



NIGERIA'S POROUS BORDER AND INSECURITY IN NORTH WEST NIGERIA: A SYSTEMIC ANALYSIS

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Abstract

The problem of border porosity is a key focus for experts in international relations, contemporary studies, global communities, and international law. This attention is due to the fact that every country in the world shares its borders with one or more neighboring nations. Nigeria has approximately 200 million people and is perhaps the most populous country in the African continent. Ironically, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime reports that there are over 350 million illegal arms and ammunition circulating in Nigeria. This suggests that the number of illegal arms circulating in Nigeria is by far more than the country's population. Hence, the 2022 Global Terrorism Index (GTI) rated Nigeria as the third most terrorized country in the world. Since Nigeria is not an arms manufacturer, it is logical to say that these arms must have found their way into Nigeria through the country's borders. In 2019, the Nigerian government reported that the country has over 1,400 illegal routes and 86 legal entry points along its roughly 4,500 kilometers of land borders, suggesting that Nigeria possesses some of the most porous borders globally. It is against this background, that this paper seeks to interrogate why Nigeria's porous borders and insecurity persist with a systemic analysis. The paper aimed at examining the consequence of border porosity on Nigeria's national security. Using qualitative approach to this study, this paper adopted a secondary method of gathering data; where data was gathered from textbooks, journals, articles, published and unpublished works, and the internet. In conducting this research, the securitization theory was adopted to explain why states have to deal with issues that constitute national security threats and challenges. The major finding of this paper is that; Nigeria's border porosity and insecurity led to food scarcity in the northeast. In the struggle for food, people have got into serious crises. Banditry, high level of kidnapping and insecurity have increased in Nigeria's northern region and other parts of the country.

Keywords: Porous Borders, Security, Banditry, Insecurity, Systemic Theory

Introduction

Borders are generally understood as territorial boundaries that separate one nation-state from another. Their main purpose is to distinguish insiders from outsiders and to safeguard those within the borders from those outside (Andreas, 2003). While serving as bridges for mutual interaction, they act as barriers protecting citizens from external threats. Nigeria, however, possesses one of the world's most porous borders, featuring only 86 formal posts against over 1,400 identified illegal routes, exacerbated by



personnel shortages and obsolete surveillance (Nigerian Tribune, 2019). Consequently, the UN reports Nigeria accounts for 350 million of the 500 million illegal small arms circulating in West Africa (The Guardian, 2018). Nigeria is thus a primary market for trans-border arms and the third most terrorized nation globally (Institute for Economics and Peace 2018). This porosity allows traffickers to supply criminals destroying lives, particularly in northern Nigeria. Ethno-religious conflicts result in approximately 1,000 annual casualties (Global Conflict Tracker 2020). In Zamfara, banditry causes 30-50 daily deaths (Okeke & Oji 2014; This Day, 2019). In Kaduna State, 323 people were killed and 949 kidnapped between January and March 2021 (GCTN Africa 2021). Regionally, Boko Haram killed over 37,500 people and displaced 2.5 million between 2011 and 2020 (Global Conflict Tracker, 2020).

Violence extends to the Niger Delta, where deaths from arms-related incidents increased to 1,013 in 2019 (PIND). Fatalities involved organized crime, cult battles, and land disputes, with ethnic conflicts resulting in 197 deaths in 2024–2025 (Olaniyan & Yahaya, 2016). Attributing internal security challenges to trans-border arms, the government closed land borders in August 2019 (Wahab, 2019). Despite this, skepticism grew as illegal activities persisted (Nigerian Tribune 2019). Within three months, authorities intercepted contrabands valued at \$6.5 billion, alongside numerous illegal immigrants and arms traffickers (Wahab, 2019). The porous nature of Nigeria's borders provides an opportunity for trans-border arms traffickers to supply weapons to criminals involved in the violent destruction of lives and properties, particularly in northern Nigeria. Furthermore, the trafficking and use of arms in ethno-religious armed conflicts are resulting in numerous casualties an average of 1,000 lives per year since 1999 (Global Conflict Tracker, 2020). In Zamfara State alone, the locals bury 30-50 people killed by bandits daily, making many children orphans and families displaced from their homes (Okeke & Oji, 2014; This day, Nigeria, April 14, 2019).

