

EFFECTS OF CRIME ON SECURITY IN KOGI STATE, NIGERIA

BY

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE
STUDIES, NASARAWA STATE UNIVERSITY, KEFFI IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF
DOCTORATE OF PHILOSOPHY (Ph.D) DEGREE IN SECURITY
AND STRATEGIC STUDIES OF NASARAWA STATE UNIVERSITY,
KEFFI**

SEPTEMBER, 2019

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis titled “Effects of Crime on Security in Kogi State” has been written by me and it is a report of my research work. It has not been presented in any previous application for Ph.D. All works consulted in the course of this study have been duly acknowledged by means of reference

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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this thesis titled “Effects of Crime on Security in Kogi State” meets the regulations governing the award of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) degree in Security and Strategic Studies, of the School of Postgraduate Studies, Nasarawa State University, Keffi and is approved for its contribution to knowledge.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to God Almighty and My late Parents Mr. and Mrs. Ihiabe

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

All thanks to God Almighty, who has made this work possible. My gratitude goes to my supervisors Prof. S. A. S Aruwa and Prof. Olayemi Akinwumi for their guidance throughout this work.

I also appreciate the management team of the Postgraduate School headed by Professor Jonathan Ayuba and his Deputy Dr. Biliaminu S. Mohammed as well as the Director of the Institute of Governance and Development Studies, Prof Andrew Zamani and his Deputy Dr. Usman A. Yusuf.

I am grateful for the contribution and insightful opinions of my internal examiner, Dr. Udo Osisiogu. Special regards to my family and course mates for their support and understanding.

Finally, I want to thank all those who have assisted me in one way or the other, particularly, the immediate past speaker of the House of Representatives, Hon. Yakubu Dogara and Dr. Abdul Adamu of the Department of Business Administration, Nasarawa State University, Keffi.

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ABSTRACT

This research examined the effects or influence of crime (with particular attention on crimes such as armed robbery, kidnapping and terrorism) on the state of security in Kogi State, Nigeria. The methodology employed made use of primary and secondary data. Using the questionnaire as an instrument, respondents from three senatorial districts of Kogi State participated in the study. Records in the public domain, interviews with stake holders such as the Nigeria Police, business and community leaders were also analyzed. Descriptive statistics tools such as percentages and hypotheses were utilized in presenting the data. The Relative Deprivation Theory (RDT) was used to explain the crimes in Kogi State drawing from the levels of frustration and aggression experienced in the state as a result of unfulfilled goals, expectations and quality of life of residents. It was revealed that these crimes had negative consequences on the economic and human security of residents of Kogi State. In Kogi State economic activities have reduced over the years, and the incidents of kidnapping and terror attacks has created an atmosphere of insecurity and apprehension. As a consequence unemployment economic hardship has risen especially for the youth. In addition, the inability of the government to meet its obligations to citizens and civil servants has heightened the fear of crime, insecurity and reduced economic activities. It is recommended that the government of Kogi State should ensure that crimes are properly investigated and offenders prosecuted swiftly. Sanctions such as the forfeiture of the proceeds of crime and destruction of property of criminals should be applied. Non-governmental and religious bodies should be encouraged to expand their programmes on counseling and character building. Government should also create effective poverty alleviation programmes, adopt problem oriented policing approaches and equip law enforcement agencies adequately to enable them deal with the crimes of armed robbery, kidnapping and terrorism.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Recently Nigeria has witnessed amongst others the different forms of crime; armed robbery and other related types of stealing, financial crimes, transnational organized crimes (TOCs), kidnapping, vandalization of government infrastructures, terrorism and insurgency involving the use of heavy weapon and improvised explosive devices (IEDs).

Crime in Nigeria can be traceable to the period from 1967 to 1970 after the civil war in Nigeria when arms and ammunitions became widely available in the country. These weapons used during the Nigerian civil war got into the hands of some civilians and ex-military men – most of whom lost their job during the civil war, and they started using the arms for criminal activities such as armed robbery and fighting communal crises. The pattern and trend of crime assumed dangerous dimensions during the prolonged years of military rule when small and light weapon (SALW) begins to infiltrate into the hands of many Nigerians for self defense. Some weapons got into the hands of unemployed youths who used them for criminal activities.

The rising crime rate or the increase in criminal acts prevalent in our society today is a symptom of a much more serious, deeply rooted problem of which studies have associated it to the rising youth unemployment resulting from bad governance. The government has been too corrupt; the citizens have become desperately and hopelessly poor day by day. Available records indicate that Nigeria ranks sixth in the world oil

producing country, yet greater population lives below the poverty line of 1USD per day (Eregha, 2007). Ahokegh (2013), identified that poverty arising from injustices, lack of fairness in the polity and imbalance in resource allocation is responsible for the high rate of crime in Nigeria.

The global crime index report by Numbeo (2019) shows that crime rate has been on the increase around the world. The statistics shows that Venezuela has the highest crime rate with an index of 8.23, followed by Papua New Guinea with a crime index of 79.88 and Honduras with a crime index of 76.84. in Africa, the top three countries with the highest crime rates are South Africa, Namibia and Nigeria. Their crime rates are 76.80, 68.66, and 64.41 respectively.

Since 2014, the crime rates in Nigeria have been on the decrease from the global statistics on crime by Numbeo (2019). On the global crime index, the crime index for Nigeria were 77.86, 76.60, 74.14, 70.87 and 63.12 in 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017 and 2018 respectively. This increased to 64.41 in the first quarter of 2019 and makes Nigeria ranked 15 out of 118 countries. The breakdown of crimes shows that home breaking, robbery, car stolen, physical attack, vandalism, kidnapping, banditry, insurgency, corruption and bribery have very high rates in Nigeria. Crime is an act or an instance of negligence that is against the law and punishable upon conviction (NBS, 2019).

A crime against an individual include any threat of force or the actual use of force against somebody, as well as accidents, which may result in death due to an individual's intent or negligence. A crime may be against property, which can also involve violence or not, against a person while committing the crime. It includes any attempt or the actual

deprivation of somebody's belongings as well as willfully damaging them. Drug offences, armed robbery, kidnapping, terrorism, impaired driving which resulted in someone's injury or death, arson, betting and possession of weapons as well as the abuse of public office for private or political gain are also crimes which might have an effect on people or property, but do not make part of the above two categories. The damage caused by crime has a significant negative impact on society welfare, which can lead to serious impediments for the creation and maintenance of a developed and well-functioning economy.

Understanding criminal behaviour is complex. Crime is defined in law as behaviour sufficiently deviant to damage society and to merit, therefore, legal action and the intervention of society into the lives of citizens who so deviate. Consequently, there have been many approaches to the problem of crime from many different viewpoints with varying degrees of compatibility and agreement.

Insecurity is a situation where somebody feels unsecured. This may lead to lack of confidence and putting one in a constant fear of being open to danger that may lead to lack of freedom, and unable to go about one's day-to-day business. In recent times, Nigeria has been plagued into frequent state of insecurity. Nigerians in some parts live in perpetual fear every day of their lives, not knowing from where and when the next attack will come. Attack by kidnappers, armed robbers, herdsmen, suicide bombers and religious insurgency have become regular occurrence in our daily lives. Although insurgency is more prevalent in the North-East, other forms of insecurity as earlier mentioned are found in all parts of Nigeria. At such, it is not wrong to state that the state of insecurity in Nigeria has become a national emergency (Iwhiwhu, 2016).

Insecurity could be as a result of emotions or psychological, while some could be due to economic situations or unequal opportunity to resources. Abraham Maslow describes insecure person as a person who perceives the world as a threatening jungle where most human beings are dangerous and selfish, always feeling signs of tension and conflict. Crime in Nigeria has become a matter of concern all over and thus, a threat to national security. There has been an increase in the occurrence of acts of violence and lawlessness, including things like kidnapping of men and women, expatriates, oil workers as well as illegal bunkering, arms insurgence, cultism, armed robbery, and pipeline vandalization in most part of the country. Since 2007, this has become a regular occurrence in the North Central States of Nigeria, especially Kogi State where salaries are not paid to workers and pensioners for well over three years; children are not in school due to school closure as a result of teachers strike (Headline News, 2017).

Robbery is the crime of taking or attempting to take anything of value by force, threat of force, or by putting the victim in fear. According to common law, robbery is defined as taking the property of another, with the intent to permanently deprive the person of that property, by means of force or fear; that is, it is a larceny or theft accomplished by an assault. Armed robbery is a serious crime and can permanently traumatize its victims, both physically and psychologically. It tends to receive considerable media attention when it occurs, and it carries longer prison terms than other forms of robbery such as robbery or theft without a dangerous weapon.

Kidnapping is the unlawful carrying away (asportation) and confinement of a person against their will. Thus, it is a composite crime. It can also be defined as false imprisonment by means of abduction, both of which are separate crimes that when

committed simultaneously upon the same person merge as the single crime of kidnapping. Kidnapping is an illicit incident through which human-being is forcefully abducted to an unknown area against their will by another human-being because of the reason best known to them. As a result of this, Nigeria was ranked in the global index as one of the worst place to dwell in because of frequent kidnapping incident. Despite the fact that kidnapping is as old as human history itself yet its widespread in the current administration is quite alarming and call for proactive solution in order to make Nigeria a safe place to live. Kidnapping has now become a generic word both in public and private discuss going by its prevalence in the country.

Terrorism, the systematic use of violence to create a general climate of fear in a population and thereby to bring about a particular political objective. Terrorism has been practiced by political organizations with both rightist and leftist objectives, by nationalistic and religious groups, by revolutionaries, and even by state institutions such as armies, intelligence services, and police. In order to attract and maintain the publicity necessary to generate widespread fear, terrorists must engage in increasingly dramatic, violent, and high-profile attacks. These have included hijackings, hostage takings, kidnappings, car bombings, and, frequently, suicide bombings. Although apparently random, the victims and locations of terrorist attacks often are carefully selected for their shock value. Schools, shopping centres, bus and train stations, and restaurants and nightclubs have been targeted both because they attract large crowds and because they are places with which members of the civilian population are familiar and in which they feel at ease. The goal of terrorism generally is to destroy the public's sense of security in the places most familiar to them. Major targets sometimes also include buildings or other

locations that are important economic or political symbols, such as embassies or military installations. The hope of the terrorist is that the sense of terror these acts engender will induce the population to pressure political leaders toward a specific political end.

