which rising mortality figures have been recorded. Road accident casualties rose by 32.5 per cent between 2009 and 2010 from 16,716 to 22,160; while the number of lives lost to domestic private fires increased from 24 to 149 during the same time (NBS, 2012). These harmful social conditions threaten to erode the gains in demographic and health related factors and so detract from life expectancy in Nigeria.

Mitigating harmful social conditions relate to the provision of other infrastructure types other than health. There is the need for physical infrastructure in the form of good roads and firefighting equipment for example. Overcoming the challenge of terrorist attacks requires an improved security architecture in the Nigerian landscape with a focus on enabling social conditions (which translates to human security) as the bedrock for development. Political stability, intergroup cohesion and state legitimacy are correlates identified by IE&P (2014) as holding significant explanatory factors for the onset of terrorism. Efforts to improve these critical factors should be strengthened in order to effectively prevent harmful social conditions and mitigate their impacts where they already exist.

Life expectancy index

Although the national data shows there are declines in life expectancy at birth between 2012 and 2013, the life expectancy index for Nigeria presented in Figure 2.3 shows improvement from 0.415 in 2008 to 0.464 in 2013.

Figure 2. 3: Life Expectancy Index for Nigeria



Sources: NHDR Team 2008-2009 in UNDP, 2008-2009; NBS, 2015

The increase in life expectancy index over the two years occurred in all geopolitical zones. In both years (2008 & 2013), life expectancy index was highest in the South-West and lowest in the North-East. Incidentally, the North-East geopolitical zone is mostly troubled by security challenges and incidence of terrorist attacks in Nigeria. The Federal Capital Territory (FCT) has the

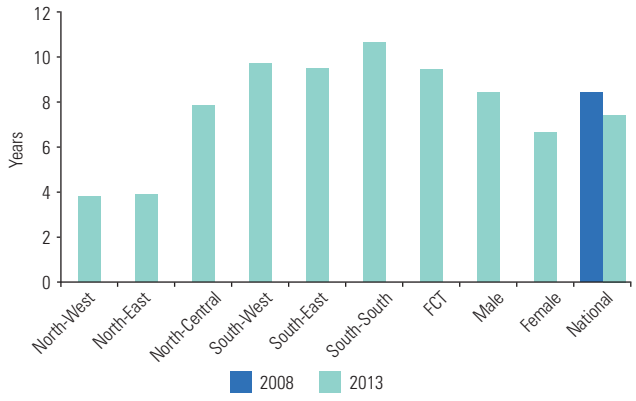
highest life expectancy index in 2013 when compared with geopolitical zones as well as with the national average. The relatively high life expectancy index for the FCT reflects the capital territory's prosperity and better quality of life of residents. The residents in the FCT comprise largely of middle income and high income groups; although there are lower middle and low income residents in the suburbs.

There is an observable North-South divide with respect to the life expectancy index. The North-East and North-Central had values lower than the national average value in 2008, while the North-West approximated the same as the national value. Meanwhile all the zones in the south recorded values higher than the national average in 2008. In 2013, the pattern was similar, all zones in the north had life expectancy index values lower than the national average value, while the southern zones had indices higher than the national average value.

Knowledge, Learning and Literacy

The educational index which is computed using Mean Years of Schooling (MYS) and Expected Years of Schooling (EYS) reflect the knowledge, learning and literacy of a people. Across the geo-political zones, data for 2013 shows that mean years of schooling was highest in the South-South zone (10.664) and lowest in the North-West zone (3.8126) as shown in Figure 2.4. The North-East and North-West zones had values lower than the national average figure, while the southern zones all had higher values than the national average figure. Nationally, there was a drop in MYS from 8.4333 in 2010 to 7.404 in 2013. At the national level, males have higher MYS (8.4 years) than females (6.6 years).

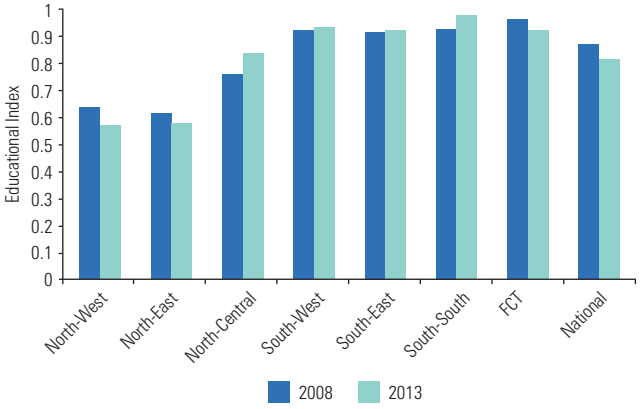
Figure 2. 4: Mean Years of Schooling in Nigeria



Source: NBS (2015)

The educational index across geopolitical zones presented in Figure 2.5 shows there were declines in the North-West, North-East, in the FCT and in the nation as a whole between 2010 and 2013. However, other zones in the south and the North-Central zone experienced increase in the educational index.

Figure 2. 5: Nigeria's Educational Index



Source: NBS, 2015

Income and a Decent Standard of Living

Decency in living standards incorporates factors related to income, health, assets and inequality. The degree to which there is decency in living standard is the degree to which people have overcome poverty. Poverty measures are therefore useful in explaining decent living standards. The Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) represents a holistic measure of people's deprivations in health, education and standard of living using ten indicators across these dimensions. The MPI combines information on the proportion or incidence of people's deprivations as well as the intensity of these deprivations (NBS, 2015). The index can also be decomposed by population sub-groups.

Nationally, the MPI value of 0.247 in 2013 is an improvement over that recorded in 2008 (0.31). Table 2.2 shows a breakdown of MPI for the geopolitical zones and the FCT, with the South-West recording the least MPI value of 0.154 in 2013. This indicates that the combined measure of the incidence and the intensity of poverty is lowest in the South-West zone in 2013. Since the MPI represents a combined measure of deprivation across dimensions of education, health and living standards, a similar pattern showing better performance in the south as opposed to the northern geopolitical zones is observed for MPI. The northern geopolitical zones have the highest MPI values.

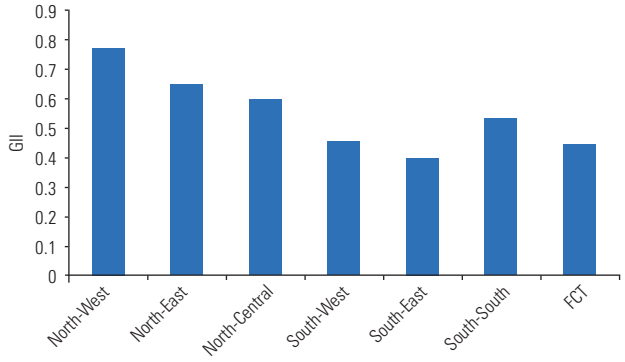
However, the proportion of people deprived in nutrition is relatively low in the northern zones compared with the South-West and South-East zones. The North-East in fact has the least contribution of deprivation from nutrition. This finding may not be divorced from the most recent development programme of government tagged the Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA). The Growth Enhancement Scheme (GES), one of the programmes implemented under the ATA recorded a laudable performance in improved production of arable crops and livestock through the provision of subsidised inputs to farmers. While the GES is of national coverage, initial start off was in the northern zones and implementation in the zones has been particularly widespread. Deprivation for people in the northern zones is therefore attributed more to lack of household infrastructure (electricity, sanitation and drinking water) and lack of assets.

The breakdown of the overall MPI value by state as shown in the source data (NBS, 2015) indicates that the top five least deprived states were Lagos, Abia, Ogun, Anambra and Rivers in that order. These are all southern states. Conversely, the top five most deprived states were all located in the north and they are Taraba, Sokoto, Kebbi, Bauchi and Katsina in that order.

Apart from the MPI, inequality measures are also useful in assessing decency and living standards. If growth is occurring in an economy, and such an economy still exhibits high inequality indices, then such growth is said to be non-inclusive. Non inclusive growth contradicts the principle of decent living standards and mitigates desirable development outcomes. The Gender Inequality Index (GII) is a measure of inequality between males and females in the population. It incorporates three dimensions namely reproductive health, empowerment and labour market. Indicators for these dimensions include maternal mortality rates (MMR), Adolescent Fertility Rates (AFR), share of parliament seats for males and females, and labour force participation rate. The higher the value of GII the wider the inequality gaps between males and females. Figure 2.6 shows GII for Nigeria and across geopolitical zones in 2013.

The GII is highest in the North-West (0.774) and lowest in the South-East (0.397). All the southern geopolitical zones had GII values lower than the national average (0.579), while the northern zones all had GII values higher than the national average figure. The implications are that the indicators for the GII dimensions (MMR, AFR, share of parliament seats, and labour force participation rates) perform better in the southern states than in the northern states.

Figure 2. 6: Nigeria's Gender Inequality Index (GII) by Geopolitical Zones in 2013



Source: NBS, 2015

The underlying factors in the unequal distribution of wealth and development outcomes may be further explained by a comparison of the share of population

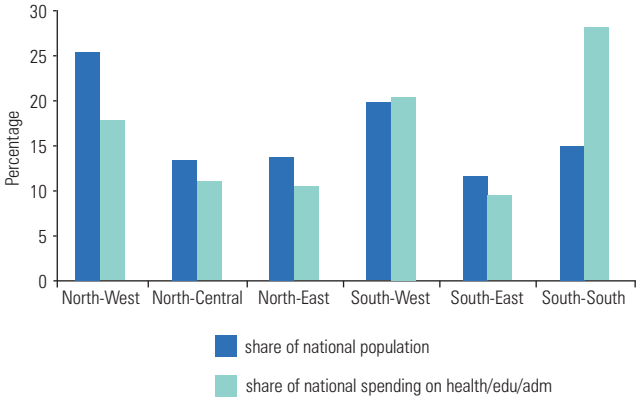
Table 2. 2: Censored Headcounts in Nigeria and Contribution of Deprivation to MPI in 2013 with K=2.5

Geopolitical zone	MPI value1	Proportion of people who are poor and deprived in…				
		Nutrition	Electricity	Sanitation	Drinking Water	Assets
Northwest	0.315	0.169	0.581	0.056	0.436	0.805
Northeast	0.329	0.117	0.696	0.106	0.541	0.833
Northcentral	0.285	0.136	0.528	0.375	0.365	0.797
Southwest	0.154	0.22	0.208	0.234	0.407	0.762
Southeast	0.176	0.334	0.302	0.173	0.427	0.755
South-south	0.194	0.19	0.259	0.263	0.322	0.807
FCT	0.22	0.172	0.311	0.289	0.251	0.7
National	0.247	0.168	0.436	0.192	0.415	0.794
*National (2008)	0.31					

*Sources: NBS, 2015; *HDR, 2013*

spending on key sectors such as education and health. Spending connotes investment and investments are expected to yield returns. Figure 2.7 shows population shares as well as shares of expenditure on education, health and public administration, and attempts a comparison of these variables across the geo-political zones. The pattern shows that the northern zones and the South-East record lower shares of spending than shares of national population. Wider disparities in shares of the two variables are noticeable in the northern zones. South-West recorded a slightly higher spending (20.4%) than its share of population (19.8%), while the South-South zone has by far, a higher share of spending (28.2%) than its share of population (14.9%). The expected returns on investment in education and health are improved knowledge, learning, literacy and better opportunities for advancement; increased life expectancy as well as wider socio economic benefits.

Figure 2. 7: Population and Expenditures on Education, Health and Public Administration in Nigeria, 2013



Source: Calculated from NBS (2015)

Differential access to education and its role as an important contributor to inequality in Nigeria has also been demonstrated. The computation of IHDI for Nigeria in 2012 and the disaggregation of losses show that the proportion of loss due to inequality in education was the highest of losses accounted for by the different component dimensions of the HDI. Loss due to inequality in income was 34.5 per cent, loss due to inequality in life expectancy at birth was 43.8 per cent, while the loss due to inequality in education was 45.2 per cent. This pattern is instructive and points to education as a key sector to watch in reducing inequality across geopolitical zones and across rural/urban divides in terms of availability and access.

2.2 Nigeria's Socio-economic Profile

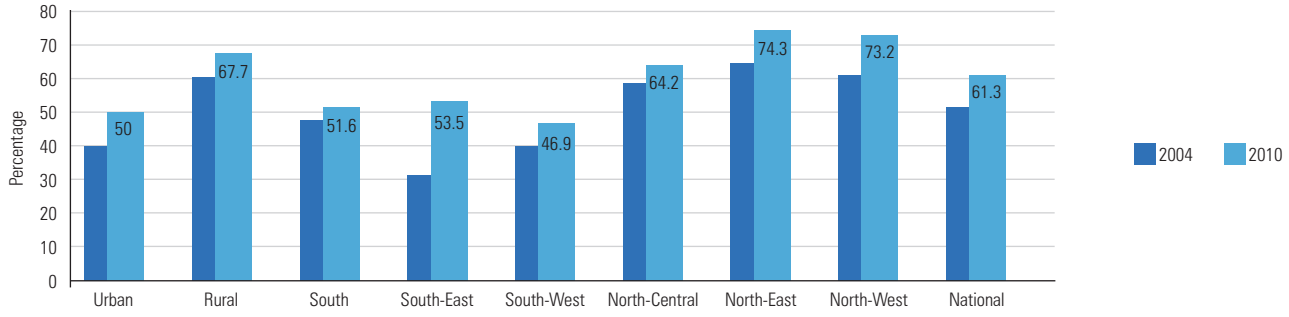
2.2.1 Economic Context

With a rebased GDP estimate of $454billion in 2012 and $510billion in 2013 (compared with the $259 billion and $270 billion that were reported previously), the Nigerian economy is rated in terms of GDP size as the largest in Africa. The country is among the world's largest oil producers: ranked as the 12th largest in the world, and the 6th in Africa. Nigeria's oil resources are located mainly in the Niger Delta region. Despite her enormous endowment and huge petrodollar income however, the country has continued to grapple with many developmental challenges and governance deficit. This disconnect between development priorities and resource allocation, among others explains the challenges and deficit. The parlous situation is aggravated by the fact that the Nigerian economy is largely not diversified, is inefficient and lacks equity in allocation. These features have continued to impact negatively on both human security and human development of her citizenry.

Nigeria's economic performance since attaining independence in 1960 has been profoundly disappointing. After a brief spurt of growth in the 1960s, the concurrence of political instability, an inert economic structure, and chronic levels of poverty despite huge hydrocarbon reserves have been recurrent decimals (Jerome, 2015). Economic stagnation, declining welfare, and social instability have undermined development for most of the post-independence period despite generating about US$500 billion as oil revenues in the past three decades (Ajakaiye and Jerome, 2011). Presently, the oil sector accounts for about 90% of her foreign exchange earnings and about 80% of public revenues (CBN, 2010). On the other hand, despite concerted efforts particularly in recent times, agriculture is yet to fully recover from the effects of prolonged neglect following the surge in oil revenues in the 1970s.

Be that as it may, in recent years, Nigeria's macroeconomic environment has improved considerably. In particular, macroeconomic performance over the last five years has been buoyed by better fiscal and debt sustainability levels and improvements in growth. The country's GDP's growth rate, which fluctuated between 1990 and 1999 from 12.8 per cent to 0.5 per cent grew steadily to 6.3 per cent in 2014 (World Bank, 2014a). It has stabilised at about 6 per cent since the return to democracy. This could be attributed to higher crude oil prices, and better fiscal and macroeconomic management (FRN, 2010). Another favourable factor

Figure 2. 8: Poverty Prevalence by sectors and zones



Source: NBS Poverty Profile, 2010

is the focus on the development of the non-oil sector, mostly agriculture and services.

Nigeria faces an ongoing challenge of making its decade-long sustained growth more inclusive. Poverty and unemployment remain prominent among the major challenges facing the economy. One reason for this is that the benefits of economic growth have not sufficiently trickled down to the poor. In other words, poverty has been widespread in Nigeria despite the enormous resource endowment of the nation, and in spite of recent improvements in macroeconomic fundamentals.

There have been various attempts at result oriented economic planning which have led to emergence of various economic blueprints since the return to democracy in 1999. Between 2003 there were developed the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) at the national level; the State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS) at the state level; and the Local Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (LEEDS) at the local level. All were anchored on the same pillars revolving around poverty reduction and job creation. Currently, Nigeria is implementing in phases a perspective plan, the Vision 20:2020. The first National Implementation Plan (NIP) covered the period 2010-2013 with an investment requirement outlay of ₦32 trillion to be contributed by the federal government, states and the private sector (NPC, 2011). The Transformation Agenda of the Jonathan administration at the federal level was designed to fast-track government's development agenda within the framework of the National Vision between 2011 and 2015. As laudable and well-intended as these economic blueprints are, the associated challenges have been poor implementation as evidenced by the weak plan-budget link since 1999.

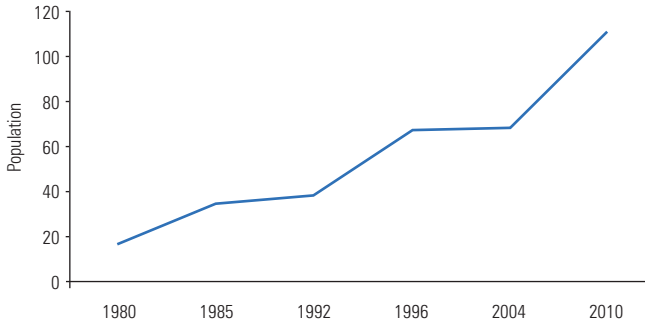
According to the NBS (2013) about 112 million Nigerians live below the poverty line. Poverty incidence, measured by the headcount ratio, worsened in all the geo-political zones and sectors (rural and urban) of the country in 2010 when compared to 2004 (Figure 2.8). It has remained higher in rural areas and northern zones than in urban areas and southern zones. It is striking to note that the headcount ratio almost doubled in the South-East zone (a zone which recorded the least incidence in 2004) and increased more in urban areas than in the rural areas. The trend in total population of the poor is shown in Figure 2.9. It reveals that more Nigerians were poor between 2004 and 2010.

However, recent computation by the World Bank, using GHS panel, indicates that poverty rates are significantly lower than estimates based on 2009/2010 HNLSS. It dropped from 35.2 per cent in 2009/2010 to 33.1 per cent in 2012/2013 (as opposed to 62.2% from the 2009/2010 HNLSS) (World Bank, 2014b). This implied that about 56 million Nigerians were poor compared to about 113 million in previous estimates.

Documented drivers of poverty in Nigeria include the following: (a) low and declining real farm incomes; (b) higher prices of food and other essentials like transport, fuel (lower real incomes); (c) macroeconomic conditions – exchange rate, interest rate (access to credit), jobless and non-inclusive growth (gender issues in growth), inequality, unemployment and high dependence on oil; (d) socio-cultural conditions; (e) insecurity (conflict and displacement of populations); (f) stagnating rural economy (agriculture, infrastructure, insecurity, natural disasters); (g) gender imbalance (inequality of access to basic entitlements; education, health, sanitation, energy, housing; and (h) policy shocks.[1]

1 See Obadan (2001); World Bank (1996); UNDP (2009); and Okpanachi, et al (2011).

Figure 2. 9: Total Poor Population, 1980-2010



Source: NBS Poverty Profile, 2010

2.2.2 Social and Institutional Context

2.2.2.1 Social Context

Nigeria has a rich diversity of culture, with more than 374 ethnic groups (Factfinder, 2013:23), and over 500 languages and dialects (Otite, 1990). As a former British territory, English is the official language and lingua franca. However, the languages of the three largest ethnic groups are also widely spoken. Most Nigerians belong to any of the three widely practised religious beliefs, namely Islam, Christianity and Traditional religions.

Nigeria's human development indicators have not shown significant improvement in recent years. From poverty to life expectancy, indicators have tended to fluctuate around their poor ends. According to the UNDP (2014), she was ranked amongst countries with low development index at 152 out of 187 countries. Life expectancy is placed at 52.5 years. Adult illiteracy rate for women aged 15-49 years was 53.1 per cent while the corresponding rate for men was 75.2 per cent (NPC & ICF International, 2014). The status of some health indicators has improved since the 1990s. For instance, Under-5 Mortality Rate dropped from 99 in 1990 to 89 in 2014; Infant Mortality rate dropped from 91 in 1990 to 58 in 2014; while maternal Mortality rate dropped from 1000 in 1990 to 243 in 2014. (FRN, 2015) This improved status is expected to have positive impact on the status of human security and human development.

Population Dynamics

The country has experienced a population explosion for at least the last 50 years due to very high fertility rates, quadrupling its population during this time. The 2006 population of 140,431,70 was projected to 164,728,579 in 2011 (NBS 2012), an increase of 17.3 per cent. Growth was fastest in the 1980s, after child mortality had dropped sharply, and has slowed slightly since then as the birth rate has sunk slightly. An estimated 48 per cent of the population is urbanised and 52 per cent of Nigerians live in rural areas. According to data from UN Population Fund, Nigeria's population was estimated at roughly 168.8 million as of 2012, with over 60% of the population under the age of 24. Population density, going by the projected 2011 population figure, was 178.79 per km^2. Among the states, population density ranged from 47.44 per km^2 in Taraba state to 3,197.28 per km^2 in Lagos State.

Gender Issues

In Nigeria, as in many other countries particularly in Africa, women as compared to men, have command over fewer resources both in terms of political and economic power as well as time as a critical resource since in most cases, women spend significant proportion of their time on activities that are largely not costed in fiscal terms. Essentially, this results in gender inequality. Inequality is a distributive problem emanating from families, communities, ethnic groups and classes (Sunderlands *et. al.*, 2011). It is caused by structural imbalances in social and economic relations and exists as a major economic challenge in both rural and urban centres in many countries around the world. The consequences of gender inequality have included undermining the potential contributions of women who constitutes about 50 per cent of the population, to economic development.

With respect to involvement of women in politics, table 2.3 shows that fewer women have the opportunity to occupy political positions. Across geo-political zones, the participation of women in high rewarding economic activities are more visible in the South-South (0.575) and South-West (0.507) (FRN, 2009). Labour force participation rate for ages 15-24, female (%) in Nigeria was 34.70 as of 2011. Its highest value over the past 21 years was 34.70 in 2011, while its lowest value was 22.40 in 1990 (UNDP, 2013). Factors responsible for low participation of women in politics include inequality in access to economic resources, literacy level and domination by men, among others.

Towards addressing the problem of gender inequality, there are a number of legal provisions that guarantee the rights of women. Apart from gender equality clause enshrined in the 1999 Constitution, there are specific legal provisions protecting gender equality and women empowerment. As at September 2011, a Gender and Equal Opportunities Bill (GEO) (2010), an Executive bill that incorporates and enforces

certain aspects of the United Nations' Conventions on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights and the Provisions of the National Gender Policy were ready but are still yet to be passed while the Violence against Persons (Prohibition) Act, 2015 was signed into law on the 28th May 2015. At the state level, the same GEO bill is pending before 12 states namely Lagos, Ogun, Enugu, Ebonyi, Abia, Taraba, Edo, Kaduna, Plateau, Adamawa, Rivers, and Kogi in line with section 12 of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. Only two states – Anambra and Imo – passed the law in 2007. The import of the foregoing is that there is presently a lack of enabling legal instrument for the promotion of gender and equal opportunity in Nigeria. This thus suggests that the pursuit of gender equality is not yet widely accepted and will continue to have negative consequences on human security and human development in Nigeria.

Conflicts

Nigeria has witnessed quite a number of conflicts among the various social groups that make up the country. In most cases these conflicts arise as a result of intense competition for power and resources. In several states in Nigeria, there are daily reports of violent attacks on villages, with many lives lost and properties destroyed. Although familiarity with existing literature on conflicts, particularly in Africa, suggests that an overwhelming percentage of these conflicts are resource-based (Masari 2006:4), yet conflicts in Nigeria have taken a wider dimension. For instance, since May 1999 when Nigeria returned to civil rule, the spate and intensity of ethnic, religious, political/electoral and communal conflicts (land/border/chieftaincy) have been alarming, with grave implications for human security and socio-economic development in the country. Also, since July 2009 the Boko Haram religious sect has continued to hold the country to ransom with its sporadic attacks on public places and sensitive government offices and agencies and killing, bombing and maiming innocent citizens in the process. Consequently, the resources that should otherwise be channelled for human welfare are committed to securing citizens and their property.

Violence in Nigeria is unfortunately quite regular, intense, but also quite varied in its motives, scope and direction. Thus, a multidimensional approach to conflict prevention is required. As part of the measures to curb conflicts, especially those with religious connotation, the federal government has continued to encourage inter-religious dialogue and participation in the prevention and reduction of intra-state conflicts. The Nigeria Inter Religious Council (NIREC), interacts with different religious groups for the purpose of maintaining peace.

The major political issues of conflict relate to the movements towards democratisation, decentralisation, and self-determination partly arising from her 30 month civil war, and which usually give rise to the publicity of ethnicity and fundamentalism. The economic issues are associated with the disparities of economic resources among regions and opposition to the oil industry and its negative impact on local development; while socially, lack of education among the masses, poverty and high population growth also aggravate the conflicts in the country.

Table 2. 3: Women in Political Offices, 1999-2015

S/N	Post	No of Seats Available	No occupied by Women				
			1999	2003	2007	2011	2015
1	President	1	0	0	0	0	0
2	Vice President	1	0	0	0	0	0
3	Senate	109	3	4	9	7	8
4	House of Representatives	360	7	21	27	25	14
5	Governor	36	0	0	0	0	0
6	Deputy Governor	36	1	n.a -	3	3	4
7	State Houses of Assembly	990	24	40	57	68	n.a
8	Cabinet Ministers	44	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a
9	Local Government Chairpersons	774	13	15	27	11	n.a
10	Local Government Councillors	8810	69	267	235	164	n.a

Source: Compiled from various sources, including Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC), Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development.
n.a: not available

Health

At independence, the country was home to a nationwide network of 101 government-run hospitals and 118 missionary hospitals. As of early 2013, Nigeria's health care sector was managed by a variety of federal, state, local and private organisations. The public health system is administered by the Federal Ministry of Health, 36 states and FCT[2] health ministries and around 1300 health centres, which are managed by and serve the country's 774 local government areas. This gives tulip to the fact that health care, like education, is a subject under the concurrent legislative list in the 1999 Constitution (as amended). World Economic Forum's (WEF) 2012-13 "Global Competitiveness Report" ranked Nigeria 134th out of 144 countries for life expectancy, 139th for infant mortality, 141st for malaria prevalence, 130th for HIV/AIDS prevalence and 101st for the prevalence of tuberculosis (Oxford Business Group, 2013: 321). It must be emphasised that one of the major hurdles that health care providers in Nigeria currently face is a lack of reliable and up-to-date health statistics, which makes long-term planning especially challenging.

Education

Education is a powerful instrument for the development of man and society. When education is hampered by human insecurity, the development process is distorted. In the years immediately following independence in 1960, education was mainly the responsibility of local and regional governments and individual communities. Given the drop in public education enrolment rates during the country's first decade of independence, in 1976, the government introduced the Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme, which made primary education both free and compulsory for school-aged citizens. The 1999 constitution (as amended) has made education a subject under the concurrent legislative list, meaning that both the federal and state governments have legislative competence to run, manage, and administer education, from primary to university level. Since 1979, the sector has been jointly administered at the federal, state and local levels. In 1999, the UPE was replaced with the Universal Basic Education Programme (UBEP), based on the global educational development standards laid out in the UN's Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Although remarkable increase was achieved in the area of net enrolment ratio and net attendance ratios in primary education, up from 62.1% in 2008 to 70.1% in 2012 (FRN, 2013), Nigeria ranks relatively low on most global education indices. This is due largely to the underfunding and inefficient allocation of funds in the sector. In the World Economic Forum's (WEF) 2012-13 "Global Competitiveness Report", the country ranked 102nd out of 144 countries for quality of primary education and 140th out of 144 for primary education enrolment as a percentage of the total population. Additionally, the country ranked 120th and 111th respectively in terms of secondary and tertiary education enrolment rates. Furthermore, the quality of Nigeria's higher educational system was ranked 83rd in the WEF's report (Oxford Business Group, 2013: 311). Over the years, there is an increasing trend of private sector involvement in the establishment and funding of education in Nigeria.

2.2.2.2 Institutional Context

Institutions and Policies

The WEF GCI (2013/2014) report defines competitiveness as the set of institutions, policies, and factors that determine the level of productivity of a country. This in turn, sets the level of prosperity that can be reached by an economy. The productivity level also determines the rates of return obtained by investments in such an economy, which in turn are the fundamental drivers of its growth rates. In other words, a more competitive economy is one that is likely to grow faster over time. On the GCI Index on Institutions, Nigeria ranked 129/144 and an aggregate score of 3.0 which is considered lower than the pass mark of 3.4 the level at which the best seven countries are on. There is therefore the need for institutional consistency and predictability for investments and sustained economic development to be achieved. Investors generally are concerned by the quality of institutions and prevalence of policy consistency as important factors in investment destinations and decisions. Thus, the quality of institutions has the capacity of influencing economic and human development.

Attempts at institutional reforms since 1999 have resulted in quite little progress as institutions have remained weak, unable to curb impunity and unable to fight corruption and leakages in public resources. For example, reform of justice system continued to be slow, thereby limiting its effectiveness in the fight against corruption. This in part explains why the efforts of anti-

2 This include the Federal Capital Territory, which statutorily is treated as a state

corruption agencies such as the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) and the Independent and Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC), have yielded quite limited results. In 2014, TI placed Nigeria at the 136th out of 174 countries and the 3rd most corrupt country in West Africa after Guinea and Guinea Bissau. The lack of accountability, transparency and probity in the conduct of government business at all levels of government continued to be problematic for the economy, and resulting in more poverty and inequality (Ekpo, 2009) all of which hamper human security and development. Furthermore, democratic institutions in Nigeria are fragile and are often unable to protect rights, ensure law abidingness and promote sustainable democracy. With respect to punishing offenders, the hitherto lack of political will and capacity has changed with the advent of the present regime of President Mohammed Buhari. Corrupt government officials and private individuals are being investigated and charged to court.

Traditional, Social and Cultural Organisation

Nigeria has a rich culture of traditional, social, cultural and economic organisations. On several occasions, these often informal social groupings have proved to be valuable mechanisms that are contributing to governance in one form or the other. For instance, most Nigerian communities, neighbourhoods and societies have vigilante groups which exist to supplement the social security services of the State Police Force. The activities of such groups as *Oodua* People's Congress (OPC), *Bakassi* Boys (BB) *Egebsu* and *Hisbah*, which though have been politicised, show evidence of protecting a segment of the Nigeria society. The Movement for the Actualisation of a Sovereign State of Biafra (*MASSOB*) on its part used to exhibit the characteristics of a pressure group but has now transformed to a rebellious group. The emergence of these vigilante groups, it is argued, indicates that the State security apparatus has failed to adequately protect the lives and properties of the Nigerian citizenry.

2.2.3 Political

Nigeria covers an area of 923,769 square kilometres (909,890 square kilometres of land and 13,879 square kilometres of water) and is situated between longitude 3° and 14° East, and latitude 4° and 14° North. The country is a federal republic comprising thirty-six (36) states and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT), Abuja. The states form the second tier of government and are further sub-divided into 774 local government areas (LGAs), which constitute the third tier of government. The functions of each tier of government is enshrined in the 1999 Constitution (as amended), although there is much debate over whether it provides for the local government as a third-tier of government, as was the case under the 1979 Constitution.

Post-Independence Government and Politics

Since independence in 1960, Nigeria has experimented with two major systems of government. In the First Republic (1960-66), Nigeria practised a parliamentary system of government, patterned along the British model. It is instructive that the government at this period was largely democratic, and was essentially based on centrifugal federalism (Simbine and Oladeji, 2010). Powers and resources were decentralised as much as possible as sub-national units were strong, relatively independent and largely self-financing. Curiously, the parliamentary system was jettisoned for the presidential system in the Second Republic, which was largely characterised by features of a strong presidential system, and command federalism. Nigeria also has a dynamic multiparty system. The 2015 general elections was Nigeria's fifth in succession since civil rule re-emerged in the country in May 1999. General elections have earlier been held, after four years interval in 1999, 2003, 2007, and 2011, with several political parties taking part in the democratic process. The 2015 general elections were however significant for a number of reasons. First, it marked the longest years (sixteen) of uninterrupted democratic practice since independence. Second, there was an historic civilian-civilian transfer of power, and thirdly, and more importantly, it was the first time in the history of Nigeria as an independent nation that power would transfer from a ruling (Peoples Democratic) party to the opposition (All Progressives Congress)

Foreign Relations

No country exists in isolation and a country's relations with others is a function of many factors, including level of security and how the country is perceived by the international community. Essentially, there is direct causal relationship between the level of security prevalent in a country and, among others, the flow and volume of foreign direct investment (FDI) into such country. Following her independence from Great Britain, Nigeria became the 99th member of the United Nations on October 7th, 1960. Naturally, the country's response to events and issues within her external environment was, as it were, largely defined by circumstances related to her position, first, as an emerging power in Africa, and second, as a

newly independent former British colony. Given the polarisation of the global community along the west-east divide around the period of her independence, Nigeria started off as a 'neutral' participant in the international system (Imobighe and Alli, 2012). Subsequently, Nigeria has made Africa the central point of her foreign policy, with global expectations that the emerging African power will actively participate and adequately represent African interests in the international system.

This afro-centric disposition has continued to characterise Nigeria's foreign policy drive ever since. Nigeria continues to pursue with vigour, closer relationship within the West African sub-region through the instrumentality of her involvement in the establishment of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), a sub-regional economic grouping comprising sixteen countries. Nigeria's economic prowess, enhanced by the massive increase in oil revenue, largely contributed to its ability to influence events, not just in the sub-region, but also beyond the continent. Nigeria was therefore instrumental to the liberation of several countries, including those in southern Africa, like Angola, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, and the apartheid regime of South Africa (Okoosi-Simbine, 2012: 213-238).

In recent times, Nigeria's external relations has been much more diversified. Not abandoning its afro-centric focus, she has been prominent in the wider international arena. Nigeria seems to have realised the need to realign its foreign policy stand with its socio-economic developmental aspirations. Thus, she is currently actively engaged in the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD), as well as patronising other especially economic powers as India, China, in addition to the traditional western powers for development of its infrastructure, such as railways, power, etc. Good management of Nigeria's external relations paid off when in 2005, she obtained debt-relief from Paris clubs of creditors to the tune of 18 billion dollars of Nigeria's indebtedness which was channelled towards achieving some targets of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

2.2.4 Resource Issues

Nigeria is endowed with an array of social and economic resources. In terms of mineral resources, Nigeria is greatly enriched with crude oil deposits, agro-allied resources, natural gas, solid minerals coal, talc, gypsum, iron ore, lead/zinc, gold, bitumen, gemstone, kaolin, etc., among others.

The challenges associated with natural resources have to do with extraction, exploitation and use. In most cases the extraction and exploitation of these resources have often led to serious pollution and environmental degradation which threaten the economic security of host communities. This has often led to violent agitations and clashes.

2.2.5 Environmental Issues

The quality of physical environment can either facilitate or inhibit human security and human development. With this understanding, successive governments in Nigeria have taken the issue of the environment seriously, especially in the areas of policy and programme formulation as well as initiatives. In spite of this, the environment sector is still beset with an array of challenges, which according to Salami (2009) could be termed ecological haemorrhage – the "loss of adaptive capacity due to perturbations which weaken the resilience of nature". It is a vivid description of how environmental degradation in the form of decrease in soil fertility, rising temperature, declining rainfall, diseases, epidemics, famine, poor air quality, reduction of living space or arable land, deforestation, desertification, accumulation of toxic and hazardous substances as well as drought all present themselves for urgent amelioration (Olokesusi and Gwary, 2010: 449). This appears a good summary of the environmental situation in Nigeria, and together with the destructive impact of climate change, they pose a serious challenge to sustainable environmental management in the country.

Poor environmental management in Nigeria is related to the fact that most of the extant legislations lack appropriate regulations to facilitate public education on the one hand and enforcement and implementation on the other. This is compounded by lack of adequate direct investment in the environment sector. This is considered crucial to address the direct drivers of environmental degradation and reverse the loss of natural resources. It has also been discovered that poor domestication of the diverse multilateral environmental agreements entered into is another reason for poor performance of the sector. Indeed, Nigeria is yet to domicile and integrate the principles of environmental sustainability into sectoral policies and programmes.

2.3 Conclusions

The status of human development in Nigeria has not shown remarkable improvement in spite of the changes in the social and economic conditions in recent years. Economic growth in Nigeria has not been associated with poverty reduction and unemployment has not abated. This has slowed down the rate of improvement in human development as evidenced by marginal improvement in HDI between 2012 and 2013. Generally demographic and health indicators such as access to water, sanitation, life expectancy at birth and incidence of poverty have shown improvement over the years but the harmful social conditions, specifically, terrorist attacks, religious and ethnic conflicts and related crimes pose threats to sustainability.

Mean year of schooling dropped, nationally between 2010 and 2013 but was highest in the South-South and lowest in the North-West zone. Multi-dimensional Poverty Index improved, nationally between 2008 and 2013 but higher values were recorded in the southern states compared to states from the northern zones. The Gender Inequality Index (GII), nationally, was a little above average but the GII dimensions (MMR, AFR, share of parliament seats, and labour force participation rates) perform better in the southern states than in the northern states.

The status of human development in the country is being influenced by a number of factors. For instance, while there have been attempts at developing economic blueprints for the country, there has been the issue of disconnect between development priorities, budget planning and the associated challenge of poor implementation which has constrained achievement of the laudable objectives. Other constraining factors include increasing rate of population growth, environmental challenges, as well as conflicts and insurgency in some parts of the country.

"In the years immediately following independence in 1960, education was mainly the responsibility of local and regional governments and individual communities"

3.
ECONOMIC AND FOOD DIMENSIONS OF HUMAN SECURITY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the status of human security in Nigeria in line with the seven realms of human security discussed in Chapter One. The discussion is interspersed with citizen perception of individual and general threats for the two domains – economy and food. The factors contributing to people's sense of security and ability to influence selected security risks in these two domains are analysed in order to understand how the economic and food dimensions of human security in Nigeria impact on human development and Nigeria's capacity to improve citizen's welfare. Under economic security, trends in key macroeconomic indicators are analysed. Such indicators are the real GDP, agricultural sector growth, industrial sector growth, service sector growth, real GDP, GDP per capita and unemployment rate. This is followed by discussion of people's perception of threats to economic security, their ability to cope with perceived threats to economic security risks and factors that increase their sense of economic security.

Under food security, focus is on trends in the country's food production index, food and all item inflation, proportion of food expenditure in total household expenditure, proportion of household reporting food inadequacy and proportion of underweight children. This is followed by discussion of people's perception of threats to food security, their ability to cope with perceived threats to food security risks and factors that increase their sense of food security.

3.1 Economic Security

Nigeria recorded considerable growth rate in recent years. Specifically, real GDP growth stood at 6 per cent in 2008, improved to 7 per cent in 2009, and 7.90 per cent in 2010. In 2011, real GDP growth was 7.4 per cent, declining to 6.6 per cent in 2012 and rebounding to 6.9 and 6.2 per cent in 2013 and 2014 (Table 3.1). Similarly, growth rate of rebased GDP averaged 5 per cent between 2000 and 2013, reflecting growth rates of 5.3, 4.2 and 5.5 per cent in the intervening years. Agricultural sector growth has also been significant, averaging over 5 per cent in the period, while industrial sector growth has been lacklustre at an average of 2.5 per cent. Much of the growth in the economy has come from the service sector, driven especially by the strong growth of the telecommunication and wholesale and retail trade sectors.

Nigeria's GDP per capita has been rising. Per capita GDP increased from US$1,437 in 2010 to US$1,496 in 2011 and to US$1,555.7 in 2012. Similarly, rebased GDP per capita increased from US$2,258 in 2010 to US$2,490 in 2011 and to US$2,689 in 2012. The improvement in per capita income should normally result in improvement in citizen's perception of sense of security. While there is no evidence on how the observed improvement in aggregate economic performance in recent years has translated into improved human security in Nigeria, the results of the survey of citizens' perception of economic security revealed that economic access and jobs status of citizens are considered critical to human security.

Table 3. 1: Key Macroeconomic Indicators

	*2008	*2009	*2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Real GDP growth (%)	6.0	7.0	7.90	7.40	6.60	6.9	6.22
Agricultural sector growth (%)	6.30	5.90	5.69	5.90	4.0	4.15	4.27
Industrial sector growth (%)	-3.40	2.0	5.30	1.50	1.20	2.10	6.76
Service sector growth (%)	10.4	10.8	11.9	12.6	13.9	8.38	6.85
Real GDP (rebased)				5.31	4.21	5.49	6.22
GDP per capita (USD) (rebased)			2258	2490	2689		
GDP per capita (USD)	1286.3	1106.8	1235.9	1474.96	1555.7		

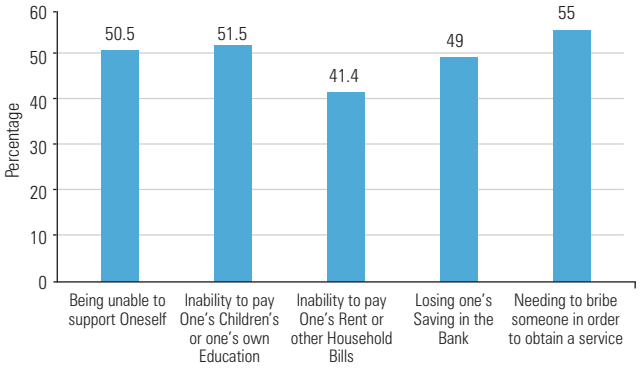
*Source: (a) National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), Nigeria Gross Domestic product Report, various years; (b) NBS Revised and Final Rebased GDP, August, 2014 *Old series*

3.2 Economic Access and Threat to Security

Individual threat

The greatest threats to security expressed by the respondents at the individual level in terms of economic access are needing to bribe someone in order to obtain a service, inability to pay one's children's or one's own education and being unable to support oneself (Figure 3.1). The respective percentages are: 55, 51.5 and 50.5. These findings mirror rampant corruption in the society, rising cost of education and the endemic poverty in the country. Poverty incidence was estimated at 69 per cent in 2010 (NBS, 2010).

