

The Dangers of Erosion to Building Foundation and Human Life in Akwa Ibom State: Investigating the Remedies

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Abstract: This study investigated the dangers of erosion to building foundations and human life in Akwa Ibom State, with a focus on identifying effective remedies to mitigate its impacts. It examined how factors such as heavy rainfall, loose soil composition, poor drainage systems, and unplanned human activities have accelerated soil degradation, leading to gully formation, building collapse, and displacement of residents. Expost-Facto design was adopted. The research was carried out in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. The targeted population for the study comprised all the environmental scientists in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. Stratified sampling technique was used to select 60 Environmental Scientist from each of the senatorial district, this gave a sample size of 180 respondents used to carry out this research. The instrument used for data collection was a structured questionnaire titled “Dangers of Erosion to Building Foundation and Human Life Questionnaire (DEBFHLQ)”. Face and content validation of the instrument was carried out by an expert in test, measurement, and evaluation in order to ensure that the instrument has the accuracy, appropriateness, and completeness for the study under consideration. The reliability coefficient obtained was 0.85, and this was high enough to justify the use of the instrument. Descriptive statistics was used to answer the research question and regression analysis was used to test the hypothesis. The result proved that there is significant effect of erosion on building foundations in Akwa Ibom State. The result also proved that erosion has a significant impact on human life in the State. In conclusion, erosion poses a grave environmental and structural threat to Akwa Ibom State, endangering building foundations and human life through continuous soil degradation, flooding, and gully formation. It was recommended that, government should design and construct efficient and well-connected drainage networks across erosion-prone areas to properly channel storm water and prevent surface runoff from eroding building foundations and surrounding soils.

Keywords: Dangers, Erosion, Building Foundation, Human Life, Akwa Ibom State And Remedies.

INTRODUCTION

Erosion poses a significant and escalating threat to the built environment and human safety in Akwa Ibom State, driven by a combination of steep rainfall events, loose coastal-plain soils, and rapidly increasing development. According to a 2020 state study, the dominant soils of Akwa Ibom are often highly leached, sandy or sandy-loam based and thus inherently fragile, making them particularly susceptible to splash, sheet, rill and especially gully erosion. As these processes progress, they undermine the very ground beneath foundations, rendering houses, roads and critical infrastructure vulnerable.

When erosion begins to erode the soil directly beneath or adjacent to structures, the effects are profound. In Uyo and its environs, gullies have extended through built-up streets, undermining the foundations of homes and other buildings, and in many instances leading to subsidence or outright collapse. This weakening of foundation support not only diminishes structural integrity but places occupants at acute risk—especially during heavy rain events when further soil loss may occur. The human toll is real: in June 2024 the community of Afaha Oku Village in Uyo appealed for urgent government intervention after more than 50 buildings were reported submerged or at severe risk of collapse due to advancing erosion.

The broader human-life implications extend beyond individual buildings. Erosion can sever roads and access routes, isolate communities, force relocations, and lead to secondary hazards such as flooding, snake infestation and landslides. For instance, the Afaha Oku report noted that residents, having vacated their homes, now contend with displacement, unsafe living conditions and loss of livelihood. Moreover, the cost to society—through lost homes, emergency rescue, infrastructure repair and disrupted lives—is substantial and increasing. The state government has acknowledged that many homes, businesses and vital institutions have already been displaced by erosion and flooding.

Given these trends, investing in appropriate remedies is not just desirable—it is imperative. Remedial efforts must address drainage and runoff management (to prevent water concentration that drives gully formation), slope stabilization (e.g., vegetation, geotextiles, retaining structures), proper land use enforcement (to restrict borrow-pits, uncontrolled excavations) and foundation design adjustments in erosion-prone zones. For example, in August 2023 the governor of Akwa Ibom banned unauthorized borrow-pit excavations in the state, aiming to halt one major source of topographic disturbance and increased erosion. Ultimately, by investing in these structural and policy-based interventions now, the state has the opportunity to protect human life, safeguard homes and maintain the viability of its built environment for years to come.

Statement of problem

Erosion has become a serious problem in Akwa Ibom State, causing damage to building foundations and putting people's lives at risk. When the soil around buildings is washed away, the ground becomes weak, leading to cracks and even the collapse of houses. Poor drainage systems and bad land use make the situation worse. Many people are not aware of how to prevent erosion, and government efforts have not solved the problem. As a result, many families lose their homes and lives in fear during heavy rains. This study therefore aims to find out the extent of dangers of erosion to building foundation and human lives in Akwa Ibom State and to provide possible solutions to the menace for the safe Akwa Ibom State for living without fear of erosion and other natural disasters.

Research Objectives

1. To find out the dangers of erosion to building foundation in Akwa Ibom State.
2. To examine the dangers of erosion to human life in Akwa Ibom State.

Research Questions

1. What are the dangers of erosion to building foundation in Akwa Ibom State?
2. What are the dangers of erosion to human life in Akwa Ibom State?

Null hypotheses

1. There is no significant effect of erosion on building foundations in Akwa Ibom State.
2. There is no significant effect of erosion on human life in Akwa Ibom State.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Concept of Erosion

Erosion is the set of natural processes that detach, transport and redistribute soil, rock and sediment from one place to another by agents such as running water, waves, wind, ice (glaciers) and gravity; human activities greatly accelerate many of these processes (Tan et al., 2022). From a conceptual standpoint, erosion is distinct from deposition, which occurs when transported material settles, and weathering, which breaks down material in place. Since the rate and pattern of erosion result from their interaction, understanding erosion entails tying together physical causes (climate, hydrology, waves, and wind), surface characteristics (slope, vegetation cover, and soil texture), and human land use.



Fig. 1: An erosion

Erosion occurs on both spatial and temporal scales. It shapes valleys, coastlines, and continental sediment budgets at larger scales and over longer periods of time. At smaller scales and over shorter periods, it manifests as sheet wash, rills, and gullies on agricultural slopes. Though they all contribute to the global redistribution of sediment and related biogeochemical fluxes, different agents dominate at different scales. For example, raindrop and overland flow processes dominate hill slope erosion, channel shear stress dominates riverbank and bed erosion, wave and current processes dominate coastal retreat, wind drives Aeolian deflation in dry lands, and ice abrades bedrock in glaciated landscapes (Tan et al., 2022; Pang et al., 2023).