According to the authorities in Kaduna State, North- West, Nigeria, 323 persons were killed by bandits in Kaduna State alone between January and March 2021. The Kaduna State Security Council through the Commissioner for Internal Security and Home Affairs revealed that bandits killed 323 people and kidnapped 949 in just three months. He explained that of the 323 victims slain by bandits during the period under consideration, 292 were men and 20 were women. In the same period under review, 949 individuals were kidnapped by bandits, and 236 people died in the Kaduna Central senatorial district, which includes Birnin Gwari, Chikun, Igabi, and Kajuru local governments (GCTN Africa, 2021). In the North West, North East, and other parts of Nigeria, the Global Conflict Tracker reports that between 2011 and 2020, Boko Haram insurgents killed over 37,500 people, displaced over 2.5 million people, and made over 244,000 people refugees in neighboring countries (Global Conflict Tracker, 2020). Furthermore, Boko Haram insurgents and the bandits continue their violent attacks killing people indiscriminately, taking over towns and villages, burning and robbing people of their belongings, and attack Nigerian security formations indiscriminately. As a result of these attacks, hundreds of towns and villages have gone into total extinction (Global Conflict Tracker, 2020).

Literature Review

Borders

'Border' means different things to different people, but in classical literature, borders, boundaries and borderlands are used interchangeably (Mata-Codesal, 2007). They constitute multiple opportunities as well as security barriers. Whereas borders are vital to separate the physical boundaries of state territories, they are in daily practice even more important to the people living along the borders. In similar vein, demarcated or not demarcated, a border can engender positive or negative effects, which have implications for national security. A greater portion of borderlands in the African continent are not distinctly demarcated and hence show no guidelines, creating security threats. According to Kristof (1959:278), a boundary does not exist in abstraction, it owes its existence to man. That is, all boundaries are manmade. This assertion finds explanation from the partition of African borderlands resultant from the African-Berlin Conference of 1884/1885, where borders were artificially drawn without the consent and participation of the beneficiaries. Kristof further identifies two types of borders: the Artificial and Natural border. In the view of Martinez (1994) borders are classified into four categories as follows: (a) alienated, (b) co-existent, (c) interdependent, and (d) integrated. In the same vein, Hartshorne (1933)



believes that borders can be viewed from the perspectives of the following: (a) antecedent, (b) subsequent, (c) super imposed, and (d) natural (Global Conflict Tracker, 2020).

Most African borders are super imposed and that reality has not changed, despite the intervention from the African Union Border Programme. The security dimension calls for global concern in the aftermath of the 9/11 attacks in the United States of America. Top of the discussion at present is immigration, described as globalization discontent. Migrants generated through conflict-induced displacement, the surge of refugees and economic flows are now regarded as security risks by host nations, a perception that is now heavily politicized.

Insecurity

The crisis in northeast Nigeria originates from the Boko Haram insurgency, causing severe humanitarian disasters across Nigeria, Chad, Cameroon, and Niger. Precarious socio-economic conditions, driven by harsh weather and government neglect, created fertile ground for the group to prosper. Occupying strategic locations, they recruit disaffected youths, unemployed graduates, and destitute children primarily from northern Nigeria (Kamta et al., 2020). Approximately 15 million people are affected by this violence. Since 2014, the conflict has caused 20,000 deaths and 1.8 million displacements, hindering economic development. Infrastructure damage is estimated at \$9.2 billion, with production losses of \$8.3 billion (Avis 2020). While most displaced persons remain in Borno, Adamawa, and Yobe, others have moved to central Nigeria or neighboring countries (Avis, 2020). Destruction of education and sanitation facilities, combined with restricted land access and market attacks, has devastated livelihoods. The conflict exacerbates food insecurity and pre-existing inequalities while destroying social cohesion (Kamta et al., 2020). In Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa, agricultural productivity has plummeted, leading to severe local food crises. Meanwhile, host states like Bauchi, Gombe, and Taraba face heavy economic burdens from overcrowding.

Insecurity has disrupted trade flows, increased transaction costs through Boko Haram's "tributes," and forced Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) divestment due to uncertainty (Avis 2020). High transport fees and dwindling exchange levels have directly inflated food prices. To understand insecurity, one must define security. The OECD defines it as a fundamental right protecting livelihoods and reducing poverty, noting that the poor suffer most from weak justice and corrupt militaries. SIPRI (2015) categorizes security as individual, human, and state-centered. Otto and Ukpere (2012) view security as protection against something that might happen in the future or activities involved in protecting a country, building, or persons (Wehmeier and Ashby 2002, as cited in Otto & Ukpere 2012). Ultimately, security involves peace, safety, and the protection of human and physical resources.