Figure 3. 1: Distribution of respondents afraid of threat to security in economic domain (national average in %)

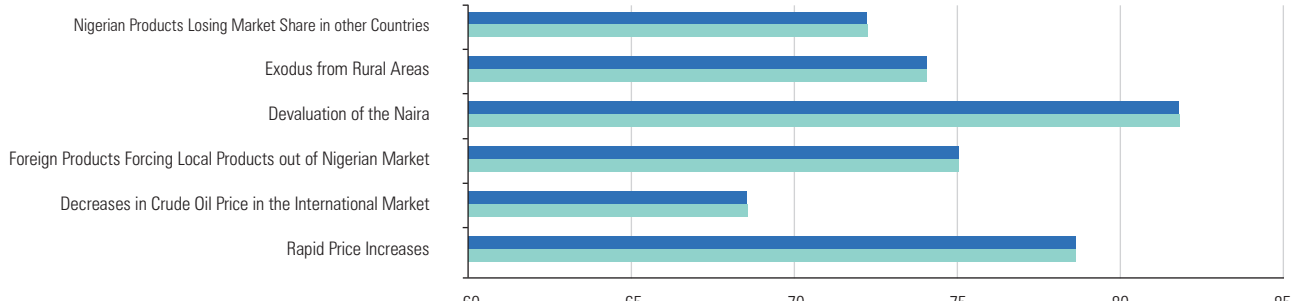


Source: Field Survey, 2015

The most prominent threat to economic access anticipated by the respondents is the devaluation of the Naira. A phenomenal 81.7 per cent of the respondents expressed this sentiment. The Nigerian monetary authorities devalued the national currency late 2014 following a slump in global oil prices and dwindling revenues (Figure3.2). The persistence of oil price decline raises the prospect that further devaluations may occur in the future hence the perception by the respondents. The next most prominent threat anticipated by the respondents is rapid price increase as expressed by 78.5 per cent of them. This may be explained by the fact that price increases are a logical product of devaluation as a result of the high import dependence of the Nigerian economy.

Sufficient and predictable income is the dominant factor contributing to sense of security in terms of economic access. This is the view of 76 per cent of the respondents (Figure 3.3). Next is social welfare system according to 60 per cent of the respondents, and this is followed by scientific discoveries/new technologies and government employment support system according to 58.5 and 55.6 per cent of the respondents respectively. Social insurance coverage and commercial security services, mentioned by 55.6 and 54.8 of the respondents respectively, are less recognised as factors contributing to the sense of security in economic domain at the personal level. The choice of sufficient and predictable income as most important factor contributing to economic security at the personal level indicates that economic empowerment of citizens is critical to human security. Social welfare system is also indicated as very important apparently due to the vulnerable situation of large segments of the population. Social protection programmes are needed to ensure that economic security is extended to the majority of the population. The relatively high recognition of the role of scientific discovery/new technologies in economic security at the personal level is particularly interesting and suggests that there is an increasing awareness of the strategic importance of new technologies in economic security at the personal level.

Figure 3. 2: Distribution of respondents anticipating general threats in economic domain (%)



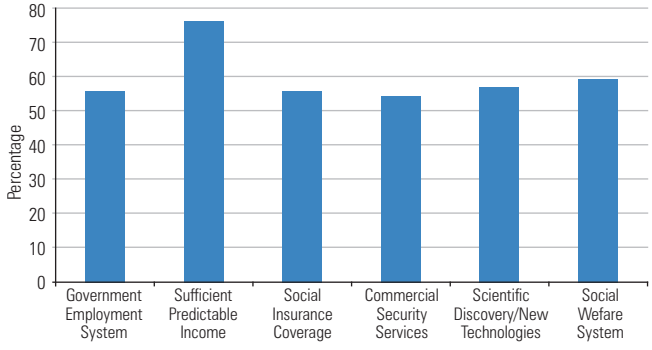
Source: Field Survey, 2015

The self-assessment of ability to influence selected security risks in the area of economic access is generally low. Only 30.8 per cent of the respondents indicated that they could influence rapid price increases; 27.7 per cent felt they could influence foreign producers from forcing local producers out of the market and 21.4 per cent indicated they could influence the devaluation of the Naira (Figure 3.4). This is a demonstration of a feeling of powerlessness or lack of voice by the respondents to change things in this domain. Another reason for the expressed low ability of respondents' to influence selected risks is because most of the risks are externally induced and they have no control over them.

The inability to pay for one's children's or own education is a strong threat to security at the individual level in terms of economic access for respondents in the North-East and South-East. This is the perception of 71 and 51 per cent of these respondents. For respondents in the FCT, the dominant threat is losing one's savings in the bank while for respondents in the North-Central zone; it is bribing someone in order to obtain a service (Figure 3.5).

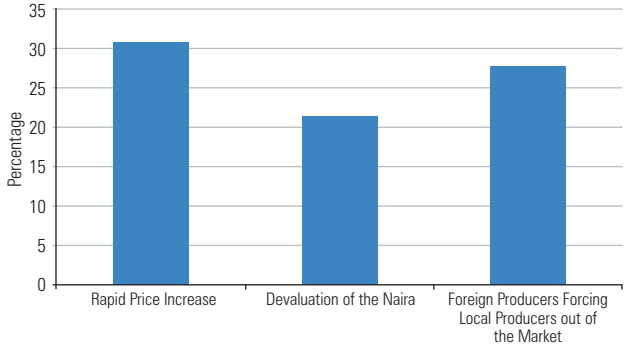
Devaluation of the Naira is the main threat to economic access anticipated by the respondents in the FCT (98 per cent), South-West (75.5 per cent); North-West (90.5 per cent, North-East (90 per cent),

Figure 3. 3: Distribution of respondents by factors contributing to sense of security in the economic domain (national average in %)



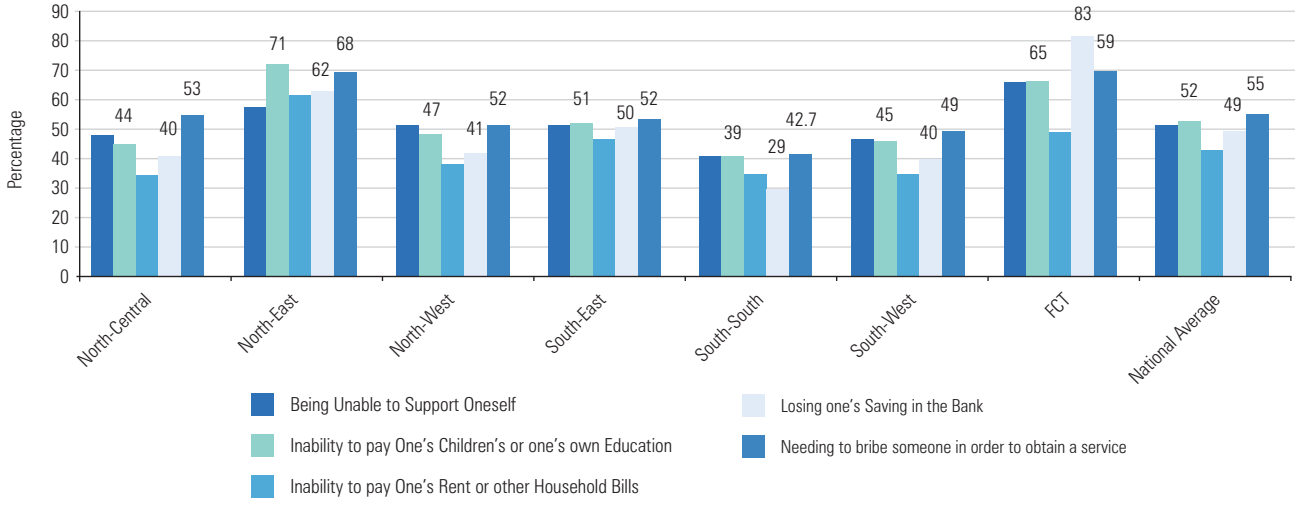
Source: Field Survey, 2015

Figure 3. 4: Distribution of respondents by self-assessment of ability to influence selected security risks in the economic domain (national average in %)



Source: Field Survey, 2015

Figure 3. 5: Geopolitical distribution of respondents afraid of threat to security in the economic domain (%)



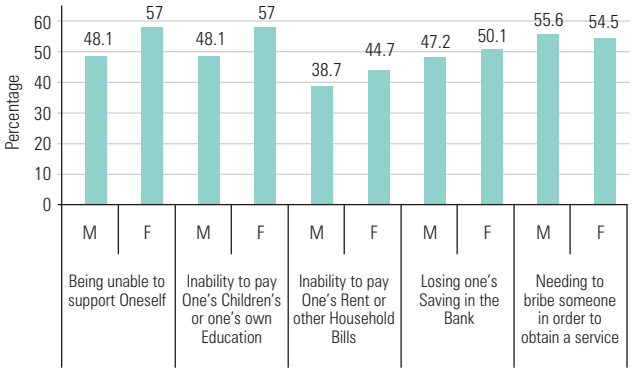
Source: Field Survey, 2015

South-South (75.9 per cent) and North-Central (71.1 per cent). Only respondents from the South-East (75 per cent) considered rapid price increase as the main threat (Figure 3.6).

A higher proportion of female relative of male respondents are afraid of not being able to pay their children's or own education. The respective percentages are 57 and 48. Similarly, more female respondents proportionally are afraid of not being able to support self and not having a place to live. Clearly, women's anxiety about these issues is legendary given their `motherly' disposition and concern for the wellbeing and happiness of the household (Figure 3.7).

In general, there is a near parity of male and female respondents proportionally for the various categories of anticipated general threats to economic access. For instance, 81.3 and 82.2 per cent of male and female respondents express their fear of devaluation of the Naira. Similarly, 68.5 and 67.8 per cent of male and female respondents are afraid of declining crude oil prices in the international market. The closeness of the responses is striking as men appear, at face value, to be in a better position to analyse these issues. What is evident is that women are increasingly appreciating these matters especially to the extent they affect the family budget. However, there is a modest divergence for male envisaging rapid price increases (81 per cent) relative to female (75.9 per cent) (Figure 3.8).

Figure 3. 7: Gender distribution of respondents scared of threat to security in economic domain (%)

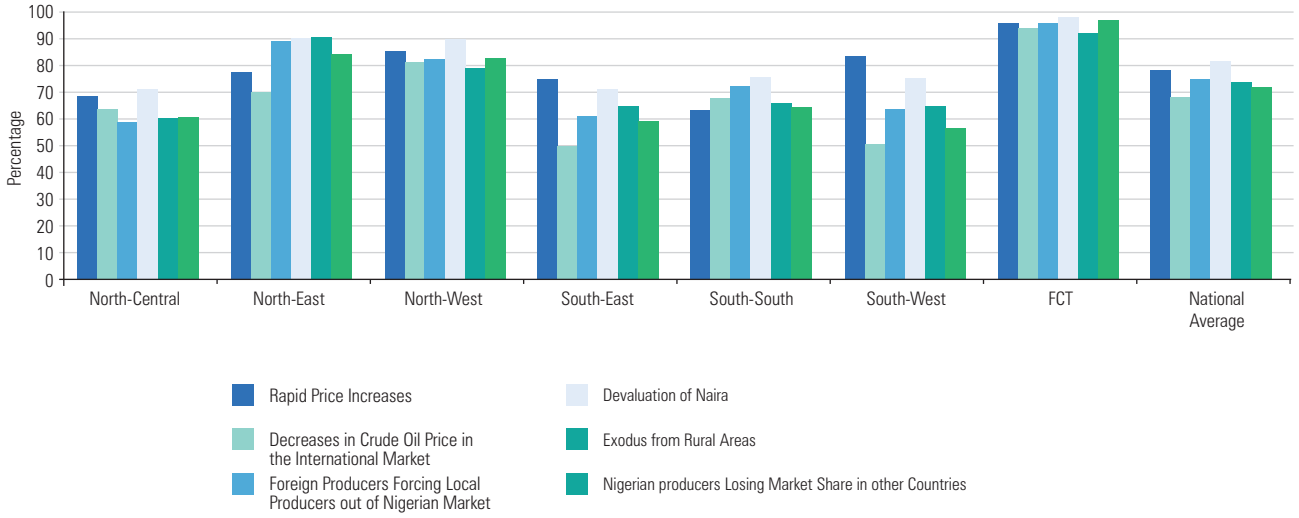


Source: Field Survey, 2015

Factors contributing to people's sense of security

Of the factors considered as contributing to people's sense of security by the survey respondents, the only factor that affects economic access is 'predictable sufficient income'. The highest proportions of respondents affirming that this factor increases their sense of security are in the South-West and North-West, while the lowest proportions of respondents affirming increasing sense of security are in the FCT and North-East. The South-West has the highest per capita income among the geopolitical zones, and this

Figure 3.6: Geopolitical distribution of respondents scared of general threats in the economic domain (%)



Source: Field Survey, 2015

possibly accounts for its ranking highest among the zones with respect to people's perception of predictable and sufficient income as a factor that increases sense of security. The North-East ranked lowest apparently due to the dire consequence of insurgency and endemic poverty in the zone.

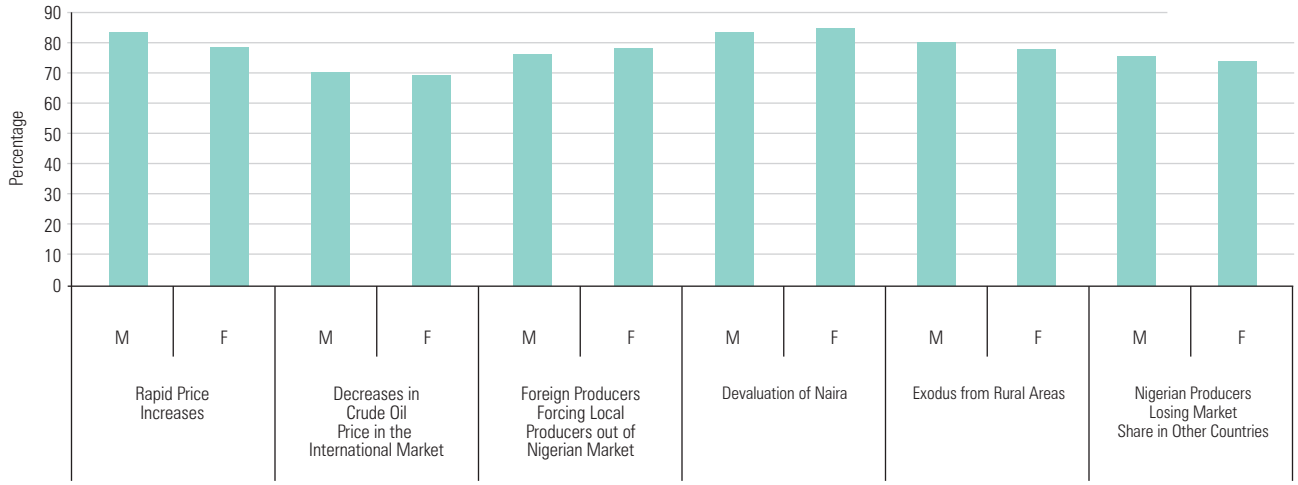
As shown by the national average results in Figure 3.9, the gender distribution of respondents demonstrates that there is no significant difference in the proportion of male and female respondents claiming predictable and sufficient income as increasing their sense of security. However, there are remarkable differences in gender distribution of the respondents across the geopolitical zones. Higher proportion of male respondents in the North-Central, North-East and South-East zones perceive the factor as increasing their sense of security, while higher proportion of female respondents in the North-West, South-South, South-West and the FCT perceive the factor as increasing their sense of security. The North-West and South-West zones have only marginal differences in the proportion of male and female respondents. The South-South and the FCT show significantly higher proportion of females that perceive predictable and sufficient income as increasing their sense of security. These results suggest that predictable and sufficient income is generally perceived to increase the sense of security of the respondents, and the female population especially in the South-South and the FCT are more likely to regard predictable and sufficient income as contributing to their sense of security.

Ability to cope with security risks

Security risks to citizens have several ways of manifesting in the economic domain . The citizens' perception of their ability to cope with security risks using key indicators relating to economic access is shown in Figure 3.10. The ability to cope with security risks are generally low with respect to rapid price increase, devaluation of the local currency (Naira), and foreign goods displacing locally produced goods out of the market. Less than one third of the respondents in the survey of citizens in 12 selected states across the six geopolitical zones and FCT claimed that they have ability to cope with important security risks in these three areas. The perception of ability to cope with security risks is lowest with respect to the devaluation of the Naira. The generally low level of ability to cope with these types of risks is because they are mainly externally induced and out of individual control.

Across the geopolitical zones, the distribution of the responses show that ability to cope with price increase is lowest in the North-West and FCT, and highest in the South-South with 56.8 per cent of the respondents claiming ability to cope with the security risks associated with rapid price increases. Ability to cope with risks associated with the devaluation of the Naira is lowest in the North-West and South-South and highest in the South-East. The South-West and the North-West have the lowest proportion of respondents claiming ability to cope with risks associated with foreign producers displacing local producers in the

Figure 3. 8: Gender distribution of respondents anticipating general threats in economic domain (%)



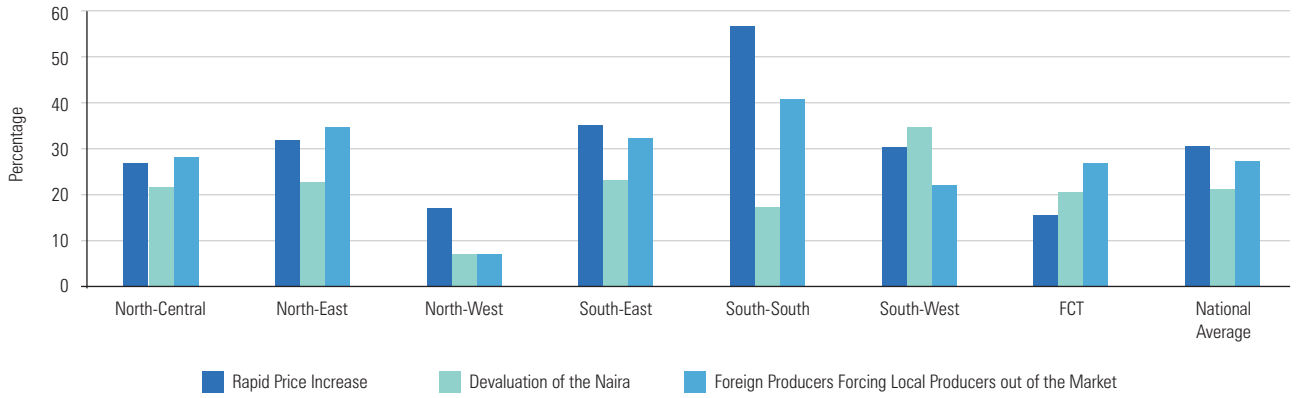
Source: Field Survey, 2015

market. This may be an indication that people in these two zones perceive foreign goods as providing better value for money. It also indicates lack of availability of import competing goods from domestic source. The highest proportion of the sample claiming ability to cope with risks associated with foreign producers displacing local producers is in the South-South but with only 41.2 per cent of respondents making this claim. The response of the sample from the North-West is the lowest of all zones with the claim by only 7.5 per cent of the respondents.

The gender divide among the sample of respondents shown in Figure 3.11 does not demonstrate much differential for rapid price increase. However, for devaluation of the Naira and foreign goods displacing local goods, a higher proportion of the male respondents claimed to have ability to cope with perceived security risks.

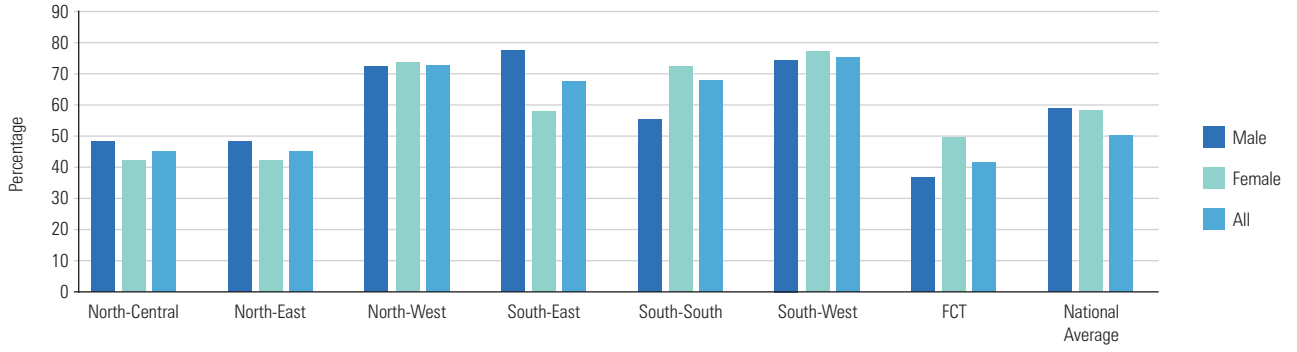
These results provide some indication that ability to cope with risks to human security is generally low in Nigeria when perceived from economic domains of rapid price increases, devaluation of the Naira and the tendency of foreign producers to displace local producers from the market. The perception of the citizen's ability to cope with or mitigate the security risks is lowest in the North-West geopolitical zone in all the three indicators considered. Across most of the zones, the results indicate that men generally do better in viewing themselves to have ability to cope with security risks. The only notable exception is the responses to rapid price increase in South-South geopolitical zone.

Figure 3.9: Geopolitical distribution of respondents' perception of 'predictable sufficient income'



Source: Field Survey, 2015

Figure 3.10: Geopolitical distribution of self-assesment of ability to cope with security risks related to economic acces



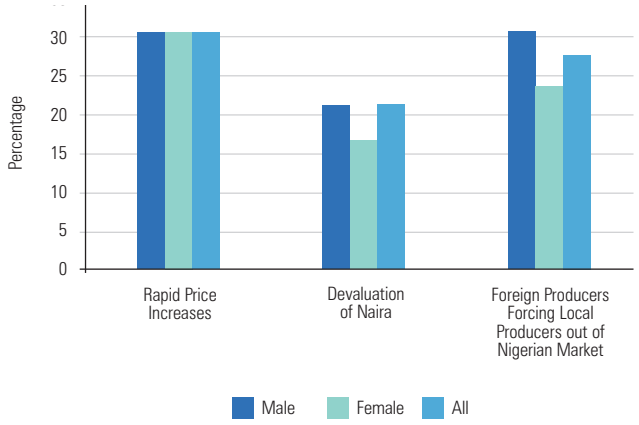
Source: Field Survey, 2015

3.3 Job Security

Economic security is associated with productive and remunerative employment or, in the minimum some state-supported safety nets (UNDP, 1994). In Nigeria, a major challenge of economic security is the failure of the impressive GDP growth to translate into increased employment. Aggregate unemployment rate increased from 14.9 per cent in 2008 to 23.7 per cent in 2013 (Figure 3.12). Although, growth rate of aggregate unemployment declined from 36.45 per cent in 2009 to 17.62 per cent in 2012, it averaged 22.4 per cent in the period 2008-2012. By gender, average share of unemployed male in the period 2008 to 2012 was 51.4 per cent compared to 48.6 per cent for female (Figure 3.13). However, the share of female in aggregate unemployment exceeded that of male in 2012 unlike the previous years. Rural urban dynamics shows that the share of the rural in aggregate unemployment was about 70 per cent on the average in 2010-2012 while that of urban unemployment was about 30 per cent (Figure 3.14). An examination of the geopolitical distribution of unemployment shows that unemployment is highest in the North-West with an average annual share of 21.8 per cent (Figure 3.15). The South-South is next with an average of 19.9 per cent followed by the North-East (18.2 %) and the South-West (11.9 %), excluding the FCT.

Nigeria's youth unemployment rate is also quite high. Unemployed youth population registered 12,657,071 in 2012, climbing from 7.85 million in 2010 (Figure 3.12). Similarly, youth unemployment rate recorded 34.2 per cent in 2013 from 28.7 per cent in 2010. Indeed, youth unemployment rate has always surpassed the national unemployment rate. Unemployed youths constitute about 59.9 per cent of aggregate unemployment in Nigeria.[1] The unemployed youths population in the rural areas increased from 4.8 million in 2010 to 9.3 million in 2012 while urban sector youth population rose modestly from 3.0 million in 2010 to 3.3 million in 2012. The corresponding youth unemployment rates for the rural and urban sectors in 2012 were 33 per cent and 28.3 per cent respectively (NBS, 2013).

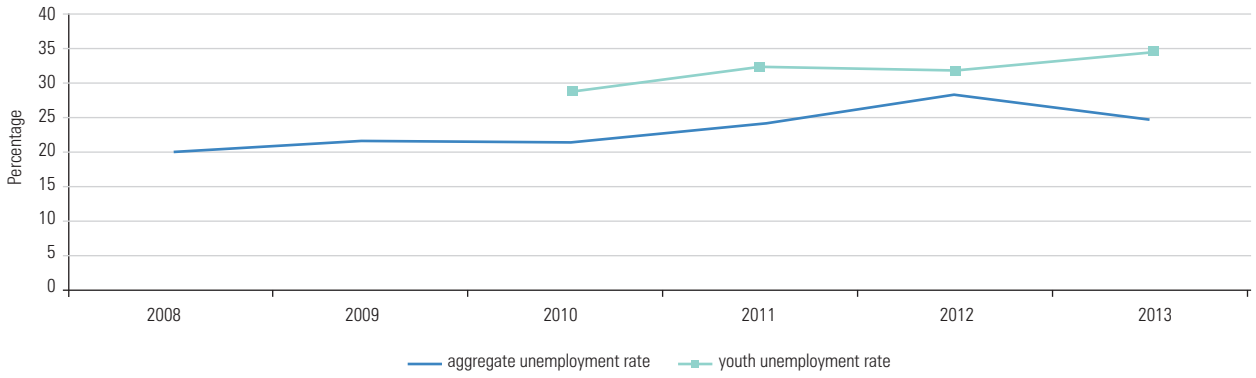
Figure 3. 11: Gender distribution of self-assessment of ability to cope with security risks related to economic access



Source: Field Survey, 2015

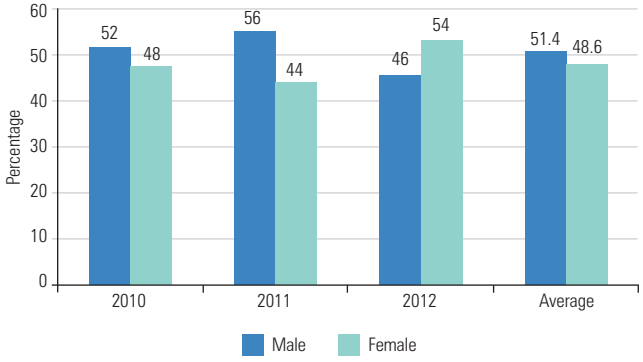
1 NISER (2013)

Figure 3. 12: Aggregate and youth unemployment rate (millions)



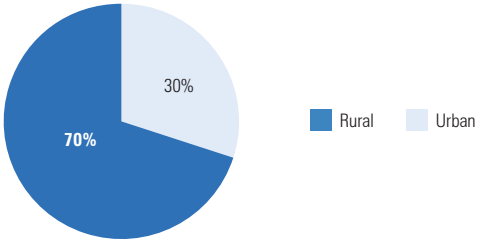
Source: NBS, unemployment Statistics (2013).

Figure 3. 13: Share of Aggregate Unemployment by Gender, 2010-2012



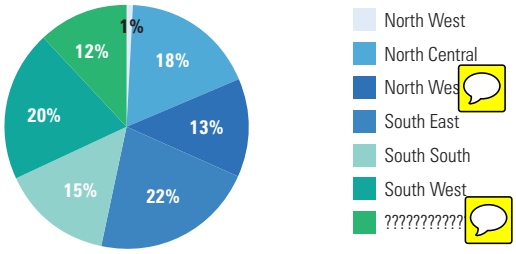
Source: NBS, Unemployment Statistics (2013).

Figure 3. 14: Average Annual Aggregate Unemployment by Sector, 2010-2012



Source: NBS, Unemployment Statistics (2013).

Figure 3. 15: Average Share of Aggregate Unemployment by Zones



Source: NBS, Unemployment Statistics (2013).

Official statistics conceal the magnitude of the unemployment crisis as underemployment is pervasive. The collapse of the manufacturing sector epitomised by rampant factory closures and relocation of Nigerian firms to neighbouring countries have led to the proliferation of poorly paid and unproductive self-employment in the informal sector. The share of formal sector jobs created in 2012 dropped from 40.8 per cent to 36.6 per cent in 2013 while the share of informal sector jobs created in 2012 increased from 59.2 per cent to 63.4 per cent in 2013 (Table 3.2). Significantly, while formal sector jobs created grew by a meagre 1.27 per cent between 2012 and 2013, informal sector jobs created grew by 20.8 per cent. Clearly, the decline of manufacturing jobs and the exponential growth of the service sector of the economy imply that new opportunities are confined to the service sector where employment is much more likely to be temporary or part-time.[2]

3. 4. Jobs and Threat to Security

Individual threats

Job related threats considerably affect the perception of human security in the economic domain. According to the respondents, the greatest threat to security at the individual level with respect to job is the fear of losing their jobs or inability to find work. About 52 per cent of respondents expressed this fear at the national level. 42.1 per cent of the respondents are afraid of inability to compete in the job market, while 38.2 per cent are afraid of insufficient or large enough pension to live on after retirement (Figure 3.16). These perceptions reflect the pervasive unemployment situation in the country estimated at 27.4 per cent for aggregate unemployment and 31.7 per cent for youth unemployment in 2012.

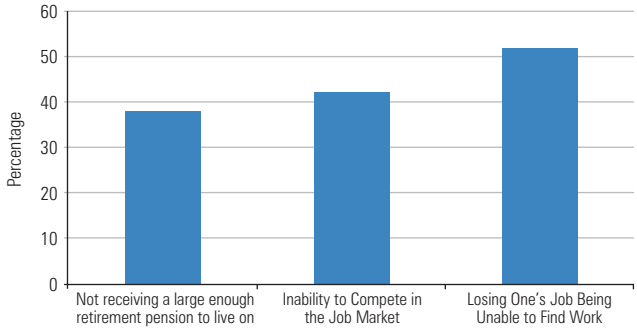
2 UNDP (1994)

Table 3. 2: Job Creation Survey Results

	2012	Share	2013	Share	% Change
Formal Sector	432,720	40.8	438,203	36.6	1.27
Informal Sector	628,845	59.2	759,896	63.4	20.8

Source: NBS, Job creation survey, various years

Figure 3. 16: Distribution of respondents afraid of threat to job security (national average in %)



Source: Field Survey, 2015

Losing one's job/inability to find a job is the dominant threat to security at the individual level in the job domain across the various geopolitical zones. The percentages range from 39.7 in the South-South to 66.5 per cent in the North-East and 70 per cent in the FCT (Figure 3.17). The cost of living, particularly for housing and accommodation, in the FCT is astronomical and job loss or joblessness is understandably a frightening proposition for respondents in the territory. The North-East has been at the centre of insurgency activities since 2009 leading to a near paralysis of economic and social activities in the region.

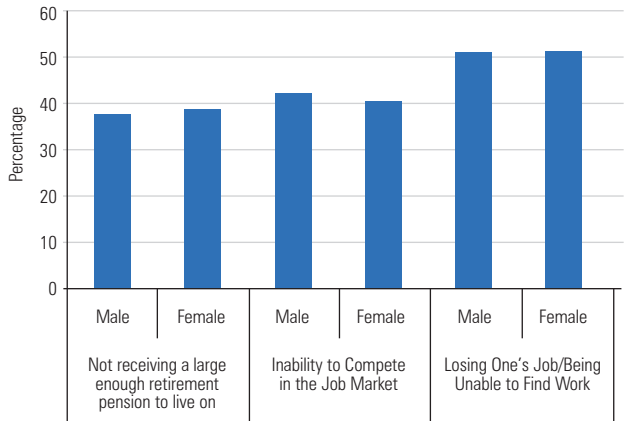
Majority of male and female respondents identified losing one's job/being unable to find work as the main job related threat they fear at the individual level. The respective proportions are 51.5 and 51.4 per cent. The next major fear is inability to compete in the job market as indicated by 42.4 and 40.7 of male and female respondents. Inability to compete in the job market may be due to mismatch of skills, lack of requisite experience, among others. The closeness of the male and female proportions suggest that employment and job issues are as much the purview of men as they are of women and that both gender are increasingly breadwinners for the home (Figure 3.18).

Factors contributing to people's sense of job security

The economic factors that contribute to people's sense of job security as perceived by the respondents include government employment support system, social insurance coverage, and social welfare system. Government employment support scheme provides job employment opportunities for people while social insurance and welfare system buffer the negative effect of being out of employment. The distribution of citizen's perception of the contribution of these factors to their sense of security across geopolitical zones and the FCT is shown in Figure 3.19. Majority of the respondents affirm that these factors increase their sense of security. As shown by the national average values, there is no significant difference in the proportion of the respondents claiming these factors as contributing to their sense of security. However, distribution across geo-political zones and the FCT shows some differentials in perception of these factors. For the factor, 'government employment support system', the highest proportions

Figure 3. 17: Geopolitical distribution of respondents afraid of threat to job security (%)

Figure 3. 18: Gender distribution of respondents afraid of threat to job security (%)



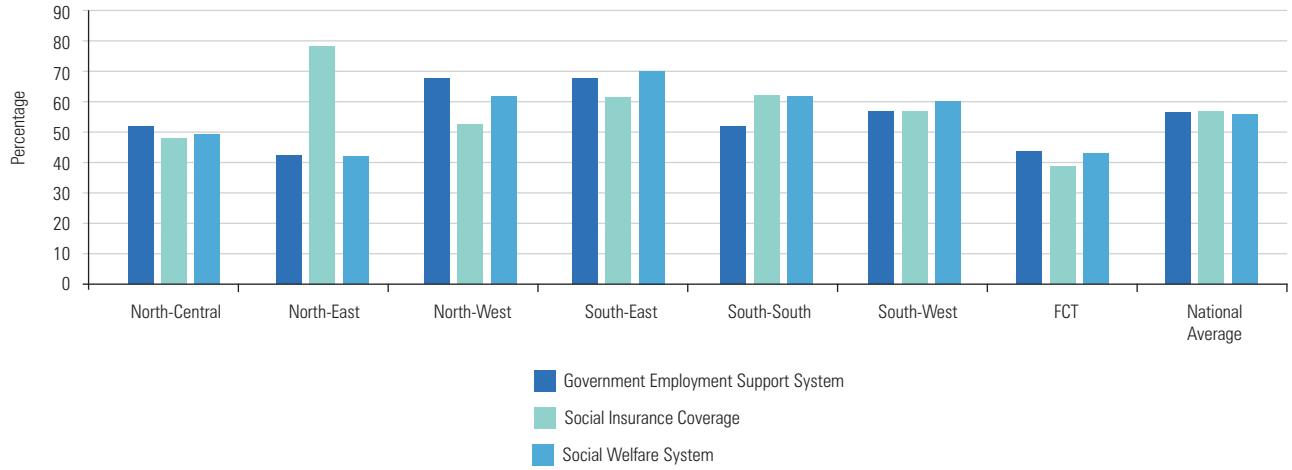
Source: Field Survey, 2015

of respondents affirming increasing sense of security are in the North-West and South-South, while the lowest proportions of respondents affirming increasing sense of security are in the North-East and FCT.

The insurgency in the North-East and frequent disruption of public peace in the FCT may account for the relatively low perception of the ability of government employment programmes to provide sense of security in the North-East and FCT. For the factor, 'social insurance coverage', the highest proportions of respondents affirming increasing sense of security are in the North-East and South-South, while the lowest proportions of respondents affirming increasing sense of security are in the FCT and North-Central. The North-East and the South-South are both zones where social upheavals have been recurrent and hence social insurance programmes (e.g. emergency relief activities in the North-East, amnesty programme for Niger Delta militants) have been a major source of succour to many people in these two zones. For the factor, 'social welfare system', the highest proportions of respondents affirming increasing sense of security are in the South-East and North-West, while the lowest proportions of respondents affirming increasing sense of security are in the North-East and FCT. The social work in the South-East and North-West may be considered relatively more profound than other zones and hence the high perception of the social welfare system by the people, while the insurgency in the North-East and the frequent social upheaval in the FCT might have beclouded the people's perception of social welfare programmes in the North-East and the FCT.

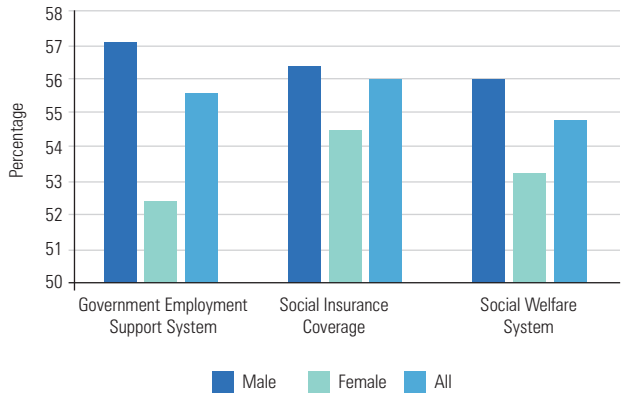
The gender distribution of the respondents as shown in Figure 3.20 does not demonstrate remarkable differentials for the people's perception of each of the three factors contributing to the people's sense of job security. Nonetheless, it is worth noting that higher proportion of male respondents affirmed that each of the three factors contribute to their increasing sense of security.

Figure 3. 19: Geopolitical distribution of factors contributing to people's sense of job security



Source: Field Survey, 2015

Figure 3. 20: Gender distribution of factors contributing to people's sense of job security

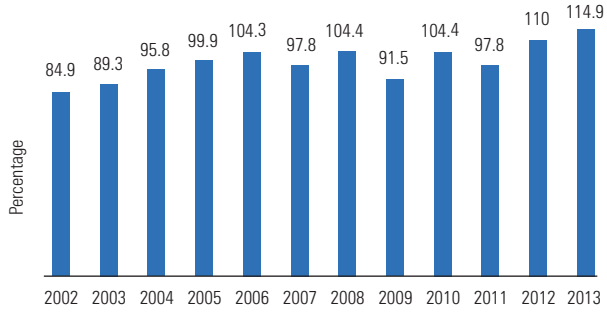


Source: Field Survey, 2015

3. 5 Food Security

Achieving food security is a major development goal in Nigeria. Crop production dominates agricultural activities, and the major agricultural crops include cassava, yam, maize, guinea corn, millet, rice, groundnuts, cocoyam, beans, and cocoa. The food production index (FPI) for the country, as illustrated in figure 3.21, increased steadily between 2002 and 2006, fluctuated between 2006 and 2011 and increased steadily between 2011 and 2013. The increase in food production between 2002 and 2006 could be attributed to the implementation of presidential initiatives on rice and cassava production. The short period of fluctuation could be as a result of glut in production which discouraged farmers from increasing crop production while the steady increase in production between 2011 and 2013 could be attributed to implementation of new strategy to improve farmers' access to fertiliser.

Figure 3. 21: Nigeria-Food Production Index (2004-2006=100)



Source: Adapted from knoema.com/atlas/Nigeria

Nigeria's agricultural policy addresses the challenge of food insecurity through efforts aimed at self-sufficiency in production of major food crops. For example, the Nigerian government is pursuing a goal of making the country self-sufficient in rice production by 2015 and ending the ₦356 billion currently spent importing the product annually, as well as replace up to 40% of the wheat imports for which the country spends over ₦635 billion annually by substituting 40% of wheat flour used in bread and other confectioneries with high quality cassava flour by 2015. Consequently, Nigeria has reached 60 per cent sufficiency in rice production.[3] The series of initiatives of government in the agricultural sector in 2012 resulted in the creation of about two million new jobs among rural dwellers. The government is also implementing a Young Graduates Commercial Farmers Scheme, intended to absorb 780,000 graduates in its first phase and create an estimated four million jobs in the agricultural sector in the first year.[4]

A recent revolutionary policy in the agricultural sector is the Growth Enhancement Scheme. Under this scheme, farmers receive 50% subsidy on fertilisers, for a maximum of two bags, through the use of their mobile phones or Electronic-wallet system (or E-wallet). In 120 days, over 1.2 million farmers already purchased their subsidized fertilisers using this system.[5] The overall goal is to lift 20 million farmers out of poverty by 2015 through a combination of input support, access to markets and finance and creation of 3.5 million jobs by 2015.[6]

Despite the various reforms in the food sector, rising prices of food items fuelled inflationary pressures in the economy from 2009-2013. The prices of food items surpassed the year-on-year all- item inflation from 2009-2013 as a result of accelerating global food prices which left the country exposed due to its high food import dependency (Table 3.3). The rate of increase in food prices, on year-on-year basis, was 9.2 per cent in December 2014. Similarly, the 12-month average food inflation was 9.5 per cent in December 2014 (Table 3.3).[7]

An NBS 2009/10 survey of consumption pattern in Nigeria shows that the North-West has the highest proportion in terms of percentage of food expenditure in total expenditure of 25.11 per cent followed by the

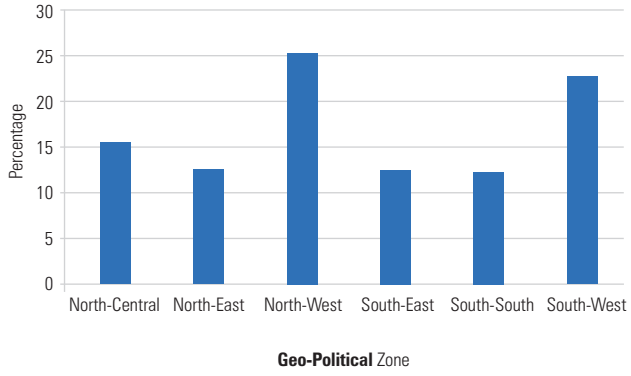
3 Presidential Mid-Term Report 2013
4 Presidential Mid-Term Report 2013
5 Presidential Mid-Term Report 2013
6 NPC (2013)
7 NPC (2013)

Table 3. 3: Food and all-item inflation

		2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Year of Year change	Food Inflation	15.5	13.7	11	10.2	9.3	9.2
	All items	13.9	11.8	10.3	12	8	8
12 month average	Food Inflation	14.8	14.7	10.3	11.3	9.7	9.5
	All items	12.5	13.7	10.8	12.2	8.5	8

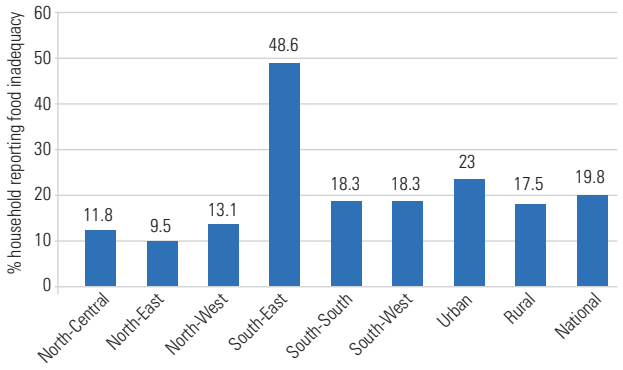
Source: NBS, Consumer Price Index Statistics

Figure 3. 22: Percentage distribution of Food Expenditure in Total Expenditure by Geo-political zones (2009/10)



Source: NBS 2009/10 Consumption Pattern in Nigeria 2009/10, March, 2012

Figure 3. 23: Percentage distribution of Household Reporting Food Inadequacy by Geo-political zones 2012/13

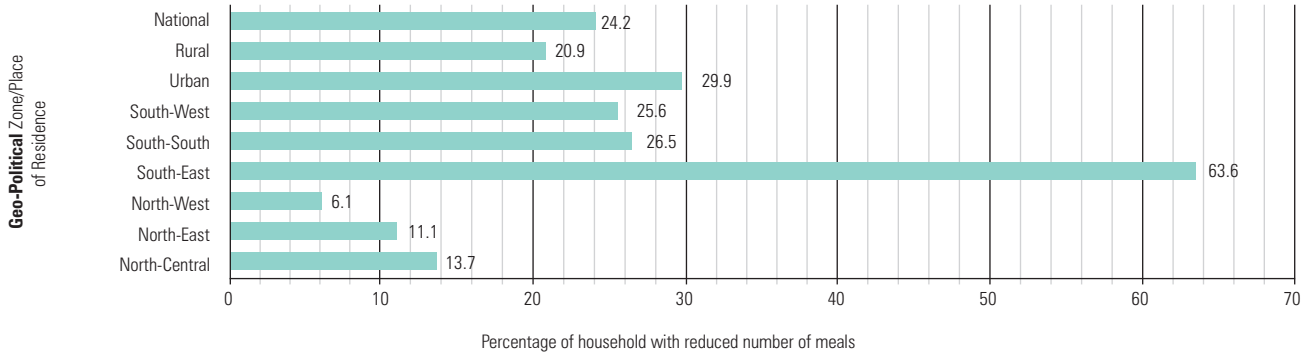


Source: NBS & World Bank, Living Standard Measurement Study 2012/13.