Each agent has a different physical mechanism of erosion. Wind erosion creates deflation and surface abrasion and creates dunes; glacial erosion works by plucking and abrasion; mass wasting (landslides, debris flows) releases large sediment pulses when gravity surpasses resisting strength; and water erosion includes splash detachment by raindrops, concentration of sheet and rill flow, gully incision, and fluvial entrainment and transport in channels (Ghorbanzadeh et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2024; Smail et al., 2022). Particle size sorting, rate dependency, and seasonality are some of the unique fingerprints of each mechanism, and their mitigating implications vary.

Natural erosion is frequently exacerbated by human activity, resulting in what is known as accelerated or anthropogenic erosion. Surface processes quickly shift from slow background denudation to high sediment yields and gully formation due to deforestation, unsustainable farming, overgrazing, road development, mining, and poorly managed construction. These factors also expose soil, concentrate runoff, and alter sediment connections. Contemporary studies and modelling efforts show that land-use change is a primary driver of increased sediment fluxes to rivers and coasts in many regions (Borrelli et al., 2021; Tan et al., 2022).

Prediction and management heavily rely on quantifying and modelling erosion. Improved regional and global erosion models that integrate land management, climate forcing, and sediment routing (such as new Earth-system-aware erosion modules), high-resolution remote sensing for mapping shorelines and gullies, and machine-learning techniques for mapping susceptibility are some of the advancements since 2020. In addition to revealing significant uncertainty regarding sub-grid processes, extreme rainfall, and sediment connectivity paths,

these tools aid in the estimation of soil loss rates, sediment delivery to rivers, and probable locations for intervention. Therefore, a combination of remote sensing, field measurement, and process modelling is still required (Borrelli et al., 2021; Tan et al., 2022; Li et al., 2024).

Erosion has a wide range of negative effects on the environment and society, including decreased topsoil and agricultural productivity, increased reservoir siltation, deteriorated water quality, habitat loss, increased danger of flooding, and dust emissions that impact the climate and air quality. These impacts create feedbacks (for example, catchment degradation reducing sediment supply to beaches, which can exacerbate coastal erosion) and illustrate why integrated land-sea planning and sediment management are needed (Pang et al., 2023; Sun et al., 2024).

Erosion mitigation requires a combination of engineering and biological interventions as well as proper governance. In rivers, bank stabilization and sediment management decrease channel erosion and downstream siltation; on coasts, soft engineering (beach nourishment and managed retreat) and nature-based solutions supplement hard structures where appropriate; on land, conservation agriculture, contour farming, reforestation, riparian buffers, gully remediation, and road design decrease runoff and increase infiltration. Importantly, successful mitigation requires matching measures to the dominant processes and scale, securing local buy-in, and integrating monitoring so interventions can be adapted as climate and land use change (Pang et al., 2023; Borrelli et al., 2021).

Concept of Building Foundation

The state has responded with everything from government investments in control works to academic studies and pilot rehabilitation initiatives, but experts emphasize that efforts are still dispersed and underfunded in comparison to the scope of the issue. Significant funding for erosion control and watershed management is mentioned in Akwa Ibom government statements and project plans. New research identifies promising technical options (geotextiles, regarding, and vegetative stabilization) as well as the necessity of community involvement, better drainage standards, coordinated land-use planning, and ongoing monitoring. Ali, Rahman and Chowdhury (2021) define the foundation as the “critical interface” between a building and the supporting ground, ensuring stability and serviceability throughout the lifespan of the structure.

In addition to transferring loads, foundations shield structures from dampness, frost, and soil movement, all of which can shorten a building's lifespan. In order to forecast soil-structure interaction and increase safety margins, modern practice incorporates geotechnical studies and models. Yuan and Zhang (2023) emphasize that contemporary foundation design increasingly uses advanced testing methods to ensure long-term performance and resilience.

There are two main categories of foundations: shallow and deep. Deep foundations, such piles and caissons, are utilized when surface soils are weak or prone to significant settlements, whilst shallow foundations, like spread footings and mat slabs, are appropriate for soils with good carrying capability. Rahman, Uddin and Khan (2021) show that hybrid systems such as piled rafts combine the benefits of both categories for more efficient load transfer.

Resilience and sustainability in foundation engineering are highlighted by recent studies. Among the innovations are the use of recycled or low-carbon materials in foundation components and the integration of smart sensors to track loads and settlements in real time. Zhou, Wang and Sun (2023) document how such smart and sustainable practices are transforming foundations from passive supports into active elements of building performance.

Concept of Human Life

Every aspect of human life—biological, social, psychological, and philosophical—offers a different perspective on what it is to be alive. Fundamentally, biological processes such as conception, growth, reproduction, and eventual death are the beginning of human life. Although other living things go through similar processes, human existence is unique due to the complexity of cognitive processes and self-awareness Varki and Brower (2022) argue that the

human capacity to understand mortality, create culture, and develop language fundamentally separates us from other species. In addition to enabling survival, these cognitive characteristics encourage people to investigate abstract ideas like legacy, morality, and purpose. Therefore, life is a conscious experience moulded by cognition and knowledge of being rather than merely a biological function.