The concept of security

Security relates to reducing threats to the survival of individuals or groups. Adebakin (2012) defines it as an activity guaranteeing the protection of a country, people, and property from hazards and danger. It encompasses the prevention of hidden dangers in daily life and ensures peace, happiness, and resource protection. Security mechanisms mitigate direct threats preventing people from pursuing their values. Social survival depends on law-and-order security, addressing economic, environmental, and demographic issues to understand modern conflicts. National security involves preventing disease, hunger, unemployment, crime, and political oppression. It promotes internal peace; without adequate protection of life and property, systems collapse into anarchy. Citizens require protection from external attacks and the devastating consequences of civil strife, economic injustice, and environmental degradation. Security is therefore essential for national reunification and sustainable development (Avis, 2020). Ewetan and Urhie (2014) argue that security has been central to development debates for decades. Since the Cold War, the concept has deepened from the national level to society and individuals, and from military to non-military concerns. National security involves the physical protection of citizens and territorial integrity, contributing to the economic well-being and prosperity of Nigerians and their foreign partners. Ultimately, security is linked to safety and the elimination of threats to personal injury (Avis, 2020).

Therefore, this concept is usually related to reducing the threat to value, especially to the survival of individuals, groups, or objects in a short period. Security is an activity that protects the country, people,



and community property from future threats, dangers, incidents, and all other forms of danger. "National security" is seen as the physical protection and protection of citizens and our territorial integrity, and contributes to the economic well-being and prosperity of Nigerians in a safe environment that promotes their national interests and the interests of her foreign partners. In addition, safety refers to the prevention of hidden dangers and harmful interference in daily life in the home, office, or community. Ewetan and Urhie believe that security should especially be linked to peace, safety, happiness, and protection of human and material resources, or to eliminate the threat of personal injury. Consider mechanisms specifically designed to mitigate the most serious and immediate threats that will prevent people from pursuing their valuable value. (Avis, 2020).

Theoretical Framework

Human Security Theory

The human security theory, according to the United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security as noted in General Assembly resolution 66/290, "Human Security is an approach to assist member states in identifying and addressing widespread and cross-cutting challenges to the survival, livelihood and dignity of their people". In today's world, the many threats from protracted crises, violent conflicts, natural disasters, persistent poverty, epidemics, and economic downturn, impose hardships and undercut prospects for peace, stability, and sustainable development. Such crises are complex, entailing multiple forms of human insecurity. Dorn (2022) argue that human security can be mirrored and understood from the 1994 Human Development Report, which defined human security as, people, "Safety from chronic threats and protection from sudden hurtful disruption in the patterns of daily life". Seven types of security were listed as components of human security: economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal (physical) security, community security, and political security. Gregoratti (2023) opined that the human security approach to national and international security gives primacy to human beings and their complex social and economic interactions. The concept of human security represents a departure from orthodox security studies, which focus on the security of the state. The subjects of human security approach are individuals and its end goals is the protection of people from traditional (i.e military) and non-traditional threats such as poverty and disease. The inputs and relevance, of the human security theory as clearly buttressed above to the study, reveals the following:

The many conflicts in Nigeria's Fourth Republic with reference to ~~the~~ banditry affects mostly the human's physical/personal, economic life in terms of means of survival like farming, livestock farming, fishing, trading etc. Those targeted are innocent civilians. The issue of internally displacement as a result of the masses fleeing to avoid Boko Haram mayhem, remains a terrible human security and humanitarian issue. The internally displayed suffers from severe neglect, as they find themselves living in unsanitary environments: poor housing, and poor hygiene, exposure to nature because most of their place of refuge have no window or door etc. Some are exposed to environmental inconveniences because they stay in classroom buildings, fields, uncompleted and abandoned buildings. They commonly face fear and threat due to the trauma from gunmen, kidnappers and bandit attack, rape, molestation and kidnapping etc. Hunger, loss of farmlands, livestock and other source of livelihoods are all human security issues. The incessant targeting of military/security personnels and their bases throw weights to the problem of human insecurity (Kamta et al., 2020).

Systemic Theory

To understand the contemporary state dispensation, systemic analysis serves as the primary postulation used by social scientists to analyze the political system. Systems theory is an attempt to apply scientific methods in political science using a method that is open, explicit and verifiable. The theory came as a result of the need for improvement in the study of political system through accurate predictions, using general laws that have universal application like the classical Newtonian physics. Consequently, systemic analysis in political science has its origin in social, biology and physical arrangements. The central thrust and guiding concept in the systemic analysis is the concept of "system". A system can be defined as a set or group of interacting, interrelated, or interdependent parts or elements forming a complex and integrated whole. Systems have interconnectivity: the various parts of a system have functional as well as structural relationships between each other. A system emphasizes relationships and



not individuals. There are opened and closed systems. An open system usually interacts with some entities in their environment. A closed system is isolated from its environment (Easton, 1953).