South-West at 22.7 per cent. The South-South has the lowest proportion of 12.17 per cent (Figure 3.22). The South-East has the highest proportion of household reporting food inadequacy in 2012/13 at 48.6 per cent, followed by the South-South and South-West at 18.3 per cent. The national average is 19.8 per cent (Figure 3.23). The South-East has the highest proportion of households with reduced number of meals (2012/13) of 63.6 per cent followed by the South-South and South-West with 26.5 and 25.6 per cent respectively (Figure 3.24).

The proportion of underweight children under five years of age shows an erratic pattern. These proportions dropped from 27.2 per cent in 2008 to 26.7 per cent in 2009 and to 24 per cent in 2011. In 2012, it rose to 27 per cent and then declined to 25.5 per cent in 2014

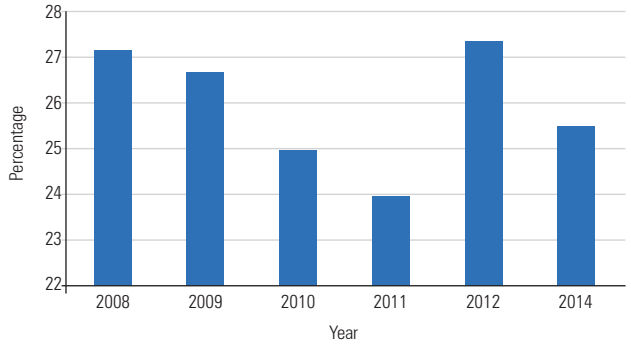
Figure 3. 24: Percentage distribution of Household with reduced number of meals by Geo-political zones (2012/13)



Source: NBS & World Bank, Living Standard Measurement Study 2012/13.

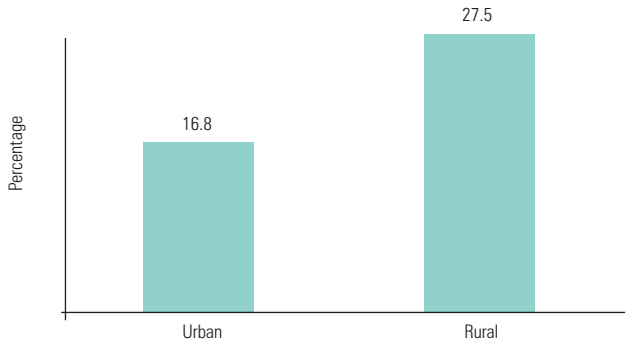
(Figure 3.25). The rural urban dynamics reveal that proportion of underweight children under five years in rural areas is 16.8 per cent and for urban areas is 27.5 per cent (Figure 3.26).

Figure 3. 25: Percentage of underweight children under five years of age



Source: National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) (2011). Multiple indicator cluster survey. Abuja: NBS.

Figure 3. 26: Percentage of urban and rural underweight children under five years of age in 2012



Source: National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) (2011). Multiple indicator cluster survey. Abuja: NBS.

3.6 Food and the Threat to Security

Individual threat

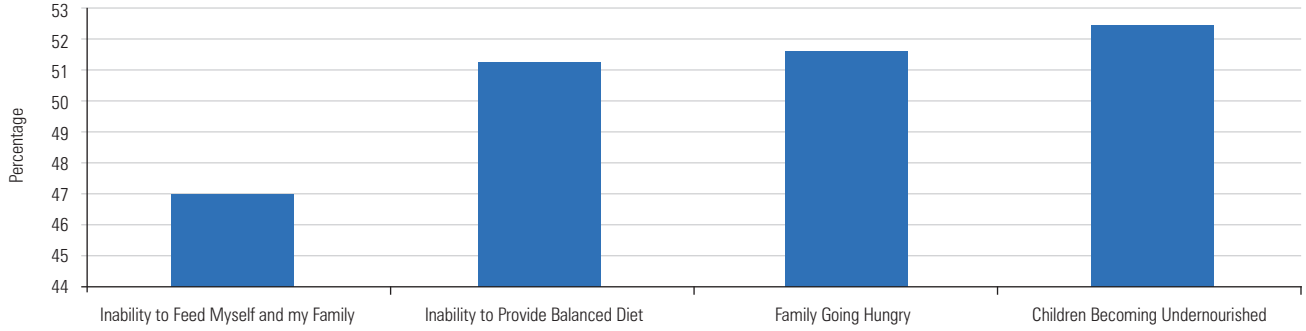
In the opinion of the respondents, the possibility of their children becoming undernourished is the greatest threat to food security at the individual level. About 52.4 per cent of the respondents expressed this apprehension. This is closely followed by the fear that the family might go hungry as indicated by 51.6 per cent of the respondents (Figure 3.27). Food poverty averaged 40.6 per cent in 2019 (NBS, 2010), while the percentage of underweight children under five years of age is estimated at 25.5 per in 2014.

General threat

The greatest threats in the food domain anticipated by the respondents are low crop yield and decreased local food production. Over 78 per cent of the respondents in both cases envisaged this prospect (Figure 3.28). Massive initiatives by the federal government in the input sector and other sectors of the agricultural value chain including dry season farming have led to improvement in crop yield and local production. This perception is perhaps underpinned by the fear of likely policy reversals and effect of unpredictable natural occurrences such as weather and floods.

The abandonment of farmland dominates the security risk the respondents believe they could cope with in the food domain. About 52 per cent of them are of the view that they could cope with this risk. This could be because many of them are moving into the urban areas to take up other jobs like *okada* (motorcycle) transport business. Furthermore, 51.2 per cent and almost 50 per cent indicated that they could cope with the risks of low crop yield and decreased local production respectively. This again could be attributed to the fact that they could purchase food crops at higher prices. Only 36 per cent felt

Figure 3. 27: Distribution of respondents afraid of threat to security at the personal level in the food domain (national average in %)



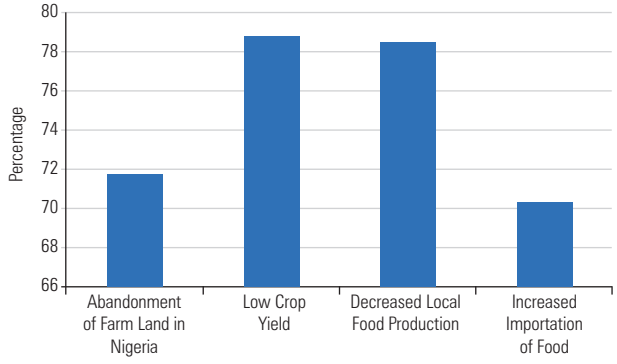
Source: Field Survey, 2015

they could cope with the risk of increased importation of food (Figure 3.29).

The 'children becoming undernourished' is the dominant threat to security at the individual level in the food domain in the FCT, South-West and North-West. This is the perception of 66.54 and 45.5 per cent respectively of respondents in these zones (Figure 3.30). The `family going hungry' is the main threat in this domain for respondents in the South-East, North-East and North-Central zones while 'inability to feed self and family' is the dominant threat in the South-East.

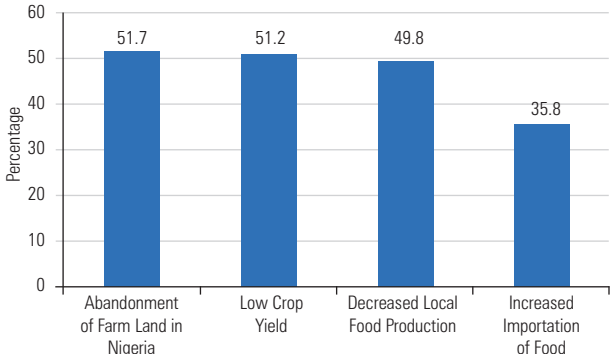
Low crop yield is the dominant threat anticipated in the food domain by respondents in all geo-political zones with the exception of the North-West and the South-South. The proportion of respondents in this category ranges from 71 per cent in the North-Central to 98 per cent in the FCT. Indeed, an equal number of respondents (98 per cent) indicated decreased local production as a parallel threat envisaged in this domain. For the North-West and South-South, the dominant threat expected in the food domain is decreased local food production as indicated by 87.5 and 52.8 per cent of the respondents (Figure 3.31).

Figure 3. 28: Distribution of respondents afraid of general threats in the food domain (national average in %)



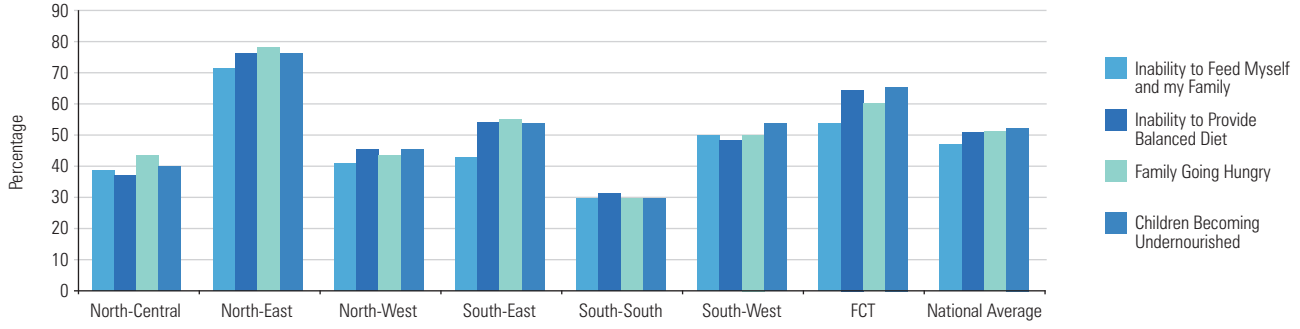
Source: Field Survey, 2015

Figure 3. 29: Distribution of respondents by self-assessment of ability to cope with selected security risks in the food domain (national average in %)



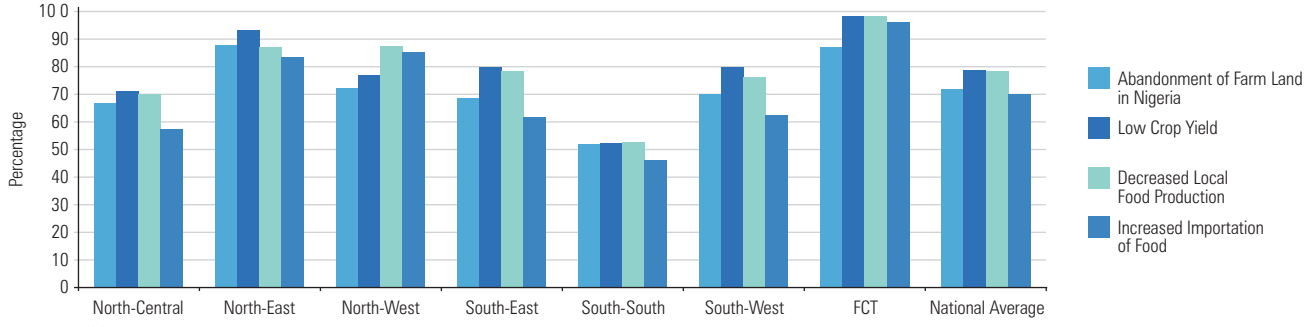
Source: Field Survey, 2015

Figure 3. 30: Geopolitical distribution of respondents afraid of threat to security in the food domain (%)



Source: Field Survey, 2015

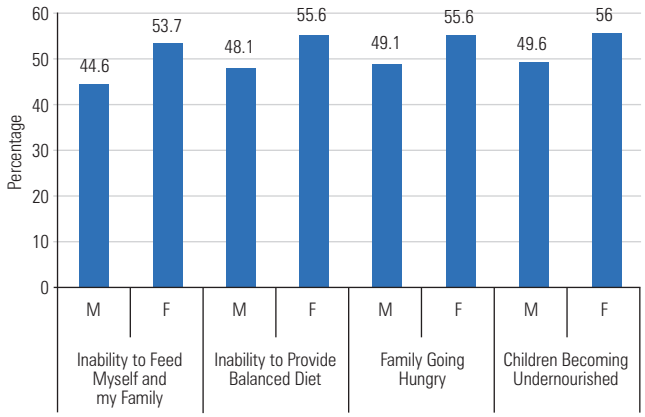
Figure 3. 31: Geopolitical distribution of respondents afraid of general threats in the food domain (%)



Source: Field Survey, 2015

The proportions of female respondents afraid of threat to security in the food domain exceed the male in all categories. For instance, the proportion of female afraid of 'inability to feed self and family' is 53.7 relative to male, 44.6 per cent. Similarly, the proportion of female afraid of 'the family going hungry' is 55.6 per cent compared to male, 49 per cent. These results are expected as they reflect women's deep roles as homemakers (Figure 3.32).

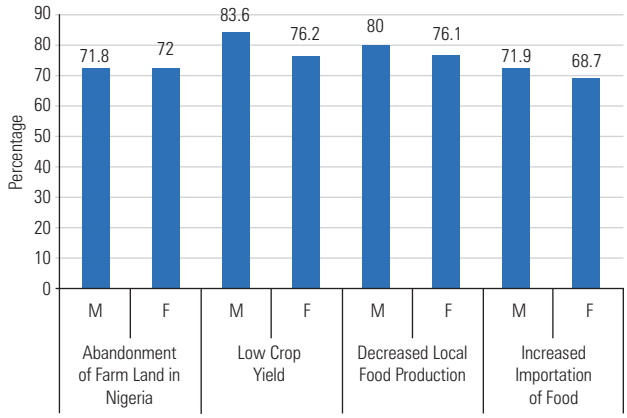
Figure 3. 32: Gender distribution of respondents afraid of threat to security at the personal level in the food domain



Source: Field Survey, 2015

More male than female respondents proportionally, expect general threat in the food domain in terms of low crop yield and decreased local production. While 83.6 and 80 per cent of male respondents anticipate threats in respect of low crop yield and decreased local production respectively; 76.2 and 76.1 per cent of female respondents expressed similar sentiment. Differential response applies to threat of increased importation of food. This may be as a result of the fact that the man often leads the family in agricultural activities and provision of food for the family, and consequently, better placed to relate to these issues (Figure 3.33).

Figure 3. 33: Gender distribution of respondents afraid of general threats in the food domain (%)

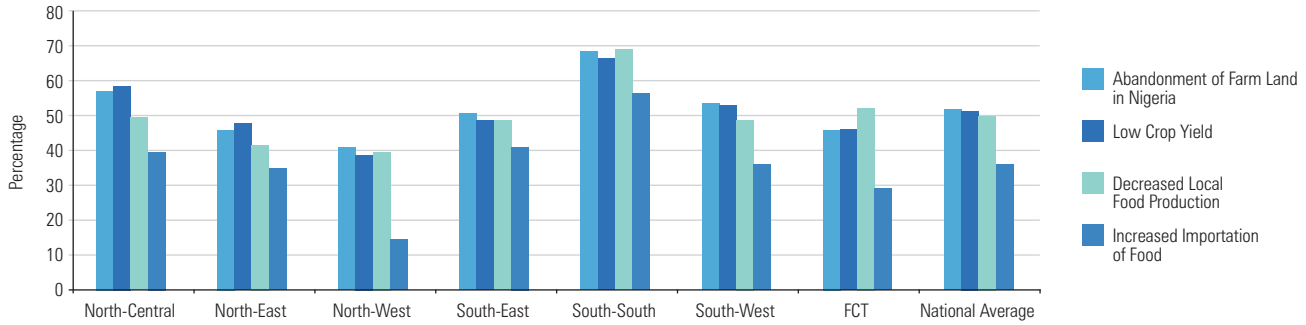


Source: Field Survey, 2015

Ability to cope with security risks

The citizen's perception of the ability to cope with risks associated with food security challenges is shown in Figure 3.34 with a focus on four food security related risks (abandonment of farmland, low crop yield, decreased local food production, and increased importation of food). The distribution of citizen's perception across the six geopolitical zones and the FCT demonstrates that the lowest ratings of citizen's perception of their ability to influence security risks are in the North-West geopolitical zone, while highest ratings are in the South-South.

Figure 3.34: Geopolitical distribution of self-assessment of ability to cope with security risks in the food domain



Source: Field Survey, 2015

For the factor, 'abandonment of farmland', the lowest ratings of ability to influence security risks are in the North-West, North-East and the FCT while the highest rating of 68.3 per cent of the respondents is in the South-South. This can be explained by the availability of vast expanse of arable farmland in the North-West and North-East, and hence abandonment of farmland is unlikely to be perceived as a major risk compared to the South-South that has relatively limited land for farming.

For the factor, 'low crop yield', the lowest ratings are in the North-West and the FCT, while the highest ratings are in the South-South and North-Central. For the factor, 'decreased local food production', the lowest ratings are in the North-West and North-East, while the highest ratings are in the South-South and the FCT. This can also be explained by the predominance of arable agriculture in the North-West and the North-East. The people in these two zones possibly view themselves as having a low capacity to respond to the risks associated with arable agriculture which is the major source of their livelihood. Though arable agriculture is a major occupation in the South-South, the existence of other notable sources of livelihood (e.g., fishing) might make the respondents not to view decreased local food production as a risk that cannot be easily addressed. For the factor, 'increased importation of food', the lowest ratings are in the North-West and the North-East, while the highest ratings are in the South-South and the South-East.

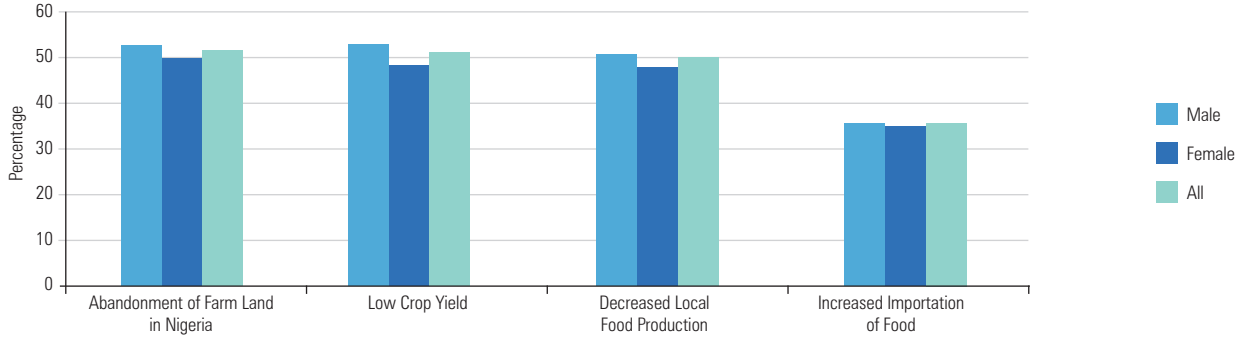
As shown in Figure 3.35, the gender distribution of the pooled sample as indicated by the national average does not show appreciable difference in the proportion of the male and female respondents that claimed to have ability to cope with risks associated with increased importation of food. A higher proportion of the male respondents across the selected risk factors claim to have ability to cope with risks associated with food security.

The results of the responses on ability to cope with risks associated with economic factors that affect food security suggest that the ability to cope with security risks are lowest in the North-West and the North-East, and highest in the South-South and the South-East. This could be attributed to the fact that the people in the South-South and South-East are more food secure compared to those in the North-East and North-West. The gender distribution of the responses as shown by the national average does not provide evidence for a profound differential in the male and female perception of the ability to cope with security risks. In each of the four factors considered, the proportion of male respondents that claimed to have ability to cope with security risks is only marginally higher than the corresponding proportion of female respondents (Figure 3.35).

3.7 Conclusions

The greatest threats to security at the individual level, as perceived by the people are the reality or idea of needing to bribe someone in order to obtain a service, inability to pay one's children's or one's own education and being unable to support oneself. Similarly, the perceived most important threats, in order of importance are fear of devaluation of the Naira and price increase while the perceived dominant factor that contributes to sense of security is sufficient and predictable income. Most people perceive their ability to cope with devaluation of the Naira and price increase as very low. Ability to cope with price increase is lowest in the North-West and FCT, and highest in the South-South while ability to cope with risks associated with the devaluation of the Naira is lowest in the North-West and South-South and highest in the South-East.

Figure 3. 35: Gender distribution of self-assessment of ability to cope with security risks in the food domain



Source: Field Survey, 2015

With respect to job security, aggregate unemployment increased between 2008 and 2013 but there was a decline in the growth rate. The problem is more pandemic in the rural areas while the rate of unemployment is highest in the North-West followed by the South-South. With respect to job security, the perceived dominant threat at individual level is the fear of losing one's job or inability to find work. With respect to perceived threat at the general level, the dominant ones are inability to compete at the job market and insufficient pension to live on after retirement. The factors perceived to contribute to sense of job security include 'government employment support system', social insurance coverage, and social welfare system. Perception of government employment support system' is most pronounced in the North-West and South-South and least pronounced in the North-East and FCT. Perception of 'social insurance coverage', is most pronounced in the North-East and South-South and least pronounced in the FCT and North-Central. Similarly, perception of 'social welfare system' is most pronounced in the South-East and North-West and least pronounced in the North-East and FCT.

With respect to food security, generally food production increased between 2011 and 2013. The pattern of food consumption shows that the North-West has the highest proportion of food expenditure followed by the South-West while the South-South has the lowest proportion. The South-East has the highest proportion of household reporting food inadequacy followed by the South-South and South-West. With respect to threat to food security at the individual level, the possibility of their children becoming undernourished is perceived as the greatest threat. At the general level, the perceived greatest threats are fear of low crop yield and decreased local food production. With respect to coping ability, the dominant threat people perceived they could cope with is abandonment of farm land followed by risks of low crop yield and decreased local production. Fear of low crop yield is dominant in all geo-political zones with the exception of the North-West and the South-South while the fear of 'children becoming undernourished' is dominant in the FCT, South-West and North-West. With respect to ability to cope with all the threats associated with food security, lowest ratings of citizen's perception are observed in the North-West geopolitical zone, while highest ratings are in the South-South.

"four food security related risks (abandonment of farmland, low crop yield, decreased local food production, and increased importation of food)".

4.
ENVIRONMENT AND HEALTH DIMENSIONS OF HUMAN SECURITY

4.0 Introduction

The consequences of environmental and health insecurity in Nigeria may not be fully understood without a clear analysis of the concept of environment and health. In this report, the term environment is conceptualised to include both the physical and human elements of the earth surface. The physical elements include the climate (temperature, rainfall, wind and evaporation), air, topography, geology, soils, vegetation (flora), fauna (animals), groundwater (hydrogeology), and surface water (hydrology). On the other hand, the human dimension constitutes elements such as people, land tenure and use, archaeological, social, cultural, political and economic aspects (Godwell and Ekpe, 2011). With respect to health, one of the most cited definitions of health is that given by the World Health Organisation (WHO). It defined health as "a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity." This definition is adopted for this report.

The environment and the health dimensions are critical because of their separate and collaborative contributions to the overall development of any nation. There is now an increasing awareness that our health and the environment in which we live are closely linked to human development, and in 2006 the World Health Organisation (WHO) estimated that 24 per cent of the global burden of disease was due to modifiable environmental factors (Prüss-Üstün and Corvalán, 2006). In this chapter, we will explore the implications of environmental and health insecurity on human development in Nigeria.

Environmental security is emerging rapidly as a field of interest among scholars and policymakers because of its vital relevance to the livelihoods of billions of people. Thus, it is a vital component of human insecurity. The most serious development problems facing the world today including water and food supply crises, extreme volatility in energy and food prices, rising greenhouse gas emissions, severe income disparity, chronic fiscal imbalances, terrorism among others (UNU-IHDP and UNEP, 2012) are all directly or indirectly linked to the environment. These challenges are the basic units of environmental insecurity and pose real threat to human security. Environmental security examines these threats posed by environmental events and trends to individuals, communities or nations. It considers the abilities of individuals, communities or nations to cope with environmental risks, changes or conflicts, or limited natural resources.

The Brundtland Commission Report of 1978 addressed the intricate linkages between the environment and human development and emphasised the need for policymakers to consider these interrelationships in addressing global problems. Environmental stress is one of the results of the growing demand on scarce environmental resources. Those who are poor and hungry will often destroy their immediate environment in order to survive through cutting down of trees, overgrazing and farming on marginal land, among others. On the other hand, countries that have witnessed development have achieved this through increased use of raw materials, energy, chemicals, and synthetics from the environment. Thus today's environmental challenges arise both from the lack of development and from the unintended consequences of some forms of development (WCED, 1987). Succinctly put, environment is the foundation for human development which entails:

- increasing the asset base and its productivity;
- empowering poor people and marginalised communities;
- reducing and managing risks; and
- taking a long-term perspective with regard to intra- and intergenerational equity

The environment is central to all four of these requirements (Bass 2006, World Bank 2006). The implication of this is that long-term development can only be achieved through sustainable management of the environment. Thus, achieving Millennium Development Goal 7 of ensuring environmental sustainability is seen

as the key to achieving poverty eradication and the other MDGs.

In this chapter, we will first focus the analysis on the status of environmental security as one of the domain of human security using some key environmental indicators and its implication on human development in Nigeria. The second aspect of the chapter will focus on the status of health security and the implications on human development in Nigeria.

4.1 Environmental Security

The starting point in analysing the status of environmental security in Nigeria is to focus on the aggregate performance of the environment using the global Environmental Performance Index (EPI). The EPI ranks how well countries perform on high-priority environmental indicators in two broad policy areas: protection of human health from environmental harm and protection of ecosystems. The latest edition of the EPI presented during the 2014 World Economic Forum in Davos, Switzerland indicates that Nigeria ranked 134 out of 178 countries with a score of 39.2 per cent. In the year 2012, Nigeria was ranked 119th out of 132 countries with a score of 40.1 per cent (Yale Centre for Environmental Law and Policy, 2014). The low but declining EPI of Nigeria is only an indicator of the poor state of environmental status in Nigeria. Table 4.1 shows the 2014 environmental performance index of seven African countries including Nigeria.

Table 4. 1: Environmental Performance Index of Seven African countries including Nigeria

Countries	Score	Environmental Performance Index (EPI)
Egypt	61.11	50th
Tunisia	58.99	52nd
Mauritius	58.09	56th
Seychelles	55.56	61st
South Africa	53.51	72nd
Nigeria	39.2	134th
Somalia	15.47	178th

Source: Yale Centre for Environmental Law and Policy, 2014

Table 4.1 shows that the African countries that ranked highest in the index was Egypt in the 50th position with a score of 61.11 per cent; followed by Tunisia in the 52nd position with 58.99 per cent; Mauritius in the 56th position with 58.09 per cent; Seychelles, which ranked 61st with 55.56 per cent score; and South Africa in 72nd position with 53.51 per cent. Somalia occupied the bottom of the table with a score of 15.47 per cent. To further understand the status of environmental security in Nigeria, we examine the performance of UNDP seven indicators of environmental security.

4.2 Indicators of Environmental Security

In this report, seven indicators of environmental security have been developed (Table 4.2) based on the UNDP Human Development Report of 1994.

Table 4. 2: Environment security

S/N	Indicators
1	Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source
2	Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility
3	Proportion of land area covered by forest
4	Total Annual rainfall
5	Total Amount of gas Flared
6	Co2 Emission
7	Number of internally displaced persons due to Disasters

Source: UNDP, 1994

4.2.1 Proportion of Population Using an Improved Drinking Water Source and Sanitation facilities in Nigeria

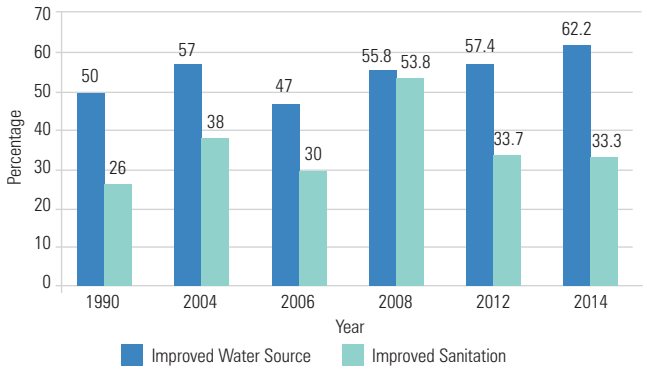
Improved drinking water sources include household connections, public stand pipes, boreholes, protected wells and springs. The role of water in human life cannot be over emphasised and hence the emphasis on improved drinking water sources. Access to improved sources of drinking water has been unstable in Nigeria (Figure 4.1). About 50.0 per cent of Nigeria households had access to improved water source in 1990. This rose to 57.0 per cent in 2004 and in 2008, there was a slight decrease to 55.8 percent while 62.2 per cent was recorded in 2014 with only 24.4 per cent increase from the 1990.

On the other hand, Figure 4.1 indicates that the use of improved sanitation facilities is generally low in Nigeria. In 1990, the proportion of households with improved sanitation facilities was 26 per cent and this rose to 38.0 per cent in 2004. The highest 53.8 per cent was recorded in 2008 before falling to 33.3 per cent in 2014 with only 28.0 per cent increase since the 1990.

While the aggregate figures clearly show how the country has performed with respect to access to improved water sources and sanitation facilities, the

zonal and state differentials remained unclear. This is crucial in making appropriate policy measures in addressing lagging areas and hence the zonal and states distribution of household access to improved water sources and sanitation facilities. Table 4.3 shows that there are variations at the zonal and state levels in terms of access to improved water sources and sanitation facilities. At the zonal level, South-South geo-political zone has the highest access to improved water sources with about 69.6 per cent of the households having access to improved water sources. This is followed by South-East and South-West geo-political zones with 67.9 per cent and 65.5 per cent of households respectively having access to improved water sources. The zone with least access to improved water source is the North-East where 50.2 per cent of the households have access to improved water sources (Table 4.3).

Figure 4. 1: Proportion of Population Using an Improved Drinking Water Source and Sanitation facilities in Nigeria



Source: NHDS, 2013

With respect to access to improved sanitation facilities, North-West zone has the highest access with 42.2 per cent of the households followed by South-East zone with 36.5 per cent while the zone with least access to improved sanitation services is South-West zone with 17.8 per cent of the households having access to improved sanitation facilities (Table 4.3). At the state level, Kwara state has the highest percentage of households with access to improved water sources. Specifically, 80.1 per cent of the households had access to improved water sources while the least state is Kebbi with only 21.9 per cent of the households having access to improved water sources (Table 4.3).

The level of access to improved water sources and sanitation facilities is now a serious concern because of

Table 4. 3: Zonal and States Variations in Access to Improved Source of Water and Sanitation Facilities

Ge o-Political Zones	% of Households with Access to Improved Source of Drinking Water By Geo-political Zones and States	% of Households with Access to Improved Sanitation Facilities By Geo-political Zones and States
North-Central	54.3	20.2
FCT-Abuja	73.3	43.0
Benue	37.3	1 2.8
Kogi	70.1	16.9
Kwara	80.1	24.2
Nasarrawa	60.2	34.3
Niger	48.1	16.6
Plateau	42.9	20.0
North-East	50.2	34.6
Adamawa	63.6	42.2
Bauchi	37.4	15.0
Bornu	60.4	42.2
Gombe	54.2	66.5
Taraba	31.6	22.5
Yobe	45.3	26.8
North-West	57.7	42.2
Jigawa	73.9	49.4
Kaduna	65.8	22.1
Kano	70.7	64.0
Katsina	49.5	42.2
Kebbi	21.9	52.3
Sokoto	64.5	44.0
Zamfara	34.0	6.9
South-East	67.9	36.5
Abia	62.6	42.5
Anambra	73.3	56.7
Ebonyi	67.7	10.7
Enugu	47.5	22.5
Imo	83.3	48.2
South-South	69.6	25.8
Akwa Ibom	73.5	36.6
Bayelsa	45.4	16.9
Cross River	69.6	10.4
Delta	68.8	22.4
Edo	73.2	34.4
Rivers	71.3	28.0
South-West	65.5	17.8
Lagos	57.2	28.1
Oyo	68.6	13.0
Ekiti	74.6	15.2
Ogun	80.0	9.2
Ondo	55.0	18.0
Osun	80.0	16.1

Source: NHDS, 2013

the associated massive health burden as many people who lack basic sanitation engage in unsanitary activities like open defecation, poor solid waste and poor wastewater disposal practices. The practice of open defecation is the primary cause of faecal transmission of disease with children being the most vulnerable. The country's inability to provide improved drinking water sources, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) services has led to different health complications leading to death within the country. The water and sanitation position in Nigeria is of serious concern as under-five mortality rate is still high relative to other countries due to the recurrent outbreaks of cholera especially in rural areas which underline the poor state of human development in the country.

Findings from the survey carried out with respect to collection of primary data corroborate the intensity of these concerns (Table 4.4). Nationally, 56.1 per cent of the respondents noted that their inability to access portable water is a threat to their personal security. The majority of male respondents (54.8%) and female respondents (57.9%) consider their inability to access portable water as a threat to their personal security. However, there is no significant difference between urban and rural respondents perception of their inability to access portable water as a threat to their personal security (Table 4.4).

With respect to geo-political zones, (Figure 4.2), the majority of the respondents across the Geo-political zones in Nigeria with the exception of North-West zone perceived their inability to access portable water as a threat to their personal security (Figure 4.2). Although the zones in northern Nigeria have the lowest proportion of groundwater potential in the country, the Sokoto basin, located in the North-West region, has a fairly reasonable water yield. This, coupled with relatively low population density (compared to zones in southern Nigeria) could reduce the challenges of accessing portable water.

Specifically, 83.0 per cent and 78.0 per cent of the respondents in FCT and North-East Geo-political zones respectively perceived inability to access portable water as a threat to their personal security. Also, 56.0 per cent, 50.3 per cent and 50.5 per cent of the respondents in South-West, South-East and South-South respectively perceived their inability to access portable water as a threat to their personal security while only 33.0 per cent in the North-West perceived it as threat to their personal security (Figure 4.2).

With respect to sanitation facilities, 63.4 per cent of the respondents perceived household waste disposal problems as a threat to their personal security at the national level (Table 4.4). There are no significant differences in the perceptions of the respondents by gender, settlement location and by geo-political zones. Generally, more than half of all the respondents across the geo-political zones perceived household waste disposal problems as a threat to their personal security. The combination of safe drinking water and hygienic sanitation facilities is one of the precondition for success in the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The poor state of safe drinking water and sanitation facilities may explain Nigeria's inability to achieve the various targets of the MDGs. According to Water and Sanitation Program report of 2012, poor sanitation costs Nigeria 455 billion Naira each year, equivalent to US$3 billion. This sum is the equivalent of US$20 per person in Nigeria per year or 1.3 per

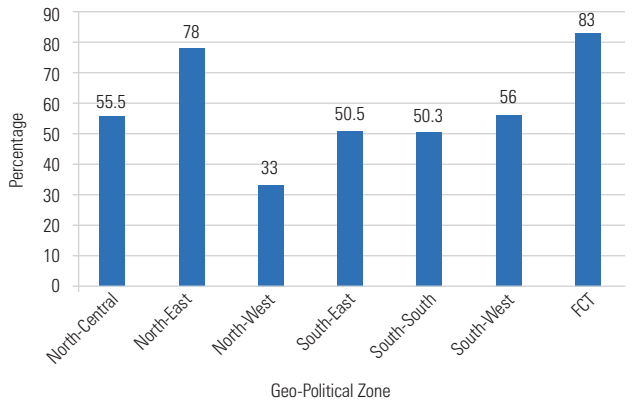
Table 4. 4: Perception of Threats to Security at the Personal Level: Environmental Domain

Geo-Political Zone	Inability to Access Portable water					Household waste disposal becoming problematic				
	Sex		Place of residence		All	Sex		Place of residence		All
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	51.7	58.4	31.4	80.6	55.5	53.6	72.6	52.9	78.6	65.5
North-East	79.0	76.3	87.8	70.0	78.0	81.5	90.8	92.2	79.1	80.5
North-West	32.0	36.0	54.5	11.1	33.0	54.7	38.0	60.4	40.4	50.5
South-East	44.4	56.4	55.1	46.1	50.5	47.5	57.4	58.2	47.1	52.5
South-South	48.1	52.6	45.5	56.3	50.3	61.5	57.9	44.6	79.3	59.8
South-West	60.2	51.1	60.0	52.0	56.0	55.6	50.0	59.0	47.0	53.0
FCT	83.9	81.6	73.5	92.2	83.0	90.3	94.7	87.8	96.1	92.0
National Average	54.8	57.9	56.3	56.0	56.1	62.5	64.6	62.4	64.5	63.4

Source: Field Survey, 2015

cent of the national GDP (WSP, 2012). These costs are associated with poor Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) related health conditions and treatments, and with productivity losses resulting from poor WASH related morbidities and deaths. Approximately 121,800 Nigerians, including 87,100 children under 5, die each year from diarrhoea and nearly 90 per cent of this is directly attributed to poor WASH (WSP, 2012). This scenario has serious impact on human development in Nigeria.

Figure 4. 2: Respondents Perception of their Inability to Access Portable Water as a Personal Threat by Geo-political Zone



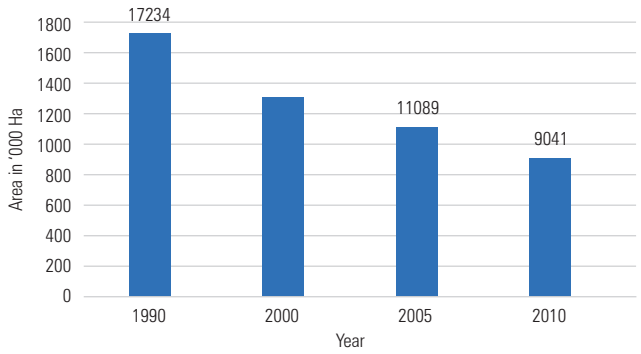
Source: Field Survey, 2015

4.2.2 Proportion Land area Covered by Forest in Nigeria

Nigeria is well endowed with forest resources, accounting for about 2.5 percent of its Gross Domestic Products (GDP). These resources provide employment for over 2 million people through supply of fuel wood and poles and more than 80,000 people working in the log processing industries, especially in the forest zone of the south (Batta, *et al.*, 2013). The forests occupy about 10 million hectares representing almost 10 percent of the total land area of 92 377 hectares. Nigeria has one of the highest rates of forest loss in the world (Batta *et al.,* (2013). Between 1990 and 2000, Nigeria lost an average of 409,700 hectares of forest per year (Figure 4.3) (FAO, 2010). This amounts to an average annual deforestation rate of 2.38%. Between 2000 and 2005. In total, between 1990 and 2005, Nigeria lost 35.7% of its forest cover (FAO, 2010).

The main drivers of deforestation in the country are agriculture, logging and mining, rapid population growth and use of fuel wood (Olakunle, *et. al*., 2011; Merem *et. al*, 2012). The declining forest resources pose serious challenge to human security in Nigeria. Forest provides important social, economic and environmental benefits which contribute to human development. For instance, forests provide: wood for cooking and heating, construction of houses, making of furniture, poles, baskets, boards plywood, wood pulp for making of papers and textiles etc. In addition, it provides environmental services such as air and water purification, watershed protection to control runoff, soil stabilisation, nutrient cycling, carbon sequestration (storage) which help in combating climate change and global warming. Furthermore, it provides recreational facilities such as game reserves, zoos etc.; medicinal plants for the treatment of various types of ailments; and food in the form of Non-Timber Forest Products (NTFP) (Olumide, 2009; Oriola, 2009). Thus, the availability of forest resources has multiple environmental and socioeconomic functions. Conversely, forest resources facing deforestation activities have negative implications for the environment and socio-economic development. These negative consequences include loss of livelihoods (agriculture) and social problems such as conflict – and, most importantly, reduction in quality of life.

Figure 4. 3: Total Forest Area in Nigeria, 1990-2010 ('000 ha)



Source: Global Forest Resources Assessment, 2010.