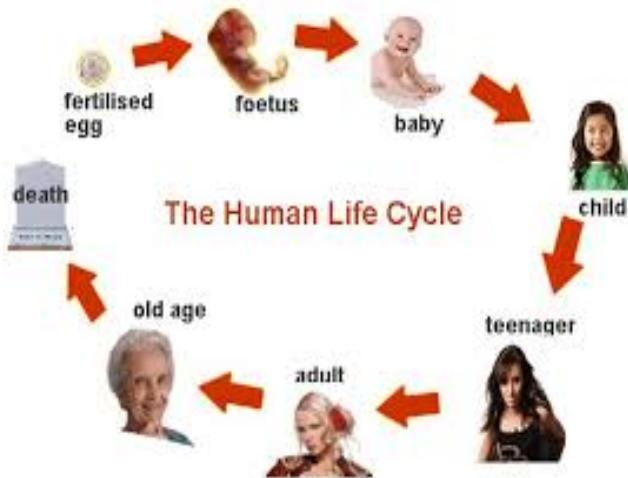


Fig. 2: Human Life cycle

Human life is profoundly impacted by social and cultural contexts in addition to biology. Social conventions, education, society, and family all influence people from birth. These factors help define values, mould identities, and direct behavior. In many cultures, social roles and group contributions are frequently used to construct the meaning of life. Taylor (2018) highlights that people find identity through culturally defined sources such as religion, language, traditions, and interpersonal relationships. In this sense, life is a shared trip, and how people relate to one another frequently determines the meaning of that journey. This social lens shows that being human is not an isolated experience but rather a connected one, with our lives entwined with those of others and meaning co-created through these relationships.

The psychological and emotional aspects of life are equally significant since they contribute to the complexity of each person's experience of life. Personal development, emotional stability, and mental health are important determinants of life fulfilment and meaning. According to Ryff and Singer (2016), well-being is not merely the absence of illness but the presence of factors like purpose in life, autonomy, and personal development. These characteristics enable people to deal with life's obstacles and transformations while preserving their identity. For instance, emotional resilience makes it possible for people to find purpose in their suffering. In this sense, our inner world influences the caliber of our external experiences; thus, life is not just about what happens to us but also about how we react to it on the inside.

Human life's ethical and philosophical aspects bring up important issues regarding its worth, rights, and limitations. Bioethics revolves around discussions of when life begins, who has the authority to terminate it, and what constitutes a meaningful existence, particularly in this era of rapid medical and technological development. Green and Palpant (2020) emphasize that such questions are increasingly relevant in discussions about abortion, end-of-life care, and genetic engineering. These problems make civilizations face not just what life is but also what it should be. The dynamic and ever-evolving character of these debates demonstrates that the idea of human life is not static but rather evolves with scientific understanding, societal norms, and ethical viewpoints.

Prevalence of Erosion in Akwa Ibom State

The most obvious and pervasive forms of erosion in Akwa Ibom State are coastline retreat along the coast and gully erosion in the uplands and urban peripheries. While GIS and remote sensing

work on Ibendo and nearby coastal LGAs reveal net shoreline loss over multi-decadal periods, several field studies and surveys record active gullies slicing into the coastal plain sands around Uyo and other inland communities. These academic and applied assessments agree: erosion in Akwa Ibom is not isolated or occasional — it is a widespread, recurring landscape process that has become a major environmental concern for many local communities (Abraham et al., 2023).

The causes include a combination of human demands and innate vulnerability. Splash, rill, and quick gully development are encouraged by the state's coastal-plain sands, acidic, highly erodible soils, heavy tropical rainfall, and concentrated surface runoff. Site studies of Akwa Ibom gullies have consistently shown that deforestation, the lack of vegetative cover, poor road construction techniques, growing unplanned urbanization, and inadequate storm water drainage in towns all increase these natural susceptibilities. According to Udosen et al. (2021), along the coast, rising sea levels, wave action and human activities such as shoreline modification and sand mining accelerate coastal retreat. Long-term and short-term effects include the loss of cropland and productive topsoil, the deterioration of homes and local roads, the threat to community infrastructure, and the disruption of livelihoods, particularly farming and fishing in coastal settlements. While island and shoreline villages have experienced land loss and displacement due to coastal erosion and waves, media reports and project records document instances in which expanding gullies have endangered dozens to hundreds of homes in Uyo and nearby areas.. Beyond property loss, erosion reduces agricultural capacity and increases sedimentation in waterways, compounding flood risks and ecological damage in estuaries and mangroves (Abraham et al., 2018).

The state has responded with everything from government investments in control works to academic studies and pilot rehabilitation initiatives, but experts emphasize that efforts are still dispersed and underfunded in comparison to the scope of the issue. Significant funding for erosion control and watershed management is mentioned in Akwa Ibom government statements and project plans. New research identifies promising technical options (geotextiles, regarding, and vegetative stabilization) as well as the necessity of community involvement, better drainage standards, coordinated land-use planning, and ongoing monitoring. To reduce prevalence sustainably will require marrying local rehabilitation actions with upstream watershed management, coastal protection measures, and policies that prevent new development in high-risk zones.

Types of Erosion

The process by which soil, rock, or other surface material separates and is carried by gravity, wind, water, or ice, or by human activity, is called erosion. It is easier to target monitoring and mitigation methods across landscapes and coasts when one is aware of the many types of erosion. The main types are shown below, along with descriptions and recent research to back them up.

➤ Sheet and rill (water) erosion.

While rill erosion is the creation of tiny, channelized flows (rills) that concentrate runoff and remove more material, sheet erosion is the uniform loss of a thin layer of soil by surface runoff. These forms are often the first stage of water-driven land degradation on slopes and cultivated fields; they control initial soil loss and later evolve into larger features if unchecked (Tan et al., 2022). Recent global modelling highlights how sheet and rill processes contribute substantially to upland sediment flux and landscape change. (Tan, 2022).

➤ Gully erosion.

Gully erosion occurs when rills enlarge into deeper, non-repairable channels (gullies), often caused by concentrated runoff, land-use change, and soil instability. Gullies can remove large volumes of soil, fragment landscapes and threaten infrastructure and agricultural land. Recent

studies emphasize gully mapping and susceptibility modelling using remote sensing and machine learning to identify hotspots and drivers (Ghorbanzadeh et al., 2020; Fan et al., 2024).



Fig.3: Gully erosion

➤ **Riverbank (fluvial) erosion and channel incision.**

Shear force from flowing water separating bank material causes lateral migration, bank collapse, and channel deepening (incision) in fluvial erosion along riverbanks and channel beds. Floodplain stability, sediment loads, and reservoir siltation are all impacted by this process. Contemporary river-basin studies link climatic variability and land-use change to increased bank erosion and altered sediment delivery to downstream systems (Tan, 2022).