The idea of Systemic analysis in political science anchored by David Easton, represented a vast improvement over the then prevailing mechanistic theories of David Easton and others. His primary interest is to understand how political system changes in type from the traditional to the modern. He assumes that modern systems are more efficient in coping with the political problems in a state than the traditional ones. Another assumption of Easton as supported by Almond is that political change can be seen in terms of development, that there is logic to the process of development and that it is possible to explain and even predict cycles of short range or long range change of the political system in response to various kind of environmental pressures (Easton, 1953; Almond, 1970 cited in Giddens, 1984, Geertz, 1973 & Huntington, 1996).

Furthermore, he outlined an approach to understanding political systems that took into account not only its structural components (institutions) but also their functions within the system as a whole. Thus, instead of focusing on such concepts as institution, organization, or group, David turned to role and structure. Role can be seeing as the interacting units of political system while structure is a pattern of interrelated roles or pattern of interactions (Almond, 1970 cited in Eisenstadt, 2018). Hence, he sees system as total interactions among units within the totality, and stability in these interactions, which he describes as changing equilibrium. Almond defined a political system as “that system of interactions to be found in all independent societies which performs the functions of integration and adaptation (both internally and vis-à-vis other societies) by means of employment, or threat of employment, of more or less legitimate physical compulsion. Three things emerge from Almond’s definition of political system (David, 1953:32).

The Application of Systemic Analysis on Nigeria’s Porous Border

To relate the centrality of systemic analysis to the work is that no country of the world operates in a vacuum, as countries relates through various medium of exchange and relations locally and internationally, the threat to national security of lives and properties, security apparatus and government proactive measure for the security of its citizenry, development and wholeness becomes centre of concern as a set or unit of the state fails to carry out its expected role for the whole to work effectively and efficient. Systemic analysis views the world as a complex system of interconnected parts and in relation to political science, a political system is made up of several sub-groups economic, political, cultural, educational, social etc. David Easton (1953) defines political system as the system of interactions in any society through which binding or authoritative decisions are made and implemented. He argued that political life is a complex set of processes through which certain kinds of inputs are converted into outputs referred to as authoritative policies. The political system takes inputs in the form of demands and support from the society. Systems maintenance requires filtering devices referred to as "gatekeepers" that limit the demands entering the conversion process.

Nexus between Border Porousness and Insecurity in Nigeria

Borders are geostrategic elements defining statehood and sovereignty via land, air, and sea. While international organizations like the United Nations respect these boundaries as bedrocks of territorial integrity, borders are also exploited for transnational crimes including human trafficking, arms proliferation, and terrorist financing. Globalization, while promoting free movement, has simultaneously facilitated these organized crimes. Nigeria covers 923,768 square kilometers, sharing a 4,900km boundary with Chad, Cameroon, Benin, and Niger (Abdulaziz, 2021). Of this, only 853km is coastline. Nigeria Immigration Service (NIS) Comptroller-General David S. Paradang revealed in 2014 that while the country had 84 approved borders, there were over 1,400 illegal routes. Illegal entry points in Ogun and Adamawa states (83 and 80 respectively) significantly outnumber approved routes. Smuggling corridors exist around Jibia, Illela, Ruwawuri, and Kamba. In areas like Daura and Kongolom, boundaries lack social or psychological reality; residents utilize numerous unnamed entry points through farmlands (Abdulaziz, 2021).



Poor policing is exacerbated by financial graft, where security personnel "grease palms" to allow illicit activities. Between Katsina and the Magama border, fourteen bribery spots were identified along a 30-kilometer stretch (Abdulaziz, 2021). Victims like Sani Umar describe masked assailants invading Batsari on motorbikes, gaining access through the Rugan forest via the poorly policed 1,497km border with Niger Republic. Bandits from Niger frequently align with local groups to attack communities (The Cable Network 2021). In response, communities in Illela and Konmi (Niger Republic) work in synergy to forestall criminal activities through intelligence sharing (Annabi, 2021). Security agents have assisted in fighting rustling and kidnapping, while locals engage as vigilantes. Odunsi (2021) notes that banditry has replaced Boko Haram and ISWAP as Nigeria's greatest challenge. Porous borders, fueled by poor leadership and the failure of authorities to enforce laws, allow terrorists to move weaponry unhindered. This failure violates Section 14(2) (b) of the 1999 Constitution, which mandates the government to secure its people (Odunsi, 2021).