As noted previously, one of the main drivers of deforestation in Nigeria is the use of fuel wood for cooking at the household level across the geo-political zones in Nigeria. Table 4.5 shows the percentage of households by state and geo-political zones utilising fuel wood as the main source of cooking energy. In the North-East Geo-political zone and for the period under review, over 95.0 per cent of households access fuel wood as their main source of cooking. In the North-

Table 4. 5: Percentage of Households Accessing Fuel Wood as the Main Source of Fuel

Geo-Political Zones	2007	2008	2009
North-Central	80.7	82.4	75.1
FCT-Abuja	57.4	57.6	60.3
Benue	94.5	96.5	74.5
Kogi	86.6	79.6	74.0
Kwara	62.0	74.3	66.1
Nasarrawa	90.8	91.1	79.5
Niger	92.9	89.3	88.9
Plateau	80.8	88.8	82.4
North-East	95.5	96.7	97.2
Adamawa	93.4	96.8	95.0
Bauchi	97.6	98.2	97.0
Bornu	98.4	94.3	99.8
Gombe	92.4	95.9	96.5
Taraba	98.8	97.4	96.3
Yobe	98.7	97.7	98.8
North-West	86.7	95.3	96.3
Jigawa	95.1	97.8	99.4
Kaduna	88.5	90.7	89.4
Kano	94.9	94.1	90.8
Katsina	97.5	97.8	99.1
Kebbi	99.2	94.6	99.2
Sokoto	96.2	93.5	96.6
Zamfara	95.5	98.3	99.6
South-East	77.9	83.3	77.9
Abia	73.6	77.8	75.9
Anambra	72.2	77.3	71.6
Ebonyi	90.0	93.1	85.3
Enugu	68.9	77.3	69.9
Imo	85.1	90.9	86.7
South-South	73.2	69.2	63.6
Akwa Ibom	81.0	82.4	84.7
Bayelsa	57.6	51.4	60.8
Cross River	79.8	86.3	82.5
Delta	76.6	61.6	53.1
Edo	78.7	74.3	53.9
Rivers	65.2	59.1	46.2
South-West	49.9	46.3	39.6
Lagos	3.1	2.7	8.7
Oyo	50.2	44.1	35.4
Ekiti	74.3	61.5	52.6
Ogun	49.0	37.3	24.6
Ondo	66.7	82.5	74.4
Osun	56.0	49.6	42.0

Source: NBS, 2010

West, the figure increased from 86.7 per cent in 2007 to over 96.0 per cent in 2009. In the North-Central, the figure decreased from 80.1 per cent in 2007 to 75.1 per cent in 2009. Generally, the zone with the lowest percentage is the South-West zone where households accessing fuel wood as their main source of cooking fuel ranges from 49.9 per cent in 2007 to 39. 6 per cent in 2009 (Table 4.5).

In view of the high rate of deforestation in Nigeria, the study further assesses the citizen's perception on deforestation as a threat to their general security. Table 4.6 shows the citizens perception of deforestation as a threat to their personal security. Expectedly, the respondents across the geopolitical zones perceived the loss of forest as a general threat to their security.

Table 4.6 indicates that there are no significant variations in the respondent's perception on the clear-cutting of forest as a general threat by gender, and geo-political zones. For instance, more than half of all the respondents across the geo-political zones in both urban and rural locations perceived clear-cutting of forest as a threat to their general security. The reduction in forest cover in Nigeria is already having serious impact on human development in Nigeria. According to Balarabe, (2011) deforestation accounts for 87 per cent of total carbon emission in Nigeria and the role of CO_2 in emerging changes in climatic condition has already been established. Today, climate change is one of the major threats to sustainable development in Nigeria as extreme climatic events such as flooding and drought are already impacting on people, properties and their livelihoods. Therefore the declining trends in the forest resources of the country have serious implications for human development in Nigeria.

Table 4. 6: Respondents Perception on the Clear-Cutting of Forest as a General Threat

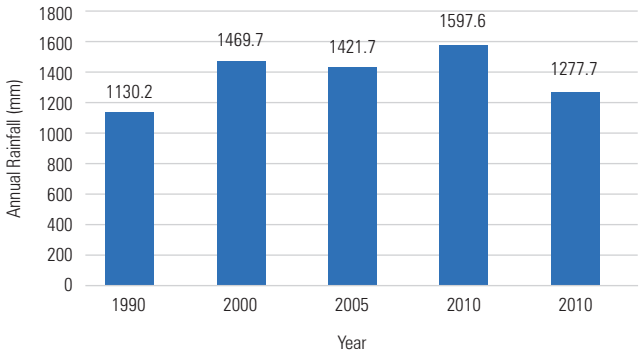
Geo-Political Zones	Clear-Cutting of Forests in Nigeria				
	Sex		Place of residence		
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	All
North-Central	65.5	57.5	59.8	62.2	61.0
North-East	80.6	89.5	78.9	88.2	84.0
North-West	83.3	84.0	98.0	71.7	83.5
South-East	54.5	58.4	61.2	52.0	56.5
South-South	82.7	86.3	78.6	92.0	84.4
South-West	52.8	58.7	61.0	50.0	55.5
FCT	90.3	92.1	91.8	90.2	91.0
National Average	79.2	71.7	73.9	70.8	72.4

Source: Field Survey, 2015

4.2.3 Rainfall in Nigeria

Rainfall is one of the most important environmental resources that contribute to human security. Rainfall and soil water are fundamental parts of all terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems which supply goods and services for human wellbeing. Availability and quality of water determine ecosystem productivity, both for agricultural and natural systems (UNEP, 2009). Rainfall is particularly important in the developing countries such as Nigeria where irrigated area as a share of total cultivated area is low estimated at about 2 per cent (Svendsen et al., 2009) which is lower than average of 6 percent for Africa. The implication of this is that agriculture in Nigeria is rain fed. However, the recent variability in annual rainfall pattern poses serious threat to human security in Nigeria. Available rainfall data from 2005 to 2009 (Figure 4.4) indicates wide variability which is a major threat to agricultural production and threat to agricultural production is a threat to human security.

Figure 4. 4: Total Annual rainfall in Nigeria (2008-2013)



Source: NBS, 2010

There are well established links between rainfall variability and the stability of agriculture and food security, water stress and scarcity as well as destruction of property (Carter et al., 2007). Other studies indicates an increase in economic and health risks, including loss of lives (Hall et al, 2003) as well as decreased access to ecosystem resources. In Nigeria, several negative impacts of rainfall variability are manifested in the form of flooding in several states in Nigeria and drought predominantly in the northern part of Nigeria. Table 4.7 shows the distribution of rainfall by states and geo-political zones from 2005 to 2009.

Expectedly, Table 4.7 indicates that annual rainfall decreased from the south to the north. The least amount of annual rainfall is found in the core north which is occupied by North-East and North-West. In the North-East, average annual rainfall is less than 1000 mm which is beyond the low annual rainfall within the period under review also marked by variations. For instance, it rose from 863.9mm in 2005 to 953.3 mm in 2009. In the South-South zone which has the highest average annual rainfall, there were still variations across the period under review. In 2005, average annual rainfall was 2479 mm and rose to 2517 mm and 2655 mm in 2006 and 2007 respectively before dropping to 2184 mm in 2009 (Table 4.7).

The variations experienced within the period increase the unpredictability of the rain generating extreme events like flooding and drought as witnessed in many parts of the country in recent times. The rainfall variability is attributed to changing climatic condition and impacts on agriculture severely as majority of agricultural practices in Nigeria are rain fed. Rainfall variability has a serious impact on the condition of the environment and biodiversity loss/deterioration. The present environmental problems such as soil erosion, flood, drought, desertification among others, are triggered off by rainfall variability. These constitute huge socio-economic and environmental losses to the country. The Sudan and Sahel Zone of Nigeria, which is important food and cash crops production areas is faced by severe drought and desertification occasioned by rainfall variability. This poses a great threat to the country's food security and wetland conservation.

In 2011, thirteen states in Nigeria were affected by flooding. The flood claimed about one hundred and forty lives with thousands displaced and properties worth millions of Naira destroyed, sadly children and the elderly accounted for a larger percentage of the dead from the flood (NEMA, 2013. In 2012, the discharge of water from Lagdo Dam in Cameroon along with torrential rains was the major cause of the untold flooding incidence across Nigeria which led to destruction of lives and properties. The re-occurring flood disaster in Nigeria has left no fewer than 25 million Nigerians being displaced and devastated in recent times. The 2012 flood disaster claimed 363 lives and displaced 2,157,419 people (NEMA, 2013).

4.2.4 Total Amount of Gas Flared in Nigeria

Nigeria has one of the tenth largest natural gas reserves in the world, with an estimated 5.2 trillion cubic meters (OPEC, 2013), or 2.8 per cent of total world reserves as at end of 2012. Most of the Nigerian natural gas

Table 4. 7: Distribution of Rainfall by States and Geo-political Zones from 2005 to 2009 (Millimetre)

Geo-Political Zones	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
North-Central	1160	1376.0	1417.0	2600.2	1436.2
FCT-Abuja	1,471.8	1,311.6	1,388.9	1,174.7	1,444.6
Benue	871.3	1,343.0	1,339.9	1,050.7	1,401.5
Kogi	939.4	1,681.9	1,531.4	1,259.7	1,631.5
Kwara	1,234.9	1,303.8	1,308.8	1,468.5	1,352.3
Nasarrawa	1,290.7	1,320.1	1,569.6	10,718.8	1,566.0
Niger	1,108.7	1,423.2	1,423.3	1,269.2	1,421.6
Plateau	1,203.5	1,248.4	1,357.2	1,259.8	1,236.9
North-East	863.9	896	904.6	757.9	953.3
Adamawa	865.7	1,057.3	827.4	468.5	718.1
Bauchi	1,104.5	1,017.9	1,136.9	1,133.1	1,621.3
Bornu	917.3	553.7	1,076.3	600.9	587.5
Gombe	975.5	955.4	833.6	985.9	857.4
Taraba	872.0	923.6	1,070.6	1,038.4	1,569.1
Yobe	448.6	409.5	483.1	320.3	366.5
North-West	744.9	598.5	636.9	697.6	757.8
Jigawa	na-	na-	na-	na-	na-
Kaduna	994.2	88.7	865.0	827.9	1,267.9
Kano	114.7	109.1	113.1	109.0	-
Katsina	750.6	726.5	704.1	557.1	473.8
Kebbi	1,055.0	959.2	886.9	1,223.0	1,196.0
Sokoto	635.1	745.5	636.4	514.6	603.0
Zamfara	920.3	961.8	615.8	954.0	1,006.0
South-East	1057.4	1632.1	1608.9	1689.3	2187.2
Abia	125.3	171.7	135.5	144.2	1,980.1
Anambra	159.7	1,910.3	2,026.8	2,056.7	2,273.4
Ebonyi	-na	na-	-na	na-	na-
Enugu	1,697.4	2,096.3	1,911.2	1,738.4	1,757.2
Imo	2,247.2	2,350.2	2,362.1	2,818.0	2,738.0
South-South	2479.9	2517.9	2655.1	2241.7	2184.7
Akwa Ibom	2,711.8	2,558.7	2,532.2	2,106.2	1,911.7
Bayelsa	na-	na-	-na	-na	-na
Cross River	3,862.1	2,896.8	3,427.9	3,060.8	2,521.8
Delta	1,756.4	1,906.4	1,802.4	1,765.1	1,765.8
Edo	2,014.0	2,358.5	2,647.8	2,670.0	2,122.6
Rivers	2,055.2	2,868.6	2,865.2	1,606.6	2,601.6
South-West	1027.2	1172.9	1095.3	1190.1	1190.1
Lagos	1,484.9	1,675.2	1,649.1	1,816.0	1,391.7
Oyo	1,192.0	1,260.2	1,218.8	889.4	1,702.1
Ekiti	114.6	109.7	-na	-na	-na
Ogun	924.2	1,142.1	876.2	1,371.7	1,465.5
Ondo	1,317.1	1,381.0	1,405.7	1,466.1	1,309.6
Osun	1,130.2	1,469.7	1,421.7	1,597.6	1,277.7

Source: NBS, 2010
Na- data not available

flares because of the lack of infrastructure to produce and market associated natural gas. Natural gas flares in Nigeria accounted for 10 per cent of the total amount flared globally in 2011 and the NNPC claimed that flaring cost Nigeria US $2.5 billion per year in lost revenue. Table 4.8 shows the estimated volume of gas flared in 20 top gas flaring countries and Nigeria has maintained the second position within the period under review (see Plate 4.1 and 4.2 for gas flaring activities in the Niger-Delta). However, the good news is that gas flaring activities has witnessed declining trends as shown in Figure 4.5. The declining trends in the volume of gas flared in Nigeria has been attributed to the improved security in the Niger Delta areas and stable co-funding from partners, which allowed the installation of new gas-gathering facilities and repair of existing facilities damaged during the militant crisis of 2006 to 2009 (Royal Dutch Shell, 2013). Equally significant are the activities of government aimed at imposition of heavy fines on erring oil companies.

Plate 4.1: Gas Flaring in the Nigeria

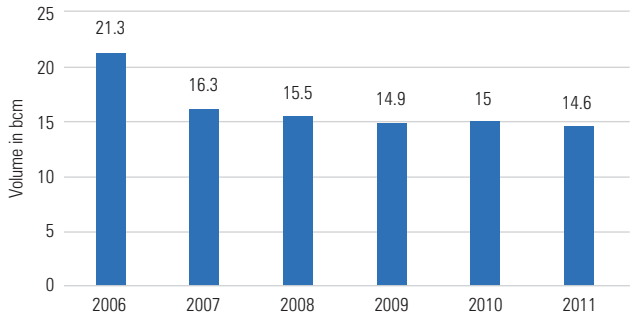
Table 4. 8: Estimated Flared Volume from Satellite Data (Volumes in bcm)

	2005	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Change from 2010 to 2011
Russia	58.3	52.3	42.0	46.6	35.6	37.4	1.8
Nigeria	21.3	16.3	15.5	14.9	15.0	14.6	-0.3
Iran	11.7	10.7	10.8	10.9	11.3	11.4	0.0
Iraq	7.0	6.7	7.1	8.1	9.0	9.4	0.3
USA	6.2	2.2	2.4	3.3	4.6	7.1	2.5
Algeria	5.7	5.6	6.2	4.9	5.3	5.0	-0.3
Kazakhstan	2.8	5.5	5.4	5.0	3.8	4.7	0.9
Angola	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.4	4.1	4.1	0.0
Saudi Arabia	4.67	3.9	3.9	3.6	3.6	3.7	0.1
Venezuela	4.7	2.2	2.7	2.8	2.8	3.5	0.7
China	1.9	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.6	0.1
Canada	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.8	2.5	2.4	-0.1
Libya	3.0	3.8	4.0	3.5	3.8	2.2	-1.6
Indonesia	3.0	2.6	2.5	2.9	2.2	2.2	0.0
Mexico	2.3	2.7	3.6	3.0	2.8	2.1	-0.7
Qatar	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.2	1.8	1.7	-0.1
Malaysia	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.5	1.6	0.2
Oman	2.5	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.6	1.6	0.0
Egypt	2.7	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.6	1.6	0.0
Total top 20	**148.9**	**132**	**124**	**127**	**118**	**121**	**3.1**
Rest of the world	23.0	22	22	20	20	19	(1.1)
Global flaring level	171.9	154	146	147	138	140	1.9

Source: NOAA Satellite data, 2012

Plate 4.2: Gas Flaring in the Nigeria

Figure 4. 5: Trends in Gas Flaring Activities in Nigeria



Source: NOAA Satellite data, 2012

Gas flaring activities constitute serious threat to citizen security in Nigeria and therefore an impediment to human development. Gas flaring activities in Nigeria has environmental, economic and health impacts on the citizens. Environmentally, it contributes to climate change, which has adverse consequences for the agricultural sector. The implications of gas flaring on human health are related to the exposure of those hazardous air pollutants emitted during incomplete combustion of gas flare. These pollutants are associated with a variety of adverse health impacts, including cancer, neurological, reproductive and developmental effects. Deformities in children, lung damage and skin problems have also been reported (Ovuakporaye et al, 2012).

Several social problems have arisen as a result of the adverse environmental and health problems which are endemic in local communities situated around oil exploration and gas flaring sites. These include unrests and aggravations for self-determination in affected communities.

Generally, both men and women see pollution level as a major factor that affects their sense of security (Table 4.9). About 49.0 per cent and 49.4 per cent of men and women see pollution level as a major factor affecting their sense of security. Expectedly, respondents from the urban areas perceived pollution level more of a security threat than respondents from rural areas (Table 4.9). Overall, about half of all the

Table 4. 9: Perception on the Extent to which the Pollution Levels affect their Sense of Security

Geo-Political Zones	Environmental Pollution in Nigeria				All
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	49.4	45.1	56.9	36.7	47.0
North-East	61.3	46.1	80.0	35.5	55.5
North-West	20.0	14.0	31.7	5.1	18.5
South-East	57.6	55.4	63.3	50.0	56.5
South-South	69.2	83.2	75.9	75.9	75.9
South-West	41.7	40.2	47.0	35.0	41.0
FCT	59.7	36.8	61.2	41.2	51.0
National Average	49.0	49.4	59.2	39.1	49.2

Source: Field Survey, 2015

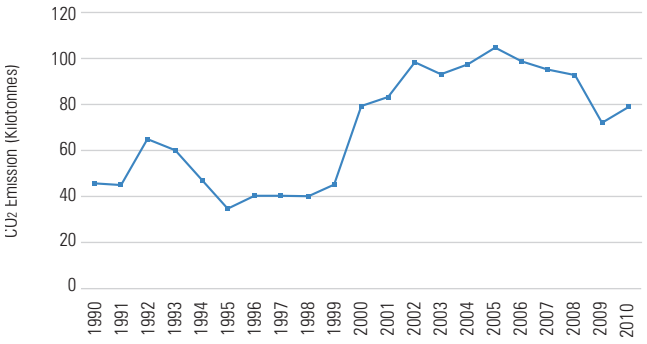
respondents noted that environmental pollution levels are major factor that affect their sense of security. The respondent's awareness of the health implications of pollution may explain their fears for environmental pollution. Therefore, the continuous flaring of gas in Nigeria is a threat to human security in Nigeria.

4.2.5 CO_2 Emission in Nigeria

Carbon dioxide emissions contribute significantly to global warming, threatening human and natural habitats. Fossil fuel combustion (including natural gas flaring) and cement manufacturing are the primary sources of anthropogenic carbon dioxide emissions. Global emissions of carbon dioxide (CO_2) increased by 3 per cent in 2011, reaching an all-time high of 34 billion tonnes in 2011. In Nigeria, Co_2 emission has witnessed increasing trends over the years (Figure 4.6). One of the major factors contributing to climate change is the release of Co_2 into the atmosphere. Figure 4.7 shows CO_2 emission per capital for Nigeria and selected African countries.

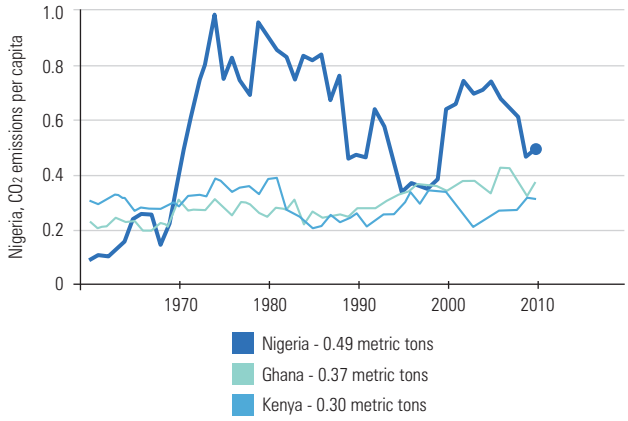
The high per capita Co_2 emission (0.49 metric tons) contributes to global warming and climate change. The impacts of climate change in Nigeria have earlier been established and respondents across the geo-political zones express their perception of climate change as a general threat to their personal security (Table 4.10). Co_2 emissions have serious and diverse implications for citizen security and human development. Carbon monoxide causes blood clotting when it reacts with haemoglobin, which cuts the supply of oxygen in the respiration system after long exposure. Other negative effects of Co_2 emission are as discussed in the case of gas flaring in the last section which constitutes serious environmental, health and economic implications for the citizens.Overall, the majority (60.6%) of the respondents perceived climate change as a threat to their general security (Table 4.10). However, there are variations in the perceptions of respondents by geo-political zones and by gender. For instance, while less than 50.0 per cent of the respondents in the South-East perceived climate change as a threat to their security, over 50.0 per cent of the respondents in North-Central, North-East, North-West and South-South perceived climate change as a general threat to their security. Natural resource based sectors such as agriculture, forestry and to some extent, tourism are sectors threatened by climate change impacts. Agriculture is a major occupation providing means of livelihood in the northern zones and in the South-South zone, fishing is equally a key activity. In

Figure 4. 6: Trends in the Co2 Emission in Nigeria 1990-2010 (Kilotonnes)



Source:http://www.factfish.com/statistic-country/nigeria/co2%20emissions

Figure 4. 7: Nigeria Co2 Emission Relative to other Countries



Source: World Bank, 2014

Table 4. 10: Respondents Perception of Climate Change as a Threat to their general Security

Geo-Political Zones	Climate Change				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		All
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	57.5	58.4	52.9	63.3	58.0
North-East	66.1	73.7	65.6	71.8	69.0
North-West	61.3	72.0	64.4	63.6	64.0
South-East	45.5	39.6	32.7	52.0	42.5
South-South	76.9	90.5	83.0	83.9	83.4
South-West	48.1	56.5	35.0	69.0	52.0
FCT	58.1	36.8	55.1	45.1	50.0
National Average	**59.5**	**61.9**	**56.0**	**65.2**	**60.6**

Source: Field Survey, 2015

addition, tourism is an emerging industry in the South-South zone. These factors could inform the respondents' perception of climate change as a threat to human security.

4.2.6 Disasters in Nigeria

Incidences of environmental hazards and disaster risk are among the latest challenges to human development effort in the 21st century (UNDP, 2004). Today, more than ever, curbing the incidences of environmental hazards and disaster risks is of critical importance for achieving major societal objectives, such as sustainable economic development and achieving the Millennium Development Goals. Incidentally, disasters are intricately linked with the processes of human development. Disasters

Table 4. 11: Spatial Distributions of Major Disasters in Nigeria

States	Major Types of Disaster	Remark
Abia	Rainstorm, soil erosion, Armed banditry and market fires	Soil erosion is prevalent, market fires frequent
Adamawa	Armed banditry, flood, soil erosion	Soil erosion is a prevalent disaster
Akwa Ibom	Flood, rainstorm and fire, oil spillage	Soil erosion is a prevalent disaster
Anambra	Rainstorm, armed banditry, soil and gully erosion	Soil erosion is a prevalent disaster
Bauchi	Fire, windstorms and religious crisis	Religious crisis is prevalent
Bayelsa	Flood and coastal erosion, oil pollution	Oil pollution is prevalent
Benue	Communal clash, flooding, religious crisis and bush fire	Communal clash and fire disaster are prevalent
Borno	Desert encroachment, religious crisis fire and flood	Desertification is the major problem
Cross River	Fire disasters, Youth restiveness and oil pollution	Oil pollution is the major problem
Delta	Flood, rainstorm, oil pollution and youth unrest	Oil pollution and youth unrest is the major problem
Ebonyi	Soil erosion, gully erosion, Armed banditry and bush fires	Soil erosion and bush fires are the commonest problem
Edo	Flood and rainstorm, gully erosion, oil pollution, and youth restiveness	Oil pollution and youth restiveness are the commonest problem
Enugu	Soil and gully erosion, rainstorms and flood	Rainstorms and soil erosion are the commonest problem
Ekiti	Flood and rainstorm	Rainstorms and soil erosion are the commonest problem
Gombe	Desertification, religious crisis	Desertification is the commonest problem
Imo	Rain and windstorm, soil and gully erosion	Soil erosion is the commonest problem
Jigawa	Desertification, windstorm and flood	Desertification is prevalent
Kaduna	Fire, windstorm, rainstorm and communal clash	Communal clash are prevalent
Kano	Desertification, Flood, fire, religious crisis , windstorm and communal clash	Desertification is the major problem
Katsina	Desertification, Flood, fire, windstorm and communal clash	Desertification is the major problem
Kebbi	Desertification, Flood, fire, windstorm	Desertification is the major problem
Kogi	Flood and rainstorm	
Kwara	Flood, Fire and rainstorm	Rainstorm and bush fires are prevalent
Lagos	flood, coastal erosion, collapse building Bomb explosion,	Flooding is the common problem
Nasarawa	Communal clash and bush fires	Communal clash is the major problem
Niger	Flood and rainstorm	Flooding is the common problem
Ogun	Flooding, communal clashes	Flooding is the common problem
Ondo	Rainstorms, erosion and communal clashes	Flooding is the common problem
Osun	Rainstorms, erosion and communal clashes	Communal clashes are frequent
Oyo	Flood, rainstorm and erosion	Rainstorm and flooding
Plateau	Communal clashes, bush fire and erosion	Rainstorm and flooding
Rivers	Erosion and oil pollution, youth unrest	Youth restiveness and oil pollution are prevalent
Sokoto	Floods, desertification, birds and windstorm	Flooding and desertification
Taraba	Ethno-Communal clashes, drought	Drought is a common problem
Yobe	Flood, Drought, religious crises	Drought and religious crises are common problem
Zamfara	Flood, drought, and religious crisis	Occasional flooding is not uncommon

Source: NEMA 2013

either triggered by natural or anthropogenic sources put development gains at risk. The destruction of infrastructure, the erosion of livelihoods, damage to the integrity of ecosystems and architectural heritage, injury, illness and death are direct outcomes of disaster (UNDP, 2004). Disaster losses also aggravate other stresses and shocks such as financial crisis, political or social conflict, diseases and environmental degradation. All these are threats to human security. Indeed, the occurrence of disasters and emergencies in Nigeria has increased in frequency and intensity in the last decade and especially in recent times. Rapid population growth and urbanisation and social political issues compounded by ethnic plurality have been resulting in fierce competition for environmental scarce resources leading to deteriorating livelihoods, social marginalisation, crime and general insecurity. Table 4.11 shows the spatial distribution of major disasters in Nigeria.

In Nigeria, floods, and droughts are major threats to lives and properties of households. Thus, the impact of such events could result in an immediate increase in poverty and deprivation. For instance, one natural disaster prevalent in Nigeria is flooding which occurs throughout the federation. Plates 4.3 and 4.4 respectively show damaged building and bridge in Ibadan metropolis in the 2012 flood disaster.

Plate 4.3: Flooded Building

Plate 4.4: Damaged Bridge by Flood

Table 4. 12: Statistics of Persons of Concern: - As at January 2011

Location	IDPS	Returnees	Refugees (incl LI)	Causes of displacement
Akwa Ibom	200,000	50,000 (Bakassi)	-	Boundary conflicts Returnees/ICJ
Cross River	115,000	325,000 (Bakassi)	3,464	Boundary Conflicts and ICJ
Bayelsa	-	18,000 (Bakassi)	-	ICJ
Ebonyi	80,000	-	-	Boundary Conflicts
Bauchi	45,000	-	-	Spill over from Plateau crisis 2001-2010
Kebbi	70,296	-	-	Floods and international boundary conflict
Jigawa	200,000	-	-	Floods, 2006 & 2010
Plateau	250,000	-		Religious and Ethnic Conflicts
Taraba	25,000	10,401		On-going programme for IDPs. Returnees successfully integrated
Benue	48,000	-	4,654	Tribal conflicts and Cameroonian Refugees
Gombe	15,000	-		Spill over from Plateau Conflicts
Ogun	-	-	4,500	Locally Integrating refugees, Residual caseload and other nationalities
Edo	250,000	8,000 (Bakassi)		IDPs from Niger Delta and ICJ cases
Borno	5,000	-	1,021	Boko Haram cases and Chadian Refugees
Sokoto	35,000			Floods victims
Note: Katsina, Jigawa, Oyo, Lagos, Ogun and Kogi States IDPs affected by flood disaster were being assessed as at time of data gathering				

Source: National Commission for Refugees, Abuja, January 2011

4.2.7 Number of Internally Displaced Persons due to Disasters

Internally displaced persons (IDPs), according to the United Nations working definition, are "persons who have been forced to flee their homes suddenly or unexpectedly in large numbers, as a result of armed conflict, internal strife, systematic violations of human rights or natural or man-made disasters, and who are within the territory of their own country." Before, the end of 2011, IDP's in Nigeria was driven mainly by boundary disputes and disasters such as flooding (Table 4.12). However, the intensification of insurgency in the North-East of Nigeria has changed this trend as terrorists activities is now the main driver of IDP's in Nigeria. According to the IDMC, Nigeria has the fourth largest (470, 000) new displacement in 2013 (IDMC, 2014).

The IDPs live in camps outside their immediate communities and are without any means of livelihood. Most IDP camps in Nigeria are lacking the basic necessities of life such as conveniences, decent sleeping places and shelter. They have virtually no access to healthcare facilities and personnel while their security is perilous. All these compound their human security situation.

4.3 Respondents Perceptions of their Ability to Influence Selected Environmental Risks

Understanding the differences in the risk judgments of people and their capacity to influence such risks in a country potentially provides insights into how to develop appropriate risk communication strategies. Risk perception varies from person to person and is perceived not solely by technical parameters and probabilistic numbers, but in our psychological, social and cultural context. Individual and social characteristics form our risk perception and influence the way we react towards risk. This section of the report aims to explore citizens' fundamental understanding of risk and their capacity to influence such risks in their respective communities.

Generally, the respondents across the federation show weak capacity to influence or manage selected environmental risks. However, there are variations across the zones. For instance while 75.9 per cent, 56.6 per cent, 55.5 per cent and 51.0 per cent of respondents in South-South, South-East, North-East and FCT respectively can manage environmental pollution in the zones, only 18.5 per cent and 41.0 per cent of respondents in North-West and South-West could manage environmental pollution in their community. In terms of settlement location, respondents in urban location show more capacity in the management of environmental pollution than respondents in rural areas. The low level of environmental pollutions in rural areas may account for this difference. However, there are no differences between the perceptions of male and female on their capacity to manage environmental pollution.

With respect to environmental disasters, about 42.5 per cent of the respondents indicated that they could influence the occurrence of environmental disasters. Gender wise, there are no differences as 41.0 per cent and 44.4 per cent of male and female respectively stated that they could manage the occurrence of environmental disasters. By geo-political zone, less than half of the respondents across the zones except the South-South stated that they could manage environmental disaster in their respective communities. Again, respondents in urban location show more capacity in the management of environmental disasters than respondents in rural areas. On the other hand, climate change seems to be one of the major environmental risks to the respondents based on the results from their perception. Nationally, only 27.4 per cent of the respondents indicated that they have the capacity to manage climate change as environmental risk. By geo-political zones, less than 43.0 per cent of all the respondents across the zones stated that they have the ability to manage climate change. However, by gender, less than half of both male and female respondents indicated their capacity to manage climate change. Interestingly, 54.0 per cent of rural households in the south-south indicated that they could manage climate change. The general low level of the institutional capacity to manage climate change across the country may be attributed to the high level of vulnerability and weak capacity for adaptation among households.

4.4 Environmental Variables Contributing to Respondents' Sense of Security

The individual's sense of security has been identified as being affected by several variables including environmental variables. In this section of the report, we attempt to identify environmental variables contributing to respondent's sense of security. Table 4.13 shows selected variables contributing to respondent's sense of security. The general level of concerns about environmental problems in Nigeria

does not seem to contribute to people's sense of security as shown in Table 4.13. Nationally, less than half of the respondents across the country indicated that the general level of concerns about environmental problems increases their sense of security. In the South-East geo-political zone, about 64.0 per cent of the respondents indicated that the general concern expressed about environmental problems raises their sense of security. The major environmental concerns in the South-East are gully erosion problems which is a major threat to lives, property and livelihoods of the people.

Also from Table 4.13, the respondents noted that government capacity to solve environmental problems does influence their sense of security. Nationally, about 45.9 per cent of the respondents stated that government capacity to solve environmental problems does influence their sense of security. There are no significant differences between male and female and urban versus rural respondent's perception on this variable. However, across the zones with the exception of the South-East and South-West, all the other zones show that government capacity to solve environmental problems has little influence on their sense of security. This would be attributable to deficient institutional capacity in management of environmental disasters. Improved institutional capacity for the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), which is responsible for disaster management will help in this respect. Interview respondents at NEMA, Abuja specifically mentioned the need for enhanced institutional capacity and collaborations to perform the function of public enlightenment on various security threats including preventive and reactive measures that could be adapted by individuals.

4.5 Health Security

4.5.1 Assessment of the Health Sector Performance

The state of people's health is likely to have influence on their level of productivity, capability to earn good income and their level of vulnerability to security threats. Furthermore, the state of health facilities and services is likely to determine people's access to and satisfaction with health services. This section examines the state of health facilities and services, the performance of some relevant indicators as well as the level of satisfaction of the people with the state of health services and likely security threats.

It is important to note that the state of health statistics in the country is not impressive thus limiting the extent of availability of secondary data. The available directory of health facilities, as provided by the Federal Ministry of Health and presented in table 4.14 shows that as at 2011, there were 34,174 health facilities in the country. The breakdown, as illustrated in figure 4.8, shows that there were 30,098 primary health facilities (21,808 public and 8,290 private facilities); 3,992 secondary facilities (969 public and 3,023 private facilities) and 84 tertiary facilities (74 public facilities and 10 private facilities). With these figures, the health facility-population ratio indicates that there is one health facility per 4,097 people in the country. This country average however conceals wide disparities at sub national levels. Health facility/population ratio is as low as 1:1,089 in Rivers State and even much lower in Borno State (1:8,758). Beyond the availability of a physical health facility, there are other issues of stock and functionality of equipment in the facility, as well as quality of care. With respect

Table 4. 13: Selected Variables Contributing to Respondent's Sense of Security

Geo-Political Zones	General Level of Concerns about Environmental Problems					Government Capacity to Solve Environmental Problems				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		All	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		All
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural		male	female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	37.9	37.2	42.2	32.7	37.5	44.8	42.5	47.1	39.8	43.5
North-East	41.9	21.1	43.3	26.4	34.0	39.5	27.6	41.1	30.0	35.0
North-West	42.0	22.0	39.6	34.3	37.0	51.3	18.0	39.6	46.5	43.0
South-East	65.7	62.4	66.3	61.8	64.0	70.7	60.4	71.4	59.8	65.5
South-South	22.1	10.5	17.0	16.1	16.6	35.6	31.6	22.3	48.3	33.7
South-West	57.4	48.9	67.0	40.0	53.5	56.5	57.6	71.0	43.0	57.0
FCT	48.4	42.1	40.8	51.0	46.0	33.9	52.6	44.9	37.3	41.0

Source: Field Survey, 2015

to health workers per population, data obtained shows that there are fewer health workers per population. For instance, doctor: patient ratio is 1:53,333 against WHO standard of 1:700; Nurse: patient ratio is 1:1,066 against WHO standard of 1:700; while Pharmacist: patient ratio is 1:12,000 against WHO standard of 1:2,000 (*http://www.vanguard.com/category/special-reports /*). This again indicates fewer health workers for the population.

In spite of this, it appears some health indicators show improved performance, at least between 2008 and 2013. For instance, as illustrated in figure 4.9, infant mortality declined from 93 between 1999 and

Table 4. 14: Health Facilities in Nigeria (2011)

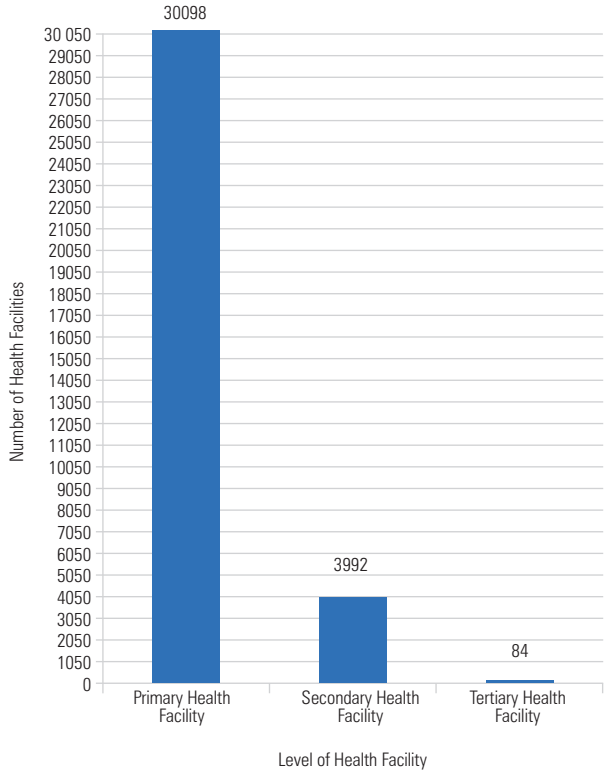
State	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary		Total	Facility: Population Ratio
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private		
Abia	481	37	4	92	1	0	615	1: 4608
Adamawa	939	59	18	10	1	0	1027	1:3085
Akwa Ibom	354	1	41	146	1	0	543	1:7220
Anambra	392	968	31	92	2	0	1485	1:2816
Bauchi	960	50	22	0	2	0	1034	1:4523
Bayelsa	172	0	37	22	1	0	232	1:7342
Benue	771	340	17	77	1	0	1206	1:3493
Borno	409	12	42	10	1	0	474	1:8758
Cross River	575	18	22	117	2	0	734	1:3936
Delta	437	367	60	42	2	0	908	1:4514
Ebonyi	383	133	14	34	3	0	567	1:3833
Edo	322	549	34	13	5	1	924	1:3483
Ekiti	294	101	18	44	2	0	459	1:5194
Enugu	438	86	48	294	2	0	868	1:3753
Gombe	447	61	18	4	2	0	532	1:4433
Imo	416	389	19	511	2	0	1337	1:2943
Jigawa	595	3	11	3	2	0	614	1:7082
Kaduna	1007	516	33	0	4	0	1560	1:3889
Kano	1037	105	33	6	2	0	1183	1:7932
Katsina	1418	45	21	11	1	0	1496	1:3872
Kebbi	375	5	15	16	1	0	412	1:7861
Kogi	823	45	55	153	1	0	1077	1:3044
Kwara	512	63	26	138	1	0	740	1:3204
Lagos	257	1529	29	431	5	2	2253	1:4001
Nasarawa	609	265	18	15	2	0	909	1:2050
Niger	1095	227	12	0	1	0	1335	1:2959
Ogun	474	899	28	116	3	0	1520	1:2453
Ondo	460	309	19	21	2	0	811	1:4243
Osun	678	353	54	6	4	0	1095	1:3127
Oyo	677	86	32	438	2	2	1237	1:4520
Plateau	729	104	26	23	1	0	883	1:3600
Rivers	380	37	33	21	5	0	476	1:1089
Sokoto	668	0	22	21	2	0	713	1:5185
Taraba	895	135	13	1	1	0	1045	1:2202
Yobe	486	0	12	18	1	0	517	1:4491
Zamfara	664	13	18	1	1	0	697	1:4677
FCT	179	380	14	76	2	5	656	1:2142
Total	21808	8290	969	3023	74	10	34174	1:4097
		30,098		3,992		84	34,174	

Source: Federal Ministry of Health, USAID and Measure Evaluation (2011) A Directory of Health Facilities in Nigeria, FMoH, Abuja

2003 period to 69 between 2009 and 2013 period while correspondingly, under 5 mortality dropped from 185 to 128. As presented in Table 4.15 all the zones experienced reduction in infant mortality between 2008 and 2013. As at 2013, the North-West geo-political zone recorded the highest rate while the least was recorded by the South-South zone.

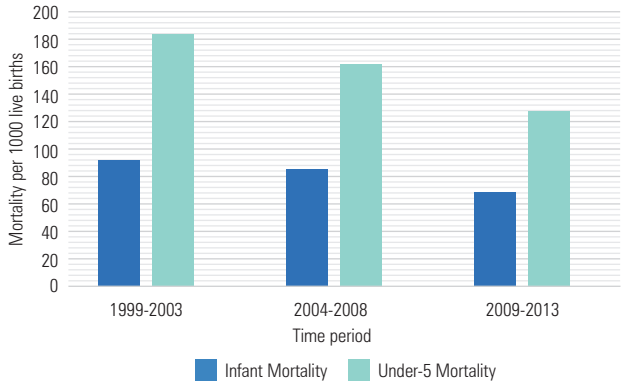
The same applies to under 5 mortality rate. As illustrated in figure 4.9, there was a drop from 162 between 2004-2008 to 128 in 2009-2013. The same applies to the entire geo-political zones. As at 2013, the North-West had the highest under 5 mortality rate while the South-West had the least (Table 4.16). The spate of improved performance is also observed in the proportion of under one children immunised against measles. Figure 4.10 shows a slight increase in this proportion from 41.4 per cent in 2008 to 42.1 per cent in 2013. The same pattern is observed for all the geo-political zones, with the exception of the North-Central and the South-West zones where the proportions respectively dropped from 51.4 to 48.1 and from 65.5 to 62.5.