➤ **Coastal erosion (shoreline/ cliff erosion).**



Fig.4: Coastal erosion (shoreline/ cliff erosion)

Beach retreat, dune loss, cliff collapse, and coastline recession are examples of coastal erosion caused by waves, tides, currents, and sea level change. In many areas, coastal erosion has increased due to climate-driven storm intensity and sea level rise, which has prompted in-depth analyses of coastal change processes and adaptation issues (Pang et al., 2023). In addition to destroying land, coastal erosion endangers livelihoods, habitats, and infrastructure.

➤ **Wind (Aeolian) erosion.**

Wind separates and carries loose particles (deflation) and scours surfaces in arid and semi-arid areas, creating landforms like loess deposits and dunes. Dust storms, significant soil loss, and a decline in agricultural production can all result from wind erosion. Recent global susceptibility mapping and modelling (including deep learning approaches) show where land is most prone to wind erosion and how vegetation and climate trends influence rates (Gholami et al., 2024; Sun et al., 2024).

➤ **Glacial and ice erosion.**

U-shaped valleys, fjords, and cirques are sculpted by the abrading and plucking of bedrock and sediment caused by glacial activity. Glacial erosion affects sediment flux to downstream systems and regulates landscape change over long timeframes, despite being concentrated in frigid locations. Contemporary glaciological studies continue to quantify erosion rates under changing ice dynamics (see long-term geomorphology reviews; Tan, 2022).

➤ **Mass-wasting / slope failure (landslides, avalanches, debris flows).**

Gravity-driven downslope material movement, such as avalanches, rockfalls, debris flows, and landslides, is referred to as mass wasting. Heavy rains, earthquakes, slope undercutting, and human disturbance are among the triggers. These events rapidly mobilise large volumes of earth, causing acute erosion and sediment redistribute ion; recent remote-sensing studies document their increasing visibility and hazard mapping importance in many regions. (Smail et al., 2022).

➤ **Collapse and piping (karst and subsurface erosion).**

Collapse erosion (piping) occurs where subsurface dissolution (karst) or removal of fine particles creates voids that suddenly fail, leading to sinkholes or localized collapse. In agricultural and urban settings, piping undermines foundations and contributes to episodic erosion. Advances in monitoring and InSAR mapping help detect precursor deformation and pipe-related erosion (Smail et al., 2022).

➤ **Anthropogenic (human-induced) erosion and accelerated erosion.**

Deforestation, overgrazing, improper tillage, mining, road development, and urbanization are some examples of human activities that frequently speed up natural erosion processes, transforming gradual geomorphic change into swift landscape degradation. Contemporary literature stresses that land-use change and agricultural practices are major drivers of increased soil loss and sediment flux at global and regional scales (Tan, 2022; Ghorbanzadeh et al., 2020).

➤ **Combined and secondary erosion (compound hazards).**

Many erosion events are compound, such as landslides caused by earthquakes that modify river courses, shoreline erosion brought on by coastal storms that increase river sediment loads, or sediment regime changes brought on by dam/reservoir operations. Recent reviews highlight the need to consider compound processes when assessing risk and designing mitigation (Pang et al., 2023; Smail et al., 2022).

Types of Building Foundation

In order to properly transfer building loads to the subsurface, manage settlement, and offer stability against overturning and lateral forces, foundations serve as the designed interface between a structure and the ground (Wu, 2020). The main factors influencing the choice of foundation type are structural loads, soil stratigraphy and strength, groundwater conditions, and construction constraints. To optimize foundation design, modern geotechnical practice combines traditional bearing-capacity theory with numerical modelling and monitoring (Pantelidis, 2024).

➤ **Shallow foundations**

When competent bearing strata are close to the surface, shallow foundations—which include isolated (pad) footings, strip (continuous) footings, and combined footings—are cost-effective and frequently utilised. Single columns are supported by isolated footings, load-bearing walls are supported by strip footings, and eccentric loads and property-line restrictions are addressed by combination or strap footings. Contemporary research has refined settlement prediction and bearing-capacity solutions for shallow footings on layered and non-homogeneous soils, improving safety margins while economizing concrete and excavation volumes (Wu, 2020; Pantelidis, 2024).

➤ **Raft (mat) foundations**

Slab-on-grade systems and raft (mat) foundations disperse loads over a wide area to lower unit bearing pressure in situations when surface soils are poor or loads are heavy. Raft foundations are frequently utilised beneath high-rise podiums, industrial slab loads, and basements. Recent studies highlight the value of mat optimization and interaction effects when rafts are combined with piles (piled-raft systems), showing that combined systems can reduce total pile length and settlement while improving structural stiffness (Yirsaw, 2023; Bralović et al., 2022).

➤ **Deep foundations**

When shallow soils are unable to properly support weights, deep foundations are required to transfer loads to capable strata at a depth. Bored piles (drilled shafts) and driven piles are the two main families of deep foundations. Driven piles—timber, steel, or precast concrete—derive capacity from skin friction and end bearing and are installed by impact or vibration; recent field investigations emphasize installation effects (set-up, negative skin friction) and improved capacity prediction in variable stratigraphy (Abdollahi, 2022). Bored piles (cast-in-situ drilled shafts) are preferred where vibration or noise is unacceptable, where very large diameters are needed, or where obstructions exist; modern design accounts for complex tip and shaft interaction under combined loading (Yirsaw, 2023).

➤ **micro piles and helical (screw) piles**

For restricted access sites, retrofits, or where obstruction to large plants exists, micro piles and helical (screw) piles provide versatile options. Micro piles—small-diameter, grouted, reinforced elements—are effective for underpinning and for transferring loads through weak near-surface soils to deeper competent layers. Helical piles transfer load through helically shaped plates and can be rapidly installed with limited disturbance. Comparative studies in the last five years demonstrate micro piles' reliability for underpinning and seismic retrofit where conventional piling is impractical (Abdullah, 2022; Chanda et al., 2023).