Factors Promoting Porous Border and Insecurity Persistent in Nigeria

There is no doubt that Nigeria has great potential for greatness, particularly with its large population consisting of a dynamic workforce, a growing economy, abundant natural resources, diverse raw materials, huge oil reserves, and intellectual reservoirs. Despite these aspects of greatness, Nigeria continues to be a developing country struggling the most frantically to find its feet among the nations' committees due to terrorist activities. From the research findings, the following factors promoting porous border and insecurity persistent in Nigeria are discussed below:

Bad Governance and Poor Leadership

Bad governance and poor leadership remain Nigeria's fundamental cause of porous border and insecurity from the past till the present. Any government anywhere has the primary function of protection of lives, providing basic services such as water, electricity, good road network, quality education, and general infrastructure. Ironically, these basic things are not there in Nigeria and the people, in general, are left frustrated and demoralized. Demoralization and anger provide a fertile ground for aggression through border infiltration of arms. This has led to violent cultures such as thuggery, corruption, and abduction since 1999 and 2009 (Hazen & Horner, 2007 in Charas et al., 2021).

High Level of Unemployment

NBS (2019) puts Nigeria's unemployment rate at 23.1%, with youth unemployment at 55.4% and the Northwest poverty index at 77.7%. These figures increase yearly as institutions graduate youths expecting opportunities (Adegoke, 2020). Graduate anxiety turns to aggression, fueling bandit attacks. Rising crime is blamed on increasing unemployment, as idle youths engage in illegal activities to meet contemporary trends (Kilishi et al. 2014 as cited in Abdulkabir, 2017). Enticed by the "get rich quick syndrome," jobless youths resort to violent crimes like banditry (Adagba et al., 2012; Epron, 2019).

Easy Access to Forest

Easy access to the nation's forests aids terrorist activities; these areas are interspersed by wetlands, rocks, and caves, far from centers of governance. Banditry has thrived in remote villages close to forested regions in the north-west where there is little security presence (Gaye 2018). Forests offer perfect locations as hideouts for criminals to evade arrest. The reluctance of security operatives to enter these areas is due to inefficiency, connivance of local people, lack of sophisticated equipment, and poor motivation of the Nigerian security forces (Olaniyan & Yahaya, 2016).

Arms Proliferation

Another driving factor of banditry in northwestern Nigeria is arms proliferation. There has been an incremental influx of small arms and light weapons (SALWs) from the Sahel since the fall of Ghadaffi's regime in Libya (Gaye 2018). These end up with non-state actors like terrorists and bandits. In September 2018, troops and DSS personnel arrested two suspected dealers along the Funtua-Gusau road with 1,479 rounds of 7.62mm ammunition intended for bandits (Adeniyi, 2018). Such incidents are prevalent across northwestern Nigeria where banditry is the order of the day (Okoli & Ugwu, 2019).



Porous Borders

According to Addo (2016), bandits operate successfully because they are always armed with sophisticated weapons that even the police find difficult to withstand. These weapons enter through porous borders due to insufficient security agents and corruption, allowing unmolested passage. This has led to an unregulated inflow of Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALWs), enabling militancy to thrive. Elazeh (2016) reported that Nigeria hosts over 70% of approximately 8 million illegal weapons in the region. Additionally, Akowe & Kayode (2014) note that porous borders contribute to the uncontrollable influx of migrants from Niger, Chad, and Benin, promoting criminal activities.

Marginalization and Inequalities

Current governance is charged with ethnic disparity and marginalization in infrastructure provision, compounding security issues (Nwannah, 2021). Key political positions favoring Northern extraction over the South-East have fueled agitations for the Biafra Republic and the Islamic Movement of Nigeria (IMN), leading to security breaches. Disparate life chances create a sense of deprivation and oppression among the youth, resulting in dissatisfaction and loss of hope. Consequently, disillusioned young people voice their frustration through legal or illegal means, increasing national uncertainty and growing instability across the country as life chances remain extremely disparate (Dauda & Abdurashed, 2020).