Figure 4. 8: Health Facilities in Nigeria



Source: NDHS 2008 and 2013

Figure 4. 9: Child Mortality Rate (per '000 live births)



Source: NDHS, 2013

Table 4. 15: Infant Mortality rate

Geo-Political Zone	2008	2013
North-Central	77	66
North-East	109	77
North-West	91	89
South-East	95	82
South-South	84	58
South-West	59	61

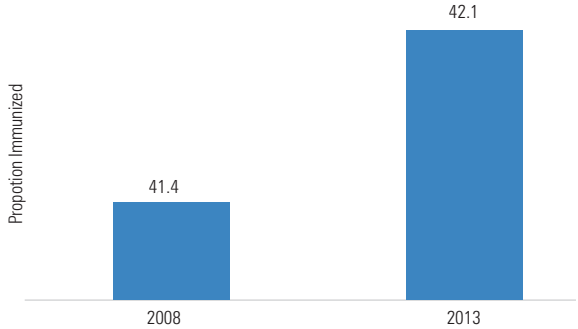
Source: NDHS 2008 and 2013

Table 4. 16: Under-5 Mortality rate

Geo-Political Zone	2008	2013
North-Central	135	100
North-East	222	160
North-West	217	185
South-East	153	131
South-South	138	91
South-West	89	90
National	157	128

Source: NDHS 2008 and 2013

Figure 4. 10: Proportion of Children aged 12 to 23 months immunised against measles



Source: NDHS 2008 and 2013

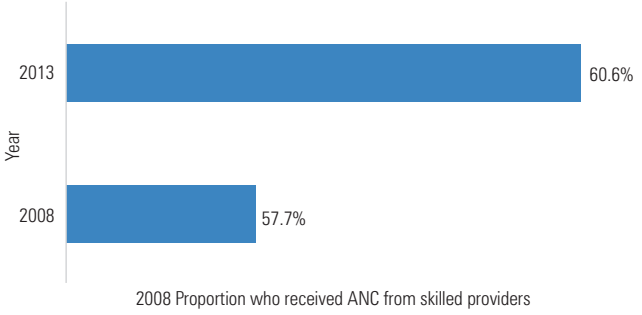
Receiving antenatal care from skilled providers by pregnant women improves their chances of safe delivery. It appears that for the entire country, the performance of the indicator-proportion of women aged 15-49 and who received antenatal care from skilled providers, has witnessed some improvement. For instance, as illustrated in figure 4.11, the proportion increased from 57.7 per cent to 60.6 per cent. The same applies to all the geo-political zones, as presented in Table 4.17. The zone with highest proportion of women in this category as at 2013 was the South-West while the least proportion was recorded in the North-West zone.

Table 4. 17: Proportion of Women aged 15-49 who received antenatal care from Skilled Providers

Geo-Political Zone	2008	2013
North-Central	65.1	67.0
North-East	43.0	49.3
North-West	31.1	41.0
South-East	87.0	90.6
South-South	69.8	73.0
South-West	87.1	90.4
National	57.7	60.6

Source: NDHS 2008 and 2013

Figure 4.11: Proportion of women aged 15-49 who received ante-natal care from skilled providers



Source: NDHS 2008 and 2013

The case of pregnant women delivered by skilled personnel is slightly different. As illustrated in Table 4.18, there was a slight drop from 38.9 per cent in 2008 to 38.1 per cent in 2013 suggesting a decrease in the number of pregnant women delivered by skilled personnel. With respect to zonal differences, all the zones, as presented in table 4.18, recorded increase in the proportion of pregnant women delivered by skilled personnel with the exception of the South-South where in 2013 there was a drop of 0.4 per cent from the 2008 figure.

Table 4. 18: Proportion of pregnant women delivered by Skilled Personnel

Geo-Political Zone	2008	2013
North-Central	42.7	46.5
North-East	15.5	19.9
North-West	9.8	12.3
South-East	81.8	82.2
South-South	55.8	55.4
South-West	76.5	82.5
National	38.9	38.1

Source: NDHS 2008 and 2013

Ante-natal care and child delivery by skilled personnel are crucial in the management of pregnancy related morbidities as well as in detection and management of complications at child birth. Maternal and infant mortalities are always directly linked to factors of skilled health personnel handling of ante natal care, child delivery and post-natal care. Gains in the engagement of skilled health personnel in ante-natal care may be eroded if skilled personnel are not involved at the point of child delivery and in post-natal care.

One of the strategies for ensuring wide unhindered access to health services is the provision of health insurance opportunity for the people. As presented in Table 4.19, at least nine out of every ten people are yet to enjoy health insurance coverage. Between 2008 and 2013, the proportion of men and women in this category dropped slightly, suggesting that more men and women were covered within this period. The same applies to all the geo-political zones, with the exception of the South-South zone where some men lost the opportunity to be covered by health insurance as the proportion of men not enjoying the coverage increased from 96.6 per cent to 98.0 per cent, as presented in table 4.19.

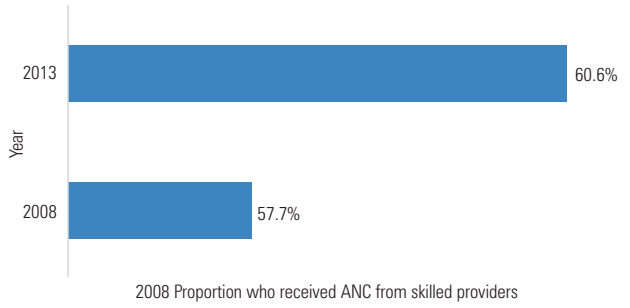
Table 4. 19: Proportion of people aged 15-49 years not enjoying health insurance coverage

Geo-political zone	Men		Women	
	2008	2013	2008	2013
North-Central	97.4	95.2	97.4	97.2
North-East	98.3	97.6	99.5	99.0
North-West	99.4	98.7	99.3	97.9
South-East	97.9	97.6	99.3	97.6
South-South	96.6	98.0	96.6	95.2
South-West	97.8	95.4	97.3	96.7
National	98.2	97.0	98.2	97.1

Source: NDHS 2008 and 2013

With respect to HIV/AIDS, the prevalence rate dropped slightly from 5.8 per cent in 2008 to 4.6 per cent in 2010 as illustrated in Figure 4.12.

Figure 4. 12: Prevalence of HIV/AIDS



Source: NDHS 2008 and 2013

4.5.2 Life satisfaction with family's health status

Generally, there appears to be improvement in the performance of the health sector as presented in the preceding section. It is considered imperative to examine the perception of the people with respect to their health status. This is owing to the fact that the extent to which they are satisfied with their health status is likely to give them some level of personal satisfaction. Generally, it appears majority of the respondents are satisfied with their family's health status as presented in table 4.20. This may be due to improvement in some health indicators. For instance, the pattern is the same across geopolitical zones. However, there are variations between rural and urban areas and between male and female respondents, as illustrated in Table 4.20. On an average, less than half of the respondents that claimed satisfaction with family health status reside in urban areas. This may not be surprising giving the various health related problems in urban areas. Again, less than half of those that claimed satisfaction with their family health status are female respondents, suggesting that females are more likely to face health challenges compared to their male counterparts. This may not be surprising again, going by the economic and social challenges female-headed households are facing in the country.

Table 4. 20: Distribution of Respondents by Satisfaction with Family's Health Status

Geo-Political Zone	Satisfaction with Family's Health Status				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		All
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	
North-Central	47.2	52.8	57.1	42.9	80.5
North-East	68.0	32.0	50.8	49.2	61.0
North-West	76.9	23.1	47.4	52.6	86.5
South-South	54.1	45.9	51.1	48.9	66.5
South-East	54.9	45.1	57.4	42.6	81.0
South-West	51.5	48.5	55.8	44.2	82.5
FCT	65.1	34.9	52.3	47.7	86.0
National Average	59.7	40.3	52.2	47.8	77.7

Source: Field Survey, 2015

4.5.3 Citizen's Perception of threats to security

Threats to security at personal level

Though, generally, majority of the people expressed satisfaction with their family health status, it is still perceived that there are likely to be some factors constituting threat to personal security within the health sector. In the health sector the issues of affordability of medical services and standard of medical care are very critical in view of the prevailing high poverty incidence and inadequacy of skilled medical personnel coupled with problem of adulterated drugs. As indicated in table 4.21, majority of the respondents regard inability to pay for medical care in case of illness as a threat to personal security. The pattern is the same across all the geo-political zones with the exception of the South-South and the North-Central geo-political zones where less than half of the respondents do not see inability to pay for medical care as a security threat. Gender and rural-urban distribution of respondents show some variation as illustrated in Table 4.21.

More of the respondents who regard inability to pay for medical care as a personal security threat are females and are also rural-based. Inability to pay for medical care may be due to increasing poverty incidence and the increasing cost of medical care. For instance, poverty incidence increased from 54.9 in 2004 to 69.0 in 2010 while the total population in poverty increased from 68.7 million in 2010 to 112.47 million in 2010.[1]

1 NBS (2012) Nigeria Poverty Profile, NBS, Abuja.

"Majority of respondents regard inability to pay for medical

With respect to not receiving adequate standard medical care, majority of the respondents also regard this as a threat to personal security. This may be due to the fact that though people are satisfied with their family health status, they still have the view that there is need for further improvement. As further shown in table 4.21, the pattern is the same across the geopolitical zones with the exception of the South-West zone. There are also variations between male and female, as well as rural and urban respondents. As illustrated in Table 4.21, majority of the respondents who regard not receiving adequate standard medical care as threat to personal security are females and are based in rural areas. Respondents' perception in this regard may be due to status of the proportion of births attended by skilled personnel as earlier discussed dropped from 38.9 in 2008 to 38.1 in 2013.[2].

Further, under health domain, the extent to which respondents perceive issues like becoming seriously ill, contracting HIV/AIDs, and contracting Ebola, as threat to personal security is examined. It appears many people consider these issues critical enough to constitute threat to personal security. For instance, as presented in table 4.22 majority of the respondents perceive them as constituting threat to their personal security. The pattern is the same across all the geo-political zones including the Federal Capital Territory (FCT). However, some level of variation is observed between male and female respondents as well as between their rural and urban counterparts. For instance, as illustrated in table 4.22, more rural respondents perceive becoming seriously ill as a threat to personal security and the same applies to women respondents compared to their male counterparts. The situation applies to the issue of contracting HIV/AIDs (Table4.22). However, with respect to contracting Ebola, more urban respondents, compared to their rural counterparts, consider contracting Ebola a personal security threat, suggesting the likelihood that the disease is perceived as being an urban phenomenon. The fact that issues like HIV/AIDS is considered a threat is not surprising. Though, prevalence rate has been declining, the pace is not considered fast enough. For instance, the prevalence rate was 5.8 in 2001 and dropped to 4.6 in 2008 and 4.1 in 2010.[3]

Threat to Security at the General Level

Eateries and fast food outlets have become very popular in the country. Due to the need to meet huge demand, use of preservatives becomes necessary to maintain adequate stock. The fact that many people patronise these outlets is likely to make issue of high preservatives in food a threat to general security. It appears many people are afraid that use of preservatives in food could be a threat to general security as majority of the respondents expressed this view. The pattern is the same across all the geopolitical zones. On an average, at least seven out of every ten respondents are

2 NPC (2014) and NPC (2013) Op.Cit:

3 NDHS 2013

Table 4. 21: Distribution of Respondents Afraid of threat to security at the Personal Level (Affordability and Adequacy of Medical services)

Geo-Political Zone	Inability to pay for medical care in case of illness					Not receiving an adequate standard of medical care in case of illness				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		All	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		All
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	39.1	42.5	37.3	44.9	41.0	48.3	53.1	45.1	57.1	51.0
North-East	58.9	63.2	53.3	66.4	60.5	62.9	75.0	57.8	75.5	67.5
North-West	50.7	56.0	67.3	36.4	52.0	56.0	54.0	68.3	42.4	55.5
South-East	47.5	64.4	53.1	58.8	56.0	51.5	66.3	58.2	59.8	59.0
South-South	32.7	44.2	28.6	50.6	38.2	34.6	46.3	32.1	50.6	40.2
South-West	57.4	62.0	43.0	76.0	59.5	53.7	54.3	38.0	70.0	54.0
FCT	67.7	76.3	57.1	84.3	71.0	79.0	76.3	65.3	90.2	78.0
National Average	50.6	58.4	48.5	59.6	54.0	55.1	60.8	52.1	63.7	57.9

Source: Field Survey, 2015

care in case of illness as a threat to personal security".

Table 4.22: Distribution of Respondents Afraid of threat to security at the Personal Level (becoming Ill, Contracting HIV/AIDs and Ebola)

Geo-political Zone	Becoming Seriously Ill					Contracting HIV/AIDS					Contracting Ebola				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	46.0	54.9	47.1	55.1	51.0	64.4	63.7	52.0	76.5	64.0	70.1	77.0	60.8	87.8	74.0
North-East	86.3	89.5	88.9	86.4	87.5	81.5	64.5	98.9	55.5	75.0	79.8	67.1	96.7	57.3	75.0
North-West	61.3	66.0	70.3	54.5	62.5	58.0	64.0	59.4	59.6	59.5	65.3	68.0	67.3	64.6	66.0
South-East	61.6	63.4	58.2	66.7	62.5	58.6	57.4	60.2	55.9	58.0	61.6	64.4	72.4	53.9	63.0
South-South	63.5	81.1	66.1	79.3	71.9	62.5	85.3	66.1	82.8	73.4	63.5	83.2	67.0	80.5	72.9
South-West	65.7	64.1	53.0	77.0	65.0	48.1	62.0	48.0	61.0	54.5	48.1	68.5	54.0	61.0	57.5
FCT	90.3	92.1	87.8	94.1	91.0	82.3	84.2	79.6	86.3	83.0	85.5	86.8	85.7	86.3	86.0
National Average	**67.8**	**73.0**	**67.3**	**73.3**	**70.2**	**65.1**	**68.7**	**66.3**	**68.2**	**66.8**	**67.7**	**73.6**	**72.0**	**70.2**	**70.6**

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 4. 23: Respondents' Perception of Preservatives in food and Food poisoning as threat to General Security

Geo-political Zone	High amount of preservatives in food					Food Poisoning				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		All	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		All
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	59.8	61.9	58.8	63.3	61.0	65.5	69.0	65.7	69.4	67.5
North-East	71.0	69.7	58.8	63.3	61.0	87.1	71.1	95.6	69.1	81.0
North-West	60.7	64.0	81.1	61.8	70.5	84.0	76.0	94.1	69.7	82.0
South-East	56.6	54.5	73.3	49.5	61.5	57.6	72.3	74.5	55.9	65.0
South-South	86.5	91.6	85.7	93.1	88.9	83.7	93.7	83.9	94.3	88.4
South-West	52.8	60.9	69.0	44.0	56.5	61.1	71.7	72.0	60.0	66.0
FCT	88.7	97.4	95.9	88.2	92.0	93.5	97.4	100.0	90.2	95.0
National Average	68.0	71.4	74.7	66.2	70.2	76.1	78.7	83.7	72.7	77.8

Source: Field Survey, 2015

of the view that the issue could constitute a threat to general security (Table 4.23). The same applies to food poisoning. However, there are variations between rural and urban and between male and female respondents, as illustrated in Table 4.23. More of those who expressed this view are from urban areas while more female respondents compared to their male counterparts are also in this category. This suggests that the issues of preservatives in food and that of food poisoning are likely to be more pronounced in urban areas and that women are likely to be more sensitive to these issues compared to men.

Another serious issue is that of high prevalence of HIV/AIDS in the country. Majority of the respondents, on an average, expressed the fear that the high prevalence

Table 4. 24: Respondents' Perception of the spread of HIV/AIDS as a threat to General Security

Geo-political Zone	The Spread of HIV/AIDS in Nigeria				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		All
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	78.2	76.1	68.6	85.7	77.0
North-East	81.5	72.4	96.7	62.7	78.0
North-West	80.7	84.0	91.1	71.7	81.5
South-East	64.6	66.3	61.2	69.6	65.5
South-South	85.6	93.7	85.7	94.3	89.4
South-West	63.9	78.3	76.0	65.0	70.5
FCT	95.2	92.1	93.9	94.1	94.0
National Average	78.5	80.4	81.9	77.6	79.4

Source: Field Survey, 2015

of HIV/AIDS could constitute general security threat (Table 4.24). The pattern is the same across all the geo-political zones, including the FCT. Variations between female and male respondents and rural and urban respondents show that more females and more urban respondents expressed this fear.

4.5.4 Factors Contributing to People's Sense of Security

There are categories of health institutions ranging from primary to secondary and tertiary. The extent to which all these are available is likely to influence the people's sense of security. Similarly, the availability of relevant categories of health personnel as well as their attitude are likely to influence the sense of security of the people, especially the patients. The issue of access to health facilities is also critical both in the rural and urban areas. In the urban areas, many newly developing areas lack health facilities while in the rural areas, many rural communities do not have these facilities as well. Thus, these issues are likely to influence people's sense of security.

Majority of the respondents, on an average, claimed the state of health institutions increases their sense of security, as presented in table 4.25. The same applies to all the geo-political zones except the North-Central and the North-East zones where slightly less than half of the respondents expressed this perception. Again, more urban and slightly more female respondents expressed this view compared to their rural and male counterparts respectively. Majority of the respondents also claimed the state of healthcare personnel increases their sense of security. The same applies to all the geo-political zones with the exception of the North-East zone where less than half of the respondents expressed this view. The case of the North-East could be attributed to the problem of insecurity in the zone. Again, more urban and more female respondents expressed this view compared to their rural and male counterparts respectively. On an average, majority of the respondents also claimed proximity to healthcare facilities increases their sense of security. This is the pattern in all the geo-political zones with the exception of the North-Central and the North-East zones. More female and slightly more rural respondents expressed this view.

4.5.5 Ability to Influence Selected Security Risks

To what extent can people influence or reduce risks associated with food poisoning, high amount of preservatives in food and prevalence of HIV/AIDS? Answers to this poser are presented in tables 4.26 and 4.27. With respect to risks associated with food poisoning, table 4.26 shows that, on an average, majority of the respondents claimed ability to reduce associated risks. The pattern is the same across the geo-political zones with the exception of the North-West where less than half of the respondents claimed ability to influence associated risks. With respect to ability to influence risks associated with high amount of preservatives in food, the table further shows that, on an average, majority of the respondents claimed ability to such risks but variations across the geo-political zones show that less than half of those in the North-East and the North-West have the ability to influence associated risks. As further illustrated in Table 4.26, it appears more urban respondents, compared to their rural counterparts, have the ability to influence risks associated with food poisoning and high amount of preservatives in food. It is

Table 4. 25: Distribution of Respondents by Factors Influencing Sense of Security (Health Institutions, Health Personnel and Proximity to Health Institutions)

Geo-political Zone	Healthcare Institutions					Healthcare Personnel					Proximity to Healthcare facilities				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	48.3	50.4	64.7	33.7	49.5	54.0	54.9	72.5	35.7	54.5	47.1	42.5	60.8	27.6	44.5
North-East	57.3	36.8	55.6	44.5	49.5	52.4	35.5	51.1	41.8	46.0	49.2	50.0	50.0	49.1	49.5
North-West	68.0	68.0	66.3	69.7	68.0	69.3	74.0	69.3	71.7	70.5	65.3	66.0	63.4	67.7	65.5
South-East	84.8	86.1	84.7	86.3	85.5	85.9	87.1	85.7	87.3	86.5	79.8	82.2	79.6	82.4	81.0
South-South	62.5	64.2	55.4	73.6	63.3	61.5	64.2	53.6	74.7	62.8	59.6	58.9	50.0	71.3	59.3
South-West	80.6	78.3	82.0	77.0	79.5	81.5	78.3	81.0	79.0	80.0	79.6	77.2	77.0	80.0	78.5
FCT	69.4	92.1	81.6	74.5	78.0	71.0	94.7	85.7	74.5	80.0	51.6	76.3	59.2	62.7	61.0
National Average	78.3	79.0	80.2	76.3	78.7	79.1	81.1	82.9	77.2	79.8	71.8	75.3	73.1	73.3	73.0

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 4. 26: Distribution of Respondents by Self-Assessment of Ability to influence selected security risks (Food Domain)

Geo-political Zone	Food Poisoning					High amount of preservatives in food				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	62.1	53.1	66.7	46.9	57.0	55.2	60.2	68.6	46.9	58.0
North-East	70.2	40.8	96.7	28.2	59.0	55.6	36.8	80.0	22.7	48.5
North-West	44.7	46.0	36.6	53.5	45.0	47.3	44.0	42.6	50.5	46.5
South-East	58.6	58.4	70.4	47.1	58.5	55.6	60.4	68.4	48.0	58.0
South-South	75.0	88.4	81.3	81.6	81.4	59.6	83.2	60.7	83.9	70.9
South-West	58.3	59.8	57.0	61.0	59.0	55.6	64.1	64.0	55.0	59.5
FCT	54.8	65.8	63.3	54.9	59.0	53.2	63.2	55.1	58.8	57.0
National Average	60.5	58.9	67.4	53.3	59.8	54.6	58.8	62.8	52.3	56.9

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 4. 27: Distribution of Respondents by Self-Assessment of Ability to influence selected security risks (Spread of HIV/AIDS)

Geo-political Zone	Spread of HIV/AIDS in Nigeria				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	74.7	81.4	82.4	74.5	78.5
North-East	77.4	64.5	94.4	54.5	72.5
North-West	54.7	62.0	54.5	58.6	56.5
South-East	58.6	55.4	66.3	48.0	57.0
South-South	76.0	87.4	80.4	82.8	81.4
South-West	75.9	67.4	76.0	68.0	72.0
FCT	85.5	92.1	89.8	86.3	88.0
National Average	71.8	72.9	77.7	67.5	72.3

Source: Field Survey, 2015

further shown that while more males claimed ability to reduce risks associated with food poisoning, more female respondents claimed ability to influence risks associated with high amount of preservative in food.

With respect to spread of HIV/AIDS, majority of the respondents, on an average, claimed they have ability to influence associated risks. The same applies in all geo-political zones as presented in table 4.27. More urban respondents compared to their rural counterparts and more female respondents compared to their male counterparts claimed having the ability to influence risks associated with spread of HIV/AIDS.

4.6 Conclusions

In the past couple of years, there have been gains in the proportion of the population with access to an improved water source in Nigeria. However, the proportion of the population with access to improved sanitation declined between 2008 and 2014. The North-East zone had the highest proportion of survey respondents who perceived their inability to access portable water as a personal threat in the environment domain. Deforestation, has persisted as a challenge in the environment sector and constitutes a threat to human security. In order to curb the trend, indiscriminate logging would have to be monitored. Policies geared towards preservation of primary forests and re-afforestation of depleted forests are suggested. Additionally, the use of renewable energy sources (bio-fuels and solar power) for domestic uses need to be encouraged. Gas flaring was observed as an activity constituting threats to human security in the environment domain. Adequate infrastructure to enable storage of natural gas for domestic and commercial use is essential to sustain trends of reduced gas flaring activities in Nigeria. Disasters, national or human induced will be better managed by improved institutional capacity of relevant bodies such as NEMA.

Some gains have been recorded in the health sector in the area of ante-natal care provision attended by skilled personnel and declining HIV/AIDS prevalence. Nevertheless, majority of survey respondents still expressed the fear of high prevalence of HIV/AIDS. Generally, the state of health institutions is perceived as a factor which increases respondents' sense of security thereby implying that the provision of functional and qualitative health facilities are needed for improved human security.

"it appears more urban respondents, compared to their rural counterparts, have the ability to influence risks associated with food poisoning and high amount of preservatives in food".

5.
PERSONAL, COMMUNITY AND POLITICAL DIMENSIONS OF HUMAN SECURITY

5.0 Introduction

There is no doubt that the three domains of personal, community and political security are quite important in national development as they are most likely to have influence on national development as well as the overall prosperity of the country and her citizens. This chapter thus provides a descriptive analysis of citizen's perception of threats to security with a focus on issues affecting individual persons in the home, workplace and in the course of daily routines. Issues discussed include perceived threats to personal safety, violent crimes such as kidnapping and the consequence of breaches of personal safety, specifically displacement. It also analyses the factors contributing to people's sense of security, and citizen's ability to influence selected security risks, all sourced from the primary survey conducted by the NHDR team. Additionally, data is presented from secondary sources relevant to human security in the three domains of interest in order to provide a more comprehensive country understanding of the situation in all the respects. Where available, the data and information is presented for states and for geopolitical zones.

Crime is central to the issue of personal and community security and to feelings of insecurity in these domains; alongside the findings from our survey therefore, we present available statistics on crime, violence and public order as well as previously documented findings from victimisation surveys. Some of the data utilised for discussions in this chapter include: armed robbery reported to the police between 2007 and 2011, as obtained from the National Bureau of Statistics, number of violent deaths per year obtained from the Nigeria Stability and Reconciliation Programme (NSRP), the proportion of men and women who have experienced physical violence since age 15, obtained from the Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS) as well as police-population ratio obtained from Nigeriavillagesquare.com. Due to the known fact that not all crimes are reported to the police, surveys containing victimisation statistics are often needful for supplementary information, hence the inclusion of these other sources for more comprehensiveness.

In the realm of political security, the data relied upon was on women participation in politics and governance, ethnic conflicts and limitations on democracy and freedom of speech. These were used to supplement the results of the primary survey which also covered issues of citizens' security in the political domain.

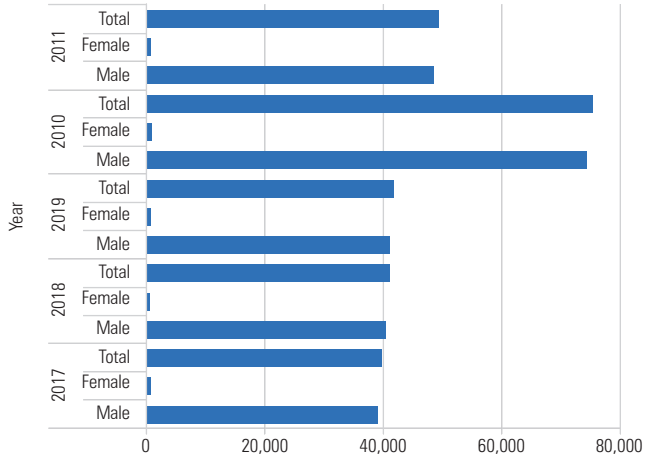
5.1 Crimes Related to Human Security Threats in the Personal, Community and Political Domains: Country Situation

Personal security is the most basic form of freedom from want and from fear exhibited by persons. When aggregated for several individuals, there emerges picture of human security at the community domain. Issues of personal and community security therefore form a continuum of sorts, starting with security at individual levels. At a larger scale, human security in the political domain pertain to macro/national issues which affect whole regions or nations which are composed of several communities. The nature of threats at this level relate to national rather than domestic and communal issues.

Crime, in various forms pose significant threats to personal, community and political security, and a useful indicator of crime level in a society is the number of people serving prison terms. Prison facilities over the period 2007-2011 ranged between 228 and 239, while the prison inmate population increased steadily from 39,691 in 2007 to 41,786 in 2009 (Fig 5.1). There was a much sharper increase in the number to 75,261 in 2010 and incidentally, this was the year in which the highest number of prison facilities (239) was recorded for the nation. The number of inmates declined to 49,451 in 2011, this number still represents substantial increase compared with what obtained in the base year for the review period.

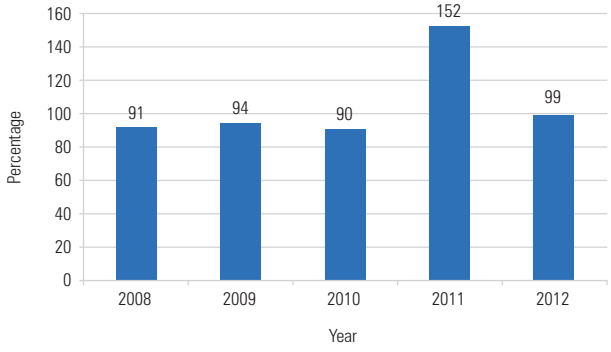
> "Victimisation statistics are often needful for supplementary information"

Figure 5. 1: Prison Inmate Population (2007-2011)



Source: Nigeria Prisons Service in NBS, Abstract of Statistics (2012)

Figure 5. 2: Number of inmates as proportion of facility maximum capacity



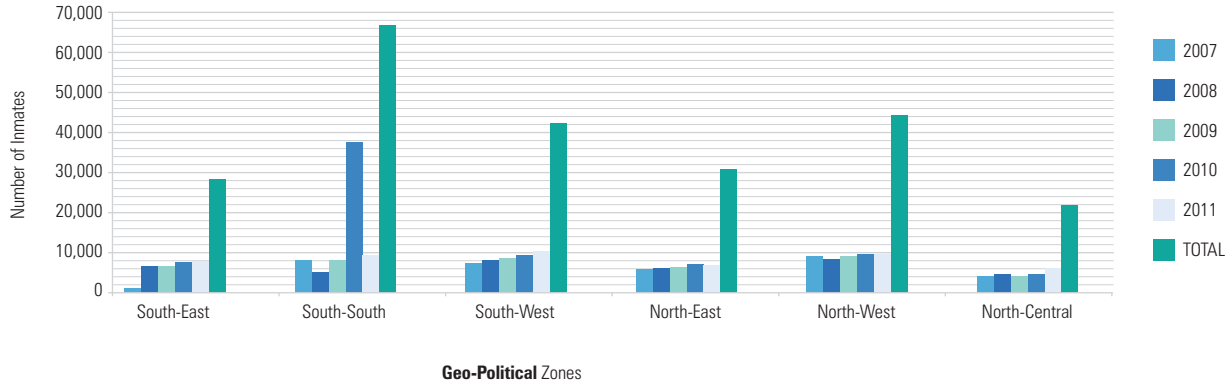
Source: Nigeria Prisons Service in NBS, Abstract of statistics (2012)

Males formed the preponderant group of inmate population accounting for an average of 98 percent of the population over the period. Although there has not been much fluctuation in the number of prison facilities, inmates as proportion of maximum prison capacity has been quite high ranging between 90 percent and 152 percent over the period of analysis (Fig 5.2).

In 2010 when the proportion of prison inmates to facility capacity was highest, inmate population exceeded 100 percent, indicating that prison facilities were overcrowded in some states. Prisons are meant to be correctional facilities, however, when conditions such as overcrowding occur, facilities and resources available to inmates are overstretched and conditions in prisons become more punitive than correctional. Inmate behaviour might become more deviant, increasing potential for future crime.

The breakdown by geopolitical zones shows that the cumulative number of prisoners over the five year period was highest (67,077) in the South-South zone. While the lowest aggregate number of prisoners over the period (21,630) was recorded in the North-Central zone (Fig 5.3). Data from Statistics Unit, Police Headquarters, Abuja contained in NBS (2012) on prison admission by offence type shows stealing(21.1%), armed robbery (9.6%) and robbery (9.2%) as the three most frequently occurring offences.

Figure 5. 3: Prison Inmates (2007-2011) by Geopolitical Zones



Source: Calculated based on NBS, Abstract of Statistics (2012)

5.1.1 Armed Robbery and Violence Related Crimes

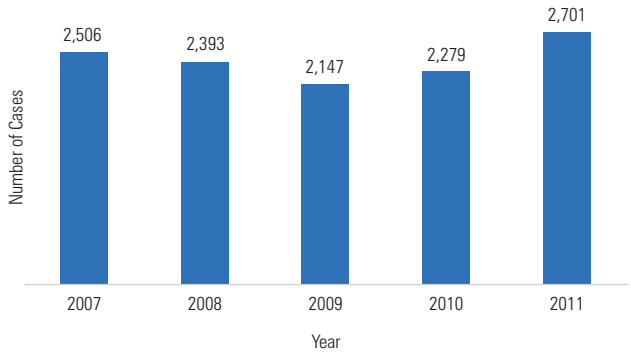
The reported cases of armed robbery have been on the increase in different parts of the country. As illustrated in Figure 5.4, armed robbery cases dropped from 2,506 in 2007 to 2,147 in 2009 but increased steadily to 2,701 in 2011. The trend has been on increase since then. On geo-political bases, table 5.1 shows that all the zones with the exception of the South-East experienced increasing trend in cases of armed robbery between 2007 and 2011.

Table 5. 1: Armed Robbery cases reported to the Police by State, 2007-201

Zone	States	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
South-East	Abia	89	129	53	246	27
	Anambra	96	69	240	94	50
	Ebonyi	51	29	38	20	31
	Enugu		52	53	44	44
	Imo	176	76	110	44	103
	Total	412	355	494	448	255
South-South	Akwa Ibom	88	129	83	49	38
	Bayelsa	52	42	58	25	22
	Cross River	137	120	66	34	19
	Delta	63	122	127	55	83
	Edo	79	52	111	87	56
	Rivers	145	122	42	76	27
	Total	564	587	487	326	245
North-East	Adamawa	96	21	32	23	33
	Bauchi	41	35	49	41	43
	Borno	41	81	91	22	16
	Gombe	27	48	31	0	53
	Taraba	80	46	15	27	138
	Yobe	20	47	38	57	57
	Total	305	278	256	170	340
North-Central	Benue	27	45	29	13	10
	Kogi	41	39	52	45	117
	Kwara	25	24	37	86	140
	Nassarawa	36	47	19	78	130
	Niger	32	76	21	28	79
	Plateau	26	30	18	22	27
	Total	187	261	176	272	503
South-West	Ekiti	85	25	41	60	13
	Lagos	70	215	46	152	259
	Ogun	107	80	18	52	118
	Ondo	58	24	10	120	175
	Osun	51	21	16	27	18
	Oyo	224	171	11	87	33
	Total	371	365	131	411	583
North-West	Jigawa	16	19	45	42	13
	Kaduna	40	57	158	53	40
	Kano	108	103	74	107	78
	Katsina	31	34	38	26	39
	Kebbi	20	38	20	64	299
	Sokoto	24	19	13	86	15
	Zamfara	32	51	29	38	54
	Total	271	321	377	416	538
FCT, Abuja		172	55	215	149	204
Grand Total		2,506	2,393	2,147	2,279	2,701

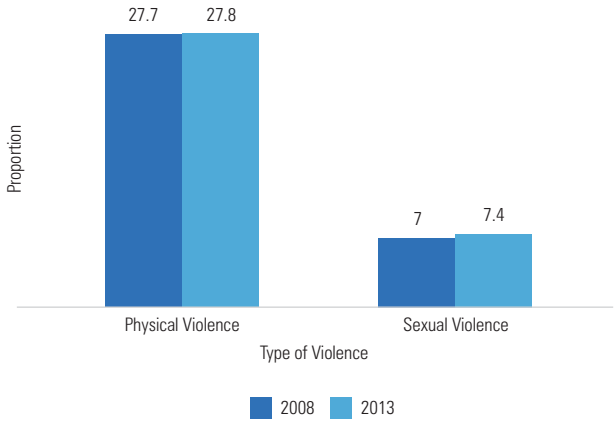
Source: NBS (2012) Annual Abstract of Statistics

Figure 5. 4: Cases of Armed robbery reported to the Police (2007-2011)



Source: NBS (2012) Annual Abstract of Statistics, NBS Abuja

Figure 5. 6: Proportion of women aged 15-49 who have experienced physical and sexual violence as from age 15 in Nigeria



Source: NDHS (2013)

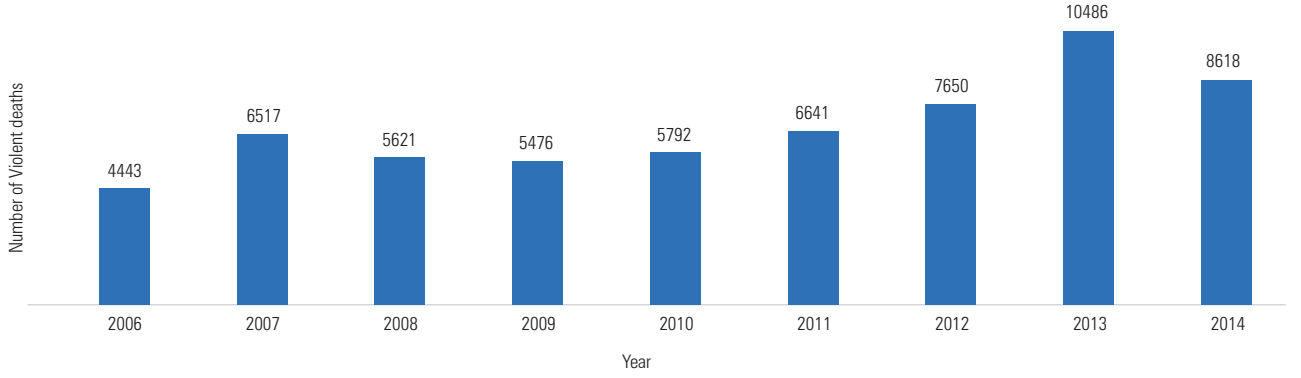
The zone with the highest number of cases as at 2011 was the South-West. However, the zone with the highest rate of increase between 2007 and 2011 was the North-Central geo-political zone.

Trend in the number of violent deaths per year was mixed as shown in data for the period 2006-2014. As illustrated in figure 5.5, it increased from 4,443 to 6,517 in 2007 and dropped to 5,476 in 2009. It rose steadily to 10,486 in 2013 before dropping to 8,618 in 2014.

There are also cases of physical and sexual violence against women. Figure 5.6 shows that cases of physical violence increased marginally from 27.7 per cent to 27.8 per cent between 2008 and 2013 while those of sexual violence also increased marginally from 7.0 per cent to 7.4 per cent within the same period. Though the rate of increase has been marginal the fact that cases of this nature are not on the decline becomes a concern.

Across the geo-political zones, as presented in table 5.2, cases of physical violence increased between 2008 and 2013 with the exception of the North-West zone. The North-East zone recorded highest rate of increase in cases of physical violence against women. With respect to sexual violence table 5.2 further shows that the North-West, the South-East and the South-South zones experienced a decline in number of cases between 2008 and 2013 while the North-East recorded highest rate of increase in number of sexual violence within the period.

Figure 5. 5: Number of Violent deaths per year (2006-2014)



Source: Nigeria Stability and Reconciliation Programme (NRSP) Nigeria Watch Fourth Report on Violence in Nigeria (2006-2014)

Table 5. 2: Proportion of women aged 15-49 years who have ever experienced Physical violence since age 15

Geo-political Zone	Physical Violence		Sexual Violence	
	2008	2013	2008	2013
North-Central	31.0	30.5	7.7	9.6
North-East	19.7	29.5	8.6	15.7
North-West	13.1	6.9	2.7	2.3
South-East	29.6	38.3	11.8	8.4
South-South	52.1	52.2	13.4	10.3
South-West	28.9	37.1	3.2	4.6
National	27.7	27.8	7.0	7.4

Source: NDHS 2008 and 2013

The picture below (plate 5.1) shows a police officer assaulting a woman. Women in Nigeria have experienced such violence in the hands of law enforcement agents. In some cases the incidences became national issues widely disseminated by the media. Widespread media coverage of such incidences occur when the women involved have some celebrity pedigree; otherwise, incidences of violence and assault against women often go unnoticed.

In addition to the violence following the 2011 elections, the Boko Haram insurgency in the North-East, has also led to the displacement of millions of households and individuals. Many of those affected either lost their means of livelihood or property or both, or forced to depend on aids (food and other necessaries) from governments, philanthropists and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). Such aids were hardly sufficient while they lasted. In Borno and Yobe states in particular, the activities of insurgents have paralysed commerce and other economic activities with increasing level of poverty as a consequence. Likewise, frequent ethno-religious crisis in Plateau state has adversely affected economic activities and subjected many people to greater poverty. In states like Taraba, Plateau, Benue and Nasarawa, there were incessant inter communal and inter-ethnic clashes which resulted in displacements of farming communities. Normal livelihood activities in these areas became riskier.

The statistics on crime related to human security threats at personal, community and political domains are of concern and will inadvertently create a climate in the society which affects how citizens perceive threats to their security. These perceptions are discussed using the survey data conducted in 2015 by the NHDR team.

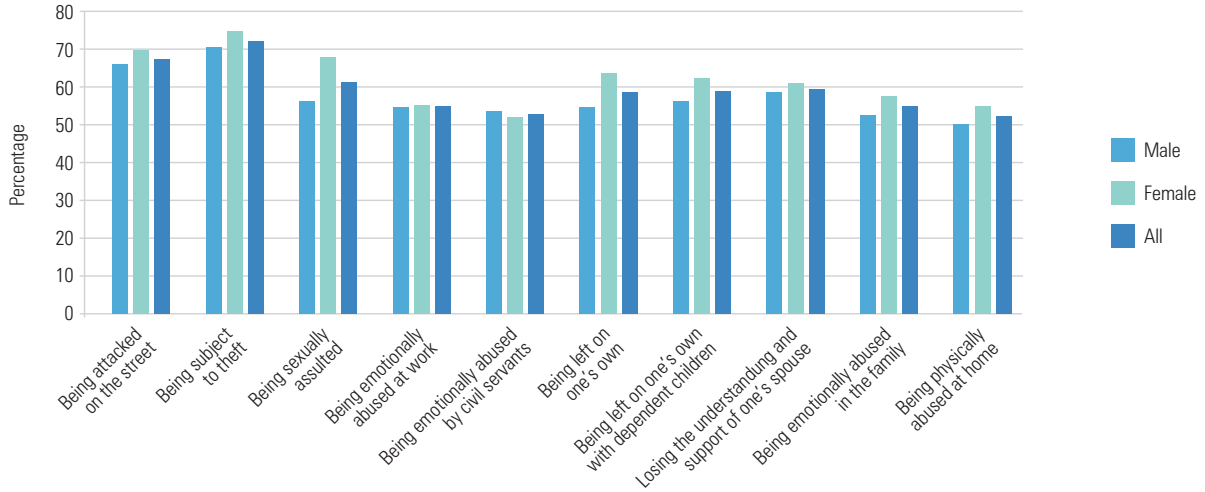
Plate 5.1: Abuse by the Police1: A policeman assaulting a woman

5.2 Citizens' Perception of Threats to Human Security: Personal and Community Domains

People's expression of fear differs over a range of security threats based on the severity of the threats and on their location. The issue of citizens' personal safety, especially threats to security at the personal level, is captured in figure 5.7, which shows that majority of respondents (72.4%) are mostly afraid of being subject to theft, being attacked on the street (67.7%), being sexually assaulted (that is, rape) (61.4%), losing the understanding and support of one's spouse (59.7%), and being left on one's own with dependent children (59.0%). A disaggregation of these threats to security at the personal level reveals that female respondents from FCT were mostly afraid of being subject to theft (82.0%), being attacked on the street (89.5%), being sexually assaulted (92.1%), losing the understanding and support of one's spouse (86.8%), and being left on one's own with dependent children (81.6%). As a matter of fact, a cursory look at figure 5.7 shows that with the exception of the fear of being emotionally abused by civil servants (52.0%) where the female gender recorded a slightly lower rating, female's rating of all the threats to security at the personal level was higher for all threat categories (Figure 5.7).