➤ **piled-raft foundation**

A growing design solution for very soft to moderately soft soils is the piled-raft foundation, which intentionally uses both raft and piles so the raft carries a portion of the load while piles control settlement and provide geotechnical safety. State-of-the-art reviews and numerical studies indicate that properly optimized piled-raft systems can be more economical and produce lower differential settlements than deep-only designs, provided pile–raft interaction is carefully modelled (Bralović et al., 2022; Chanda et al., 2023).

➤ **Stone/aggregate columns, vibro-compaction, dynamic compaction and geosynthetic reinforcement**

Techniques including stone/aggregate columns, vibro-compaction, dynamic compaction, and geosynthetic reinforcement increase bearing capacity and lessen differential settlement when ground improvement is preferred over deep foundations. Stone columns and vibro-techniques are cost-effective for compressible silts and soft clays, and contemporary research shows that combining geosynthetics with column methods can further enhance performance and reduce required column spacing (stone-column reviews, 2022–2023; Zornberg & Roodi, 2021).

➤ **Expansive clays, collapsible soils and liquefiable sands**

Problematic soils are addressed by special foundations: expansive clays, collapsible soils, and liquefiable sands necessitate customized solutions like drainage relief, deeper pile foundations, soil stabilization (lime/cement mixing), or compensated (floating) foundations that balance structural and excavated loads. Advances in geosynthetic applications and chemical stabilisers have provided practical mitigation pathways in regions affected by expansive or collapsible ground (Zornberg & Roodi, 2021; Pantelidis, 2024).

➤ **Underpinning and retrofit**

Lastly, underpinning and retrofit techniques (mini-piles, jet grouting, pressure grouting, and needle beams) are essential for bolstering current foundations, increasing their load capacity, and resolving settlement issues. Recent case studies document successful use of micro pile and helical-pile underpinning for historical structures and buildings requiring minimal disturbance during remedial works (Abdollahi, 2022; Chanda et al., 2023).

Danger of Erosion to Building Foundation

Typically, surface runoff, rainfall, flooding, wind, or man-made factors like deforestation and improper land-use practices cause erosion (Pimentel & Burgess, 2013). Rainwater and runoff frequently remove topsoil from the area surrounding construction sites, lowering the soil's ability to support weight. This procedure diminishes soil compaction, exposes foundation materials, and leaves gaps beneath the building (Adeyemi & Olalekan, 2019). While sandy soils are more likely to be washed away by swift-moving water, clayey soils may experience cycles of swelling and shrinking due to erosion. Erosion gradually erodes a foundation's stability, resulting in settlement and structural problems.

Erosion has a direct and destructive impact on building foundations. Some of the major dangers include:

➤ **Foundation Settlement and Cracking**

Uneven settlement of a structure occurs when soil beneath a foundation is removed by erosion. It results in differential settlement, which is the unequal sinking of portions of the foundation as a result of soil loss, causing fissures in the walls, floors, and structural beams, which lowers safety and aesthetics (Ogunribido, 2012).

➤ **Exposure and Deterioration of Materials**

Reinforced concrete foundations are frequently exposed to the elements due to erosion. The foundation's structural strength may be weakened by the rusting of steel reinforcement bars brought on by prolonged exposure to moisture. Foundation failure is accelerated over time by the combination of degraded components and weak soil. Exposure of foundation materials such as reinforced concrete accelerates deterioration through corrosion, especially when steel reinforcements come into contact with moisture and oxygen. (Adeyemi & Olalekan, 2019).

➤ **Scouring and Undermining**

Scouring, a process when water currents remove a lot of soil around foundation bases, is brought on by erosion in flood-prone places. Buildings near rivers and bridge foundations are frequently impacted by this. Severe erosion can lead to scouring, where floodwater washes away large sections of soil around a foundation which once compromised, foundations can break unexpectedly without warning, causing partial or total collapse (Faniran & Jeje, 2015).

➤ **Complete Structural Failure**

Erosion-induced foundation degradation can progress to complete building collapse if ignored. This has been seen in numerous Nigerian cities, where shoddy drainage and soil erosion have resulted in property damage and fatalities. These structural failures not only reduce the lifespan of buildings but also endanger human lives and economic investments. (Akinyemi et al., 2017).

Dangers of Erosion to Human life

Erosion directly threatens human life through sudden collapse and loss of shelter. Deep gullies and collapsing shorelines have repeatedly undermined houses, community buildings and access roads so that homes fall in or become uninhabitable, forcing urgent evacuations and sometimes causing fatalities when collapse happens without warning. Field and review studies of gully-prone regions in Nigeria document destroyed dwellings and communities made homeless

by active gullying, and flood/erosion events across recent years have produced loss of life and mass displacements (Oyati et al., 2021).

Erosion worsens public-health risks by contaminating drinking-water supplies and increasing exposure to waterborne disease. Runoff and eroded sediments transport faecal contaminants, heavy metals and other pollutants into wells, rivers and coastal waters; flooding associated with erosional processes amplifies outbreaks of diarrhoeal disease, vector-borne infections and malnutrition in affected populations. Recent public-health assessments from Nigerian flood and erosion contexts link increased diarrhoeal and water-quality problems to these disturbances.

Loss of livelihoods and food insecurity follow when erosion removes topsoil, agricultural land and fishing grounds. Intensive soil loss reduces crop yields and forces farmers to abandon fields; coastal retreat and shoreline loss shrink intertidal and mangrove areas that sustain fisheries and shell-fish harvesting. Studies of Nigerian coastal and gully-affected communities show livelihood disruption, reduced local food production and rising economic vulnerability after sustained erosion (Munzel et al., 2022).

Erosion also damages critical infrastructure and increases cascading risks that endanger lives over the longer term. Roads, bridges, drainage systems, and utility lines are frequently undermined by gully headward retreat and bank collapse, isolating communities and delaying emergency response; sedimentation and altered waterways raise flood risk downstream and degrade ecosystems that buffer storms. Recent vulnerability and loss-and-damage analyses emphasize how infrastructure loss and reduced resilience translate into both immediate fatalities (from collapse/flooding) and longer-term increases in mortality and morbidity from reduced access to services (Oloyede et al., 2022).