Unpunished Crimes

Criminal impunity is a fundamental factor engendering crime in Nigeria. Banditry persists because the criminal justice system fails to effectively sanction offenders (Dauda & Abdurashed, 2020). While external sources identify specific actors in the Nigeria-bandit conflict, these individuals often live freely within the country without facing legal consequences. This inability to enforce laws makes banditry appear as a viable livelihood rather than a crime. Additionally, high unemployment and volatile inflationary trends further promote robbery and armed violence, as the lack of effective punishment encourages the prevalence of these illegal activities across the federation (Dauda & Abdurashed, 2020).

State Governor's Lack of Synergy

Insecurity persists because state governors fail to coordinate efforts against bandits and terrorist groups. When bandits are driven from one state, such as Sokoto, they find refuge in neighboring Kaduna, Zamfara, or Katsina, returning once the pressure subsides (Bashir, 2014). This lack of unity allows criminals to exploit administrative gaps. Furthermore, although designated as Chief Security Officers, governors lack the practical authority to direct security operations independently. They must rely on the federal government for military action, allowing bandits to complete attacks and retreat before a response is coordinated, thereby undermining regional stability and safety.

Government Neglect and Weak Local Government Leadership

Poverty and hunger are major drivers of banditry, exacerbated by the neglect of citizens by all tiers of government. Financial desperation, coupled with readily available arms, increases insecurity. While bandits reside within local government areas or nearby forests, weak leadership at the grassroots level fails to track or apprehend them (Beland, 2016). The Local Government, responsible for development, lacks the strength to prevent criminals from operating freely. Until the government addresses the basic needs of its citizens and strengthens local leadership, terrorist sects will continue to find fertile ground for recruitment and operations within neglected communities.

Inadequate Equipment Government Agencies

A weak security system, characterized by inadequate weaponry and training, contributes to alarming insecurity across Nigeria (Achumba, Ighomereho, & Akpor-Rabaro, 2013). Security personnel often lack the expertise to handle evolving threats effectively. Furthermore, personal, ethnic, or religious sentiments sometimes prejudice personnel, leading them to serve communal interests over national ones. This creates saboteurs who leak vital information or connive with criminals to facilitate weapon acquisition and escapes (Achumba et al., 2013). The lack of modern equipment and a professional behavioral disposition among agencies hinders the ability to defend national values and protect citizens from harm.



Corruption

Corruption is central to government failure and infrastructure collapse, resulting in large-scale insecurity. It privatizes public life, bypassing representation and choice while fueling unemployment and poverty (Charas, 2021). Previous administrations, from Murtala Mohammed in 1975 to the Anti-Corruption Act in 2000, attempted to address these systemic issues with varying degrees of focus on accountability and transparency. However, corruption continues to drive instability by depriving youths of opportunities. Most banditry in Nigeria is economically motivated, with criminal gangs predominantly composed of indigenous citizens who exploit the systemic weaknesses created by widespread corrupt practices (Punch Newspaper, 2021).

Conclusion

In conclusion, it is noteworthy that borders are vital to national security, yet economic hardship and political instability drive citizens and migrants across porous boundaries. Since Nigeria's return to democracy in 1999, armed violence has surged, enabled by the illegal proliferation of firearms entering through unchecked borders. Despite government efforts, the volume of illicit ammunition in circulation now outpaces population growth, leading to exponential increases in violence. From religious crises in the North to militancy in the South-South and banditry in the Northwest, these challenges threaten the country's corporate existence. The prevalence of communal conflicts and the Boko Haram insurgency necessitates immediate attention to safeguard territorial integrity. Addressing Nigeria's porous borders and persistent insecurity requires a systemic solution that recognizes the interdependencies within the political system. By analyzing the relationships and feedback loops between components like governance, economy, and security apparatus, effective strategies can be developed. Strengthening border controls and addressing the underlying drivers of crime are essential for reducing insecurity and ensuring national stability. Hence, Nigeria's porous border and insecurity require a comprehensive approach, focused on both tactical security and systemic reform, is required to mitigate these risks and protect the lives and resources of the Nigerian people.

Suggestions

From the above conclusion the following suggestions are drawn:

1. The need for effective border policing, with the provision of adequately resources like weaponry, patrol vans, logistics and other requirements to encourage and embolden the border policing.
2. Efficiency utilizing of security votes, in a manner that shows transparency and accountability. The soldiers and security personnel should feel the dividends of security votes. This is capable of improving their patriotism in border policing.
3. Closure of illegal entry points. This should be done by a tour of joint task force comprising the Army, Navy, Air force, Police, DSS, Immigration, Customs, Civil Defense, etc. This goes alongside periodic patrols to display alertness and show of gallantry.

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