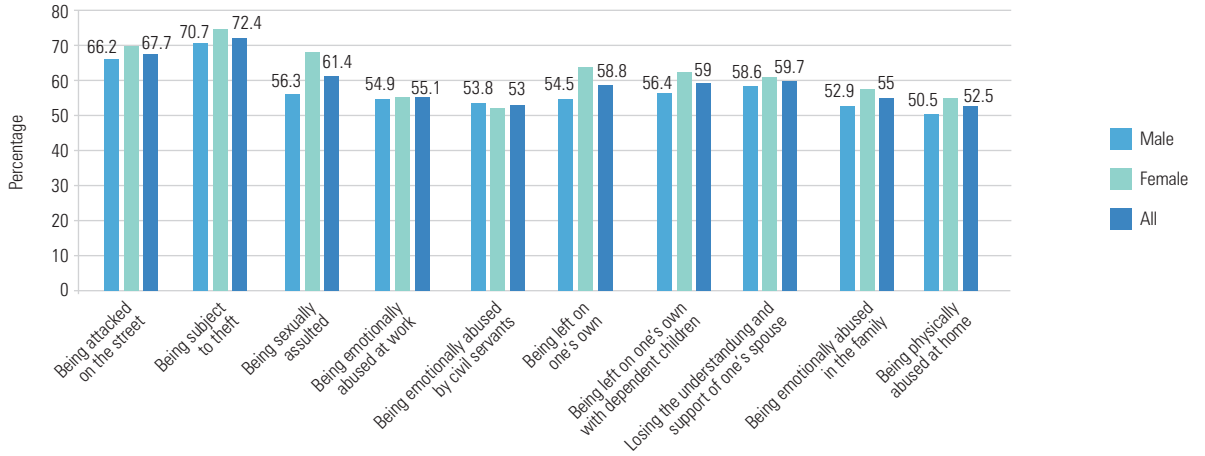
1 *www.nigeriapolicewatch.com/2014/04-torturer-police-officer-now-in-detention/*

Figure 5.7: Distribution of Respondents being afraid of threats to security at the personal level (%)



Source: Field Survey Data, 2015.

Figure 5. 8: Distribution of Respondents being afraid of threats to security (Community Domain)



Source: Field Survey Data, 2015.

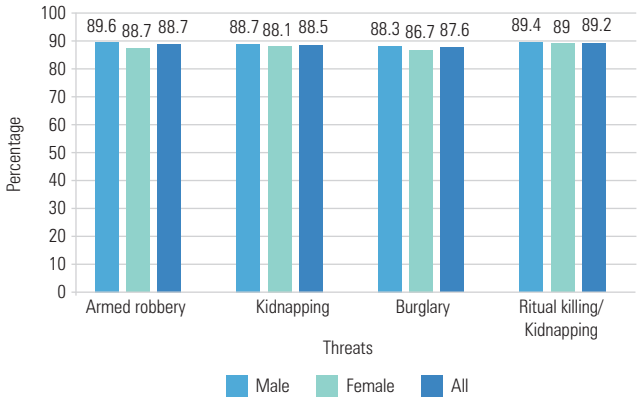
At the community domain, people's expression of fear also differs among geo-political zones. As reflected in Figure 5.8, which contains a distribution of security concerns/issues which respondents are afraid of, majority (69.1%) of respondents are afraid of becoming victim of aggressive and unsafe driving practices, losing the understanding and support of friends and family members (60.0%), being in conflict with relatives/others over poverty issues (58.8%), and losing the understanding and support of one's colleagues (58.2%). It is important to stress the fact that, with the single exception of the fear of losing the understanding and support of one's colleagues, where female gender records a lower rating compared with male, each of the other security concerns/issues at this domain records a higher female rating than male. This suggests that the female respondents for this study indicate higher ratings of threats to security at the personal level (Figure 5.8). This is suggestive of the fact that women are more vulnerable than men with respect to personal threat factors considered in Figure 5.7.

It is also important to note that there is a great regional variation in the response to these security concerns. While majority of respondents from FCT (91.0%), North-East (78.5%), North-West (72.0%), and South-West 71.5%) are mostly afraid of becoming

victim of aggressive and unsafe driving practices, with their rating higher than national average of 69.1%, respondents from North-Central (66.0%), South-East (60.0%), and South-South (55.3%) recorded lower rating well below national average (Appendix 3, Table 5a). On the fear of losing the understanding and support of one's colleagues, while respondents from three geo-political zones of South-East (59.0%), North-West (59.5%), North-East (70.0%), and the FCT (83.0%) expressed higher fear and recorded rating above national average, respondents from the other three zones of North-Central, South-West and South-South recorded rating lower than national average (Appendix 3, Table 5a). On the fear of being in conflict with relatives/others over poverty issues, only respondents from North-East (77.0%) and FCT (94.0%) expressed higher fear than national average on this security concern. All the other five zones recorded lower fear on this variable as follows: (South-East (57.0%); South-South (53.3%); North-Central (52.5%); South-West (50.0%); and North-West (45.5%). On the fear of losing the understanding and support of friends and /family members, there was also a distinct regional variation in the perception of respondents to this security threat. While respondents from two zones (North-East (74.5%) and South-South (60.3%), and the FCT (91.0%) expressed higher fear than the national average on this issue, respondents from the remaining four zones: (South-East (58.0%); North-West (51.5%); South-West (50.5%) and North-Central (50.0%) expressed lesser fear on this security issue (Appendix 3, Table 5a).

The distribution of respondents anticipating general threats (community domain) is contained in figure 5.9 which, contrary to general belief shows males as more fearful on all security concerns than the females. For armed robbery as a security concern, majority of respondents from three zones of South-South (93.5%); North-East (93.0%); and South-West (91.5%); and FCT (95.0%) expressed a higher level of fear than the national average of 88.7% (Appendix 3 Table 5b). For kidnapping, there is also a regional variation in respondents' perception of this fear. While respondents from four zones of South-South (94.0%); North-East (92.5%); North-Central (91.0%); and South-West (90.5%), and FCT (91.0%) expressed higher perception of fear for this security concern, the remaining two zones of North-West (83.5%), and South-East (78.0%) recorded lower rating of fear for this security concern (Appendix 3 Table 5b). On burglary as a security concern, respondents from three of the zones: North-East (92.0%); South-South (92.0%) South-West (89.5%), and FCT (95.0%) expressed greater concern than those from the three remaining zones of North-Central (87.0%); North-West (84.0%), and South-East (77.5%) whose rating of this security concern was less than the national average (Appendix 3 Table 5b). This same regional variation exists in respondents' perception of ritual kidnappings/killings as a security concern. Respondents from three of the zones: South-South (93.5%); North-East (92.5%); and South-West (92.0%), and FCT (94.0%) rated ritual kidnappings/killings more as security concern with figures higher than national average of 89.2%. The remaining three zones of North-Central (87.5%); North-West (86.5%); and South-East (81.0%) rated the security concern albeit equally high, but lower than national average (Appendix 3 Table 5b).

Figure 5. 9: Distribution of Respondents anticipating general threats (Community Domain)



Source: Field Survey Data, 2015.

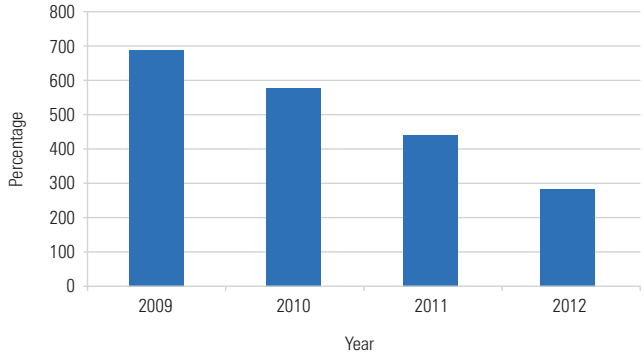
With respect to armed robbery, there are more respondents which anticipated this as a general threat in urban (92%) than in rural areas (86.5%). Similarly, more urban respondents (92.2%) anticipated kidnapping as a general threat than rural respondents (85.3%). Among all the survey respondents, 88.5 percent of respondents expressed the fear of kidnapping as a general threat, about the same proportion perceived organised crime as a general threat; while the proportion of those who expressed the fear of falling victim of organised crime was about 76 percent. The South-South region has the largest share of the respondents (94%) who are afraid of kidnapping and perceive it as a threat. This is not surprising given the incidence of kidnapping which have been pervasive in this geopolitical zone. The sense

of communal safety appears to be compromised in many communities, this has informed the emergence of neighbourhood based security outfits in many Nigerian communities. Such arrangements help to supplement more formal security and safety facilities which should be provided by governments at national and sub national levels.

The wave of kidnapping in Nigeria in the 1990s was attributed largely to the Niger Delta crisis which began during the period. The crisis stemmed from agitations for better socio-economic and infrastructural development of the oil rich region. Media accounts, according to Raheed (2008) show that militant youths in the region started kidnapping as a way of attracting interventions from the international community.

At the peak of the Niger Delta crisis, kidnapping was mostly of expatriate workers, but in recent years, kidnapping has assumed other dimensions and although still pervasive in the south, is no longer limited to the delta region. The South-East has also featured as an active zone in the various kidnapping episodes. Public stake and relevance has become a key factor in the kidnapping of adults, hence, political office holders or their family members; paramount rulers or their family members have been key targets for high Kidnap Ransom Value (KRV). The KRV refers to the strategic worth of the hostage and determines the kind of people kidnappers go for. Figure 5.10 shows the incidence of kidnapping in Nigeria between 2009 and 2012.

Figure 5. 10: Incidences of Kidnapping in Nigeria



Source: Police reports cited in Alemika (2012)

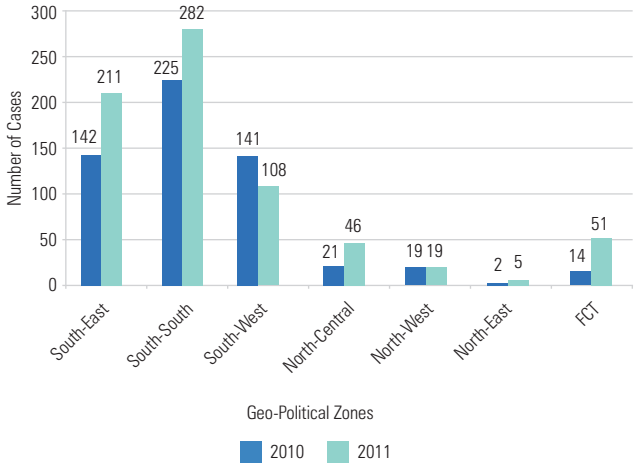
The figure shows declining incidences of kidnapping in Nigeria over the period between 2009 and 2012. The record for 2012 pertains to incidences recorded at half year. Although the national pattern exhibits declining trends, figures on cases of missing persons for geopolitical zones in 2010 and 2011 shows there was an increase by 48.5 percent in the South-East zone and by 25 percent in the South-South zone. The North-Central zone also recorded an increase in cases of missing persons between 2010 and 2011, but absolute figures with respect to cases of missing persons in the north are relatively small compared to the number in the southern zones as shown in figure 5.11.

Clearly, the breakdown on cases of missing persons by geopolitical zones shows that kidnappings were largely a southern phenomenon in Nigeria. Recent incidences of kidnapping in the North-East have been associated with terror groups.

The recent kidnapping of school girls in March 2014 in the North-East geopolitical zone was related to the activities of the notorious terror group in Nigeria known as Boko-Haram. The motive here appeared to be more political than it was for economic gain. The act was also meant to strengthen the philosophy of the terror group namely its stand against western education. The girls have been missing for over a year and have had their education truncated since being kidnapped. Knowledge accumulation, literacy and learning has therefore been compromised for the girls, as well as for other school children who may have suffered such fates.

Kidnapping and other related organised crime in Nigeria has been largely attributed in recent times to the high level of poverty and socio-economic malaise as well as growing social inequality and marginalisation (Okoli & Agada, 2014).

Figure 5. 11: Cases of Missing Persons in Nigeria



Source: calculated based on NBS, Abstract of statistics (2012)

5.3 Factors Contributing to People's Sense of Security: Personal and Community Domains

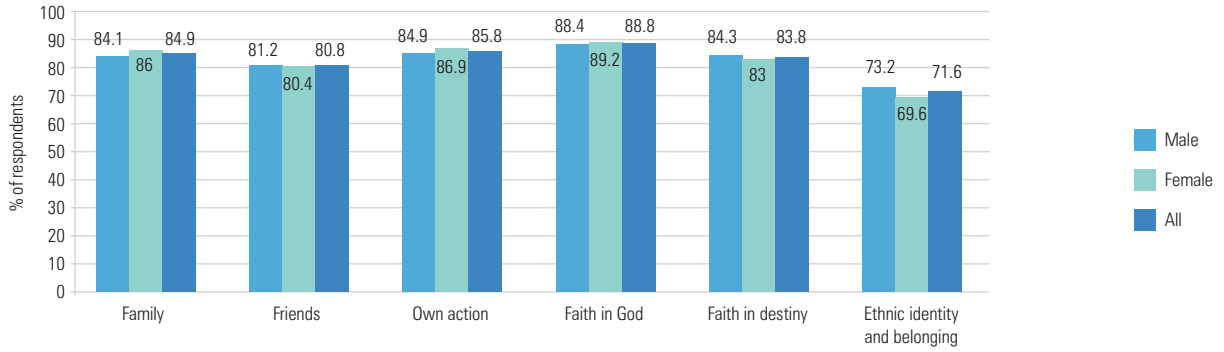
Several factors could contribute to people's sense of security. Figure 5.12 contains those factors contributing to the survey respondents' sense of security. It would appear that respondents for the particular report are very religious as faith in God (88.8%) was rated as the most significant factor contributing to their sense of security. Respondents' own action (85.8%), family (84.9%), faith in destiny (83.8%), friends (80.8%), and ethnic identity and belonging (71.6%) in that order are given as factors contributing to respondents' sense of security. A closer look at the figure reveals that female respondents' rating of factors contributing to their sense of security was higher for such factors as faith in God (89.2%), own action (86.9%), and family (86.0%), while male respondents' rating was higher for factors such as friends (81.2%), faith in destiny (84.3%), and ethnic identity and belonging (73.2%).

A regional disaggregation of this information reveals that for family as a factor contributing to respondents' sense of security, only North-Central (71.0%) recorded rating lower than the national average of 84.9% (Annex 3, Table 5c). Respondents from all the five other zones, including the FCT have a higher rating of this factor. For friends as a factor, respondents from three of the zones: North-West (92.0%), North-East (85.0%), South-South (82.9%) and the FCT (93.0%) have higher rating of this factor well above the national average of 80.8% (Appendix 3, Table 5c). Respondents from the remaining three zones: South-West (75.5%), South-East (75.0%), and North-Central (68.5%) however, have lower rating of friends as a factor contributing to their sense of security. Respondents' rating of own action as a factor contributing to sense of security shows that respondents from three of the zones: North-West (94.0%), South-South (89.9%), and South-West (88.5%) and the FCT (100%) have higher rating of this factor, while those from the remaining three zones: North-East (85.5%), South-East 979.0%) and North-Central (70.5%) are lower than the national average rating of 85.8% (Appendix 3, Table 5c).

For faith in God as a factor contributing to respondent's sense of security, while three of the zones: South-East (83.5%), North-East (86.5%), and North-Central (79.5%) rated this factor lower than the national average of 88.8%, respondents from the remaining three zones rated this factor higher as a contributor to their sense of security. In the same vein respondents from North-Central (69.0%), South-East (77.5%) and South-West (79.0) rated faith in destiny lower as a factor contributing to their sense of security. The remaining three zones and the FCT recorded higher rating for this factor. Respondents from three zones of North-East (77.0%), North-West (81.5%) and South-East (75.5%) rated Ethnic identity and belonging higher as a factor contributing to their sense of security. The remaining zones recorded lower rating, than the national average for this factor (Appendix 3, Table 5c).

On the issue of factors respondents considered significant in contributing to their sense of security at the community domain, figure 5.13 reveals that neighbours (66.9%), newspapers, radio, television (65.8%), informal networks (58.9%) and social organisations (NGOs) (48.3%), in that order are rated by respondents as factors contributing to their sense of security at the community level. A gender disaggregation of these factors reveals that male respondents rated all these factors higher than their female counterparts, suggesting

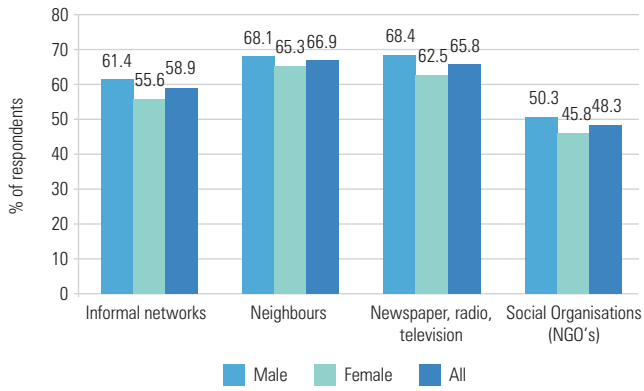
Figure 5. 12: Distribution of Respondents by selected factors enhancing their sense of personal security



Source: Field Survey Data, 2015.

that male respondents appear more extroverted than the female. In terms of regional dimension of responses, it is discovered that respondents from FCT have rated informal networks (83.0%), neighbours (90.0%), and social organisations (NGOs) (62.0%) higher as factors contributing to their sense of security than those from the other zones. Respondents from the South-East zone however rated newspaper, radio and television (82.0%) higher as factors contributing to their sense of security (Appendix 3 Table 5d).

Figure 5. 13: Distribution of Respondents by selected factors contributing to their sense of security (Community)



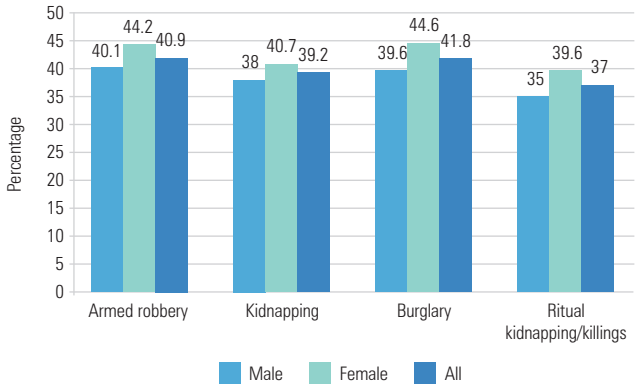
Source: Field Survey Data, 2015.

5.4 Citizens' Ability to Cope with Selected Security Risks: Personal and Community Domains.

People's ability to influence security risks varies from one person to another and from one location to the other. Respondents for this study have rated their ability to influence selected security risks as extremely low. This low rating, which cut across all the six geo-political zones and the FCT indicates weak ability to cope with selected security risks, including armed robbery, kidnapping, burglary and ritual kidnappings and killings. As reflected in Figure 5.14, female respondents across the six geo-political zones have a higher ability to cope with selected security risks than their male counterparts. In terms of geo-political disaggregation of responses, it is discovered that respondents from three of the zones: South-South (67.3%); South-East (52.0%); and South-West (43.5%) have indicated higher ability to cope with armed robbery as a security concern than those from the remaining three zones: North-East (37.5%); North-Central (30.5%) and North-West (21.5%) and FCT (40.0%) (Appendix 3 Table 5e).

The national average rating of respondents' ability to influence this security concern is 41.9% (Appendix 3 Table 5e). For kidnapping, respondents from three of the zones: South-South (66.8%); South-East (42.0%); and South-West (39.5%), and FCT (40.0%) have similarly indicated higher ability to influence this security concern than those from the remaining three zones: North-East (37.0%), North-Central (28.5%) and North-West (21.0%) (Appendix 3 Table 5e).

Figure 5. 14: Distribution of Respondents by ability to influence selected security risks (Community domain)



Source: Field Survey Data, 2015.

The national average rating of respondents' ability to influence this security concern is 39.2%. The national average for influencing burglary as a security risk is 41.8%. Respondents from three of the zones: South-South (66.8%); South-East (49.5%); and South-West (44.0%) however, rated their ability to influence this security risk higher than the national average. Respondents from the remaining three zones: North-East (37.5%); North-Central (30.0%) and North-West (25.0%); and the FCT (38.0%) rated their ability to influence kidnapping as low, even lower than national average of 41.8%. Respondents' rating of their ability to influence ritual kidnappings/killings as a security concern followed the same regional variation. While respondents from four of the zones: South-South (60.3%); South-East (45.0%); North-East (37.5%); and South-West (37.0%) have indicated higher ability to influence ritual kidnappings/killings as a security concern than those from the remaining two zones: North-Central (25.0%) and North-West, which recorded the lowest rating of (17.5%) and FCT (37.0%) recorded lower rating (Appendix 3 Table 5e).

5.5 Assessment of Life Satisfaction

5.5.1 Life satisfaction with sense of community belonging

Sense of community belonging has to do with "a feeling that members have of belonging; a feelingthat members matter to one another and the group and a shared faith that members' needs will be met through their commitment to be together" (Chavis and McMillan, 1986). In this respect, satisfaction with sense of community belonging could enhance community members' sense of security. It appears generally more people are satisfied with sense of community belonging. This is expected because the state of security as earlier discussed is attained through collective approach and it is imperative that every community member be given a sense of belonging to contribute towards addressing the problems threatening human security.

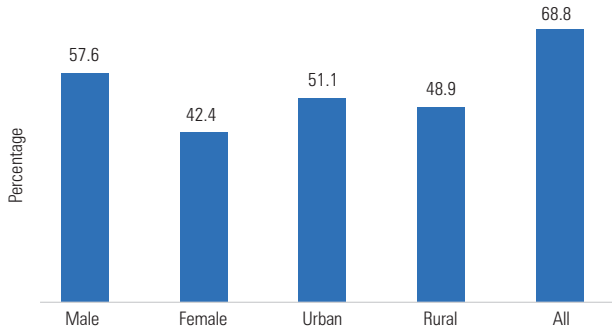
At least close to seven out of every ten respondents in our survey claimed satisfaction in this respect (Table 5.3). While the pattern is the same across the geo-political zones but not in the FCT, there are variations between rural and urban, and between male and female respondents (Figure 5.15). In terms of gender, less than half of the respondents that claimed satisfaction with sense of belonging are females while in terms of the rural-urban dichotomy the same applies. The case of more urban respondents claiming satisfaction with sense of belonging could be attributable to the necessity of community members coming together to fund provision and maintenance of community facilities including provision of security. More male respondents having satisfaction with sense of community belonging could also be attributable to the fact that in most communities there are more male-headed households who, more than often, attend meetings of community associations where important decisions about community governance are taken.

Table 5. 3: Life satisfaction with sense of community belonging

Geo-political Zone	Assessment of Life satisfaction: Sense of Community Belonging				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	45.4	54.6	54.6	45.4	70.5
North-East	58.3	41.7	37.8	62.2	63.5
North-West	78.8	21.2	51.5	48.5	82.5
South-East	55.1	44.9	51.2	48.8	63.5
South-South	53.4	46.6	56.5	43.5	80.5
South-West	51.6	48.4	54.2	45.8	76.5
FCT	60.7	39.3	51.7	48.3	44.5
National Average	57.6	42.4	51.1	48.9	68.8

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Figure 5. 15: Satisfaction with Sense of Community Belonging



Source: Field Survey, 2015

5.6 Issues Related to Human Security in the Political Domain

5.6.1 Accommodation of Women in the Political Space

Participation of women in politics has been low (see Table 2.1 in earlier chapter), though in some cases there has been increase in the number of women members in the national assembly, the proportion is still low. The proportion of female representatives in the National Assembly increased from 2.1 percent in 1999 to 5.3 percent in 2007 and further to 7.5 percent in 2007. Thereafter, proportion of female representatives have declined.

There has been no female president, female Vice president and female governor. The proportion of female deputy governor increased from 2.8 per cent in 1999 to 11.1 per cent in 2015. The highest proportion of female cabinet ministers (29.6 %) was recorded in 2011. There has been reduction in the proportion of female local government chairmen and councillors between 1999 and 2015.

With respect to the situation across the geo-political zones, table 5.4 shows that the proportion of women occupying National Assembly seats in 2015 is highest for the South-East zone in both the Senate and House of Representatives; while the lowest proportions in both chambers are for the North-West zone.

Table 5. 4: Proportion of women in the National Assembly by geo-political zones (2015)

Zone	No of senate Seats	Women senators	% of women Senator	House of Representative Seats	No of Women Representatives	% of women
North-Central	18	1	5.6	49	2	4.1
North-East	18	1	5.6	48	4	8.3
North-West	21	1	4.8	92	1	1.1
South-East	15	2	13.3	43	6	14.0
South-South	18	1	5.6	55	4	7.3
South-West	18	1	5.6	71	8	11.3

Source: Udodinma (2013)

Table 5.5: Distribution of Respondents Afraid of General Threats (Democracy and Freedom of Speech)

Geo-political Zone	Limitations on Democracy and Freedom of Speech (% of respondents)				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		All
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	
North-Central	47.1	53.1	52.0	49.0	50.5
North-East	75.0	72.4	70.0	77.3	74.0
North-West	81.3	80.0	87.1	74.7	81.0
South-South	68.7	68.3	73.5	63.7	68.5
South-East	72.1	64.2	55.4	85.1	68.3
South-West	59.3	54.3	66.0	48.0	57.0
FCT	88.7	86.8	91.8	84.3	88.0
National Average	70.3	68.4	70.8	68.9	69.6

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Nationally, women representatives in the National Assembly in 2015 was 4.6 percent, a drop from 6.8 percent in 2011 and 7.6 percent in 2007. Udodinma (2013) notes that in spite of the 35 percent affirmative action plan[2] and the huge campaign for women for change initiatives, the 2011 elections was characterised by low female representation in elected offices. The author opines that obstacles to women empowerment are numerous and gained root from the colonial leadership. Female representation in Nigeria's elected political offices is still below desired levels and tends to undermine gender equity Millennium Development Goal.

5.7 Citizens' Perception of Threats to Human Security: Political Domain

Threats to Security at the General Level

Issues bordering on terrorism, ethnic conflict, organised crime, as well as limitations on democracy and freedom of speech are considered under political domain as those likely to constitute security threat at the general level. The perception expressed by the respondents is presented in Appendix 3 table 5f. Majority of the respondents expressed the fear that these issues are likely to constitute security threat at the general level. The situation is the same for all the geo-political zones including the FCT. Again majority of the rural and urban respondents expressed this fear but with the proportion of urban respondents slightly higher than that of their rural counterparts for ethnic conflict and organised crime while for terrorism, the proportion of rural respondents that expressed fear is slightly higher than that of the urban respondents. Again the proportion of male respondents that expressed fear is slightly higher than that of the female respondents for terrorism in Nigeria and ethnic conflict while the reverse is the case for organised crime.

Another critical issue has to do with limitations on democracy and freedom of speech. Respondents' perception of the extent to which this constitutes general security threat is examined. It is observed (as depicted in table 5.5), that majority of the respondents perceived limitations on democracy and freedom of speech as a threat to general security. This is the pattern across all the geo-political zones including the FCT. On average, close to 70 per cent of the respondents expressed the fear

2 This policy advocates 35 percent involvement of women in all governance processes

that the state of "limitations on democracy and freedom of speech in the country" poses general security threat. More urban and more female respondents are in this category.

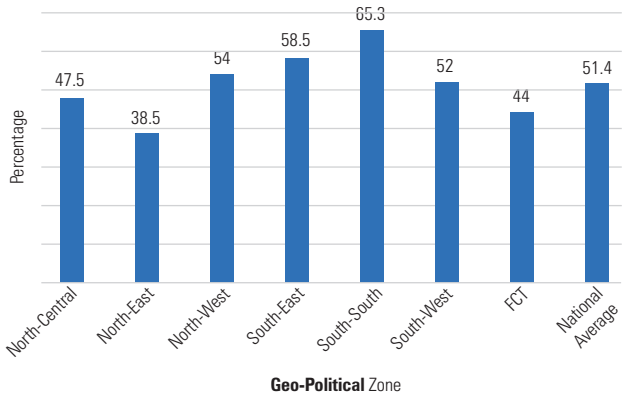
5.8 Factors Contributing to People's Sense of Political Security

Government agencies and institutions are regarded as duty bearers while the people are right holders. The extent to which people perceive the capacity of the government to discharge its duties to the people to ensure their rights are respected and protected is likely to influence their sense of security. This extends to the extent to which people perceive the capacity and responsiveness of the police and law enforcement agencies and the Armed Forces to address personal and general security issues. Similarly, the extent to which people perceive their fundamental rights will be respected and protected as well as the extent to which they believe they will get justice in case they are wronged and seek redress, the likelihood that their sense of security will increase. In view of the foregoing, this section examines the extent to which government capacity, police and law enforcement agency, the Nigerian Armed Forces, basic human rights and freedom, as well as the justice system influence respondents' sense of security.

It appears the state of government capacity is not giving much sense of security to many people. On an average, a little above half of the respondents claimed government capacity increases their sense of security (Appendix 3 Table 5g). The pattern across the geopolitical zones, as illustrated in figure 5.16 shows that less than half of the respondents from the North-Central, the North-East and the FCT claimed government capacity increases their sense of security. While the case of the North-East could be attributed to terrorist attacks and the case of the North-Central attributable to capacity to manage natural disasters, that of the FCT could be attributed to the stance of government to restore order in the development of the FCT. More male and urban respondents claimed government capacity increases their sense of security compared to their female and rural counterparts.

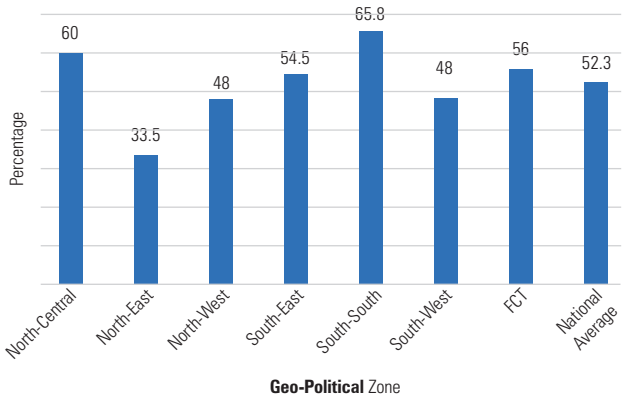
Majority of the respondents claimed the police and law enforcement agency increase their sense of security. The pattern is the same across the geo-political zones with the exception of the North-East and the South-West where less than half of the respondents expressed this view (Figure 5.17). More rural and more female respondents also expressed this view compared to their urban and male counterparts respectively. With respect to the Armed Forces, majority of the respondents claimed their sense of security is increased and the situation is the same in all the geo-political zones with the exception of the North-West zone where less than half of them respondents expressed this view (Figure 5.18). More male and more urban respondents expressed this view compared to their female and rural counterparts.

Figure 5. 16: Distribution of Respondents by Perception that Government Capacity Increases Sense of Security



Source: Field Survey, 2015

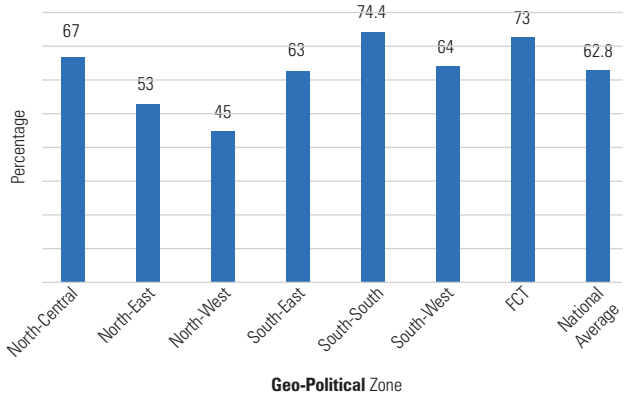
Figure 5. 17: Distribution of Respondents by Perception that Police and Law Enforcement Agency Increases Sense of Security



Source: Field Survey, 2015

With respect to basic human rights and freedom, majority of the respondents claimed their sense of security is increased (Table 5.6). This applies to all the geo-political zones including the FCT with the exception of the North-East zone. Again, more male and urban respondents expressed this view compared to their female and rural counterparts. Similarly, to

Figure 5. 18: Distribution of Respondents by Perception that Nigerian Armed Forces Increases Sense of Security



Source: Field Survey, 2015

majority of the respondents, the justice system gives them sense of security and the pattern applies to all the geo-political zones with the exception of the North-East zone and the FCT.

5.9 Citizens' Ability to Influence Selected Security Risks: Political Domain

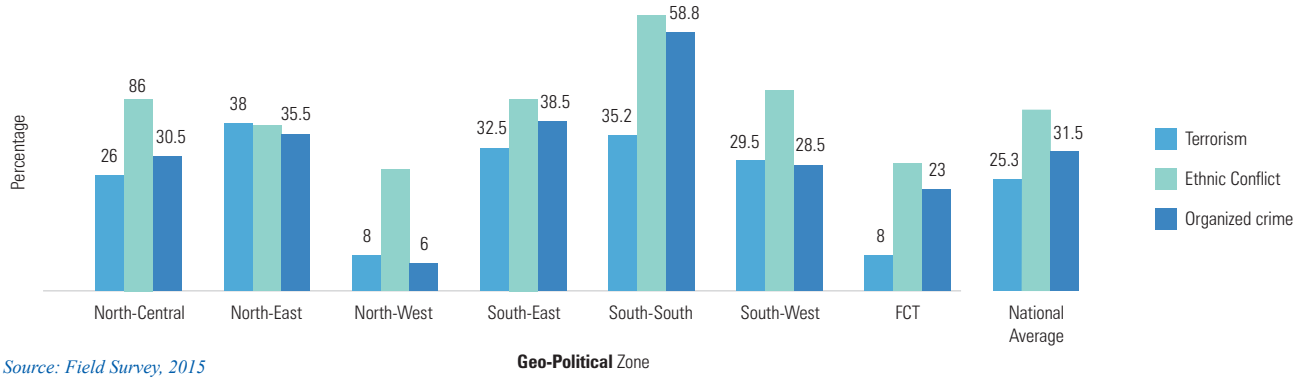
Terrorism, ethnic conflict and organised crime are regarded as security threats to personal and general security by majority of the respondents. The extent to which they have the ability to influence security risks associated with these threats is examined and findings are presented in the appendix 3 Table 5h. Generally, many of the respondents claimed not having ability to reduce associated risks with these security threats. It is only in the South-South that majority of the respondents claimed ability to reduce risks associated with all the three. Though, the proportions of the respondents that claimed having ability to influence risks associated with these three threats is low, more urban respondents compared to their rural counterparts and more male respondents compared to their female counterparts are in this category. Variations among the geo-political zones are illustrated in Figure 5.19.

Table 5.6: Distribution of Respondents by Factors Influencing Sense of Political Security (Human Rights & Freedom and the Justice System)

Geo-political Zone	Basic Human Rights and Freedom % of respondents					Justice System % of respondents				
	Sex of Respondent		Place of Residence		Total	Sex of Respondent		Place of Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	71.3	62.8	69.6	63.3	66.5	69.0	59.3	57.8	69.4	63.5
North-East	58.1	27.6	66.7	30.0	46.5	47.6	28.9	48.9	33.6	40.5
North-West	53.3	54.0	63.4	43.4	53.5	57.3	44.0	61.4	46.5	54.0
South-East	69.7	72.3	77.6	64.7	71.0	59.6	75.2	77.6	57.8	67.5
South-South	63.5	72.6	58.0	80.5	67.8	59.6	67.4	49.1	81.6	63.3
South-West	67.6	65.2	78.0	55.0	66.5	52.8	57.6	62.0	48.0	55.0
FCT	69.4	47.4	67.3	54.9	61.0	46.8	52.6	49.0	49.0	49.0
National Average	64.7	57.4	68.7	56.0	61.8	56.1	55.0	58.0	55.1	56.1

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Figure 5. 19: Distribution of Respondents by Perception of Ability to Influence Security Risks associated with Terrorism, Ethnic Conflict and Organised crime



Source: Field Survey, 2015

5.9.1 Displacement as a Consequence of Inability to Influence Security Risk in Community and Political Domains

Displacement is a natural fallout for individuals and communities that are unable to influence some security risks, especially those affecting whole communities. Internal displacement emanates from human induced causes such as internal unrest or from natural causes such as natural disasters. The results of the primary survey conducted shows that 82.5 percent of respondents expressed the fear of internal unrest as a general threat in Nigeria. The proportion of respondents so disposed was similar for males and females. However, the fear was more pervasive among respondents in the North-East (95.5%) and least pronounced in the South-East (65.5%).

Factors responsible for internal displacement of persons in Nigeria include insurgency and associated terror attacks, inter-communal conflicts and natural disasters. Insurgency related issues (terror attacks and counter-insurgency operations) however form the predominant factors responsible for internal displacement in Nigeria, while inter-communal clashes and natural disasters account for less than ten percent of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs). The bulk of those displaced are in the north-eastern states of Adamawa, Borno and Yobe and this probably explains the large proportion of people expressing internal unrest related fears in the North-East zone.

While 90 percent of the survey respondents expressed the fear of terrorism as a general threat in Nigeria, a smaller share (79.3%) expressed the fear of actually becoming the victim of a terror attack. In their self-assessment of ability to influence the risk of a terrorist attack only 26.6 percent of the survey respondents affirmed they had the ability to reduce the risk of terrorism.

With respect to natural disasters, floods are the most pervasive form of environmental disaster in Nigeria. The country has a distinct rainy season and suffers from seasonal flash floods which could sometimes be lethal. The floods of 2012 had substantial impact across several states in Nigeria. Over 360 deaths were recorded in about five states. Adamawa, Taraba, Plateau, Benue and Oyo were the worst hit states, while many other states were also affected. In addition, over two million people were displaced and Nigeria lost a total of N2.6 trillion Naira as a result of the floods in which 597,476 houses were damaged. (NEMA in www.punchng.com)

The National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) also reports that 66,000 people had been displaced as at October, 2014 due to floods in that year. In addition, thousands of people are said to have been displaced as a result of desertification, although there is no information as such on the number affected. As at February 2015, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) estimated that 1.2 million people forced to flee their homes in Nigeria were still living in internal displacement.

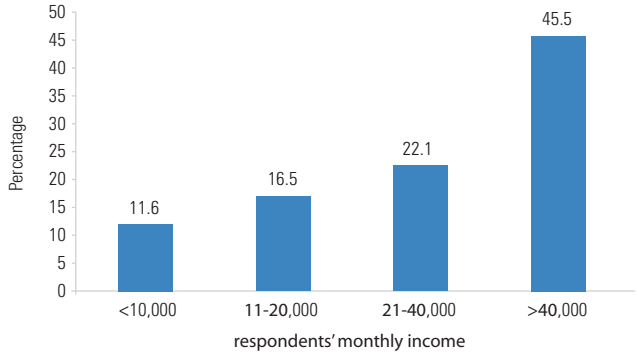
Displacement exacerbates poor living conditions and compromises quality of life to a large extent. Income earning capacities are cut short for the working group, while vulnerable groups such as children and elderly are denied adequate nutrition. There have also been cases of rape and child trafficking in several internal displacement camps. These conditions represent a sharp contrast to decent living standards which represent a dimension of human development. Sanitary conditions are known to be poor in many displacement camps. For those who do not choose displacement camps as an option, displacement may lead to outright homelessness. Whichever way it goes, displaced persons are exposed to much more vulnerable conditions than what prevailed before the events which led to displacements.

In the survey conducted by the 2015 NHDR team, 80.5 percent of respondents expressed the fear of an environmental disaster as a general threat. Among the males the proportion was 63.6 percent, and among females a slightly higher proportion (69.3%) expressed varying levels of fear of an environmental disaster. Truly, the risk of environmental disasters has become more pronounced in the face of climate change and its associated consequences, especially for vulnerable habitations such as exist in developing nations like Nigeria.

Usually, people's adaptive capacity to changing climate and its associated extreme weather conditions are a function of their socio-economic characteristics and a function of infrastructure capability in their surrounding environment. Overcrowded slums and areas with poor drainage will naturally suffer more from the negative consequences of extreme weather events than low density neighbourhoods in well planned areas. Hence we find that respondents' response with respect to their ability to reduce security risks associated with environmental disasters is influenced by their income level, employment status, household size and occupation type. Commonly speaking, the natural resource dependent occupations such as agriculture

are more vulnerable to environmental disaster shocks. Figure 5.20 depicts the proportion of survey respondents affirming their ability to reduce the risk of an environmental disaster.

Figure 5. 20: Respondents with Ability to reduce the risk of an Environmental Disaster



Source: Field Survey, 2015

We see the proportion with the ability to reduce the risk of an environmental disaster increasing with increasing income brackets. Given the fact that floods are the most pervasive type of environmental disaster in Nigeria, the ability to afford a home in an environment with good drainage, make necessary construction adjustments to buildings that are threatened, or relocate entirely from places that are overwhelmed by such disaster depends largely on income, hence the observed trend above. When people's income are meagre, their options for adapting to environmental disasters are limited and they become more vulnerable to such disasters.

Ethnic diversities has been linked to civil strife and conflicts (Osinubi & Osinubi, 2006); and given the diversity of ethnic groups in Nigeria, ethnic conflicts have been rife. Incidentally these conflicts have also been linked in some cases to environmental (natural) resources particularly grazing land and water for pasture. Others have been of an ethno religious nature. 86.9 percent of the survey respondents expressed the fear of ethnic conflict as a general threat in Nigeria. The largest share of these was in the North-East geopolitical zone (99%). Nationally there were more males (88.6%) than females (84.8%) expressing the fear of ethnic conflict. However, in the South-South geopolitical zone, a larger proportion of females (90.5%) expressed this fear than males (84.6%).

5.10 Conclusions

Crime poses a critical threat to citizens' sense of personal security. Discussions on reported cases of armed robbery show increasing trends for the period reviewed, while the number of violent deaths was particularly high in 2013. Results from the survey show that there are more males than females who anticipate general threats (armed robbery, kidnapping, burglary and ritual killings) in the community domain. The fear of kidnapping as a threat was more prevalent in the South-South zone, while the fear of armed robbery was prominent among all urban respondents. Given that kidnapping and other related organised crimes have been attributed to poverty and social inequality, policies geared towards poverty reduction and inclusive growth are desirable to curb these malaise.

In the political domain, women representation in parliament dwindled from 2007 to date. This trend threatens inclusiveness in the political space and imposes limitations on democratic participation. Efforts at improving women participation in governance can therefore be encouraged by ensuring more openness in the political participation process. On the other hand, reduced crime rates will improve human security at the personal and community domains, while increased female participation in parliament will help engender more inclusive representation and possibly, more inclusive growth.

"Whichever way it goes, displaced persons are exposed to much more vulnerable conditions than what prevailed before the events which led to displacements".