Mitigating Strategies to the dangers of Erosion to Building Foundation

Around the world, building foundations are seriously threatened by erosion, which is the slow removal of soil by forces like wind, water, and human activity. Sturdiness and longevity depend on the stability of foundations, which are the structural components that transmit loads from structures to the underlying earth. However, structural instability, settling, cracking, or collapse results from erosion undermining the soil that supports foundations (Ogunribido, 2012). Erosion is most severe in areas with deforestation, high rainfall, and inadequate drainage systems, putting both residential and commercial buildings at risk.

Although most people are aware of the threats that erosion poses to building foundations, the more important concern is how to reduce these risks. A vast array of engineering, environmental, and policy-based techniques are included in mitigation methods with the goal of enhancing drainage, fortifying foundation systems, and stabilizing soil. With an emphasis on useful applications and real-world examples, this essay addresses the main mitigation techniques to prevent erosion-related foundation collapses.

➤ Proper Drainage Design

Controlling water flow is the most efficient method of preventing erosion around foundations. Because standing water close to foundations speeds up erosion, poor drainage is a primary contributor to soil displacement. To divert water away from foundations, building designs should include efficient drainage systems such as storm sewers, culverts, gutters, French drains, and surface drains (Okagbue, 2015). Another easy yet effective preventive step is to grade the landscape so that water flows away from the structure.

➤ Deep Foundation Systems

Shallow foundations, including strip or pad foundations, are susceptible to soil movement in areas that are prone to erosion. In order to reduce vulnerability to surface erosion, engineers frequently advise deep foundations, such as pile or pier foundations, that extend to stable soil

layers or bedrock (Adeyemi & Olalekan, 2019). This method is particularly crucial in locations that are prone to flooding and erosion, such as coastal zones.

➤ **Retaining Structures and Reinforcement**

In order to prevent soil movement around foundations, retaining walls, gabions, and sheet piles are frequently utilized. Slopes are stabilized, and soil erosion is stopped by these constructions. The soil surrounding building foundations is further strengthened by the application of geotextiles and soil nailing, which lowers the risk of erosion (Faniran & Jeje, 2015).

➤ **Soil Stabilization Techniques**

Stabilization methods include compaction, chemical treatment (lime, cement), and the use of geogrids, which can increase soil strength in regions where the soil is extremely erodible. Stabilized soils give foundations a stable footing since they are less prone to wash away and resist water intrusion (Singh & Rao, 2020).

➤ **Vegetative Cover and Landscaping**

Because it uses root systems to hold soil particles together, vegetation is essential for halting erosion. Building sites benefit from increased water infiltration and decreased runoff velocity when grasses, shrubs, and trees are planted nearby (Pimentel & Burgess, 2013). In addition to improving aesthetics, landscaping with vegetation acts as a natural erosion control method.

➤ **Controlled Land Use Practices**

Soil erosion hazards are increased by uncontrolled urban growth, overgrazing, and deforestation. Soil stability around development sites is maintained through land-use planning, which includes afforestation and the preservation of buffer zones near rivers (Akinyemi et al., 2017). To reduce the risks of erosion, urban planners must incorporate open spaces and green belts into city plans.

➤ **Rainwater Harvesting and Water Management**

Rainwater harvesting systems can collect and store runoff for use in agriculture or home settings, preventing it from accumulating close to structures. This lessens the strain that unmanaged runoff puts on the soils next to foundations (Okagbue, 2015).

➤ **Enforcement of Building Codes**

Building codes that mandate erosion control measures during construction must be enforced by governments. Minimum foundation depths, appropriate drainage systems, and soil protection methods ought to be required by building codes (Adeyemi & Olalekan, 2019). Lack of compliance has caused erosion-related foundation problems in numerous developing nations.

➤ **Community Awareness and Education**

In order to inform communities, builders, and homeowners about erosion hazards and mitigation strategies, public awareness campaigns are crucial. Communities are more inclined to embrace sustainable practices when they recognize the value of vegetation, drainage, and appropriate land use (Akinyemi et al., 2017).

➤ **Government Intervention and Monitoring**

Large-scale erosion, such as gully erosion in Southeastern Nigeria, requires government-led interventions, including reclamation projects, slope stabilization, and the relocation of high-risk communities. Continuous monitoring of erosion-prone zones ensures that risks are addressed before they escalate (Faniran & Jeje, 2015).

Building foundations are constantly at risk from erosion, which can result in settling, cracking, and collapse. However, by combining engineering, environmental, and regulatory techniques, these risks can be reduced. Engineering solutions to foundation erosion include retaining structures, deep foundation systems, proper drainage design, and soil stabilization. Natural

erosion processes are lessened by environmental practices like rainwater harvesting, controlled land use, and plant cover. In the meanwhile, long-term, sustainable protection is ensured by public education, policy enforcement, and regulatory compliance. In the end, combating erosion threats necessitates a coordinated strategy that incorporates governance, environmental stewardship, and technical know-how. Societies can reduce the financial cost of erosion-related foundation failures, save lives, and protect structures by putting these ideas into practice.

Mitigating Strategies to the dangers of Erosion to Human life

Through the collapse of slopes and riverbanks, the loss of protective landforms (beaches, dunes, and mangroves), the destruction of homes and infrastructure, decreased agricultural productivity, contaminated water supplies, and increased vulnerability to floods and tsunamis, erosion—whether caused by rivers, coasts, wind, hill slope gullying, or mass-wasting—poses both direct and indirect threats to human life (Pang et al., 2023; Borrelli et al., 2021). Therefore, engineering, ecological, land-use, and social strategies that restrict hazard magnitude, minimize exposure, enhance early warning, and safeguard vulnerable groups are all part of effective mitigation (Tan et al., 2022; Xiao et al., 2020). The main mitigating techniques backed by current research are enumerated and explained in the paragraphs that follow.