The tripartite problems of armed robbery, kidnapping and terrorism are serious issues in Nigeria. These problems have caused the citizen's sleepless night and the government a lot of resources, but the problem still persisted and it is causing security challenges in the country. This is the motivation for this study.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

Crime and criminal behaviours among people have become one of the global phenomena and those in Nigeria have been on an unprecedented increase. Since last decade, there has been a proliferation of unrivalled violence, the cases of armed robbery, insurgencies, kidnapping, abduction and wanton destruction of valuable infrastructures as well as lives and personal properties. These are mostly the activities of individuals or groups that are socially unacceptable triggered by enforced desired of outcome from the constituted authority. This negative development according to Igbo and Ikpa (2013) is unfortunate and has become one of the security challenges facing Nigeria at the present.

It is commonly reported that poverty, unemployment and lack of access to education among others were responsible for this high level of insecurity orchestrated by criminal activities of individuals in the form of bombing mosques, churches, markets and killing of innocent people. The phenomenon of insecurity has become one of the major concerns to the citizens in Nigeria generally. Specifically, state like Kogi experiences different

forms of crime on a daily basis and this has added to the feeling of insecurity among the dwellers of the state.

Kogi state is currently battling with one security problem or the other. Crime statistics reported that Kogi State has witnessed different forms of crime range from offence against persons (294), offence against property (480), offence against lawful authority (17) and offence against the local acts (7) with 0.63 percent of the share of crime in the country (NBS, 2019). Apart from the deadly activities of Boko Haram terrorists traced to the state, a lot of fighting and killings are ongoing between communities and the herdsmen. The state is dominated by activities like kidnapping, armed robbery, house breaking, suicide bombing and other social vices. All efforts by government and security agencies to control these unlawful practices seem not to have yielded any reasonable result.

Those that are involved in these activities were reported to be evading arrest most at times, or getting themselves out of incarceration. Furthermore, this scenario was exacerbated by unwillingness from the side of government to curtail the phenomenon. In a nutshell, the problem bedevilling Nigerian country is insecurity demonstrated by criminal activities of the individuals and groups and this has affected the sustainable development of the country.

Studies have been conducted on the effect of crime on security in many parts of the World including Nigeria. However, none of such studies, to the best knowledge of the researcher, has been conducted on the effect of crime on security in Kogi State, Nigeria that is the gap the study intends to fill. It is against this backdrop that this study seeks to

examine the effect of crime on security in Kogi State. This is the major problem of the study.

1.3 Research Questions

This study answers the following research questions:

- i. What are the dimensions of crime in Kogi State, Nigeria?
- ii. What are the rates of crime in Kogi State, Nigeria?
- iii. What is the state of security in Kogi State, Nigeria?
- iv. What are the implications of crime on security in Kogi State, Nigeria?
- v. What are the factors that motivate people to commit crime in Kogi State, Nigeria?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study is to examine the effect of crime on security in Kogi state, Nigeria. Other specific objectives of the study include:

- i. To examine the dimensions of crime in Kogi State, Nigeria
- ii. To assess the rates of crime in Kogi State, Nigeria
- iii. To examine the state of security in Kogi State, Nigeria
- iv. To examine the implications of crime on security in Kogi State, Nigeria
- v. To ascertain the factors that motivate people to commit crime in Kogi State, Nigeria

1.5 Research Hypotheses

Ho₁: Armed robbery has no significant effect on security in Kogi State

Ho₂: Kidnapping has no significant effect on security in Kogi State

Ho₃: Terrorism has no significant effect on security in Kogi State

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study has both practical and theoretical significance. Practically, this study will benefit the host communities of the study, Kogi state, Nigeria and the world generally. More so, information contained in this study, would be of immense help to policy makers, government officials and Non-governmental organizations.

This study will be significant to academia and all other researchers as it will bridge gaps in literature on the topic under review. The outcome of this study will add to the store of knowledge on effect of crime on security and will provide a source of secondary data and also serve as a reference material for future researches on the topic or related topics.

1.7 Scope of the Study

This study focused on effect of crime on security in Kogi State, Nigeria. The time frame for this study covers the period from 2008-2018; the choice of this time frame was borne out of the fact that this period witnessed high rate crime Nigeria; Kogi state in particular. Geographically, this study spanned through six local government areas drawn from the three (3) senatorial districts in Kogi state, Nigeria. The six (6) selected local government areas are Ajaokuta, Ibaji, Idah, Ijumu, Lokoja and Okene.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a review of relevant literature. To achieve the objective of the study this chapter is structured under the following sub-headings: conceptual review, empirical review and theoretical framework

2.1 Conceptual Review

2.1.1 Concept of Crime

The word “Crime” was originally taken from a Latin term “Crimen” which means “to charge”. The Greek expression “Krimos” is synonymous to a Sanskrit word ‘Krama’ which means “Social order”. Therefore, in common parlance the word crime is applied to those acts that go against social order and are worthy of serious condemnation. Since the emergence of crime as a concept it has always been a highly contested term which has been debated within studies ever since, with criminologists, sociologists and philosophers all creating new theories for it (Siegel & McCormick, 2006).

The perception of the term crime varied greatly across geographical areas, socio-cultural and economic differences of societies as well as time lag. This kind of variations makes it difficult to universally define crime across regions of the world. What may be regarded as a crime in one region may not be a crime in another and changes over time. For instance, prostitution and homosexuality are crimes in many regions especially where religion dictates, while in many others, they are acts of promotion. A few decades ago, dumping toxic waste has not been classified as a crime but presently it is a serious crime and violation of laws in country like Nigeria (Dambazau, 2007; Usman, Yakubu, & Bello

2012; Tenibiaje, 2010). Therefore, the perception of an act to be a crime varies with time and location. Similarly, criminal behaviour is a common phenomenon anywhere and in every society, but certain societies have higher criminal activities than others and variation can be found in the same society (urban areas), where criminal activities are prevalent in some locations over others. Within the same city, criminal activities tend to be higher in the city centres than in the suburbs (Soh, 2012). This may be connected with the intensities of activities and potentialities for offenders to commit crime in the city centre. This goes in line with what Ajibola (1990) reported, where crime and criminal activities are constantly performing and growing in a sporadic facet (cited by Tenibiaje, 2010).

However, in trying to understand crime, it is good to bring ideas presented by many scholars in their respective perspectives on the subject matter. This is because many scholars have defined crime in different views. For instance, Habibullah, Baharom, and Tan (2013) defined crime as violation of 'property rights' where the focus was prioritized on crime against property. This will not give a comprehensive understanding on crime; hence there are many other areas where crimes are committed. For instance, crimes can be established in corruption, rape, terrorist criminal activities, kidnapping, human trafficking, assault, vagrancy and failure to pay public tax, utility bills or transport, drugs and narcotics abuse, wanton environmental destruction and unauthorized dumping of toxic substances (Tenibiaje, 2010; Tretter, 2013). On socio-cultural ethical perspectives, crime is viewed as violation of societal norms and values. Tenibiaje (2010) explained that crime is a 'deviant behaviour that violates prevailing norms, which may be cultural, social, political, psychological and economic conditions'. Louis and others in 1981 (cited

by Usman et al., (2012), described crime as a deviant act that is threatening moral behaviours and injurious to society. Moral decadence afflicts the personality of individual, his property and lessens trust among members of the society which may result to threat and fear.

In ideological perspective particularly in criminal law, crime is regarded as an act or omission forbidden by law on pain of punishment or else is a violation of law (Usman et al., 2012). Similarly, Tenibiaje (2010) expresses crime as an act that violates the law of the society or serious offence against the law of the society for which there is a severe punishment by law. In other words, crime is any culpable action or omission prohibited by law and punishable by the state. In these views, crime is a violation of any law of a given society and offenders are punishable in accordance to the set of that law. These laws can either be criminal laws or societal unwritten laws, norms and values, any offender or violator of such laws is culpable to punishment.

In the literature there are variant views of crime but all converged at common understanding word ‘violation’ of societal norms and values or laws. In this context, crime refers to violation of state laws or deviant act prohibited by state laws that is subjected to punishment in accordance to the set of the laws. These include all types of deviant acts or offences against lawful authority, against local act, against person and against property. This definition is more appropriate in this study as it takes nation states studies which have their respective apparatus for managing or converting crimes that are guided by state laws as the case may be to any nation.

In any circumstances, crime is a convergence of criminal, element for crime act (property/ victim) and place to perform criminal activity. This is what Tabangin, Flores,

and Emperador (2008) opined, where crime is not only about offenders and attractor may also be about 'places'.

For Blackstone (1968:53) crime is seen as "an act committed or omitted in violation of a public law either forbidding or commanding it". Thus, according to Blackstone crime is an act in violation of public law. Blackstone (1970:6) perhaps visualizing the inadequacy of his first definition of crime tried to give a modified definition and said, "A crime is a violation of the public rights and duties due to the whole community, considered as a community in its social aggregate capacity".

Legally, crimes usually are defined as acts or omissions forbidden by law that can be punished by imprisonment and/or fine. Murder, robbery, burglary, rape, drunken driving, child neglect, and failure to pay your taxes all are common examples. However, as several eminent criminologists recently have noted (e.g. Sampson & Laub, 1993; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990), the key to understanding crime is to focus on fundamental attributes of all criminal behaviours rather than on specific criminal acts. Instead of trying to separately understand crimes such as homicide, robbery, rape, burglary, embezzlement, and heroin use, we need to identify what it is they all have in common. Much past research on crime has been confounded by its focus on these politico-legal rather than behavioural definitions.

The behavioural definition of crime focuses on, criminality, a certain personality profile that causes the most alarming sorts of crimes. All criminal behaviours involve the use of force, fraud, or stealth to obtain material or symbolic resources. As Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) noted, criminality is a style of strategic behaviour characterized by self-

centeredness, indifference to the suffering and needs of others, and low self-control. More impulsive individuals are more likely to find criminality an attractive style of behaviour because it can provide immediate gratification through relatively easy or simple strategies. These strategies frequently are risky and thrilling, usually requiring little skill or planning. They often result in pain or discomfort for victims and offer few or meagre long-term benefits because they interfere with careers, family, and friendships.

Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990:256) also asserted that this means the within-person causes of truancy are the same as the within-person causes of drug use, aggravated assault, and auto accidents. Criminality in this sense bears a problematic relationship with legal crimes. Some drug dealers, tax cheats, prostitutes and other legal criminals may simply be business-people whose business activity happens to be illegal. Psychologically, they might not differ from ordinary citizens. Almost all ordinary citizens commit at least small legal crimes during their lives. Nevertheless, Gottfredson's and Hirschi's hypothesis is that the vast majority of legal crime is committed by individuals a general strategy of criminal activity.

This conception of crime explains a wide variety of criminal activities and the fact that individuals tend not to specialize in one type of crime. It also is consistent with the well-established tendency of people to be consistent over long periods of time in the frequency and severity of crimes they commit. Even executives who commit white collar crimes probably are more impulsive, self-centred, and indifferent to the suffering of others than those who do not take advantage of similar opportunities.

The simplest definition of crime offered by Sellin (1931), in his point of view of crime is any form of conduct which is forbidden by the law under pain of some punishment. Similarly, Tappan (1960) defined crime as intentional act of omission in violation of criminal law. Tappan (1960) would distinguish between lesser violations, such as vagrancy, and criminal acts, thereby avoiding the unnecessary attribution of criminal status to individuals who offer little or no real threat to the safety of the community." But it may well be that Tappan (1960) is really making a distinction between the behaviour which after all is commonly deemed criminal if it is against the law and the status of individuals who are not seen and treated as criminals when their violations are of a minor nature.

Russell (1995) has rightly observed that, to define crime is a task which has so far not been satisfactorily accomplished by any writer. In fact, criminal offences are basically the creation of a criminal policy adopted from time to time by those sections of the community who are powerful or astute enough to safeguard their own security and comfort by causing sovereign power in the state to repress conduct which they feel may endanger their position. In the first place, as the history of the early Roman law reveals, an offensive conduct may become recognized as a crime as a result of the combined effect of a number of different social forces. For instance, Adler (1964) observed that in a primitive monarchy or Oligarchy when all nominal state power rested in the hands of a personal sovereign or a small group of men, anything done in the nature of an attempt to displace the governing body was classed as "Treason" and such behaviour is criminal in the highest degree. Such an attempt would be repressed by all means available to the

ruling element. The person who commits treason is called a traitor; and anyone who slew him was held guiltless.

In trying to classify what crime is, some scholars classified it into violent and property crimes (Kien, 2015; Sewuese, 2014; Usman et al., 2012 & Ajaegbu, 2012). This classification is on the basis of entity on which crime is committed. Violent crime is normally related to crimes committed on human beings and the brute manner in which it has done usually cause harm to a person, his personality or damage property. Habibullah et al. (2013) defined violent crime as a criminal activity that is clearly an act of brute force engaged in taking of property or a person's life. Similarly Dambazau (2007) in his explanation on violent crime said that it is an act of forcible taking of property from a victim and may cause injury or loss of life. Likewise Ajaegbu (2012) notes that violent crime is the most 'inhumane' crime that continue to plague the societies that have taken the centre stage leading to bloodshed and economic setbacks. Furthermore, Soh (2012) explained, violent crime generally is a crime of violence sufficiently regular and significant in causing hurt. To this end, the types of violent crimes include robbery; rape; kidnapping; aggravated assault, thuggery, terrorism; grievous hurt and wounding, murder and homicide (manslaughter) (Dambazau, 2007&Habibullah et al., 2013).

On the other hand, property crimes are those offences committed on properties more or less without force in taking or stealing property. In line with this, Soh (2012) defined property crimes as those offences involving the loss of property during which there is no use of violence by the perpetrators. Differently, some scholars asserted that property crime are offences on property with or without violence, those with violence include robbery, snatch theft, pilfering, pick-pocketing, vandalization and others, while property

crime without violence includes burglary, arson, larceny, theft, wreck, pilfering, stealing, house and store breaking, and vehicle theft (Habibullah et al., 2013; Dambazau, 2007; and Ajaegbu, 2012).

Dambazau in 1997 (cited by Usman et al., 2012) classified crime into four categories: - crimes against person, crimes against property, crimes against lawful authority and crimes against local act. Thus explained; crimes against person: include murder, attempted murder, manslaughter, suicide, grievous harm or wounding, assault, child stealing, slave dealing, rape, assault, kidnapping, unnatural offences and others. Crimes against property: armed robbery, theft or stealing, burglary, arson and others. Crimes against lawful authority: forgery of currency notes, gambling, breach of peace, perjury, bribery and corruption, escape from custody and other crimes. Crimes against local act include: traffic offences, township offences, liquor offences, narcotics abuses and other crimes. Indeed this classification makes it explicitly clear on crimes against persons, properties and authorities regardless of the manner in which the crime is performed.

In this study, the researcher looks at crime as an act that violates the law of the society or serious offence against the law of the society for which there is a severe punishment by law. Furthermore, crime is any culpable action or omission prohibited by law and punishable by the state. In these views, crime is a violation of any law of a given society and offenders are punishable in accordance to the set of that law. These laws can either be criminal laws or societal unwritten laws, norms and values, any offender or violator of such laws is culpable to punishment.

2.1.2 Concept of Security

Security is a highly valued goal, which may be difficult to reach because of different threats and risks in personal lives and in near and global environments. Insecurity and the

experiences of young people in a changing society are relevant in academic research but security and insecurity are not simple as scientific concepts. Different fields of science address the topics. Psychology, social psychology and psychiatry provide the earliest debates and notions about the need to develop these concepts. For example, Fromm (2000) was one of the scholars who wrote about feelings of inferiority. He emphasized security as a need to belong and avoid loneliness. Adler (1964; 1971) analyse security as a basic need. A human being tries to choose goals so that they guarantee a niche, prevent feelings of inferiority, support self-esteem, and bring security.

One of the first efforts to bring these concepts into the realm of the social sciences was the critical analysis of the concepts of security and insecurity by Cameron and McCormick (1954) who conclude that there was a lack of consistent definitions, theory development, and prerequisite empirical testing of the hypotheses. Cameron and McCormick found previous research on security and insecurity vague and tendentious. They suggested concept development and empirical research.

It was almost two decades before the next analysis for these concepts appeared. One of the most profound analyses came from Kaufmann (1970) who wrote a comprehensive book about security as a sociological and social-political problem. The interesting feature of his analysis was that it presented security not only as a system or societal-level concept, but also as a subjective experience or as the relationship between subjective experiences and objective conditions. According to Kaufmann (1970), the core problem of security was in the broken connection between inner experiences and outer conditions. The need for security manifested in efforts to defend and protect oneself against dangers,

in needs for order and continuity, and in aspirations for inner, mental balance (Kaufmann, 1970).

Kaufmann's (1970) concept of security included both personal security of the "self" and orientation to an outer world. Theorizing about the concept of insecurity has produced a wide variety of insecurity dimensions. One interesting question concerns the dynamics of this phenomenon. How does insecurity influence people and their relations in society? Berki (1986) provide a careful and holistic analysis of security and its creation and maintenance in society. He claimed that, in its deepest meaning, the desire for security was an existential drive. Berki (1986, 39) wrote, "By wanting security, therefore, in order ostensibly (and consciously) to protect and prolong our lives, we are really courting insecurity, nay actually engaging in the quest after insecurity".

The term security according to Akin (2008) is the situation that exists as a result of establishment of measures for the protection of persons, information and property against hostile persons' influences and nations. It is the existence of condition within which people of the society can go about their normal activities without any threat to their lives and properties. Igbuzor (2011), it demands safety from chronic threats and protections from harmful disruption.

Security however, can be described as stability and continuity of livelihood, predictability of daily life (knowing what to expect), protection from crime (feeling safe), and freedom from psychological harm, safety or protection from emotional stress which results from the assurance of knowing that one is wanted, loved, accepted and protected in one's community or neighbourhood and by people around (Ibrahim & Azubuike, 2014).

Folarin & Oviasogie (2014) see security as a state of being safe and the absence of fear, anxiety, danger, poverty and oppression. It is the preservation of core values and the absence of threats to these values. It is the freedom from threats to a nation's capacity to defend and develop itself, promote its values and lawful interest. In nutshell, Security is the physical and mental assurance that an individual has within the society or state that he/she is not under any threat arising from any conduct of an individual or group.

On the other hand, Agboola (2006) provides a traditional meaning of security by defining it as an intricate network of systems of defence measures, aimed at ensuring the safety of governments, the state and their nationals. Through overt and covert measures of military intelligence operations, under-cover disruptions of the sinister activities of men and women with misplaced consciences; the security of the people, their state and governments is ensured.

Jordan & Taylor (1981) were probably more congruent in conceiving security as having more extensive meaning than protection from physical harm. This is as it implies protection, through a variety of means, of vital economic and political interests, the loss of which could threaten fundamental values and the vitality of the state. Maier (1999) security is best defined as the capacity to control those domestic and foreign conditions that the public opinion of a given community believes necessary to enjoy its own self-determination or autonomy, prosperity and well-being.

For McDonald (2002), security is not just ontological; it may change dramatically depending on the actor and the specific political and cultural contexts. This is in common ground with Niemelä's theoretical model of security. Many approaches recognize the personal level of security as well as its connections to community, societal, and global

issues. Discovering how the distant issues influence personal experiences of insecurity is a challenge.

Onoja (2018) observed that security practice in Nigeria is derived from the theory and practice of security of the West. It is one of the legacies of colonialism. British colonialism, in the quest to fulfill its economic and political insecurity in Europe, set the ball rolling in the processes that resulted in the creation of Nigeria. Until the intervention statement credited to Sir Ahmadu Bello that “God did not create Nigeria, the British did of the British, there was no Nigeria. Underscoring this view was the.”