"Insurgency related issues (terror attacks and counter-insurgency operations) however form the predominant factors responsible for internal displacement in Nigeria, while inter-communal clashes and natural disasters account for less than ten percent of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs). The bulk of those displaced are in the north-eastern states of Adamawa, Borno and Yobe and this probably explains the large proportion of people expressing internal unrest related fears in the North-East zone".

"Overcrowded slums and areas with poor drainage will naturally suffer more from the negative consequences of extreme weather events than low density neighbourhoods in well planned areas. Hence we find that respondents' response with respect to their ability to reduce security risks associated with environmental disasters is influenced by their income level, employment status, household size and occupation type".

6.
NIGERIA'S HUMAN SECURITY INDEX

6.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the calculated HSI from both the cross sectional survey of Nigerian citizens as well as from the secondary database. The index is calculated for each of the realms of human security with emphasis on geo-political zones. The paucity of data disaggregated on the basis of geo-political zones has limited the number of variables or indicators that are included in the calculations based on secondary database. The composite human security index for the country is also calculated and the linkage with human development index is examined.

6.1 The Human Security Index

The basic dimensions or realms of human security which are aggregated to compute the HSI are discussed in this section, specifically as they relate to Nigeria. As already outlined in chapter 1 (section 1.2), the HSI has seven realms as follows:

- Economic security
- Food security
- Health security
- Environmental security
- Personal security
- Community security
- Political security

In line with these realms, the HSI for Nigeria has been calculated in two ways; namely, from a secondary database consisting of variables and indicators related to the seven realms of HSI obtained from different sources while in the second instance, a cross-sectional survey was conducted to obtain what the report has outlined as a citizens' perspective and assessment of human security. The two dimensions cover the seven realms or domains of human security as such as data availability allowed. The data for the citizens' perspective was obtained from a cross-sectional survey conducted early in 2015 in twelve states, (two from each geopolitical zone) and the FCT (Abuja). For the purpose of clarity the human security index computed from the cross-sectional survey is to be identified as 'Citizens' HS Index'.

With respect to secondary data, the variables used are listed in Box 6.1. The secondary data used were those available on geo-political zone basis, this is because the focus of this report is to have an understanding of the differences in human security across the geo-political zones in Nigeria. Data disaggregated at zonal level was necessary to enable comparisons among these zones. The secondary data obtained pertain to different periods within the 2003-2013 time frame. Periodic averages were computed based on available data for the different realms. Box 6.1 contains a list of variables and indicators conceived as useful for computing the HSI. The ones for which data were available are marked.

The perception of respondents on threats to security at personal and general level were elucidated with various items in a survey questionnaire that was administered. The respondents were also asked of the assessment of their ability to influence the selected security risks as well as the factors perceived to contribute to their sense of security. The items on the questionnaire covered the seven realms of human security. Scores were computed for each scale of the realms of human security. The reliability of the scales was tested using the Cronbach alpha reliability test. The optimal index for each of the realms, the items as elucidated in the questionnaire administered for the survey was tested using Cronbach alpha test. Resulting from the test, items that when removed from the scale will improve the reliability and validity were excluded and the scale recomputed. This ensured that only items that statistically contribute to people's sense of security for each domain were included in the computation of the index for each domain. The details of the computations are indicated in the technical notes. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient

Box 6.1: LIST OF VARIABLES BY REALM, OF HUMAN SECURITY

Realm/Domain of Human Security	Variable
Economic Security	Share of service sector employment in total employment Share of women in wage employment in non-Agricultural sector Unemployment rate[1] Youth unemployment rate Proportion of people with income less than one dollar a day Poverty gap ratio Inequality measures Inflation rate; average real wage rate Debt ratio Homelessness per 100,000
Food Security	Area under cultivation for different crops Agricultural yield per hectare for major crops; Proportion of children undernourished[1] Prevalence of underweight children under 5 years of age[1] Per capita food consumption (calories per day) Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy Consumption(consuming 2,900 calories or less daily) Per capita food production Share of poorest quintile in national consumption Ratio of arable land area to total land area of the country Soil quality and degradation Storage capacity of silos Proportion of people who suffer from hunger
Health Security	Maternal mortality rate[1] Under 5 mortality rate[1] Infant mortality rate Percentage of one-year old fully immunised against measles[1] Proportion of population covered by health insurance[1] Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel[1] Ratio of doctors to population Ratio of nurses to population Number of hospital beds to population Number of primary health care centres Antenatal care coverage[1] Health share of total expenditure Malaria prevalence rates Access to health care
Environmental Security	Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source[1] Proportion of land area covered by forest Total amount of gas flared; gas emission CO_2 emission per capita Number if Internally Displaced Persons due to disasters/crisis Number of natural disasters; Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility[1] Housing units per population Total annual rainfall[1] Average number of persons per room

1 Data available based on geo-political zones

Box 6.1: LIST OF VARIABLES BY REALM, OF HUMAN SECURITY *(Continued)*

Realm/Domain of Human Security	Variable
Personal Security	Reported cases of domestic violence[1] Reported rape per 100,000 15-49[1] Drug crimes per 100,000 people Homicides Injuries from road accidents per 100,000 people[1] Deaths from road accidents per 100,000 people[1] Reported cases of armed robbery[1] Reported cases of kidnapping/missing people[1] Reported cases of burglary Reported cases of theft Reported cases of political assassinations
Community Security	Number of ethnic clashes per year Number of religious crisis Number of terrorist attacks per year Number of indigene vs settler crisis Number of militant groups per state Number of militants rehabilitated by amnesty program
Political security	Ratio of military spending to social spending Incidence of election violence Number of election related litigations Number of political parties Voter turnout Number of registered voters as a ratio of voting population Number of political repressions Number of systematic torture Number of missing people Proportion of women in parliament[1]

1 Data available based on geo-political zones

for the realms of human security ranged from 0.81 (for the food domain) to 0.93 (for the personal domain), indicating that the items investigated reflect a good measure of each of the domain scales. This approach gave an opportunity to compute a citizen's perspective index of human security in Nigeria.

In the subsequent sections of this chapter, is presented the HSI from the cross sectional survey of Nigerian citizens as well as HSI calculated from the secondary database. The index calculated from the survey is presented for the states from which samples were drawn, and used for inferences at the level of geopolitical zones and national. The HSI can take values between zero and one (a score of 0 being the worst rank for a specific indicator and a score of 1 being the best, i.e. humanly fully secured). The indices from the survey are also presented for males and females as well as for rural and urban residents. The secondary data based indices are presented for geopolitical zones and at the national level. This is due to the fact that most of the variables necessary to compute human security index are not disaggregated by sex or urban/rural.

6.2. Human Security Index – The Realms

6.2.1 HSI: the Economic Domain/Realm

The non-availability of necessary secondary data is most pronounced for the variables in the economic realm/domain. The only variable for which data was available is the unemployment rate, was not amenable to geopolitical aggregation and was therefore presented for states. It must be mentioned that the issue of interest in this report is human security and not human insecurity. Therefore, the human security index for such a variable like unemployment rate was reversed to reflect the level of sense of security.

The index of human security in the economic domain which was calculated from the secondary database was based on unemployment rates and as reversed indicates how secured Nigerians are in terms of employment. The results show that HSI was highest in Benue, Kwara and Plateau state in that order, these three states are in the North-Central geo-political zone (Table 6.1). These states are known to be vast in agriculture, a sector which

Table 6. 1: Human Security Index – Economic Domain

Geo-political Zone	State	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Periodic Secondary HSI	Citizen HSI
North-Central	Benue	0.9210	0.9220	0.9150	0.9400	0.8580	0.9112	
	Kogi	0.8600	0.8360	0.8100	0.9050	0.8560	0.8534	0.6619
	Kwara	0.8300	0.8980	0.8900	0.9730	0.9290	0.9040	
	Nassarawa	0.8900	0.8300	0.8990	0.9660	0.6350	0.8440	
	Niger	0.9580	0.9610	0.7400	0.8830	0.6060	0.8296	
	Plateau	0.9340	0.9530	0.9290	0.8960	0.7470	0.8918	0.3006
	FCT (Abuja	0.5220	0.9130	0.7850	0.8820	0.7890	0.7782	0.2269
North-East	Adamawa	0.7850	0.8650	0.7060	0.7540	0.6620	0.7544	
	Bauchi	0.7950	0.9310	0.6280	0.7300	0.5860	0.7340	0.3881
	Borno	0.8800	0.8820	0.7230	0.7330	0.7090	0.7854	
	Gombe	0.8400	0.9240	0.6790	0.7280	0.6130	0.7568	0.2225
	Taraba	0.8500	0.8010	0.7320	0.7530	0.8730	0.8018	
	Yobe	0.7560	0.8740	0.7270	0.7380	0.6440	0.7478	
North-West	Jigawa	0.7300	0.9410	0.7350	0.8570	0.6410	0.7808	
	Kaduna	0.9130	0.8730	0.8840	0.8760	0.6970	0.8486	
	Kano	0.8990	0.9420	0.7240	0.8530	0.7870	0.8410	0.4525
	Katsina	0.9000	0.8840	0.6270	0.8900	0.7190	0.8040	
	Kebbi	0.9870	0.8350	0.8800	0.8930	0.7470	0.8684	
	Sokoto	0.8800	0.9410	0.7760	0.8410	0.8210	0.8518	
	Zamfara	0.8090	0.8360	0.8670	0.8550	0.5740	0.7882	0.4525
South-East	Abia	0.7490	0.8810	0.8550	0.7720	0.8880	0.8290	
	Anambra	0.8600	0.9270	0.8320	0.8920	0.8780	0.8778	0.3956
	Ebonyi	0.9210	0.9490	0.8800	0.7490	0.7690	0.8536	0.3481
	Enugu	0.8590	0.8950	0.8510	0.7200	0.7480	0.8146	
	Imo	0.7170	0.8260	0.7920	0.7190	0.7390	0.7586	
South-South	Akwa-Ibom	0.8200	0.8890	0.6590	0.7230	0.8160	0.7814	
	Bayelsa	0.7810	0.3260	0.5850	0.7260	0.7610	0.6358	
	Cross River	0.6720	0.8110	0.8570	0.7210	0.8180	0.7758	
	Delta	0.7710	0.8850	0.8160	0.7210	0.7280	0.7842	
	Edo	0.8600	0.8440	0.8780	0.7210	0.6480	0.7902	0.4319
	Rivers	0.3360	0.8790	0.7210	0.7220	0.7450	0.6806	0.3956
South-West	Ekiti	0.8900	0.8850	0.7940	0.7200	0.8790	0.8336	0.4588
	Lagos	0.8700	0.9240	0.8050	0.7240	0.9370	0.8520	0.5044
	Ogun	0.9640	0.9420	0.9150	0.7240	0.7710	0.8632	
	Ondo	0.9330	0.9370	0.8510	0.7400	0.8750	0.8672	
	Osun	0.9280	0.9350	0.8740	0.7240	0.9700	0.8862	
	Oyo	0.9390	0.9130	0.8510	0.7230	0.9110	0.8674	
Nigeria		0.8800	0.8510	0.8030	0.7860	0.7610	0.8162	0.4192

Source: Calculated from NBS Annual Abstracts of Statistics, 2012

could be key in providing employment. The implication is that residents of these states feel secure economic wise, especially as it pertains to employment. Bayelsa, Rivers and Bauchi states had the lowest HSI in the economic realm. Incidentally, the two least performers in this realm (Bayelsa and Rivers) are situated in the South-South oil rich zone. A key issue in this zone has been that locals may often not be qualified to participate in the enclave oil industries which are preponderant in the South-South zone. Consequently, while the oil and gas sectors contribute tremendously to output in the nation, a significant number of residents of the oil rich states are not necessarily included in the picture.

Bauchi state was the other state which performed poorly on the HSI in the economic realm, it is situated in the North-East geopolitical zone which has been bedevilled with security challenges in the past couple of years owing to terrorist activities. Benue, Kwara and Plateau states are the most economically secured, while Bayelsa, Rivers and Bauchi are the states that are least secured. The implication of this is that the North-Central is the most economically secured geo-political zone while the South-South is the least economically secured geo-political zone.

The results of citizens' HSI calculated from the cross sectional survey shows that Kogi (North-Central Zone) had the best performance in the economic realm, showing some concurrence with the secondary data results. Lagos and Ekiti states in the South-West were the next best performers. Generally speaking, commerce and industry is quite intense in South-West Nigeria, and entrepreneurs are quick to plug into the large markets which exist either in the formal or informal sectors. The least HSI obtained from the economic realm in the survey was for Gombe, FCT and Plateau states. Ironically, Plateau state featured as one of the states with the highest HSI based on the secondary database. Although, rich in agriculture, Plateau state has been bedevilled with ethno-religious clashes and insurgency in recent years. Citizens have had their means of livelihood truncated and this could have been responsible for the poor HSI recorded in the survey. An examination of the geo-political situation of economic security of human security index from the citizen's perspective show that residents of the South-West geo-political zone are seen as the most secured, followed by those resident in the North-Central geo-political zone (Table 6.2). The residents of the North-East are the least economically secured, this may not be far-fetched from the spate of insurgency in the zone.

Table 6. 2: Economic Realm – Citizen's Perspective by Sex and Place of Location of Respondent

Geo-political Zone	Sex		Place of Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	0.4655	0.4934	0.4853	0.4770	0.4813
North-East	0.2651	0.3709	0.2306	0.3665	0.3053
North-West	0.4075	0.3788	0.3292	0.4729	0.4003
South-East	0.4842	0.4165	0.4171	0.4816	0.4500
South-South	0.4970	0.4638	0.4671	0.4993	0.4812
South-West	0.4919	0.4959	0.4456	0.5419	0.4938
FCT	0.2802	0.1398	0.2449	0.2096	0.2269

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The breakdown of HSI in the economic realm for males and females shows mixed results among the zones (Table 6.2). The North-Central, North-East and South-West zones recorded higher HSI for females, while the other zones and FCT recorded higher figures for the males. The males in the South-South appear to be less vulnerable to employment shocks relative to the males in the other geo-political zones. Only one zone, (North-Central) and the FCT had a higher HSI for urban residents, all other zones recorded higher HSI in the economic realm for rural residents. Rural residents are mostly self-employed in agriculture and petty trade, moreover, their average expenditure levels are minimised given communal facilities and moderate tastes. On the other hand, cost of living is much higher in the cities, and formal jobs which are mostly sought by residents may not yield the desired income, thus constraining their HSI in the economic realm.

6.2.2 HSI: the Food Domain/Realm

In the food domain, the highest HSI calculated from the secondary database were for the three southern zones, while the worst HSI were for the three northern zones. The indicators used for calculating HSI in the food domain pertain to child malnutrition[1]. The prevalence of child malnutrition are usually associated with factors such as mother's education and age, family size and vaccination status. Children born to illiterate and or older mothers, into large families (more than three siblings) and thus with incomplete vaccination status often run the risk of being undernourished. These risk factors are more prevalent among families in the northern zones of Nigeria. The variables included in the

1 The Food Domain of human security has been limited to child malnutrition due to paucity of data on zonal basis.

food domain for human security were also reversed, as such the index for the food domain is an indication of level of the children being nourished, children under 5 years of age not being underweight. Residents in the South-East are the most food secured based on the secondary data while those in the North-West are the least food secured (Table 6.3).

The results of the citizens' HSI in the food domain shows that the South-South, North-Central and South-West zones ranked highest in that order (Table 6.4). The North-East, FCT and North-West zones had the lowest HSI ranking in the food realm/domain of the citizens' human security index. Some of the issues covered within the food domain include: being able to feed self and family, providing balanced diet, family not going hungry and children not being undernourished. The residents of the South-South are the most food secured from the citizens' perspective, though from the secondary data they are the second most food secured geo-political zone.

Table 6. 3: Human Security Index – Food Domain

Geo-political Zones	Food Domain Indicators		Human Security Index – Food Domain Secondary Data
	Proportion of Children Undernourished	Prevalence of Underweight Children under 5 Years of Age	
North-Central	0.4990	0.7185	0.6087
North-East	0.2843	0.3528	0.3186
North-West	0.1242	0.1639	0.1441
South-East	0.7980	0.9589	0.8784
South-South	0.7217	0.8573	0.7895
South-West	0.6854	0.8233	0.7543
National	0.3939	0.6581	0.5260

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 6. 4: Food Realm – Citizen's Perspective by Sex and Place of Location of Respondent

Geo-political Zone	Sex		Place of Residence		Citizen HSI
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	
North-Central	0.4923	0.4646	0.4430	0.5090	0.4767
North-East	0.2930	0.1919	0.2000	0.3213	0.2546
North-West	0.3550	0.3617	0.4133	0.3012	0.3567
South-East	0.3872	0.4101	0.3456	0.4541	0.3988
South-South	0.5697	0.6447	0.6418	0.5774	0.6055
South-West	0.4313	0.3931	0.4125	0.4150	0.4138
FCT	0.3293	0.2193	0.2516	0.3248	0.2875

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Beyond the zonal indices, females in the North-West, South-East and South-South zones had higher HSI than males while rural residents in the North-West and the South-South zones recorded a higher HSI in the food realm (Table 6.4). In the other zones and FCT HSI was higher for urban residents in the food domain. The results show that urban residents are more food secure than rural residents. This probably betrays the residents the level of affordability with respect to food.

6.2.3. HSI: the Health Domain/Realm

Generally, the human security index across the geo-political zones is low, this is an indication that Nigerians are not health secured. This may not be far-fetched from the poor health status of Nigerians. An examination of the health realm of the human security index shows that residents in the South-West are the most secured and with least vulnerabilities. The opposite is the situation for the residents in the North-West geo-political zone (Table 6.5). Antenatal care coverage is virtually

Table 6. 5: Human Security Index – Health Domain/Realm

Geo-political Zone	Health Domain Indicators						Domain Value
	Under 5 mortality rate[2]	Percentage of one-year old fully immunised againstmeasles	Proportion of population covered by health insurance (Men)	Proportion of population covered by health insurance (Women)	Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	Antenatal care coverage	
North-Central	0.4907	0.5257	0.0380	0.0260	0.4768	0.7035	0.3768
North-East	0.2249	0.3003	0.0170	0.0110	0.1880	0.4853	0.2044
North-West	0.1794	0.2353	0.0170	0.0065	0.1298	0.3820	0.1583
South-East	0.5102	0.7353	0.0240	0.0140	0.8405	0.9195	0.5073
South-South	0.5130	0.6773	0.0440	0.0340	0.5565	0.7443	0.4282
South-West	0.6468	0.6833	0.0395	0.0245	0.8000	0.9090	0.5172
National	0.3736	0.4437	0.0295	0.0180	0.3795	0.6020	0.3077

Source: 2003, 2008, 2013 NDHS and 2011 MICS 4

universal among residents of the South-East and South-West geo-political zone, the opposite holds in both the North-West and North-East geo-political zones. Residents in the South-West geo-political zone are the most health secured, while those in the North-West geo-political zone are the least health secured.

An examination of the citizens' human security index in the health realm shows that males are more secured than females in virtually all the geo-political zones, except in the North-East geo-political zone (Table 6.6). The result also show that males in the South-East are more secured in terms of the health domain relative to those in the other geo-political zones. Similarly, females in the South-East geo-political zone ranked highest among females across the various geo-political zones. The implication is that residents of the South-East are least vulnerable to inability to pay for medical care in the case of illness, not receiving adequate standard of medical care in the case of illness among other things. The residents in the South-West geo-political zone are the second most health secured from the perspective of the citizens. While residents in the South-South geo-political zone are the least health secured.

Table 6. 6: Health Realm: Citizen's Perspective by Sex and Place of Location of Respondent

Geo-political Zone	Sex of Respondent		Place of Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	
North-Central	0.3563	0.3175	0.2691	0.3971	0.3344
North-East	0.1845	0.2681	0.3386	0.0667	0.2163
North-West	0.2858	0.2775	0.3599	0.2092	0.2838
South-East	0.4066	0.3651	0.4081	0.3623	0.3856
South-South	0.2524	0.1105	0.1264	0.2299	0.1847
South-West	0.3924	0.3098	0.3700	0.3388	0.3544
FCT	0.0927	0.0790	0.0907	0.0842	0.0875

Source: Field Survey, 2015

6.2.4 HSI: the Environment Domain/Realm

Generally, Nigerians are not environmentally secured, due to the fact that the environment domain human security index is below 0.5. In the environment domain of the human security index residents of the South-South and South-East geo-political zones are the top two ranked zones relative to residents in the other geo-political zones. Some of the issues of concern in the environment domain is access to portable water and good sanitation. Residents in the North-East are the most vulnerable in terms of the environment domain, they are the least environmentally secured (Table 6.7).

Table 6. 7: Human Security Index – Environment Domain

Geo-political Zone	Environment Domain Indicators			Environment Realm Value
	Rainfall	Water	Sanitation	
North-Central	0.4860	0.4537	0.1800	0.3732
North-East	0.1271	0.3480	0.2223	0.2325
North-West	0.5040	0.4847	0.3197	0.4361
South-East	0.5040	0.6830	0.3943	0.5271
South-South	0.8837	0.5950	0.2723	0.5837
South-West	0.3286	0.6267	0.2150	0.3901
National	0.4722	0.5237	0.2637	0.4199

Source: NBS Annual Abstract of Statistics (2011)

An examination of the environment domain in citizens' human security index, also examines issues on access to portable water, environmental pollution, climate change and urban/rural population increase/decrease. Residents in the South-East and South-South are the top two most ranked zones in terms of environment realm of citizens' human security (Table 6.8). From the perspective of the citizens, residents of the South-East are the most secured.

Table 6. 8: Environment Domain: Citizen's Perspective by Sex and Place of Location of Respondent

Geo-political Zone	Sex		Place of Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	
North-Central	0.3793	0.3750	0.3629	0.3903	0.3769
North-East	0.3332	0.2262	0.1875	0.4208	0.2925
North-West	0.1650	0.1800	0.1705	0.1671	0.1688
South-East	0.4388	0.4072	0.4277	0.4177	0.4228
South-South	0.3660	0.4053	0.3994	0.3733	0.3847
South-West	0.3466	0.3471	0.3650	0.3288	0.3469
FCT	0.3014	0.1924	0.2255	0.2959	0.2600

Source: Field Survey, 2015

6.2.5 HSI: the Personal Domain

In examining human security index within the personal domain or realm, issues and threats that affect the individual are of major concern. These include being victims of violence, armed robbery, kidnappings as well as deaths and injuries from incidences of road accidents. The human security index at the personal domain is 0.4733, the fact that this is below 0.5000 may be an indication that Nigerians are more likely to be vulnerable to the threats mentioned above (Table 6.9). A comparison of the index across the geo-political zones show that residents of the North-West

Table 6. 9: Human Security Index: Personal Domain

Geo-political Zone	Personal Domain Indicators[3]						Domain Value
	Physical Violence	Sexual Violence	Reported cases of armed robbery	Reported cases of kidnapping/ missing persons	Deaths from road accidents	Injuries from road accidents	
North-Central	0.6925	0.9135	0.3623	0.7660	0.2757	0.2335	0.5406
North-East	0.7540	0.8785	0.5620	0.9876	0.3983	0.5621	0.6904
North-West	0.9000	0.9750	0.3756	0.9326	0.5523	0.6290	0.7274
South-East	0.6605	0.8990	0.3623	0.3741	0.6374	0.7894	0.6205
South-South	0.4785	0.8815	0.2828	0.1011	0.5808	0.6239	0.4914
South-West	0.6700	0.9610	0.2250	0.5585	0.5095	0.5391	0.5772
National	0.7225	0.9280	0.0781	0.1094	0.4993	0.5024	0.4733

Source: NDHS 2008, 2013; NBS (2012) Annual Abstract of Statistics

and North-East geo-political zones are the top two geo-political zones with highest index of human security in the personal realm or domain. The implication is that residents in the North-West geo-political zone are the most secured with respect to personal domain of human security. It must be mentioned that issues related to the prevalent incidences of insurgency and terrorism could not be included in the index due to non-availability of required data. Residents of the South-South and South-West are the two zones least secured.

Table 6.10 shows the citizens' perspective by sex and place of respondent. Some of the threats of concern within this domain include: being attacked on the street, being subject to theft, being sexually assaulted, and being physically abused at home among others[2]. Although the South-West zone is the top ranked within the personal realm of human security, there is not much great feeling of being secured (Table 6.10). The North-East and the South-South geo-political zones are the two zones in which the residents feel least secured at the personal realm. This is a reflection of the current realities.

2The other issues within the personal domain and others are included in the questionnaire for the survey in the appendix

Table 6. 10: Personal Domain: Citizen's Perspective by Sex and Place of Location of Respondent

Geo-political Zone	Sex of Respondent		Place of Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	
North-Central	0.5023	0.4628	0.4449	0.5137	0.4800
North-East	0.2089	0.2908	0.3682	0.0833	0.2400
North-West	0.4367	0.4240	0.5697	0.3000	0.4335
South-East	0.4990	0.3960	0.4628	0.4306	0.4470
South-South	0.4500	0.2379	0.2609	0.4170	0.3487
South-West	0.5093	0.4924	0.5750	0.4280	0.5015
FCT	0.2855	0.1368	0.2078	0.2510	0.2290

Source: Field Survey, 2015

6.2.6 HSI: the Community Domain

There are no data available at the required level on issues such as number of ethnic clashes, number of terrorist attacks, number of indigene versus settlers, number of militant groups, or number of militants rehabilitated. Therefore the Community domain or realm of human security could not be computed. The Citizens' perspective of human security gave an opportunity to compute the index of human security for the community realm or domain. Some of the issues of concern include being victim of aggressive and unsafe driving practices, losing the understanding and support

"of concern in the environment domain is access to portable water and good sanitation".

of one's colleagues as well as losing the understanding and support of one's friend and family.

Table 6.11 shows the situation within the realm of community in human security by sex and place of resident. The results in table 6.11 gives a succinct picture of current realities across the geo-political zones of the country. Irrespective of gender or place of location, Nigerians have a low sense of security in the community domain. Nevertheless, residents of the South-South and South-West geo-political zones are the top two zones where people are most secured in the community realm of human security. The geo-political zone where residents are least secured is the North-East geo-political zone. This may be due to the numerous incidences of terrorist attacks and the attending consequences on the citizens. In the North-East geo-political zones those in the urban areas feel more secure compared with those in the rural areas. This may be due to the fact that the military infrastructure against the insurgency is more pronounced in the urban areas than the rural areas.

Table 6. 11: Community Domain of Citizens' Perspective by Sex and Place of Location of Respondent

Geo-political Zone	Sex		Place of Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	
North-Central	0.3008	0.2670	0.2279	0.3333	0.2817
North-East	0.2177	0.2478	0.1720	0.2991	0.2292
North-West	0.2633	0.2483	0.3519	0.1691	0.2596
South-East	0.3451	0.3746	0.3350	0.3861	0.3600
South-South	0.3710	0.3921	0.3831	0.3795	0.3811
South-West	0.3171	0.3080	0.3808	0.2450	0.3129
FCT	0.2083	0.1250	0.2075	0.1446	0.1767

Source: Field Survey, 2015

6.2.7 HSI: the Political Domain

In the political domain, data was only available for the proportion of women in parliament[3]. There are other variables that should have been included in the political domain, but due to non-availability or not being susceptible to zonal disaggregation were not included (see box 6.1). Table 6.12 shows that Nigerians are not secured in the political realm of human security, nevertheless, the top two zones in which residents are relatively secured in the political domain are the South-East and South-West zones. The zone with the lowest sense of security in the political domain is the North-West geo-political zone. This may be due to cultural and religious barriers that limits the women from aspiring to be involved in politics at the level of representing their constituencies at the parliamentary level.

Table 6.13 shows the Citizens' perspective of human security index from the political realm. The South-East geo-political zone is the top ranked zone in which residents feel secured in the political realm of human security, with the North-West zone being the lowest. In most of the geo-political zones the males have a higher sense of security in the political domain of human security except in the North-West and South-East geo-political zones where females have an edge over the males.

Table 6. 12: Human Security Index – Political Domain

Geo-political Zone	Proportion of Women in Parliament
North-Central	0.0448
North-East	0.0758
North-West	0.0177
South-East	0.1379
South-South	0.0685
South-West	0.1011
National	0.0687

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 6. 13: Political Citizen's Perspective by Sex and Place of Location of Respondent

Geo-political Zone	Sex		Place of Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	
North-Central	0.3136	0.2815	0.2561	0.3333	0.2955
North-East	0.2358	0.2143	0.1030	0.3799	0.2276
North-West	0.1305	0.1352	0.1650	0.0990	0.1317
South-East	0.3766	0.3380	0.3240	0.3916	0.3571
South-South	0.3017	0.3509	0.3251	0.3253	0.3252
South-West	0.2954	0.2857	0.3333	0.2486	0.2910
FCT	0.1244	0.0977	0.1195	0.1088	0.1143

Source: Field Survey, 2015

6.3 The Composite Human Security Index

There are seven realms of human security and due to issues of data availability, in computing the composite human security index at the national level, six realms were included in the computation. In calculating the index at the geo-political zone level only five realms were included. The reason for this has been stated in

3 The data for this was limited to membership of the Federal parliament – The Senate and the Federal House of Representatives

the earlier sections of this report. The results in Table 6.14 shows the composite human security index indicating that the index is low. It is only in the South-East that the human security index is above 0.50. Residents in the North-West are the least humanly secured, closely followed by residents in the North-East geo-political zone.

Table 6.15 shows a picture of the composite human security index and the index for the different realms of human security. The result shows that the top three ranked geo-political zones are the South-East, South-South and the South-West in that order, while the lowest ranked geo-political zones are North-West and the North-East zones. A closer examination of the various realms reveals that residents in the South East geo-political zone ranked highest in two of the five realms for which data was available (Food and Political domains). Though North-West geo-political zone is one of the two zones with the lowest human security index, it still ranked highest in the personal domain.

Table 6.16 shows that in terms of citizens' perspective, the South-East geo-political zone again ranked highest among the geo-political zone, with the South-South zone following. Though the magnitude of the Human Security Index and that of the Citizens' Perspective of Human Security Index may differ but they reflect a similar pattern. This is because from both directions the top two geo-political zones are the South-East and

Table 6. 14: Composite Human Security Index

Geo-political Zone	Human Security Index
North-Central	0.3888
North-East	0.3043
North-West	0.2967
South-East	0.5342
South-South	0.4723
South-West	0.4680
National	0.3299

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 6. 16: Citizen's Perspective Human Security Index

Geo-political Zone	Sex of Respondent		Place of Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Rural	Urban	
North-Central	0.3947	0.3763	0.3523	0.4151	0.3843
North-East	0.2549	0.2566	0.2303	0.2864	0.2556
North-West	0.2734	0.2691	0.3317	0.2141	0.2723
South-East	0.4180	0.3850	0.3938	0.4091	0.4013
South-South	0.3995	0.3893	0.3908	0.3976	0.3946
South-West	0.3877	0.3716	0.4183	0.3423	0.3803
FCT	0.2312	0.1421	0.1872	0.2079	0.1974

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 6. 15: Human Security Index by Realms

Geo-political Zone	Domains of Human Security							Human Security Index
	Health	Economic	Food	Personal	Environment	Community	Political	
North-Central	0.3768	n.d.	0.6087	0.5406	0.3732	n.d.	0.0448	0.3888
North-East	0.2044	n.d.	0.3186	0.6904	0.2325	n.d.	0.0758	0.3043
North-West	0.1583	n.d.	0.1441	0.7274	0.4361	n.d.	0.0177	0.2967
South-East	0.5073	n.d.	0.8784	0.6205	0.5271	n.d.	0.1379	0.5342
South-South	0.4282	n.d.	0.7895	0.4914	0.5837	n.d.	0.0685	0.4723
South-West	0.5172	n.d.	0.7543	0.5772	0.3901	n.d.	0.1011	0.4680
National	0.3077	0.1838	0.5260	0.4733	0.4199	n.d.	0.0687	0.3299

n.d. – No data available
Source: Field Survey, 2015

"In the North-East geo-political zones, those in the urban areas feel more secure compared with those in the rural areas".

Table 6. 17: Citizen's Perspective of Human Security Index by Realms

	Domains of Human Security							Human Security Index
	Health	Economic	Food	Personal	Environment	Community	Political	
North-Central	0.3344	0.4813	0.4767	0.4800	0.3769	0.2817	0.2955	0.3843
North-East	0.2163	0.3053	0.2546	0.2400	0.2925	0.2292	0.2276	0.2556
North-West	0.2838	0.4003	0.3567	0.4335	0.1688	0.2596	0.1317	0.2723
South-East	0.3856	0.4500	0.3988	0.4470	0.4228	0.3600	0.3571	0.4013
South-South	0.1847	0.4812	0.6055	0.3487	0.3847	0.3811	0.3252	0.3946
South-West	0.3544	0.4938	0.4138	0.5015	0.3469	0.3129	0.2910	0.3803
FCT	0.0875	0.2269	0.2875	0.2290	0.2600	0.1767	0.1143	0.1974
TOTAL	0.2774	0.4192	0.4075	0.3947	0.3265	0.2942	0.2592	0.3364

Source: Field Survey, 2015

South-South. An examination of Table 6.17 shows that residents of the Federal Capital Territory were virtually the worst in most of the realms of human security index. It must be noted that the separation of the FCT from the North-Central brings to the fore the predicaments of the teeming residents of the FCT and this surely calls for action in ameliorating the situation.

6.4 Linkages between Human Development Index and Human Security Index

Human development and human security can be seen as two processes that go hand in hand. This is due to the fact that the utmost effect of the two is enhanced quality of life for the ordinary citizen. Progress in one is likely to enhance the chances of progress in the other, while the reverse is also a possibility. The concept of human security is more of a sense of security which is a cumulative effect of subjective and objective factors. The objective factors reflect the state of security while the subjective reflects a sense of security an individual or group of people have.

Table 6. 18: Human Development Index and Human Security Index

	2010	2011	2012	2013	Periodic Average
HDI	0.462	0.467	0.471	0.504	0.4178
HSI Secondary					0.3299
HSI Citizen Perspective					0.3364

Table 6.18 shows the value of the human development index for 2010 to 2013. This is the first attempt at computing human security index for Nigeria, therefore in order to examine the linkages between HDI and HSI will be by examining the magnitude of the indices. A great advantage this process has is that human security index was computed from two approaches. The results in Table 6.18 show that there is not much difference in the HSI computed from the two approaches. The difference may be a reflection of the closeness to the realities on ground in the country. This is because the data used for computing the HSI Citizen Perspective is current.

An emerging picture is that there is the likelihood that Nigeria's HDI may be due to the fact that the HSI is low. Thus, there is the need more than ever to explore all options aimed at mitigating threats to the insecurity of individuals.

6.5 Conclusions

Generally, the human security index for the country is low, this is an indication that Nigerians are not humanly secured. The secondary data show that Nigerians are most humanly secured in the food and personal realms while least secured in the political and economic realms. The economic and food realms of human security are the realms in which Nigerians are most secured from the citizens' perspectives while political and health are the realms Nigerians are least secured.

From the perspectives of the citizens, there is no geo-political zone with an index as high as 0.5, while from the secondary database it is only the South-West geo-political zone that recorded an HSI of 0.5342. The low HSI notwithstanding, Nigerians are most secured in the economic and food realms and least secured in the political and health realms of human security as

evidenced by the citizens' perspectives. The secondary data reveals that Nigerians are most secured in the food and personal realms and least secured in the political and economic realms of human security. A picture emerging is that the residents of the geo-political zones in the southern part of Nigeria are more humanly secured than those resident in the northern part of the country, as evidenced by the calculation from the two perspectives of the HSI. The residents of the South-East geo-political zones are the most secured. The results from the two perspectives of calculating HSI differs in the following realms, namely: health, food, personal, and environment while due to paucity of relevant data HSI for economic and community realms were not calculated from the secondary database. It is only in the personal realm that the residents of the North-West were the most secured from the perspective of the secondary database while from the citizen's perspective the most secured are those resident in the South-West geo-political zone. In the other realms, the most secured are those resident in the southern parts of the country.

The marginal difference in the HSI calculated from the two perspectives validates the approaches in the computation. There is hence the likelihood that Nigeria's low HDI may be due to the fact that the HSI is low. Thus, there is the need more than ever to explore all options aimed at mitigating threats to the insecurity of individuals.

"A picture emerging is that the residents of the geo-political zones in the southern part of Nigeria are more humanly secured than those resident in the northern part of the country".

7.
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.0 Concept and Approach

This report is the evidence of the first attempt at computing Human Security Index (HSI) for Nigeria. The report has assessed the status of human security and human development in the country by gathering first-hand information about human security threats and challenges. It has analysed information and data obtained from both primary and secondary sources in order to gain a reliable sense of the nature, depth, ramifications of threats to life and livelihoods as well as their possible remedies. The primary data was obtained from a survey of households conducted in the six geo-political zones as well as from Abuja-the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) of the country. The secondary data was obtained from interviews with officials of Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) relevant to human security and human development. Two states were randomly selected from each geo-political zone, while the FCT was sampled in its own right as the national capital city.

With reliance on both the secondary and primary data sets, indices were computed for each of the realms of human security. A composite index for Human Security was also computed. Notably, the primary data set provided an opportunity to compute citizens' perspective of human security. At both the sub-index and composite indicator level, equal weights were adopted for the indicator level due to the fact that first, this simple method of aggregation is transparent and easy to understand. Secondly, there would be no theoretical or practical justification for differential allocation of importance across indicators.

This chapter provides the key conclusions to be drawn as well as the main recommendations for the way ahead. It is the hope that the findings will stimulate the application of the human security framework in the human development approach at national, state and local levels and that the recommendations will contribute to the on-going process of policy development and implementation in order to address both opportunities and challenges facing the entirety of human security in the country.

7.1 Key Conclusions

Overall, the status of human development in Nigeria has not shown remarkable improvement in spite of the changes in the social and economic conditions in recent years. The evolving picture is that there is the likelihood that the low Human Development Index for Nigeria may be due to the level of the Human Security Index. Accordingly, there is the need, more than ever before, to explore all options aimed at mitigating threats to the security of individuals. Moroever, there still exists the challenge of inequalities, corruption, as well as the fear of inflation and its attendant consequences.

It is noted that economic growth in Nigeria has not been associated with poverty reduction and unemployment has not abated. This has slowed down the rate of improvement in human development as evidenced by marginal improvement in HDI between 2012 and 2013. Generally, demographic and health indicators such as access to water, sanitation, life

> "The greatest threats to human security within the economic domain as perceived by the people are needing to bribe someone in order to obtain a service, inability to pay one's children's or one's own education and being unable to support oneself".

expectancy at birth, infant mortality, under 5 mortality and incidence of poverty have shown improvement over the years but the harmful social conditions, specifically, terrorist attacks, religious and ethnic conflicts and related crimes pose threats to sustainability.

Mean year of schooling dropped, nationally between 2010 and 2013 but was highest in the South-South and lowest in the North-West zone. Multi-dimensional Poverty Index improved, nationally between 2008 and 2013 but higher values were recorded in the southern states compared to states from the northern zones. Furthermore, there still exists gender inequality and this is more pronounced in the northern parts of the country than in the southern part.

In the meantime, the status of human development in the country is being influenced by a number of factors. For instance, while there have been attempts at developing economic blueprints for the country, poor implementation has been the bane of achieving the laudable objectives of the plans. Other constraining factors include increasing rate of population growth, environmental challenges, as well as conflicts and insurgency in some parts of the country.

The greatest threats to human security within the economic domain as perceived by the people are needing to bribe someone in order to obtain a service, inability to pay one's children's or one's own education and being unable to support oneself. Similarly, the perceived most important threats, in order of importance are fear of devaluation of the Naira and price increase while the perceived dominant factor that contributes to sense of security is sufficient and predictable income. Most people perceive their ability to cope with devaluation of the Naira and price increase as very low. Ability to cope with price increase is lowest in the North-West and FCT, and highest in the South-South while ability to cope with risks associated with the devaluation of the Naira is lowest in the North-West and South-South and highest in the South-East.

Aggregate unemployment increased between 2008 and 2013 but there was a decline in the growth rate. The problem is more pandemic in the rural areas while the rate of unemployment is highest in the North-West followed by the South-South. With respect to job security, the perceived dominant threat at individual level is the fear of losing one's job or inability to find work. With respect to perceived threat at the general level, the dominant ones are inability to compete at the job market and insufficient pension to live on after retirement. The factors perceived to contribute to sense of job security include government employment support system, social insurance coverage, and social welfare system. Perception of 'government employment support system' is most pronounced in the North-West and South-South and least pronounced in the North-East and FCT. Perception of 'social insurance coverage', is most pronounced in the North-East and South-South and least pronounced in the FCT and North-Central. Similarly, perception of 'social welfare system' is most pronounced in the South-East and North-West and least pronounced in the North-East and FCT.

Generally, food production increased between 2011 and 2013. The pattern of food consumption shows that the North-West has the highest proportion of food expenditure followed by the South-West while the South-South has the lowest proportion. The South-East has the highest proportion of household reporting food inadequacy followed by the South-South and South-West. With respect to threat to food security at the individual level, the possibility of their children becoming undernourished is perceived as the greatest threat. At the general level, the perceived greatest threats are fear of low crop yield and decreased local food production. With respect to coping ability, the dominant threat people perceived they could cope with is abandonment of farm land followed by risks of low crop yield and decreased local production. Fear of low crop yield is dominant in all geo-political zones with the exception of the North-West and the South-South while the fear of 'children becoming undernourished' is dominant in the FCT, South-West and North-West. With respect to ability to cope with all the threats associated with food security, lowest ratings of citizens' perception are observed in the North-West geopolitical zone, while highest ratings are in the South-South.

In the past couple of years, there have been gains in the proportion of the population with access to an improved water source in Nigeria. However, the proportion of the population with access to improved sanitation declined between 2008 and 2014. The North-East zone had the highest proportion of survey respondents who perceived their inability to access portable water as a personal threat in the environment domain. Deforestation, has persisted as a challenge in the environment sector and constitutes a threat to human security. In order to curb the trend, indiscriminate logging would have to be monitored. Policies geared towards preservation of primary forests and re-afforestation of depleted forests are suggested. Additionally, the use of renewable energy sources (bio-fuels and solar power) for domestic uses need to be encouraged. Gas flaring was observed as an activity constituting threats to human security in the environment domain. Adequate infrastructure to enable storage of natural gas for domestic and commercial use is essential to sustain trends of reduced gas flaring activities in Nigeria. Disasters, national or human induced will be better managed by improved institutional capacity of relevant bodies such as NEMA.