➤ **Hard-engineering (structural) defenses for immediate protection.**

Where imminent collapse or coastal inundation threatens lives and critical infrastructure, structural measures—seawalls, revetments, groynes, gabions, riprap, retaining walls and grade control structures—provide rapid reduction in erosion rates and shoreline retreat (Pang et al., 2023). For riverbanks and landslide-prone slopes, bank anchors, piles, and crib walls stabilise soil and prevent catastrophic collapse that would endanger people downstream or adjacent to built-up areas (Hayes et al., 2024). However, structural works can be expensive, require maintenance, may transfer erosion elsewhere, and are most effective when combined with softer measures (Pang et al., 2023; Tisserant et al., 2021).

➤ **Nature-based solutions and bioengineering (green measures).**

By reducing surface runoff, binding soil with roots, attenuating wave energy, and increasing infiltration, vegetation restoration and protection—such as riparian buffers, mangrove planting, dune restoration, reforestation, and grassed filter strips—lowers erosion and flood risk while also providing co-benefits for livelihoods and biodiversity (Xiao et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2023). According to recent research, revegetation and ecological restoration, when paired with slope management, can significantly reduce gully head erosion and sediment yields (Zhu et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2023). When used on riverbanks and slopes, bioengineering techniques (live staking, fascines, and coir rolls) provide efficient, lower-impact stabilisation that becomes stronger as vegetation takes hold (Tisserant et al., 2021; Hayes et al., 2024).

➤ **Hybrid approaches: combining “hard” and “soft” for resilience.**

The finest combination between short-term protection and long-term ecosystem resilience is frequently provided by hybrid solutions, which are manmade structures reinforced with vegetation or seaward living shorelines backed by submerged breakwaters. When compared to hard-only solutions, hybrid techniques efficiently minimize erosion while minimizing ecological trade-offs, according to meta-analyses and case studies. This is especially true in dynamic coastal and riverine settings (Pang et al., 2023; African J. Bioengineering case study, 2023). By designing hybrids with connection and sediment budgets in mind, erosion displacement downstream or nearby is avoided.

➤ **Catchment-scale land-use and soil-conservation practices.**

Upstream interventions, such as contour farming, terracing, cover crops, conservation agriculture, no-till, and sediment retention structures, decrease runoff velocity, increase infiltration, and cut sediment supply to valleys and coasts, thereby lowering downstream risk to people. This is because runoff and land use are the main causes of hillslope and gully erosion (Tan et al., 2022; Zhu et al., 2021). Combining ecological restoration with better farming methods significantly lowers soil loss and the frequency of destructive gullies, according to extensive modelling and field research (Borrelli et al., 2021; Xiao et al., 2020).

➤ **River and floodplain management: room for rivers and managed realignment.**

Bank erosion and catastrophic levee failures that endanger life during flood seasons are decreased when rivers are given "room" to overflow safely through regulated retreat, floodplain restoration, and the removal of constricting constructions. Reconnecting rivers to their floodplains by strategic floodplain management can lower peak flows and sediment transport energy, lowering the risk of sudden bank collapse and the casualties that come with it (Hayes et al., 2024; Pang et al., 2023).

➤ **Early-warning systems, monitoring and remote sensing.**

By prompting evacuations and focused protection, early detection of accelerated erosion, slope displacement, or bank instability saves lives. Near-real-time mapping of riverbank retreat, gully growth, and pre-failure slope deformation is made possible by advancements since 2020, including InSAR, LiDAR, UAV photogrammetry, and high-resolution satellite change detection. When used in conjunction with hydro meteorological monitoring, these tools facilitate targeted evacuations and early warnings (Hayes et al., 2024; Smail et al., 2022). In areas with limited data, community-based monitoring and local reporting networks enhance social acceptance of warnings and supplement remote sensing (Ciurean et al., 2022).

➤ Community-based risk reduction and nature-based planning.

Involving the community in local sediment management, mangrove planting, and slope stabilization improves social resilience and guarantees that policies meet local requirements. Community-led interventions (capacity building, participatory mapping, and maintenance of bioengineering works) are cost-effective and maintain protective measures over time, which directly reduces casualties during extreme events, according to reviews of landslide and erosion programmes (Ciurean et al., 2022; World Bank/Community Landslide guides).

➤ Policy, land-use planning and setback/zoning regulations.

Governance is necessary to reduce life-threatening erosion over the long term. This includes enforcing erosion-sensitive building codes, limiting habitation in high-risk floodplains and landslide-prone slopes, and establishing coastline setback regulations. Particularly in situations when gradual retreat is socially and politically viable, policy frameworks that integrate hazard mapping with relocation assistance and compensation lower exposure and save lives (Pang et al., 2023; Tan et al., 2022).

➤ Sediment management and upstream interventions for coastal protection.

Beach nourishment, managed sediment bypass, and selective dam sediment release can restore protective beaches and dunes that protect coastal populations from erosion and storm waves in areas where upstream dams or channelization have starved the coast of sediment (Pang et al., 2023). Therefore, maintaining downstream human settlements requires sediment-aware river basin management.

➤ Emergency preparedness, evacuation planning and social safety nets.

Extreme storms, heavy rains, and sporadic occurrences can overcome defenses despite ecological and structural safeguards. Reducing mortality and accelerating recovery from erosion disasters can be achieved by combining erosion mitigation with social protection (cash transfers, temporary housing), emergency shelters located outside of hazard zones, clear evacuation plans, and resilient evacuation routes (Ciurean et al., 2022; Pang et al., 2023).

METHODOLOGY

Expost-Facto design was adopted. The research was carried out in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. The targeted population for the study comprised all the environmental scientists in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. Stratified sampling technique was used to select 60 Environmental Scientist from each of the senatorial district, this gave a sample size of 180 respondents used to carry out this research. The instrument used for data collection was a structured questionnaire titled “Dangers of Erosion to Building Foundation and Human Life Questionnaire (DEBFHLQ)”. Face and content validation of the instrument was carried out by an expert in test, measurement, and evaluation in order to ensure that the instrument has the accuracy, appropriateness, and completeness for the study under consideration. The reliability coefficient obtained was 0.85, and this was high enough to justify the use of the instrument. Descriptive statistics was used to answer the research question and regression analysis was used to test the hypothesis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Research Questions 1: The research question sought to find out the dangers of erosion to building foundation in Akwa Ibom State. To answer the research question, percentage analysis was performed on the data, (see table 1).