In this study, the researcher adopted the definition of security provide by Folarin & Oviasogie (2014) that security is a state of being safe and the absence of fear, anxiety, danger, poverty and oppression. It is the preservation of core values and the absence of threats to these values. It is the freedom from threats to a nation’s capacity to defend and develop itself, promote its values and lawful interest. In nutshell, Security is the physical and mental assurance that an individual has within the society or state that he/she is not under any threat arising from any conduct of an individual or group.

2.2 Empirical Review

2.2.1 Dimensions of Crime in Nigeria

Some of the emerging and special categories of crimes in Nigeria are corruption, Money Laundering, Cyber Crime, Terrorism, Human Trafficking, Assassination, Kidnapping etc.

Corruption

Corruption is very widespread in Nigeria and it manifests itself in virtually all aspects of national life. Nigeria was some time ago rated by the Transparency International Index as

the most corrupt country in the world (David, 2009). Corruption is a worldwide phenomenon, which has been with societies throughout history. It has caused political and economic instability in societies and, depending on the scale, it has led to social conflict and violence, as competing groups vie for state power which is the source of distribution of resources and other amenities in society (Ibrahim 2001).

Otite (1986) described corruption as “the perversion of integrity or state of affairs through bribery, favour, or moral depravity. He stated that corruption takes place when at least two parties have interacted to change the structure or processes of society or the behaviour of functionaries in order to produce dishonest, unfaithful or defiled situations.

The United Nations is of the view that corruption in government increases poverty in many ways. Most directly, it diverts resources to the rich people, who can afford to pay bribes and away from the poor, who cannot. Corruption also weakens a Government and lessens its ability to fight poverty. It reduces tax revenues and, thus, the resources available for public services (Mills, 2001). The immediate impact on the poor people is that there will be higher prices and fewer employment opportunities, because of the distortions that corruption has caused. Corrupt officials will be willing to demand payment for public services, which are supposed to be free. Corruption makes it possible for senior public officials to acquire massive personal wealth from states. This has negative impact to development.

Money Laundering and Online Banking

Many financial institutions are now providing banking service through the Internet. Most of these are established financial institutions that offer only part of their services online.

The concern with respect to money laundering is that there is no face-to-face contact between the customer and financial institution. The customer accesses his or her account on the website of the financial institution by providing a password. Since no face-to-face contact is required, the financial institution has no means of verifying the identity of the individual. Moreover, a customer can access her account from anywhere in the world. In addition, as access is gained through an internet service provider, the institution has no way of verifying the location from which the account was accessed. An individual desiring to conceal his or her identity, including money launderers, would be able to have unrestricted online access to and control of his or her bank accounts in any location (Redpath, 2001). The EFCC (Economic and Financial Crimes Commission) in Nigeria has been able to tackle a few cases where online banking has been used for money laundering.

Cyber crime

Online computers via the internet can be used to plan and co-ordinate activities, and to facilitate illegal acts, as well as to distribute tools for committing crimes. Instructions for building bombs and deadly weapons and instructions for building “red boxes” used in stealing telephone services, have all been found on the internet. Software for hacking into other computer systems is also available online. Pirated software, child pornography, scams and offshore tax evasion schemes are all available or operated via the internet (Redpath, 2001).

Internet crimes are raising international concern. Every terrorist organization has its own internet website “to propagate it, recruit manpower, purchase firearms and even sell

children for sexual purposes”. Cyber crimes are serious sophisticated crimes like swindling, embezzlement and money laundering. These crimes are being committed all the time and often traces are covered up or erased instantly, making the police unable to track them (Radpath, 2001).

According to Abdullahi (2004: 5) Cyber Crimes can be categorized into five: Data bidding is the most common, easiest and fastest method. It involves changing the data that will be put into the computer or that are already in the computer. The Trojan Horse technique involves instructing the computer to perform unauthorized functions as well as its intended function. The Salami method refers to taking small amounts of money from a larger source without significantly reducing the whole. For example, one might in a bank account situation, instruct the computer to reduce some accounts by certain percentage (usually small) and place such amount in another account. Super zapping: To take care of potential problem of malfunction there is the need for what is sometimes called break glass in case of emergency computer programme. This programme will bypass all controls to modify or disclose any of the contents of a computer. This is powerful for committing crime in the hands of dubious people. Data Leakage refers to removing information from the computer system or computer facility.

Human Trafficking

Human trafficking, according to Article 3a of the United Nations Protocol is defined as the “recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring, or receipt of persons by means of threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of giving or receiving of payments

or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person for the purpose of exploitation. The trafficking in persons (Prohibition) Law Enforcement and Administration Act (2003), defines trafficking as all acts and attempted acts involved in the recruitment, transportation within or across Nigerian borders, purchases, sales, transfer, receipt or harbouring of a person involving the use of deception, coercion or debt bondage for the purpose of placing or holding the person, whether for or not involuntary servitude (domestic, sexual or reproductive) in forced or bonded labour, or in slavery-like conditions”.

Victims of human trafficking include the poor, weak powerless, ignorant, desperate and vulnerable adults mostly women, youth and children. Human trafficking can be either internal or external. Human trafficking is internal when it takes place within a country, while it is external when it takes place across international boundaries. It was discovered that human trafficking started in Nigeria from the second half of the 1980's when people engaged in it to escape the hardship by the Structural adjustment Programme (SAP) (NAPTIP Newsletter, 2006).

Human trafficking is a modern slavery. Those who engaged in trafficking of persons are often friends, relatives, neighbours and familiar people to victims. Human trafficking is an organized crime. It has a chain of syndicate. In this organized crime, we have the Sponsors, financiers and facilitators; there are madams or bosses, supervisors, accomplices or collaborators, aiders and a better; Victims or persons who are trafficked and exploited.

Some of the causes on the part of the victims and traffickers are poverty, ignorance, greed, get-rich syndrome, illiteracy, identity or moral bankruptcy, high demand for cheap and submissive child labourers, false impression of preparation for marriage, unemployment, child fostering, inequalities in the society, disregard for education, conflicts, those orphaned by the HIV/AIDS pandemic, large family size etc. It is apparent that trafficking in persons has, over the years, changed its form, colour and style. It has always been abhorred and denigrated by well-meaning members of the society as uncivilized, brutal and primitive. Government has demonstrated its political will by enacting the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Law, 2003 to deal with the problem. It is expected that the civil society, the judiciary, faith-based groups and even the victim, should join hands in ensuring that the law works and offenders are put out of circulation for a better society (Ndaguba, 2005).

Assassination

As the world advances and the stakes in political clashes or will continue to grow on a global scale, the number of assassinations concomitantly multiplies. Assassination is the deliberate killing of an important person, usually a political figure or other strategically important individuals. An assassin is the person who carries out an assassination (Redpath, 2001). Assassins have a wide range of reasons for their action. Reasons for attacks include: to achieve notoriety or fame, to avenge a perceived wrong, to end personal pains; to be killed by law enforcement agent, to bring national attention to a perceived problem, to save the country or the world, to achieve a special relationship with the target, to make money, to bring about political change and to settle scores.

It has been found that no assassins or attackers communicated a direct threat about their target to him or to a law enforcement agency before their attack. Many writers on assassinations asserted that most assassins have been mentally ill. Some say that mental illness is the cause of assassination (Redpath, 2001). Others argued that mental illness is a key factor in understanding assassination behaviour. This argument can be seen in four ways: Assassination is inherently an irrational act. Those who assert that assassins have been mentally ill are implying of a few assassins. Many who consider assassins and attackers to be mentally ill look at the nature of the act itself. Reasonable people abhor the thought of assassination. It is hard to accept the idea that a few persons might see assassinations as acceptable way to resolve their problems and to achieve their goals. With rare exception, trails of assassins and attackers of leaders and celebrities in the past 30 years have featured testimony by mental health professionals to the effect that the defendant was suffering from mental illness at the time of this or her attack and should not be held criminally responsible.

Many scholars such as Freedman (1966), Goode (2002) and Madunagu (2006), are of the opinion that political assassinations are failure of the political system. Inability to penetrate the ruling class frequently results in political assassinations of public figures connected with politics. Failure in politics carries high costs often in relation to loss of human lives. Political assassination occurs when people want to settle scores. This may come in two ways: It is either there is a design, which is calculated to undermine the authority of the government of the day, or Government is using its authority to stifle opposition. In this context, lives are lost, properties are destroyed and people are displaced. Thus, displaced people eventually become refugees in their own country.

Assassination is the end result of a process of thinking and behaviour. Many attackers move through life on a path that leads them to consider assassination of one or another prominent person as an acceptable or even necessary way to improve their situations or resolve their problems. These persons are often relatively bright and well educated. They may appear to be socially isolated, but they often look, dress, and act in ways that do not readily distinguish them from others. At some point, attackers begin to see the idea of assassination as acceptable and desirable. They may gather information about previous assassins, take special interest in one or more potential public officials or figure targets, and becoming famous and notorious. Persons who continue along the path to attack often carefully consider how to carry out an attack. They may visit an office, home or temporary visiting place of their target. Their travels may take them far from home. They may try to learn about security arrangements and see the presence or absence of security as a deterrent or as an opportunity.

Armed Robbery

Armed robbery is a prevailing social phenomenon that negatively affects the lives and social functioning of a significant number of people in contemporary Nigerian society. It involves stealing, during which force and violence or the threat of violence are employed. Armed robbery is as old as mankind itself, and it characterizes all known societies (both developed and developing societies. However, variations exist not only from society to society but also from time to time, as well as from strict enforcement to none (Okolo, 2002). In Nigeria, daily newspaper reports, Television news headlines, social media and radio announcements have shown that the activities of armed robbers are increasing at an alarming rate.

Armed robbery is a social problem that continued to undermine the progress of the Nigerian society since the end of the country's civil war in 1970. In response to this hazardous condition, the Nigerian military Government of General Yakubu Gowon promulgated a decree in 1970, the first ever on armed robbery in Nigeria, which stipulated and recommended death sentence by firing squad (Okolo, 2002). This was followed by increase in number, size, and standard of the police force, courts and prisons. Successive Government in Nigeria has launched different campaigns and programmes such as "operation sweep", Operation scorpion" "operation flush" etc aimed at reducing the activities of armed robbers.