Some gains have been recorded in the health sector in the area of ante-natal care provision attended by skilled personnel and declining HIV/AIDS prevalence. Nevertheless, majority of survey respondents still expressed the fear of high prevalence of HIV/AIDS. Generally, the state of health institutions is perceived as a factor which increases respondents' sense of security. This implies that provision of functional and qualitative health facilities are needful for improved human security.

Crime poses a critical threat to citizens' personal security. Discussions on reported cases of armed robbery show increasing trends for the period reviewed, while number of violent deaths was particularly high in 2013. Results from the survey show that there are more males than females which anticipate general threats (armed robbery, kidnapping, burglary, and ritual killings) in the community domain. The fear of kidnapping as a threat was more prevalent in the South-South zone, while the fear of armed robbery was prominent among all urban respondents. Given that kidnapping and other related organised crimes have been attributed to poverty and social inequality, policies geared towards poverty reduction and inclusive growth are desirable to curb these malaise.

In the political domain, women representation in parliament dwindled from 2007 till date. This trend threatens inclusiveness in the political space and imposes limitations on democratic participation. Efforts at improving women participation in governance can be encouraged by ensuring more openness in the political participation process. Reduced crime rates will improve human security in the personal and community domains, while increased female participation in parliament will engender more inclusive representation and possibly, more inclusive growth.

7.2 Conclusions Based on the Seven Realms of Human Security

7.2.1 The Economic Realm

The North-Central is the most economically secure geo-political zone while the South-South is the least economically secure geo-political zone. This zone is known to be vast in agriculture, a sector which could be key in providing employment. The implication is that residents of these states feel economically secure, especially as it pertains to employment. Residents in the South-South geo-political zone do not feel secure economically, partly because the locals may more often than not be qualified to participate in the enclave oil industries which are preponderant in the South-South zone. Capacity building for the youths in the South-South as well as the programme to make agriculture more of a business need to be pursued vigorously. Similarly, residents of the North-East are the least economically secure from the perspective of citizens and this may not be far-fetched from the spate of insurgency in the zone. Residents of the rural areas are more secure economically than those in the urban areas, for rural residents are mostly self-employed in agriculture and petty trade.

7.2.2 The Food Realm

The residents of the geo-political zones in the soThe residents of the geo-political zones in the southern part of Nigeria are more food secure than those in the northern zones. Resulting from the fact that the indicators used for calculating HSI in the food domain pertain to child malnutrition and child malnutrition is associated with factors such as mother's education and age, family size and vaccination status, these risk factors are more prevalent among families in the northern zones of Nigeria. Residents in the South-East are the most food secure based on the secondary data while those in the

North-West are the least food secure. The residents of the South-South are the most food secure from the citizens' perspective, though from the secondary data they are the second most food secure geo-political zone

7.2.3 The Health Realm

Generally, the human security index across the geo-political zones is low; an indication that Nigerians are not health secure. Residents in the South-West are the most secure, the opposite is the situation for the residents in the North-West geo-political zone. An examination of the citizens' human security index in the health realm shows that males are more secure than females in virtually all the geo-political zones. The residents in the South-West geo-political zone are the second most health secure from the perspective of the citizens while residents in the South-South geo-political zone are the least health secure.

7.2.4 The Environment Realm

Largely, Nigerians are not environmentally secure, due to the fact that the environment domain human security index is below 0.5. In the environment domain of the human security index residents of the South-South and South-East geo-political zones are the top two ranked zones relative to residents in the other geo-political zones. Residents in the North-East are the most vulnerable in terms of the environment domain, they are the least environmentally secure. From the perspective of the citizens, residents of the South-East are the most secure.

7.2.5 The Personal Realm

In the personal domain, Nigerians are not secure. Residents in the North-West geo-political zones are the most secure in the personal realm of human security. Residents of the South-South are the least secure. From the perspectives of the citizens, the residents of the South-West zone are the most secure while those in the North-East are the least secure at the personal realm. This is a reflection of the current realities.

7.2.6 The Community Realm

Nigerians have a low sense of security in the community domain. Nevertheless, residents of the South-South and South-West geo-political zones are the top two zones where people are most secure in the community realm of human security. The geo-political zone where residents are least secure is the North-East geo-political zone. This may be due to the spate of insurgency and the attending consequences on the citizens. In the North-East geo-political zones those in the urban areas feel more secure compared with those in the rural areas. This may be due to the fact that the military infrastructure against the insurgency is more pronounced in the urban areas than the rural areas.

7.2.7 The Political Realm

Nigerians are not secure in the political realm of human security, nevertheless, the top two zones in which residents are relatively secure in the political domain are the South-East and South-West zones. The zone with the lowest sense of security in the political domain is the North-West geo-political zone. This may be due to cultural and religious barriers that limit the women from aspiring to be involved in politics at the level of representing their constituencies at the parliamentary level. From the citizens' perspective, the residents in the South-East geo-political zone feel most secure than those in the other zones, with the North-West zone being the lowest.

7.2.8 The Composite Human Security Index

The Human Security Index is low with the most human security secure geo-political zone being the South-East as also confirmed by the citizen perspective. The North-West and the North-East geo-political zones are the least human security secure. The results show that residents of the Federal Capital Territory were virtually the worst in most of the realms of Human Security Index and thus bringing to the fore the predicament of the teeming residents of the FCT. It is a situation which calls for concerted action in order to ameliorate the situation.

7.2.9 Human Development Index and Human Security Index: the Linkage

Human development and human security can be seen as two processes that go hand in hand. This is due to the fact that the utmost effect of the two is enhanced quality of life for the ordinary citizen. Progress in one is likely to enhance the chances of progress in the other, while the reverse is also possible. The Human Security Index for Nigeria in this report was computed from two approaches and there is not much difference in the computation from both, hence also its validation. There is the likelihood that Nigeria's low HDI may be due to the fact that the HSI is low. Thus, there is the need more than ever to explore all options aimed at mitigating threats to the insecurity of individuals.

7.3 Key Recommendations and the Way Forward

Based on the review of data, and opinions canvassed from officials interviewed during field work, herebelow is an indicative list of specific initiatives which should have a major impact on Nigeria's human security over the near future. They include the following:

- **Goal of an Equitable Society:** the goal of an equitable society should be put on the national agenda by making an initial start with some basic reforms in government taxation and spending;

- **Economic Security:** promote the goal of economic security and reduce income disparities;

- **Educational [re]-orientation:** It is necessary to [re]-orient the education system in order to foster a knowledge-based economy, the spirit of entrepreneurship as well as income generating activities;

- **Social Security:** establish and support institutions and initiatives that help individuals with low levels of human security; including the access of the lowest-income groups to food and of low-income groups to various forms of social security;

- **Income Support for the Vulnerable:** provide income support to vulnerable groups such as the long-term unemployed, pensioners, the long-term ill and large low-income families;

- **Enhanced Democratic Space:** reduce political conflict by making government more open and accessible through better channels to affect policy-making and more space for dissent and debate;

- **Health Services:** Provide accessible, affordable and quality health care system for all;

- **HIV/AIDS and Ebola:** maintain a rigorous public education on HIV/AIDS and Ebola;

- **Informal Sector and Community Schemes support:** Make strengthening the security of those in the informal sector a specific target of policy-making, and increase the institutional support and funding for community schemes;

- **Gender Violence Restrictions:** Move to reduce the social acceptance of domestic and sexual violence by raising public awareness and restraining the media and entertainment industries; and

- **Addressing Environmental Concerns:** Strengthen environmental management by incorporating new knowledge and techniques into a revision of the primary legislation.

“Some gains have been recorded in the health sector in the area of ante-natal care provision attended by skilled personnel and declining HIV/AIDS prevalence”.

“Child malnutrition is associated with factors such as mother’s education and age, family size and vaccination status”.

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Key Data Sources

In order to achieve the aim and objectives of this report, both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered from primary and secondary sources. Primary data was obtained from households and officials of Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) relevant to human security and human development. All this were at Federal and State levels. Secondary data was also collected from officials of relevant MDAs, published and unpublished materials such as background documentation, periodicals, reports, books and information from the Internet.

Study Location and Population

For the purpose of equitable representation, the study was conducted in the six geo-political zones and Abuja, Federal Capital territory (FCT) of the country. Two states were randomly selected from each geo-political zone, while the FCT was sampled in its own right as the national capital city. For the household survey, an adult member of a randomly selected household was interviewed for the study.

Sample Size and Selection

In each state and FCT, 100 survey questionnaires (SQs) were administered such that, 50 and 50 SQs were administered in urban centres and rural communities, respectively. A total 1,300 questionnaires were administered nationwide in the selected states. In selecting the sample for this study, a multistage random sampling technique was adopted. First, the LGAs were randomly selected from the states chosen for the study. Second, enumeration areas (EAs) were selected using systematic random sampling. The study was designed to cover two per cent sample of the EAs in each of the selected LGAs within the state. The sampling interval was calculated for each EAs selected from the LGA. In order to select the respondents from the households, multistage random sampling technique was also employed. The essence of this was to ensure that every category of population is included in the sample and has a fair chance of being selected. First a complete list of EAs in each of the LGA was obtained from the National Population Commission (NPopC).

In selecting the EAs, the starting number was randomly selected. Thus, the EAs selected was the rth, (r^{th}+ I), (r^{th}+ 2I), (r^{th} + nI) until the list was exhausted [where I is the sampling interval]. For each LGA, the process was repeated, the EAs were therefore selected systematically. The households were selected by first identifying a list of streets. In each of the street, a list of dwelling units in which households might be found, were each identified by its address or a detailed description of its location, where this was not possible, actual counting of the houses was done in place of the dwelling lists. A systematic random sampling was used to select the household that was part of the study. Once a household was selected, the next task was the sampling of an eligible respondent. The procedure applied was to pick an eligible adult from the household selected. A simple random sampling procedure was used in households where there were more than one eligible person. This was done by writing numbers on paper (e.g. if they are 3, numbers 1, 2, 3) and the respondents were asked to pick one each. The person that picked number 1 was interviewed. There was no household in which two individuals were selected.

Method of Data Collection

The major instrument used in collecting primary data for this study was the structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was used because of its relative merit of comprehensiveness. It was also used because of its impersonal nature and its standardised wordings. In-depth interviews (IDIs) were also conducted among officials of the relevant Ministries, Departments and Agencies. All this was at Federal and State levels. Five IDIs were conducted in each state, and in all, 70 IDIs were conducted for the study.

Method of Data Analysis

Reporting on human security will often benefit from *understanding both the objective and subjective sides of threats* (and of the values threatened) and then systematically comparing them. Such an analysis is encouraged, as perception data complement objective data and may increase the impact of the study. Perception data was gathered from the IDIs and the survey. These offered insights about the population's state of mind and identified ungrounded perceptions (and/or weaknesses that may exist in official data). Qualitative and quantitative techniques of data analysis was employed. Data collected through the IDIs was content analysed. The data collected through the questionnaire was statistically analysed by relevant descriptive analyses using frequencies, percentages, mean and median.

Notes on CRONBACH Alpha

For summated rating scales, a reliability analysis is commonly performed to estimate the internal consistency of the items. The reliability of a scale shows the extent to which the multiple items measure the same construct while the validity of a scale shows the extent to which the scale measures what it was intended to measure.

Internal consistency statistics estimate how dependably individuals respond to the items within a scale. The word "scale" is used here to reflect a collection of survey items that are intended to measure the unobserved concept (e.g., a summated rating scale).

There are several internal consistency reliability estimates, for example: (a) Cronbach alpha (Cronbach, 1951; Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004), (b) Spearman-Brown stepped up reliability coefficient, and (c) Kuder- Richardson formula 20 (a.k.a. KR20). Cronbach alpha is perhaps the most common estimate of internal consistency of items in a scale (Cronbach, 1951; Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004).

The alpha test was developed by Lee Cronbach in 1951 to provide a measure of the internal consistency of a test or scale, it is expressed as a number between 0 and 1. Cronbach's alpha is commonly used to examine the internal consistency or reliability of summated rating scales (Cronbach, 1951). The nature of summated rating scale implies that the scale must contain multiple items (survey questions) that will be combined by summing or averaging. Secondly, each item in the scale must reflect the concept being measured. Thirdly, the items do not have 'correct' or 'wrong' answers. Also, each item in a scale is a statement and respondents rate each statement.

According to Nowlis et.al. (2002) many surveys usually contain 3 to 5 statements per scale, with each statement including 4 to 7 response choices. For a scale to be adjudged good, it must be reliable, valid and precisely measured. Measurement reliability means that the multiple items in a test measure the same concept or construct. There must be internal consistency. The internal consistency describes the extent to which all the items in a test measure the same concept or construct and hence it is connected to the inter-relatedness of the items within the test. As the estimate of reliability increases, the fraction of a test score that is attributable to error will decrease.

Statisticians have debated what constitutes an acceptable size for Cronbach alpha (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; DeVellis, 2003). By convention, an alpha of .65 to .80 is often considered an "adequate" scale in human dimensions research (Vaske, 2008). For each of the realms of human security, scores were computed to generate scales for each realm. The scales were tested using the Cronbach alpha to obtain the optimal scale for each realm.

Notes on Calculation of Human Security Index

The variables were normalised using a Min-Max rescaling scheme to create a set of indicators on a similar measurement scale. Min-Max rescaling is a method in which each variable is decomposed into an identical range between zero and one (a score of 0 being the worst rank for a specific indicator and a score of 1 being the best). All other values were scaled in between the minimum and maximum values. This scaling procedure subtracted the minimum value and divided by the range of the indicator values.

For variables measured in a negative dimension e.g. unemployment rate, the human security index is the difference between 1 and the computed value, such that what is reflected is the level of human security for the variable. This served as a normalisation process to ensure that all variables included in the human security index indicates the level of being secured.

After normalising the variables, we employed a method of aggregation in which our final security index score represents the summation of the equally weighted average sub-index scores. In other words, the variable scores in each sub-index were averaged to reduce the influence of the different number of variables in each sub-index. These arithmetic mean scores resulted in a sub-index score for each year, and then these sub-index scores were averaged for the time frame in which the report covers to produce a final composite human security index score.

At both the sub-index and composite indicator level, equal weights was adopted for the indicator level due to the fact that first, this simple method of aggregation is transparent and easy to understand. Second, we find no theoretical or practical justification for the differential allocation of importance across indicators. While methods exist for determining weights that are subjective or data reliant, such weighting schemes do not always reflect the priorities of decision makers (Esty et al. 2005).

Annex 3: Tables

Table 5a: Distribution of Respondents Afraid of Threats to Security at the Personal level (Community Domain) (%)

Geo-political Zone	Becoming victim of aggressive & unsafe driving practices			Losing the understanding and support of one's colleagues			Being in conflict with relatives/ others over poverty issues			Losing the understanding & support of friends and /family		
	Male	Female	ALL	Male	Female	ALL	Male	Female	ALL	Male	Female	ALL
North-Central	60.9	69.9	66.0	46.0	48.7	47.5	52.9	52.2	52.5	47.1	52.2	50.0
North-East	74.2	85.5	78.5	69.4	71.1	70.0	76.6	77.6	77.0	76.6	71.1	74.5
North-West	70.0	78.0	72.0	56.0	70.0	59.5	44.0	50.0	45.5	49.3	58.0	51.5
South-East	59.6	60.4	60.0	58.6	59.4	59.0	54.5	59.4	57.0	53.5	62.4	58.0
South-South	46.2	65.3	55.3	56.7	46.3	51.8	45.2	62.1	53.3	52.9	68.4	60.3
South-West	72.2	70.7	71.5	53.7	43.5	49.0	52.8	46.7	50.0	52.8	47.8	50.5
FCT	91.9	89.5	91.0	80.6	86.8	83.0	95.2	92.1	94.0	87.1	97.4	91.0
National Average	67.0	71.7	69.1	59.3	56.8	58.2	57.8	60.2	58.8	58.4	62.1	60.0

Source: Field Survey Data, 2015

Table 5b: Distribution of Respondents Anticipating General Threats (Community Domain) (%)

Geo-political Zone	Armed robbery			Kidnapping			Burglary			Ritual kidnappings/killings		
	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
North-Central	89.7	87.6	88.5	90.8	91.2	91.0	87.4	86.7	87.0	87.4	87.6	87.5
North-East	100.0	81.6	93.0	99.2	81.6	92.5	97.6	82.9	92.0	99.2	81.6	92.5
North-West	86.0	80.0	84.5	85.3	78.0	83.5	86.7	76.0	84.0	86.7	86.0	86.5
South-East	76.8	79.2	78.0	76.8	79.2	78.0	75.8	79.2	77.5	79.8	82.2	81.0
South-South	90.4	96.8	93.5	90.4	97.9	94.0	89.4	94.7	92.0	90.4	96.8	93.5
South-West	91.7	91.3	91.5	89.8	91.3	90.5	88.0	91.3	89.5	89.8	94.6	92.0
FCT	93.5	97.4	95.0	87.1	97.4	91.0	93.5	97.4	95.0	91.9	97.4	94.0
National Average	89.6	87.4	88.7	88.7	88.1	88.5	88.3	86.7	87.6	89.4	89.0	89.2

Source: Field Survey Data, 2015

Table 5c: Distribution of Respondents by Selected Factors Contributing to Their Sense of Security (Personal) (%)

Geo-political Zone	Family			Friends			Own action			Faith in God			Faith in destiny			Ethnic identity and belonging		
	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
North-Central	72.4	69.9	71.0	72.4	65.5	68.5	72.4	69.0	70.5	78.2	80.5	79.5	67.8	69.9	69.0	60.9	68.1	65.0
North-East	79.8	93.4	85.0	79.0	94.7	85.0	79.8	94.7	85.5	81.5	94.7	86.5	81.5	93.4	86.0	73.4	82.9	77.0
North-West	92.0	88.0	91.0	93.3	88.0	92.0	94.0	94.0	94.0	95.3	94.0	95.0	94.0	88.0	92.5	84.0	74.0	81.5
South-East	83.8	86.1	85.0	75.8	74.3	75.0	77.8	80.2	79.0	83.8	83.2	83.5	82.8	72.3	77.5	81.8	69.3	75.5
South-South	80.8	89.5	84.9	79.8	86.3	82.9	86.5	93.7	89.9	92.3	92.6	92.5	90.4	94.7	92.5	60.6	61.1	60.8
South-West	83.3	90.2	86.5	74.1	77.2	75.5	84.3	93.5	88.5	89.8	93.5	91.5	75.9	82.6	79.0	70.4	72.8	71.5
FCT	96.8	97.4	97.0	91.9	94.7	93.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	98.4	94.7	97.0	96.8	94.7	96.0	75.8	55.3	68.0
National Average	84.1	86.0	84.9	81.2	80.4	80.8	84.9	86.9	85.8	88.4	89.2	88.8	84.3	83.0	83.8	73.2	69.6	71.6

Source: Field Survey Data, 2015

Table 5d: Distribution of Respondents by Selected Factors Contributing to Their Sense of Security (Community) (%)

Geo-political Zone	Informal networks			Neighbours			Newspapers, radio, television			Social Organisations (NGOs)		
	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
North-Central	64.4	55.8	59.5	67.8	59.3	63.0	59.8	50.4	54.5	50.6	40.7	45.0
North-East	61.3	57.9	60.0	66.1	67.1	66.5	69.4	57.9	65.0	50.0	48.7	49.5
North-West	73.3	64.0	71.0	79.3	78.0	79.0	74.0	60.0	70.5	52.0	30.0	46.5
South-East	62.6	57.4	60.0	75.8	63.4	69.5	82.8	81.2	82.0	65.7	57.4	61.5
South-South	45.2	41.1	43.2	45.2	57.9	51.3	51.9	61.1	56.3	65.7	57.4	61.5
South-West	44.4	51.1	47.5	57.4	64.1	60.5	63.9	65.2	64.5	38.9	50.0	44.0
FCT	83.9	81.6	83.0	90.3	89.5	90.0	77.4	57.9	70.0	71.0	47.4	62.0
National Average	61.4	55.6	58.9	68.1	65.3	66.9	68.4	62.5	65.8	50.3	45.8	48.3

Source: Field Survey Data, 2015

Table 5e: Distribution of Respondents by Ability to Influence Selected Security Risks (Community Domain) (%)

Geo-political Zone	Armed robbery			Kidnapping			Burglary			Ritual kidnappings/killings		
	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL	Sex of respondent		ALL
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female	
North-Central	35.6	26.5	30.5	34.5	23.9	28.5	32.2	28.3	30.0	27.6	23.0	25.0
North-East	39.5	34.2	37.5	39.5	32.9	37.0	39.5	34.2	37.5	39.5	34.2	37.5
North-West	20.7	24.0	21.5	20.7	22.0	21.0	24.0	28.0	25.0	18.0	16.0	17.5
South-East	46.5	57.4	52.0	33.3	50.5	42.0	41.4	57.4	49.5	37.4	52.5	45.0
South-South	56.7	78.9	67.3	56.7	77.9	66.8	56.7	77.9	66.8	48.1	73.7	60.3
South-West	45.4	41.3	43.5	44.4	33.7	39.5	47.2	40.2	44.0	40.7	32.6	37.0
FCT	46.8	28.9	40.0	46.8	28.9	40.0	43.5	28.9	38.0	41.9	28.9	37.0
National Average	40.1	44.2	41.9	38.0	40.7	39.2	39.6	44.6	41.8	35.0	39.6	37.0

Source: Field Survey Data, 2015

Table 5f: Proportion of Respondents Anticipating General Threats (Terrorism, Ethnic Conflict and Organised crime)

Geo-political Zone	Terrorism in Nigeria					Ethnic Conflict in Nigeria					Organised crime in Nigeria				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	89.7	87.6	82.4	94.9	88.5	81.6	76.1	78.4	78.6	78.5	85.1	83.2	84.3	83.7	84.0
North-East	96.8	93.4	96.7	94.5	95.5	99.2	98.7	100.0	98.2	99.0	99.2	100.0	100.0	99.1	99.5
North-West	99.3	98.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	92.7	82.0	97.0	82.8	90.0	94.0	98.0	98.0	91.9	95.0
South-East	72.7	71.3	77.6	66.7	72.0	72.7	74.3	75.5	71.6	73.5	67.7	71.3	74.5	64.7	69.5
South-South	91.3	97.9	92.0	97.7	94.5	84.6	90.5	83.9	92.0	87.4	87.5	91.6	86.6	93.1	89.4
South-West	86.1	84.8	83.0	88.0	85.5	89.8	85.9	91.0	85.0	88.0	81.5	79.3	85.0	76.0	80.5
FCT	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.	96.8	97.4	98.0	96.1	97.0	96.8	94.7	95.9	96.1	96.0
National Average	90.8	90.4	90.1	91.5	90.7	88.2	86.4	89.1	86.3	87.6	87.4	88.3	89.2	86.4	87.7

Table 5g: Distribution of Respondents by Factors Influencing Sense of Security (Government Capacity and Security System)

Geo-political Zone	Government Capacity					Police and Law Enforcement Agency					Nigerian Armed Forces				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	56.3	40.7	50.0	44.9	47.5	64.4	56.6	47.1	73.5	60.0	65.5	68.1	56.9	77.6	67.0
North-East	45.2	27.6	50.0	29.1	38.5	37.9	26.3	32.2	34.5	33.5	55.6	48.7	55.6	50.9	53.0
North-West	58.0	42.0	56.4	51.5	54.0	50.0	42.0	62.4	33.3	48.0	49.3	32.0	56.4	33.3	45.0
South-East	58.6	58.4	66.3	51.0	58.5	50.5	58.4	65.3	44.1	54.5	61.6	64.4	76.5	50.0	63.0
South-South	60.6	70.5	57.1	75.9	65.3	59.6	72.6	52.7	82.8	65.8	75.0	73.7	70.5	79.3	74.4
South-West	50.0	54.3	63.0	41.0	52.0	43.5	53.3	52.0	44.0	48.0	67.6	59.8	72.0	56.0	64.0
FCT	43.5	44.7	49.0	39.2	44.0	54.8	57.9	53.1	58.8	56.0	77.4	65.8	77.6	68.6	73.0
National Average	53.2	48.3	56.0	47.5	51.4	51.5	52.4	52.1	53.0	52.3	64.6	58.9	66.5	59.4	62.8

Table 5h: Distribution of Respondents by Self-Assessment of Ability to Influence Selected Security Risks (Terrorism, Ethnic Conflict and Organised crime)

Geo-political Zone	Terrorism in Nigeria					Ethnic Conflict in Nigeria					Organised Crime in Nigeria				
	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total	Sex of respondent		Place of residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
North-Central	29.9	23.0	30.4	21.4	26.0	47.1	40.7	44.1	42.9	43.5	39.1	23.9	33.3	27.6	30.5
North-East	41.1	32.9	74.4	8.2	38.0	39.5	34.2	71.1	10.0	37.5	37.9	31.6	71.1	6.4	35.5
North-West	8.7	6.0	9.9	6.1	8.0	26.0	32.0	23.8	31.3	27.5	6.7	4.0	9.9	2.0	6.0
South-East	29.3	35.6	42.9	22.5	32.5	45.5	41.6	58.2	29.4	43.5	45.5	31.7	55.1	22.5	38.5
South-South	31.7	38.9	40.2	28.7	35.2	54.8	71.6	53.6	74.7	62.8	49.0	69.5	48.2	72.4	58.8
South-West	33.3	25.0	24.0	35.0	29.5	47.2	43.5	39.0	52.0	45.5	31.5	25.0	25.0	32.0	28.5
FCT	8.1	7.9	10.2	5.9	8.0	35.5	18.4	28.6	29.4	29.0	25.8	18.4	22.4	23.5	23.0
National Average	**26.0**	**24.2**	**33.1**	**18.3**	**25.3**	**42.2**	**40.3**	**45.5**	**38.5**	**41.3**	**33.6**	**29.2**	**37.9**	**26.6**	**31.5**

Human Security Index – Citizen Perspective by Realms of Human Security, Geo-political Zone State

Geo-political Zone	State	Health	Economic	Food	Personal	Environment	Community	Political	Human Security Index
North-Central	Kogi	0.4163	0.6619	0.5392	0.6620	0.4213	0.2717	0.3200	0.4603
North-Central	Plateau	0.2525	0.3006	0.4142	0.2980	0.3325	0.2917	0.2710	0.3083
North-East	Bauchi	0.3800	0.3881	0.2333	0.3860	0.2488	0.2367	0.1905	0.2814
North-East	Gombe	0.0525	0.2225	0.2758	0.0940	0.3363	0.2217	0.2648	0.2298
North-West	Kano	0.2550	0.4525	0.2950	0.4060	0.1681	0.1775	0.0905	0.2484
North-West	Zamfara	0.2550	0.4525	0.2950	0.4060	0.1681	0.1775	0.0905	0.2484
South-East	Anambra	0.4200	0.3956	0.3592	0.4660	0.4244	0.4075	0.3819	0.4038
South-East	Ebonyi	0.3125	0.3481	0.4183	0.4610	0.1694	0.3417	0.1729	0.2962
South-South	Edo	0.3388	0.4319	0.4300	0.5380	0.4031	0.4200	0.3824	0.4177
South-South	Rivers	0.4200	0.3956	0.3592	0.4660	0.4244	0.4075	0.3819	0.4038
South-West	Ekiti	0.2763	0.4588	0.3067	0.3760	0.2663	0.1950	0.1924	0.2908
South-West	Lagos	0.3513	0.5044	0.4383	0.4280	0.4213	0.3125	0.3324	0.3988
FCT	FCT	0.0875	0.2269	0.2875	0.2290	0.2600	0.1767	0.1143	0.1974

Human Security Index – Citizen Perspective by Realms of Human Security, Geo-political Zone and Sex of Respondent

Geo-political Zone	Sex	Health	Economic	Food	Personal	Environment	Community	Political	Human Security Index
North-Central	Male	0.3563	0.4655	0.4923	0.5023	0.3793	0.3008	0.3136	0.3947
	Female	0.3175	0.4934	0.4646	0.4628	0.3750	0.2670	0.2815	0.3763
North-East	Male	0.1845	0.2651	0.2930	0.2089	0.3332	0.2177	0.2358	0.2549
	Female	0.2681	0.3709	0.1919	0.2908	0.2262	0.2478	0.2143	0.2566
North-West	Male	0.2858	0.4075	0.3550	0.4367	0.1650	0.2633	0.1305	0.2734
	Female	0.2775	0.3788	0.3617	0.4240	0.1800	0.2483	0.1352	0.2691
South-East	Male	0.4066	0.4842	0.3872	0.4990	0.4388	0.3451	0.3766	0.4180
	Female	0.3651	0.4165	0.4101	0.3960	0.4072	0.3746	0.3380	0.3850
South-South	Male	0.2524	0.4970	0.5697	0.4500	0.3660	0.3710	0.3017	0.3995
	Female	0.1105	0.4638	0.6447	0.2379	0.4053	0.3921	0.3509	0.3893
South-West	Male	0.3924	0.4919	0.4313	0.5093	0.3466	0.3171	0.2954	0.3877
	Female	0.3098	0.4959	0.3931	0.4924	0.3471	0.3080	0.2857	0.3716
FCT	Male	0.0927	0.2802	0.3293	0.2855	0.3014	0.2083	0.1244	0.2312
	Female	0.0790	0.1398	0.2193	0.1368	0.1924	0.1250	0.0977	0.1421

Human security Index – Citizen Perspective by Realms of Human Security, Geo-political zone and Place of Residence of Respondent

		Health	Economic	Food	Personal	Environment	Community	Political	Human Security Index
North-Central	Urban	0.3971	0.4853	0.5090	0.5137	0.3903	0.3333	0.3333	0.4151
	Rural	0.2691	0.4770	0.4430	0.4449	0.3629	0.2279	0.2561	0.3523
North-East	Urban	0.0667	0.2306	0.3213	0.0833	0.4208	0.2991	0.3799	0.2864
	Rural	0.3386	0.3665	0.2000	0.3682	0.1875	0.1720	0.1030	0.2303
North-West	Urban	0.2092	0.3292	0.3012	0.3000	0.1671	0.1691	0.0990	0.2141
	Rural	0.3599	0.4729	0.4133	0.5697	0.1705	0.3519	0.1650	0.3317
South-East	Urban	0.3623	0.4171	0.4541	0.4306	0.4177	0.3861	0.3916	0.4091
	Rural	0.4081	0.4816	0.3456	0.4628	0.4277	0.3350	0.3240	0.3938
South-South	Urban	0.2299	0.4671	0.5774	0.4170	0.3733	0.3795	0.3253	0.3976
	Rural	0.1264	0.4993	0.6418	0.2609	0.3994	0.3831	0.3251	0.3908
South-West	Urban	0.3388	0.4456	0.4150	0.4280	0.3288	0.2450	0.2486	0.3423
	Rural	0.3700	0.5419	0.4125	0.5750	0.3650	0.3808	0.3333	0.4183
FCT	Urban	0.0842	0.2449	0.3248	0.2510	0.2959	0.1446	0.1088	0.2079
	Rural	0.0907	0.2096	0.2516	0.2078	0.2255	0.2075	0.1195	0.1872

Human Security in Nigeria

Household Questionnaire

NO.	QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES	CODES
Identification			
A1	State		
A2	LGA		
A3	Name of Locality		
A4	Urban/Rural	Urban Rural	1 2
Socio-demographic Characteristics			
A5	How old were you at your last birthday? *In years*		
A6	Sex of Respondent	Male Female	1 2
A7	Religious Affiliation	Islam Christianity Traditional Others (Specify)	1 2 3 4
A8	Your Ethnic Group		
A9	Household Size		
A10	Number of physically challenged in household, if any		
A11	Marital Status	Single/Never married Married Separated Divorced Widow/Widower	1 2 3 4 5
A12	Can you read and write in any language?	Yes No	1 2
A13	Highest Educational Attainment	No Formal Education Qu'ranic Education Primary School not Completed Primary School Completed Secondary School not Completed Secondary School Completed Post-Secondary Education Other (Specify)_____	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
A14	Employment Status	Employed Unemployed Retired	1 2 3
A15	Occupation, if employed	Farming; fishing; etc. Trading Skilled (electrician, plumbing, mechanic, carpentry, etc.) Lower White collar (Nursing, teachers, clerk, non-graduates, etc.) Professional (managerial, medicine, law, accountancy, architect, banker, university teacher, higher civil servant, etc.) Unemployed Other (specify)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
A16	Estimated Income of Household per month (Naira)	Less than N10,000 11,000 - 20,000 21,000 - 40,000 41,000 - 80,000 81,000 - 120,000 Above 120,000	1 2 3 4 5 6

I would now like to ask you a few more questions about your life as a whole. Please tick the number that comes closest in describing how you feel.

B1	All things considered, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with your life as a whole?	Very satisfied Somewhat satisfied Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied Somewhat dissatisfied Very dissatisfied	1 2 3 4 5
B2	Thinking about your life as a whole, and taking into account all that has happened to you over the last one year, how do you feel about your life?	Terrible Very Dissatisfying Moderately Dissatisfying Mixed Moderately Satisfying Very Satisfying Delightful	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
B3	Generally, how happy would you say your life is?	Very unhappy Somewhat unhappy Undecided Somewhat happy Very happy	1 2 3 4 5

How satisfied are you with the following……?		**Very Satisfied**	**Somewhat Satisfied**	**Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied**	**Somewhat Dissatisfied**	**Very Dissatisfied**
B4	Standard of living of your family					
B5	Health status of your family					
B6	What you and your family are achieving in life					
B7	Your personal relationships					
B8	How safe you and your family feel					
B9	Sense of community belonging					
B10	Your future security					
B11	Your spirituality or religion					

Perception of threats to security at the personal level (Please tick one)						
NO	ITEMS	Not afraid at all	Mostly not afraid	Afraid	Slightly afraid	Very afraid
HEALTH						
C1	Inability to pay for medical care in the case of illness					
C2	Not receiving an adequate standard of medical care in the case of illness					
C3	Becoming seriously ill					
C4	Contracting HIV/AIDS					
C5	Contracting Ebola disease					
C6	Being involved in an accident					
ECONOMY						
C7	Not receiving a large enough retirement pension to live on					
C8	Being unable to support oneself					
C9	Not having a place to live					
C10	Inability to pay one's children's or one's own education					
C11	Inability to pay one's rent or other household bills					
C12	Inability to compete in the job market					
C13	Losing one's savings in the bank					
C14	Losing one's job/ being unable to find work					
C15	Needing to bribe someone in order to obtain a service					
C16	Falling victim of online/ATM fraud					
FOOD						
C17	Inability to feed myself and my family					
C18	Inability to provide balanced diet					
C19	Family going hungry					
C20	Children becoming undernourished					
PERSONAL						
C21	Being attacked on the street					
C22	Being subject to theft					
C23	Being sexually assaulted					
C24	Being left on one's own					
C25	Being left on one's own with dependent children					
C26	Losing the understanding and support of one's spouse					
C27	Being emotionally abused at work					
C28	Being emotionally abused by civil servants					
C29	Being emotionally abused in the family					
C30	Being physically abused at home					
ENVIRONMENT						
C31	Inability to access portable water					
C32	House being affected by flood or other natural disaster					
C33	Household waste disposal becoming problematic					
COMMUNITY						
C34	Becoming the victim of aggressive and unsafe driving practices					
C35	Losing the understanding and support of one's colleagues					
C36	Being in conflict with relatives or others over property issues					
C37	Losing the understanding and support of one's friend and family					
POLITICAL						
C38	Falling victim to organised crime					
C39	Becoming a victim of a terrorist attack					
C40	Being emotionally abused by police officers					

Perception of general threats (Please tick one)						
NO	**ITEMS**	**Not afraid at all**	**Mostly not afraid**	**Afraid**	**Slightly afraid**	**Very afraid**
HEALTH						
D1	The spread of narcotics					
D2	High amount of preservatives in food					
D3	Food poisoning					
D4	The spread of HIV/AIDS in Nigeria					
ECONOMY						
D5	Rapid price increases					
D6	Decrease in crude oil price in the international market					
ENVIRONMENTAL						
D7	Hazardous waste dumps in Nigeria					
D8	Clear-cutting of forests in Nigeria					
D9	Environmental pollution in Nigeria					
D10	An environmental disaster in Nigeria					
D11	Global warming					
D12	Climate change					
D13	Urban population increase					
D14	Rural population decrease					
FOOD						
D15	The abandonment of farmland in Nigeria					
D16	Low crop yield					
D17	Decreased local food production					
D18	Increased importation of food					
ECONOMY						
D19	Foreign producers forcing local producers out of the Nigerian market					
D20	The devaluation of the Naira					
D21	Exodus from rural areas					
D22	Nigerian producers losing their market share in other countries					
POLITICAL						
D23	Nuclear threats					
D24	Threats to the survival of one's own language and culture					
D25	Influx of refugees in Nigeria					
D25	Terrorism in Nigeria					
D26	Limitations on democracy and freedom of speech in Nigeria					
D27	Manifestation of international terrorism in Nigeria					
D28	Partial loss of Nigeria's sovereignty					
D29	Internal unrest					
D30	Armed conflict in Nigeria					
D31	Ethnic conflict in Nigeria					
D32	Organised crime in Nigeria					
COMMUNITY						
D33	Armed robbery					
D34	Kidnapping					
D35	Burglary					
D36	Ritual kidnappings/killings					

SECTION E: SELF-ASSESSMENT OF RESPONDENT'S ABILITY TO INFLUENCE SELECTED SECURITY RISKS

Respondent's self-assessment of ability to influence selected security risks (Please tick one)			
NO	**Can you yourself or together with others reduce this risk?**	**Yes, I can**	**No, I cannot**
HEALTH			
E1	The spread of HIV/AIDS in Nigeria		
E2	Food poisoning		
E3	High amount of preservatives in food		
E4	The spread of narcotics		
ENVIRONMENTAL			
E5	Hazardous waste dumps in Nigeria		
E6	Clear-cutting of forests in Nigeria		
E7	Environmental pollution in Nigeria		
E8	An environmental disaster in Nigeria		
E9	Global warming		
E10	Climate change		
E11	Urban population increase		
E12	Rural population decrease		
ECONOMIC			
E13	Rapid price increase		
E14	The devaluation of the Naira		
E15	Foreign producers forcing local producers out of the Nigerian market		
FOOD			
E16	The abandonment of farmland in Nigeria		
E17	Low crop yield		
E18	Decreased local food production		
E19	Increased importation of food		
POLITICAL			
E20	Nuclear threats		
E21	Threats to the survival of one's own language and culture		
E22	Influx of refugees in Nigeria		
E23	Terrorism in Nigeria		
E24	Limitations on democracy and freedom of speech in Nigeria		
E25	Manifestation of international terrorism in Nigeria		
E26	Partial loss of Nigeria's sovereignty		
E27	Internal unrest		
E28	Armed conflict in Nigeria		
E29	Ethnic conflict in Nigeria		
E30	Organised crime in Nigeria		
COMMUNITY			
E31	Armed robbery		
E32	Kidnapping		
E33	Burglary		
E34	Ritual kidnappings/killings		

SECTION F: SELECTED FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO PEOPLE'S SENSE OF SECURITY

Selected factors contributing to people's sense of security (Please tick one)					
NO	**ITEMS**	**Decrease my sense of security**	**Does not affect my sense of security**	**Increase my sense of security**	**Strongly increase my sense of security**
HEALTH					
F1	Health care institutions				
F2	Healthcare personnel				
F3	Proximity to health care facilities				
ECONOMIC					
F4	Government employment support system				
F5	Sufficient, predictable income				
F6	Social insurance coverage				
F7	Commercial security services				
F8	Scientific discoveries/ new technologies				
F9	Social welfare system				
PERSONAL					
F10	Family				
F11	Friends				
F12	Own action				
F13	Faith in God				
F14	Faith in destiny				
F15	Ethnic identity and belonging				
POLITICAL					
F16	Basic human rights and freedoms				
F17	Government capacity				
F18	Involvement in politics				
F19	Police and law-enforcement system				
F20	Local government				
F21	Justice system				
F22	Nigerian armed forces				
COMMUNITY					
F23	Informal networks (classmates, colleagues, etc.)				
F24	Neighbours				
F25	Newspapers, radio, television				
F26	Social organisations (NGOs etc.)				
ENVIRONMENTAL					
F27	Pollution level				
F28	General level of concern about environmental problems				
F29	Climate change				
F30	Government capacity to solve environmental problems				

SECTION G: SELF-ASSESSMENT OF HOUSEHOLD INCOME

Self-assessment of household income (Please tick the most appropriate)		
NO	**ITEMS**	**Agree**
G1	Sufficient income, no special efforts to economise	
G2	We live sparingly, but there is generally enough to meet our needs	
G3	We live very frugally and it is very difficult to save up for larger purchases	
G4	We barely have enough money for food and clothing	
G5	We only have money for food	
G6	We don't even have enough money for food and are half-starved	

SECTION H: COMPARISON OF SELECTED SECURITY PROVIDERS

Comparison of selected security providers						
Who could you turn to for support in a difficult situation? Rate on a value of 1=most support to 5=least support						
NO	**ITEM**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
H1	Myself					
H2	God					
H3	Relatives					
H4	Friends					
H5	Colleagues					
H6	Community Institutions/Associations					
H7	Cooperatives					
H8	Federal Government Institutions					
H9	State Government Institutions					
H10	Local Government Institutions					
H11	Religious Bodies					
H12	NGOs					
H13	International Organisations					

Human Security in Nigeria

In-depth Interview Guide

1. Which of potential threats to your general security do **you** fear most?
2. Which of potential threats to general security do you think **citizens** fear most?
3. Which of potential threats to your personal security do **you** fear most?
4. Which of potential threats to personal security do you think **citizens** fear most?
5. Please describe what actions you would take to prevent or mitigate potential threats to your general security (i.e. acting on your own, acting together with others, government level, international level)
6. What are the top three issues that cause you the most concern (in terms of security)?
7. What are the top three factors that increase your sense of security?
8. Who would you turn to for assistance in a difficult situation (name top three by order of significance)?

NOTES:

“Reporting on human security will often benefit from understanding both the objective and subjective sides of threats (and of the values threatened) and then systematically comparing them. Such an analysis is encouraged, as perception data complement objective data and may increase the impact of the study”.