Table 1: Percentage analysis of the dangers of erosion to building foundation

| DANGERS | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE (%) |
|---|------------|----------------|
| Foundation Settlement and Cracking | 57 | 31.67** |
| Exposure and Deterioration of Materials | 31 | 17.22* |
| Scouring and Undermining | 49 | 27.22 |
| Complete Structural Failure | 43 | 23.89 |
| TOTAL | 180 | 100% |

** The highest percentage frequency

* The least percentage frequency

SOURCE: Field Survey

The above table 1 presents the percentage analysis of the dangers of erosion to building foundation in Akwa Ibom State. From the result of the data analysis, it was observed that “Foundation Settlement and Cracking” (31.67%) was the highest danger of erosion to building foundation in Akwa Ibom State, while the least was “Exposure and Deterioration of Materials” (17.22%). The result therefore is in agreement with the research findings of Adeyemi & Olalekan (2019), who noted that erosion has a direct and destructive impact on building foundations by gradually eroding a foundation's stability, resulting in settlement and structural problems.

Research Questions 2: The research question sought to find out the dangers of erosion to human life in Akwa Ibom State. To answer the research question, percentage analysis was performed on the data, (see table 2).

Table 2: Percentage analysis of the dangers of erosion to human life in Akwa Ibom State

| DANGERS | FREQUENCY | PERCENTAGE (%) |
|---|------------|----------------|
| Sudden Collapse and Loss of Shelter | 40 | 22.22 |
| Worsening of Public Health Risks | 33 | 18.33* |
| Loss of livelihoods and food insecurity | 60 | 33.33** |
| Damage of critical infrastructure | 47 | 26.11 |
| TOTAL | 180 | 100% |

** The highest percentage frequency

* The least percentage frequency

SOURCE: Field Survey

The above table 2 presents the percentage analysis of the dangers of erosion to human life in Akwa Ibom State. From the result of the data analysis, it was observed that “Loss of livelihoods and food insecurity” (33.33%) was rated as the highest danger of erosion to human life in Akwa Ibom State, while “Worsening of Public Health Risks” (18.33%) was rated the least. The result therefore is in agreement with the research findings of Oyati et al. (2021) who quoted that Erosion directly threatens human life through sudden collapse, loss of shelter and worsens public-health risks by contaminating drinking-water supplies and increasing exposure to waterborne disease.

Hypothesis one

There is no significant effect of erosion on building foundations in Akwa Ibom State. In order to test the hypothesis regression analysis was used to analyse the data, (see table 3).

TABLE 3: Regression analysis of the effect of erosion on building foundations in Akwa Ibom State.

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. error of the Estimate | R Square Change |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| 1 | .864 ^a | .746 | .745 | .81024 | .746 |

*Significant at 0.05 level; df =208; N =210; critical r-value = 0.139

The table 3 shows that the calculated R-value 0.864 was greater than the critical R-value of 0.139 at 0.05 alpha level with 208 degree of freedom. The R-square value of 0.746 predicts 74.6% of effect of erosion on building foundations in Akwa Ibom State. This rate of impact is highly positive and therefore means that there is a significant effect of erosion on building foundations in Akwa Ibom State. The result therefore is in agreement with the research findings of Adeyemi & Olalekan (2019), who noted that erosion has a direct and destructive impact on building foundations by gradually eroding a foundation's stability, resulting in settlement and structural problems.

Hypothesis two

There is no significant effect of erosion on human life in Akwa Ibom State. In order to test the hypothesis regression analysis was used to analyse the data, (see table 4).

TABLE 4: Regression analysis of the effect of erosion on human life in Akwa Ibom State.

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. error of the Estimate | R Square Change |
|-------|------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| 1 | .662 | .662 | .662 | .662 | .662 |

*Significant at 0.05 level; df =208; N =210; critical r-value = 0.139

The table 4 shows that the calculated R-value 0.662 was greater than the critical R-value of 0.139 at 0.05 alpha level with 208 degree of freedom. The R-square value of 0.662 predicts 66.2% of the effect of erosion on human life in Akwa Ibom State. This rate of impact is highly positive and therefore means that there is a significant effect of erosion on human life in Akwa Ibom State. The result therefore is in agreement with the research findings of Oyati et al. (2021), who noted that erosion worsens public-health risks by contaminating drinking-water supplies and increasing exposure to waterborne disease.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, erosion poses a grave environmental and structural threat to Akwa Ibom State, endangering building foundations and human life through continuous soil degradation, flooding, and gully formation. The state's loose sandy soil, heavy rainfall, and poor drainage systems have intensified the rate of land instability, leading to building collapse, displacement of residents, and loss of property. These impacts have disrupted community life, weakened infrastructure, and slowed socio-economic development across the state. Erosion in Akwa Ibom therefore represents not only a physical hazard but also a major obstacle to sustainable urban growth and human safety, demanding urgent attention and collective responsibility from all stakeholders to ensure a safer and more resilient environment.

RECOMMENDATION

1. The government of Akwa Ibom State should see it as a matter of importance to design and construct efficient and well-connected drainage networks in the state across erosion-prone areas to properly channel storm water and prevent surface runoff from eroding building foundations and the finished building and surrounding soils for a safe Akwa Ibom State.

2. There should be a regular environmental education campaigns carried out to sensitize residents to acquire adequate knowledge of the causes and effects of erosion. This will help encourage community participation in maintenance of drainage systems and responsible land-use practices for a safe society.
3. The Akwa Ibom State government, as a matter of fact should not relent efforts in the collaboration with the developing partners and other private organizations to invest in sustainable erosion control projects,, environment protection, research to ensure long-term protection of properties, human lives and infrastructure in Akwa Ibom State.

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