Whatever may be the cause of armed robbery in Nigeria, and whatever nature or form or shape it may assume armed robbery is antisocial behaviour that leaves negative effects on the society and its members. A single crime, observed Skidmore and Thackeray (1982) may alter the existence of a particular family and as families become weak and filled with tension and chaos, society is injured and social life is threatened. One of the enormous effects of armed robbery in Nigeria is that of insecurity of lives and properties. In various robbery incidences, innocents' citizens are killed, maimed to suffer while one's lifelong savings and sweat are lost within a twinkle of an eye. Yecho (2010:22) similarly, laments that:

A successful robbery entails the direct loss of property on an individual. Such property is transferred from the rightful owner to another Person. Most violent crime also leads to the loss of productivity through the incapacity of the victims. Most of the victims of violent crimes are incapacitated, thereby denying the society of their contribution to the output of the nation.

The killing and shooting of people most especially the youth by armed robbers reduce the size of the Nigerian working population. This automatically led to the loss of human resources (affects human resources). Many resources are channeled to physical and psychological treatment of victims of armed robbery. The resources that would have been used to stimulate the growth of other sectors of economy are also invested in security to enable the security agents to curtail the activities of robbery. Another significant effect of armed robbery is on the reduction of the rate or level of development. As a result of high prevalence incidences of armed robbery in Nigeria. People are always in a perpetual state of fear because of constant robbery attacks. Thus, many foreign investors are afraid of committing their resources to operate in industries that would have employed many millions of the unemployed Nigerians. This consequently retards the development of the Nigerian society.

In addition, armed robbery causes unemployment because robbing of industries and other government establishments (companies) results to retrenchment of workers because of the inability to pay workers salary. Armed robbery increases the level of poverty in Nigeria. For instance, in a situation where armed robbers killed the breadwinner of the family. The robbers will subject the whole family into poverty (absolute poverty) and thus increase the level of poverty in the society. Again, Yecho (2010:23) summarized these effects thus:

There is also the social cost dimension. People no longer go out at specific periods to interact and carry out social activities/functions. Everybody becomes suspicious of one another. In a society where everyone is suspicious of each other, where movement is restricted for the fear of criminal victimization, there can be no meaningful development and progress. Finally, there is also a physical cost

dimension to incidences of violent crimes. Robbery and kidnap could result to death or permanent disability of the victim.

In the north central part of Nigeria, Kogi state has become a battle field where gunshot sound has become so common, fear has taken the place of trust, neighbor spy over neighbor, and sense of abandonment have taken over (Economic Issues, 2012). From police incident information and news media stories, the armed robbers and terrorists that disturb Kogi state do not only target residential houses or schools or hospitals, rather they specifically target business premises, hotels, petrol stations and vehicles suspected to carry traders. Also, the commercial banks that support businesses in the state are equally under attack.

While robberies are not new in Nigeria, robbery attacks on banks and business premises in the Western and Eastern zones of Kogi state which peaked between early 2012 and 2017 have become a serious challenge to businesses in towns like Kabba, Ayetoro, Idah, Ankpa, etc. Over 15 robbery incidents specifically targeting commercial banks and microfinance houses were reported in one year alone with a reported estimated loss of over N400million. For instance, the Punch newspaper of 26 April 2012 reported one incident in which 15 robbers arrived in five SUVs and virtually wiped out the vault of a first-generation bank in Ankpa town before attempting to rob another bank in another part of the town on the same day. This has led many banks to close shop for several weeks while presently many of them have reduced their opening hours. Restaurants, hotels, supermarkets/provision stores and petrol stations have not been spared, and many of them have virtually closed.

Another dimension of this insecurity in Kogi state is the persistent highway robbery incidents on the Okene-Lokoja-Abaji highway. This highway is Nigeria's second busiest road in terms of traffic and carries mostly businessmen and women going from north to south of Nigeria (and vice versa). Kogi State is located in the North central geo-political zone of the Country. Armed bandits have laid siege on this road causing serious damage to the economy of Kogi as transporters, particularly traders moving goods across the country are regularly robbed thus forcing many people to avoid using the road, and in the process, transportation of goods coming to Kogi state becomes more expensive. This problem has become so serious that the Kogi House of Assembly even noted that the activity of armed robbers along these roads in recent time is worrisome. Motorists plying this route are in perpetual state of fear as a result of the criminal and dangerous operation of the men of underworld (Legisreportsng, 2013).

Okon *et al.* (2015) examined the impact of insecurity on business activities in Kogi State. Questionnaire was used to collect the primary data from targeted groups in the population. The findings of the study suggest that the security situation in Kogi state has become a major challenge for investors, and this could pose a threat for its economy with implication for investment and job losses. The present security challenge could diminish the state's ability to command local and international respect. The study recommended among others that government of Kogi state should overhaul the security agencies in the state to meet the current security challenges. Provision of new infrastructure as well as mending of dilapidated ones should be carried out in the state. It should be ensured that the major cities have functional street lights to enhance security. Similarly, it is suggested

that the state government should create more job opportunities for the teeming number of unemployed persons.

Kidnapping

Literarily, the word kidnap is coined from 'kid' meaning child and 'nabs' which means to snatch. According to the Rubington and Weinberg (2010), kidnap or kidnapping means "to take somebody away illegally and keep them as a prisoner, especially in order to get money or something else for returning them". This implies that whenever a person is unlawfully taken away against his wish and with the intent to collect money or to extract some other benefit before his or her release, this is tantamount to kidnapping.

Kidnapping is a false imprisonment of an individual against his or her will by another individual in violation of the individual's fundamental human rights. Goldberg (2000) argues that kidnapping is a criminal act involving seizure, confinement, abduction, subjection, forcefulness, acts of threats, acts of terror and servitude. The characteristic behavioural actions of kidnappers are erratic [eccentric], egocentric, and dogmatic. These are situations that criminologists classify as freewill actions that are characteristically planned and executed by the criminal.

Generally, kidnapping occurs when a person, without lawful authority, physically transports (moves) another person without that person's consent, with the intent to use the abduction in connection with some other nefarious objective. Under the model penal code (a set of exemplary criminal rules fashioned by the American Law Institute), kidnapping occurs when any person is unlawfully and non-consensually transported and held for certain purposes.

Apart from the inhuman conditions the abductees are subjected to, to secure their freedom, their relations have been made to pay huge sums of money running into millions of naira. Sadly, not all the victims return alive even with the payment of the demanded ransom (Nnaji, 2009). Owing to the spate of kidnappings, many people in the state sleep with their eyes half opened. Worse still, the menace has driven some businessmen and other well-to-do persons away from their original places of residence. Some have relocated to other states in Nigeria, especially Abuja and Lagos.

The human security threat of kidnapping is also seen in the drastic reduction in the number of Diaspora from the state coming home every year. It is common knowledge that people from the state relish the prospect of coming home during festive periods to celebrate and fraternize with their kith and kin. Regrettably, some of these people preferred staying put at their places of domicile to coming home to be kidnapped. To the people of the state, kidnapping is tantamount to a declaration of war on them (Nnaji, 2009).

Because of the palpable human security threat kidnapping poses in the state, most people whose family members have been kidnapped are reluctant to report the incidents to the Police for fear of a possible backlash arising from the criminal collusion of some police officers with the kidnappers. Overall, the human security threat arising from kidnapping has had a debilitating economic impact on the state. If anything, the menace has scared away potential investors. It has also led to the mass exodus of indigenous entrepreneurs from the zone. Moreover, the remittances from those in the Diaspora, a substantial part of which is used to develop the state, have decreased considerably. The foregoing has only

worsened the state's poor economic outcomes with their consequence of mass unemployment and grinding poverty.

According to Nnaji (2009), Kidnapping constitutes a veritable threat to Nigeria's sustainable development in the light of the following:

- i. It leads to loss of life, a threat to public safety
- ii. It sabotages economic growth and development by way of capital and investment flight
- iii. It results in negative perception of Nigeria on international scene, with its negative consequences on trade, tourism and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI)
- iv. It creates an atmosphere of public insecurity, thereby endangering the prospects of societal progress
- v. It has often led to loss of investment capital, closure of businesses, and unemployment etc.

In effect, the rising trend of kidnapping in Nigeria has, more than anything else, created security and economic climate that impede sustainable national development. In the words of Raheeb (2008), In the midst of all these, the Nigerian economy is the ultimate victim. The country bears the greatest brunt of the whole saga. This include poor and negative image on the international scene, increase in unemployment rate, risk of a possible slide to a pariah state, huge loss of sources of resources from taxes, tourism, etc.

But the greater risk is the continued spread and degeneration of kidnapping activities across Nigeria.

The adoption of kidnapping as an instrument for terrorism and political vendetta has since complicated the awry scenario. This trend poses the question as to whether Nigeria is relapsing into the 'failed state' syndrome (Adibe, 2013). Worse still, public security agencies in Nigeria have so far seemed critically ill-equipped to combat the crime. Consequently, in its apparent dynamics of degeneration, kidnapping is fast becoming one of the most dreadful organized crime in contemporary Nigeria. It has so far taken a great toll on the high and low of society and, indeed, it is becoming rather endemic and intractable by the day.

Kidnapping operations have created a state of insecurity in the nation, which has by extension affected Nigeria's economic growth (Nwogwugwu et al, 2012). The activities of kidnapping, its planning strategies and execution, and the government actions in handling the resources of the nation, have consequential effects on the national economy. Lack of equity in revenue sharing from the oil has resulted to agitation by the youth for fair share; this has culminated into internal aggression against the oil workers and destruction of the oil installations in the region (Jamiu, 2009).

The Federal Government budget for police formation and command in 2009 was 195 billion naira, and the Lagos State Government was reported to have spent three billion naira in two years on security alone (Soyombo, 2009). The expenditures on security matters and law enforcement challenges have increased tremendously (Ezeibe & Eze, 2012). The politicians increased their physical expenditures on the use of private security

personnel, off-duty police officers, strong metallic bullet proof doors, bullet proof vehicles, and sophisticated security gadgets in efforts to evade abduction. The security cost for protection of government and private facilities in the country has escalated.

The social life of many people has changed due to human insecurity (Tzanelli, 2006), and some people are subjected to self-imprisonment in their homes and (locked) offices (David, 2009). Some people build nice houses and fail to finish the exterior walls, presenting themselves with the look of poverty in an effort to prevent popularity. Some people are afraid of buying new vehicles, and even some rich people resort to using commercial motorcycles called 'Okada' to market, school and social outings, as a means to elude hostage takers (Soyombo, 2009). Kidnapping has contributed tremendously to high level of mistrust among people; the traditional African hospitality to strangers is tarnished due to fear, and some people hardly return normal courteous greetings from strangers. Traveling to unknown destination requires GPS directive equipment, otherwise, people in 'distress' and 'stranded' on the road would hardly find anyone willing to give directions, due to mistrust and fear of being whisked away by strangers on the road.

Terrorism

Terrorism is the use of violent action in order to achieve political aims or to force government to act. It can also be seen as using violent or threat to obtain a political objective. Terrorism has become a hydra headed monster characterized by unprecedented and unpredictable threats, both domestically and internationally and has kept governments of developed and developing countries on their toes. It has become one of the most complex and complicated phenomena of the contemporary world (Stibli, 2010).

Several studies (empirical and descriptive) have shown that terrorism and insecurity hinder growth and development of a nation. Nwanegbo & Odigbo (2013) note that security avails the opportunity for development of a nation. Ewetan & Urhie (2014) note that insecurity hinders business activities and discourages foreign and local investors. Adegami (2013) in his study opined that insecurity is detrimental to general well-being of the people, and has led to destruction of business and properties, and relocation of industries. Udeh & Ihezue (2013) also noted that insecurity challenges Nigeria's effort towards national economic development and consequently its vision 20:2020, and scares the attraction of foreign investment and their contributions to economic development in Nigeria. Gaibullov & Sandler (2009) note that terrorism (transnational terrorist attacks) had a significant growth limiting effects and that terrorist incident per million persons reduces gross domestic product per capita growth by 1.5% in Asia. On the other hand, terrorism increases risk and uncertainty that limits investment and hinders foreign direct investment (Gaibullov, 2009; Abadie, & Gardeazabal, 2008). Terrorism affects industries like airlines, tourism, manufacturing companies, and export sector, which can reduce gross domestic product and growth (Enders & Sandler, 2006).

The level of insecurity and terrorism in Nigeria both in the northern and southern part has become a major issue for the government. Since 1990 when the activities of the Niger Delta militants started until recent times when Boko Haram insurgents arose in the Northern part of the country, Nigeria has witnessed unprecedented security challenges. These challenges range from kidnapping, suicide attacks, bombings, ritual killings, assassinations, armed robbery, and this has led to the destruction of lives and properties, hindered business activities, discouraged local and foreign investors, increases

government expenditure on security, all of these stifles and retards Nigeria's socio-economic development (Ewetan & Urhie, 2014).

Although the problem of Boko Haram terrorism has been more substantial in the North East of Nigeria and in states like Kano and Kaduna, however, the discovery of several terrorist enclaves, especially IED/bomb making "factories" in Okene area of Kogi in early 2012 has led to series of clashes between security agencies and the terrorists. These clashes and fear of further terrorist activities have had significant effects on businesses in Okene which is an important commercial town in Kogi state. Worst hit is the hospitality and service businesses in the town. Today, many restaurants, hotels, supermarkets, petrol stations are counting their losses as a result of lack of patronage while some of them have completely closed down.

2.2.2 Crime Rate in the Country

Nigeria has witnessed high rates of crime and victimization that have defied the measures, introduced by successive regimes, for its management during the past two decades.

These days, crime and its detrimental effects have received wide attention in research. In the field of sociology, criminology and economics, many researchers have related crime rate to macroeconomic variables such as economic growth, unemployment, poverty, institutions, and regulations while little attention is given to the effect of crime on microeconomic variables.

In Nigeria, the youth are the major teaming population that engages in criminal activities due to high rate of unemployment among others. As of 2018, the youth population is

about 46.4 million especially between the age group of 15-39 years (National Population Commission, 2009). It was declared by the National Bureau of Statistics (2018) that the national unemployment rates for Nigeria between 2000 and 2011 showed that the number of unemployed persons constituted 31.1% in 2000. Meanwhile, some youths practice self-employment, but find it difficult to survive in their business operation due to; political instability in the country, high level of corruption, poverty, poor governance, increasing population without adequate policy initiatives among others. These phenomena contributed enormously towards high crime rate in the country which include kidnapping, armed robbery, formation of militant group among others which has negative effect on birth of new firms. By implication, foreign and even domestic investors will be discouraged to make investment because of uncertainties in the country surrounded by high crime rate.

According to Osalor (2009): “The scariest undertone of Nigeria’s socio-economic underachievement, by far, is the steady rise in youth crime, nurtured in a climate of increasing national income and the simultaneous failure of employment-generation and poverty alleviation programmes. Armed insurgencies ravaging the oil-rich and volatile Niger Delta region are now competing for space in international headlines with a proliferation of Islamic terrorist offshoots. The season of discontent has especial ramifications for a nation with unemployed millions, and the net effect has been a tragic precipitation of violent crimes: assault, burglary, extortion and kidnapping. Further, decades of social and political turmoil helped turn this strategically located African nation into an established junction for international drug smugglers. Other highlights of Nigeria’s prolific crime syndicates are economic fraud – usually in the form of innovative

Internet schemes; money laundering and racketeering”. He stated further that Human development indices for Africa’s second largest economy continue to be appalling despite the country’s bountiful resources, escalating oil fortunes and a vigorous reforms programme initiated after the return of democracy in 1999. He stated further that a 2007 UNDP survey on poverty and extreme deprivation of 108 countries ranked Nigeria at the 80th position, giving it a Human Poverty Index of 37.3 among the lowest for the entire continent Per capital GDP stands at a meager \$1,400 with 54% of the population living on less than \$1 per day, 50 million people, most of them women and children, suffer from nutritional deficiencies. 10% of Nigerians are malnourished and half the population does not have access to safe drinking water. 25% of children below the age of 5 are underweight and 42% display stunted growth. Over 3% of adults in the age group 15 – 49 are infected with HIV/AIDS. In 1980, the poverty level in Nigerian households with a female head was 27%. The figure rose to 58% by 2015. For a country that earns an estimated \$2.2 Million in daily petrodollar revenue, these figures reflect an impudent malaise that has invaded every aspect of Nigerian life. There are several reasons adduced for increase in crime rate in the country. Akparanta (1994) attempted to provide reasons for urban violence/crime in post civil war Nigeria, arguing that following the war, there was an abundance of guns in private hands and times were hard economically.

Accompanied by deterioration in the standard of education, and the lack of specific training in areas relevant for sustaining both the agricultural and the industrial sector, many youths went astray. Another argument was that the continuously unpredictable political atmosphere and lack of progressive management of the economy brought about 2007 UNDP survey on poverty and extreme deprivation of 108 countries ranked Nigeria

at the 80th position, giving it a Human Poverty Index of 37.3 – among the lowest for the entire continent. Per capita GDP stands at a meager \$1,400 with 54% of the population living on less than \$1 per day, 50 million people, most of them women and children, suffer from nutritional deficiencies. 10% of Nigerians are malnourished and half the population does not have access to safe drinking water. 25% of children below the age of 5 are underweight and 42% display stunted growth. Over 3% of adults in the age group 15 – 49 are infected with HIV/AIDS. In 1980, the poverty level in Nigerian households with a female head was 27%. The figure rose to 58% by 2015. For a country that earns an estimated \$2.2 Billion in daily petrodollar revenue, these figures reflect an impudent malaise that has invaded every aspect of Nigerian life. There are several reasons adduced for increase in crime rate in the country.

The rate of occurrence of major forms of crime in Kogi State can be ranked as follows: Assault, Armed Robbery, unlawful possession, arson, grievous harm, burglary, house Breaking, Automobile theft, rape, murder, manslaughter, forgery and kidnapping.

Incidence of crime against persons is also found to be higher than that on properties in Kogi state for the period under study. This finding is at variance with some findings in other studies. Clarke (1993) posits that economic development increases criminal opportunities with respect to property crime, e.g., theft, robbery, burglary, etc. because personal property is now more valuable and portable. And as the valuable good becomes more widely distributed in society, the consciousness of risk and need for protection becomes more generalized. However, this finding will be understood from the point that

most people tend to resist being dispossessed of their property leading to grievous harm or even death in some cases.

The trend and forecast show a 2.33 percent decline in crime rate in the state. The percentage decline is very insignificant. This result should not be surprising. The crime rate is actually decreasing but many criminals are abandoning other forms of crime to venture into cyber crime and kidnapping which are more lucrative and less frequent when compared to others. Other forms of crime are decreasing with time that of kidnapping continues to increase more especially from 2005 till present day. On this Dike (2012:5) stated that “the rising wave of crime especially kidnapping is grinding social lives to half. Night life has disappeared in almost all the cities in Kogi state. Occasions like marriage and burial ceremonies that used to be events for those who have to show off their wealth are now matters of serious security concern in most parts of the State. The social dislocation is so much that indigenes now prefer to marry and bury their relatives in places of their abode such as Abuja and Lagos.”

The efforts of the government in the state may also have contributed to the declining trend pattern. The government has continuously and periodically donated patrol vans and other crime fighting equipment to security in the state to help in combating crime.

In Kogi State has also had its own share of the crime and victimization in recent time that have resisted the measures as reported by Police in the state. These crime and criminal activities include the armed robbery, communal clashes, car snatching, assassination, political thuggery, murder, impersonation, ritual killing and others as illustrated in the table below.

Kogi State Police Command Crime Diary

S/no	Some Crimes Reported From 2017-2019	Date
1	Two policemen killed by robber in Odo-Ere	2017-03-13
2	Dino Malaye: Police confirm assassination attempt/ Police: LG boss masterminded assassination attempt	2017-04-30
3	Rally, procession, demonstration banned in Kogi	2017-06-14
4	Police rescues kidnapped pastor in Okene-Ankpa-Lokoja hideout	2017-07-18
5	Police arrests notorious kidnap gang in Okene	2017-08-30
6	Police ends Kogi robbery kingpin's terror reign	2017-09-10
7	Nigerian police arrested while planning to kidnap boy in Kogi hotel	2017-10-29
8	Police arraign online publisher over alleged inciting disturbance, criminal defamation and sedition against the state.	2017/11/07
9	Nigeria Police parade Kogi state kidnappers commander with 30 armed robbers, kidnappers, social miscreants, cattle rustlers, cultists and hoodlums	2017-12-04
10	Senator Melaye accuses Kogi of creating state police	2018-03-14
11	Kogi police Commissioner removed over suspect escape	2018-03-29
12	Police confirm 2 dead in Kogi bye-election	2018-08-11
13	Police arrest suspected ritual killers between ages 16-45 in Ankpa of Kogi State	2018-10-12
14	Senator Melaye accuses Kogi of creating state police	2018-03-14
15	Kogi state police command arrest 2 armed robber with \$800, 000 in Lokoja	2018-10-29
16	Bribe –seeking cop shoots two drivers in Lokoja	2019-01-10
17	Fresh communal clash erupts in Eastern Senatorial district of Kogi state	2019-03-08
18	Police parade 52 suspects for various offences in Lokoja	2019-03-13
19	Police arrest suspected kidnapper in Lokoja	2019-06-22

Source: Kogi State Police Command, 2019

Kogi State Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps Crime Diary

S/no	Some Crimes Reported From 2014-2019	Date
1	Child abduction and allegation of HIV infection	2014-01-02
2	Communication cable vandalism at Dekina	2014-01-13
3	Impersonation as a custom officer	2014-01-15
4	Intercepted NNPC/PPMC pipeline at Achouze	2014-01-22
5	Suspected vandals transferred to NSCDC by Nigeria Navy	2014-01-23
6	Motorcycle robbery in Ajaokuta Local Government Area	2014-01-23
7	Alleged theft of forty thousand naira and CD plate	2014-12-13
8	Alleged theft of a pumping machine	2014/03/14
9	A case of NSCDC motorcycle snatched by Armed robbers form A/C Adogu Simon Enesi	2014-03-14
10	Ugwu Okwo and Owey Orenabo were arrested for Kidnapping and assassination	2017-11-09
11	A case of an attempt to disarm Nigeria Security and Civil defence Corps (NSCDC) personnel by JAMB official Kogi office Adama Ogbole	2014-07-14
12	A case of motorcycle reported by Ohiowere Emmanuel against Femi Abayomi	2014-07-14
13	A case of robbery incident reported by SCA Sani Adejoh	2014-07-14
14	Suspected vandal brought by Kogi Division	2014-08-14
15	Illegal possession of firearm	2018-08-07
16	Case of political thuggery and public nuisance	2019-09-11
17	Armed robbery, cultism and conspiracy suspect Adejo Arome	2019-06-12
18	Armed robbery	2019-09-19
19	Mr. Bolarin Segun was arrested for abduction	2019-09-27

Source: Kogi State Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps, 2019

2.2.3 Implications of crime on Security in Nigeria

These days, crime and its detrimental effects have received wide attention in research. In the field of sociology, criminology and economics, many researchers have related crime rate to macroeconomic variables such as economic growth, unemployment, poverty, institutions, and regulations while little attention is given to the effect of crime on microeconomic variables.

According to Emetan & Urchie (2014), after fifty eight years of nationhood Nigeria still ranks among the poorest countries in the world, also ranks low in all socio economic indicators such as life expectancy, death rate, access to water, poverty rate, mortality rate, and crime rate, and still carries the tag of a developing economy. Nigeria is a country blessed with abundant human and natural resources and yet is classified among the poorest countries in the world. These developmental challenges include endemic rural and urban poverty, high rate of unemployment, debilitating youth unemployment, low industrial output, unstable and deteriorating exchange rate, high inflation rate, inadequate physical and social infrastructure, very large domestic debt, and rising stock of external debt (Ewetan, 2013). This scenario has been attributed to amongst other factors, to the high rate of violent crime in Nigeria. The inability of government to provide a secure and safe environment for lives and properties has led to the disruption of the conduct of businesses and economic activities, retarding the economic growth and development of Nigeria.

There is no investor whether local or foreign that will be motivated to invest in an unsafe and insecure environment. In a globalized world investors are not only looking for high

returns on their investments but also safe haven for their investments. Thus the alarming rate of violent crimes in Nigeria has made the economy unattractive to foreign investors, and this has impacted negatively on economic growth and development. Crime is dysfunctional as it threatens the stability of a Nation (Adebayo, 2013). Economic development does not thrive in an atmosphere of instability.

Ivan & Ginkel (2013) argue that there is a complex but important connection between political violence and socio-economic development Chandler (2007), have identified strong links between security and development since the cold war ended. He argued that development cannot be achieved in any nation where there are conflicts, crisis and war. In the same vein, Imobighe believes that everything about a nation revolves around the security trend of that country .It is a standard measurement of the viability of any Nation. He argued that no warring nation can boast of good health to her people or can build good, viable and sustainable economic development to her people, instead such Nation experiences destruction of the existing socio-economic infrastructure. The assertion of Imobighe could be seen manifesting in the activities of the Niger- Delta Militant whose actions have cost a lot of destruction to the oil facilities of the nation (vandalizing oil pipeline, causing oil spillage and environmental degradation).

Again in the case of the Northern part of the country, where many productive Nigerian has been killed by insurgents, industries closed down and many investors both foreign and local has been sent away. All these are anti – development to National Economy. In the same vein, the Economics Council of European Union (2003) posits that the Sub-Saharan Africa is poorer now than it was 10 years ago in which the economic failure is

linked to political problems and violent conflict. Even the huge amount of the Nation's fund that could have been used for more socio-economic development is now committed to the fight against violent crime and replacement of destroyed infrastructures. Recently, the National Assembly approved the whopping sum of one billion US Dollars for the fight against Terrorism. This money if not the problem of insecurity, could have been used for socio-economic development of the country Ewetan & Urchia (2014) pointed out that insecurity in Nigeria has retarded socio economic development in Nigeria in the following ways: Social dislocation and population displacement ; Heightens citizenship question which encourages hostility between "indigenes" and "settlers"; Dislocation and disruption of family and communal life; General atmosphere of mistrust, fear, anxiety and frenzy; Dehumanization of women, children, and men especially in areas where rape, child abuse and neglect are used as instruments of war; Deepening of hunger and poverty in the polity; Discourages local and foreign investment as it makes investment unattractive to business people; Halts business operations during period of violence and outright closure of many enterprises in the areas or zones where incidence of insecurity is rife and are on daily occurrence; Increases security spending by business organizations and governments; Migration of people from area or region where there is prevalence of insecurity.

Socio economic development is the primary goal of every well meaning government, and it is essentially dependent on the level of economic activities in a country; the level of economic activities is in turn enhanced by peaceful co-existence by people. In the absence of security, socio-economic development cannot be sustained as it destroys economic, human and social capital.

Nevertheless, the relationship between security and development has also been conceived to be bilateral in nature. There will be no development without security and no security without development. And both development and security also depend on respect for human rights and the rule of law. Klingebiel (2006) argued that in an increasingly interconnected world, progress in the areas of development, security and human rights must go hand in hand. Development is necessary for security to thrive while security on the other hand is a precondition for development.

The government ineptitude and laxity in dealing with security challenges has posed a problem for the security forces in discharging their duties. The Nation borders are porous thereby making it possible for infiltration of mercenaries and arms proliferation into the country. The Nigeria security forces are almost barren of expected modern fighting equipment. This was evidence in our esteemed Nigeria soldier (almost 400 soldiers) running away from terrorists under the disguise of tactical withdrawal (Igbo & Ikpa, 2013). This has been attributed to lack of training and lack of modern fighting equipment. The Nigerian military has admitted that hundreds of government troops have fled heavy fighting with Boko Haram, but said their apparent escape to neighbouring Cameroon was a “tactical manoeuvre” (Nnenah Ibeh, 2014). Also in another conflict between the Boko Haram and the Nigeria Soldiers, the Sahara reporters on the 12th of November, 2014 wrote that “The terrorists arrived suddenly at 4:00 p.m. that ill-fated Wednesday, November 5, catching the Nigerian soldiers and their commanders” off-guard. As they invaded the headquarters of the 174 Battalion, Abadan Local Government Area of Borno State, located close to the Nigerian border with Niger, the Boko Haram insurgents, in hundreds, began to shoot sporadically in all directions. According to witnesses, the

terrorists were led into the battalion headquarters by insurgents bearing a number of Rocket Propelled Grenades (a shoulder-launched anti-tank weapon) and machine guns mounted on Hilux vans. Other insurgents, bearing AK-47 rifles, followed behind, shooting and chanting “Allahu Akbar! Allahu Akbar (May God be praised).

But the troops capitulated shortly after more insurgents advanced on the camp from several directions, hurling grenades at them and shooting non-stop, our sources said. The soldiers fled the scene as it became clear they were less armed and prepared for battle (Igbo & Ikpa, 2013). Several Nigerian soldiers who took part in the fighting have narrated how Boko Haram secured yet again another victory over government forces, a defeat they blamed on their arms and the morale of the fighting force”

Lack of adequate training and motivation of the part of the security forces is another challenge in the fight against violent crime in Nigeria. Most of our security personnel lack the modern fighting technique which is needed in this present situation. The welfare of the personnel also has not adequately been attended to (their feeding (how and who cooks for them, their camping facilities), and the relation of those who died were not given adequate compensation. All these affect the psychology of the Nigerian fighting force.

As overwhelming and complex as the security challenges in Nigeria may appear, they are not insurmountable. Indeed, they can be managed and possibly be ameliorated if the government will comply with their constitutional responsibilities. This section will examine how it can be achieved.

2.2.4 Motivation for Crime

No society is free from crime and this has being attributed to many reasons such as unemployment, Hunger, Greed etc. The major causes of crime in the state was found to be complex changes in economic, social and cultural factors unemployment, dysfunctional facilities, poor education, child abuses, substance abuse, economic inequality and community breakdown (Skogan, 2005). These findings are not at variance with findings in other studies. Herman (2009) listed six common reasons for crime on society that we should be aware of as lack of proper education and judgment, poverty, lack of parental supervision, influence of media and environment.

Albert (1994) identified causes of urban violence/crime in Africa. These include: high population growth rates with its attendant unemployment, poor living conditions, urban culture shocks, and poor quality of urban management that is manifested in the crisis in health care, transportation, housing and employment. Apart from complex changes in economic, social and cultural factors, all other indices are as a result of poverty. Poverty remains a challenges and the main cause of rise in crime in most of the developing societies. In most developing societies endowed with natural resources, poverty results out of bad leadership. In the Nigerian case, it is a failure of leadership both at the national and state levels (Albert, 1994).

Agugua (2010) stated that “Nigeria is a society that is enmeshed in low intensity warfare; a society that is at war with itself. Because people placed in authority are not actually doing what they are supposed to be doing. The leadership has not really defined the Nigerian state for what it should be to an average Nigerian and act accordingly in

meeting up with the expectations and yearnings of the people. Instead, those in higher echelon of the society are standing against the logic of development, which is anchored on not how to add to the welfare of those who have little or nothing, on its head. The outcome is that more and more segment of the society was made poorer, while lesser and lesser number of people who control the instrument of state uses it to drain the resources of the country.” He stated further that “given this scenario, those alienated from the resources of the nation are forced into crime to stabilize themselves. They are taking to robbery and kidnapping principally because they lack access to what it takes to have a decent life. Because in Nigeria, we are witnessing a situation whereby government lacks the foresight to define what the people want”.

Still on leadership, Dumo (2012) stated that “this administration is stared in the face with series of sociopolitical and economic problems. Infrastructures across the country continue to rot in the face of increasing neglect while most public amenities suffer serious decay and dilapidation. Sadly, this has left devastating effect on the living condition of the people with more than half of its citizens now living below the poverty line. Shockingly, government appears lost on a way out of this clog.” Our case in Nigeria is that of a resource cause theory.

On complex changes in economic, social and cultural factors, it is easily noticed that there is rapid growth of urban centers as well as urban slums. These bring about a break in the family ties as well as break in forces which inhibit a break of criminal behavior. Miller (1987) observed that “in traditional society, the individual was surrounded by all his relatives and this family determines his career and his ambition. The group cares for

him in cases of sickness, accidents, old age and emergencies. This large family moreover was supported by the surrounding community which was also harmonious in its traditional culture. The social community provides few opportunities for individualism in behavior only a few crimes were committed in the group.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

It is a common notion that theories are formulated to explain and understand how society works. Theories contain hypothetical statements that have been tested and trusted over a period of time. As a result, the search for theories of violence has been a long-standing endeavour that has preoccupied the minds of sociologists, since the early 20th century.

2.3.1 Relative Deprivation Theory (RDT)

Relative deprivation theory (RDT) was developed in 1949 by Samuel Stouffer and it is fundamentally embedded in the psychological theory of frustration-aggression hypothesis. Retrospectively, early psychological theories of crime believed that the cause of crime lies in the individuals' psychology. They argued that individuals with personality disorder are more likely to commit crimes than those within the borderline of neurotypical personalities. This line of thinking may have influenced the development of the RDT. However, RDT moved beyond the individual psychology to understand collective psychology that aggravates crime and violence.

The idea of relative deprivation specifically measures individuals' subjective evaluation of their financial and political position or other measurement of social examination. Relative deprivation is more critical when predicting individuals' conduct, compared with "objective" measures of hardship, such as, poverty and inequality. Scholars

contended that individuals will encounter relative deprivation when they need X, or see that comparatively others have X, and feel qualified to have X (Davis, 1959), and individuals must think it is attainable to get X (Runciman, 1966), while people do not have an awareness of other's expectations for their inability to have X (Crosby, 1976).

RDT refers to the disenchantment people feel when they compare their positions to others and realise that others in the group possess something that they do not (Chen, 2015). When this feeling persists, it may lead to frustration, stress and aggression, which may result to violence. Gurr (1970), one of the pioneers of RDT, contends that relative deprivation is the distinction between one's value expectations and value capabilities. Value expectation alludes to merchandise and opportunities that the individual needs and feels qualified for, evaluated, taking into account correlations with others. Gurr (1970) indicates that youth violence is normal if the general practices and legislative issues that authorize vicious responses to violence are enormous. In any given society, deprived youth are usually pushed to the edges of society (Lea & Young, 1984). While, in response to their social, monetary and political deprivations, greater numbers of youths have momentarily entered the world of violence and created a criminal sub-culture that consequently wreaks destruction on the security of lives and property.

Gurr (1970) maintains that the perception of deprivation, marginalisation, and persecution of the individuals in a given community may lead to frustration and anger. He argues that people rebel because they were frustrated and angered by the enormity of the socio-economic and structural inequalities, which are inextricably entrenched in the fabrics of societies. Ikuomola et.al., (2009) notes that as a reaction to social marginalisation in Lagos, area boys (thugs) react to their weaknesses by constructing sub-

cultures based around violent conduct and other deviant behaviours, including theft and violence.

However, Tilly (1978); Burton et al. (1994); Tarrow(1998) have criticized the methodological pertinence of relative deprivation as an indicator of youth violence and reason that relative deprivation is not an imperative indicator of violence. While it is contended that clarifications of violence ought to start by analysing the social and political structures of the areas (Skocpol, 1994). Tilly (1978) focused attention on political mobilization as the impetus and driver of violence in human social orders. Tarrow (1998) is of the opinion that there is the requirement for mass social movements for structured and organized youth violence in human society.

Bandura (1973:33) criticized RDT as follows.

The widespread acceptance of the relative deprivation notion is perhaps attributable more to its simplicity than to its predictive power. In fact, the formula that deprivation-frustration breed aggression does not hold up well under empirical scrutiny in laboratory studies in which conditions regarded as deprivative-frustrative are systematically varied. Deprivation-Frustration, as commonly defined, is only one-and not necessarily the most important-factor affecting the expression of aggression and violent conflicts.

Criticism against relative deprivation notwithstanding, the assumptions of RDT are still relevant to the understanding of youth violence in Kogi state in particular and Nigeria in general. From the theory, it can be argued that the major actors of violence in the state and other disadvantaged neighbourhoods in Nigeria usually lack legitimate means of income, formal education and awareness of other's expectations in the general public. This kind of youth when contrasting their condition with other people who are

moderately doing admirably well tend to feel ignored and dejected and may subsequently set out to engage in violence to make themselves relevant in the society.

To sum up, RDT is the most useful perspective in explaining and understanding the effects of the crimes of armed robbery, kidnapping and terrorism in Kogi State. For instance, in spite of the billions of dollars spent, the non-functional Ajaokuta Steel Company established in Lokoja in Ajaokuta Steel Mill built by the Soviet Union in 1979 under a cooperation agreement with Nigeria, the complex reached 98% completion by 1994 – this should have been the base of Nigeria’s industrialization, but has yet to meet expectations within the local community and even nationally. The frustration created from the lack of employment opportunities and inadequate government services has created the enabling environment for crimes such as armed robbery, kidnapping and terrorism to occur. To compliment the RDT, the theories of Social Disorganisation and Broken Windows are examined below.

2.3.2 Social Disorganization Theory (SDT)

Social disorganization theory (SDT) of violence has a long history in the field of sociology and this was propounded by Shaw and McKay (1942). The concern for social violence has occupied an important space in sociological lexicon since the time of classical sociologists. The theory is concerned with why violence is more common and prevalent in some neighbourhoods than others. Among the questions raised as identified by Thomas and Znaniecki (1918) are:

- i. Which neighbourhood attributes advance social disorganization in a society?

- ii. Is there something about the qualities of these neighbourhoods that encourage violence? and;
- iii. Why is violence higher in some neighbourhoods than others?

The idea of SDT was first proposed by Thomas and Znaniecki(1918) towards the end of the First World War. However, the theory was popularised in sociological circles at the Chicago School by Robert Park in 1924. The theory suggests that social disorganization within a society, especially in urban centres, is a consequence of industrialisation, migration flows, neighbourhood deterioration and the absence of social control (Rubington& Weinberg 2010). Robert Park and his colleagues combined SDT with other theoretical propositions to investigate and examine the socio-ecological connection of neighbourhood and violence. The idea was to deal with the environmental and social diversities of the criminogenic neighbourhood that catalyses youth engagement in violent acts (Bursik, 1988).

Incidentally, the classical SDT influenced contemporary sociologists, in their analysis, Shaw and Mckay (1942) argue that socio-economic structures, residential mobility and ethnic heterogeneity are important factors for measuring the level of social disorganisation in any neighbourhood. During the early years of the theory, Shawand McKay (1942) contend that social order requires that community members oversee and control teenage groups, neighbourhood kinship systems formed and active participation in formal and voluntary associations. However, the more complex a society becomes the more social control becomes difficult to instil. Poverty, residential mobility, ethnic heterogeneity and weak social networks decrease a neighbourhood's capacity to control

public conduct of people, and hence increase the likelihood of violence (Kubrin&Weitzer 2003).

It is argued that where people persistently move in and out of a particular neighbourhood, it becomes difficult for residents to know who to trust which consequently hampers social cohesion and erodes informal social control to prevent violence (Sampson & Groves 1989; Bursik & Grasmick 1993; Kubrin & Weitzer 2003). Shaw and McKay (1942) notices that, beside the absence of behavioural regulation, socially dispersed neighbourhoods tend to create “criminal conventions” that could be passed to progressive eras of adolescents.

Indeed, Shaw and McKay’s (1942) studies provide the impetus for the SDT to become popularised and widely accepted. The popularity continued until 1970’s, thereafter the relevance of SDT started to wane, especially in analysing youth violence. However, barely a decade later the theory experienced a revitalisation, which started with the works of several sociologists and those outside the field of sociology.

Among these were Kornhauser (1978); Stark (1987), Sampson and Groves (1989), Land et al. (1990), Bursik and Grasmick (1993), Wilson (1996), and Bursik (1998). These scholars’ empirical studies boosted and helped to extend the scope of SDT as a theoretical construct. The scope of the theory was adjusted to include variables and constructs beyond the macro-level components specified by Park and Burgess (1924) and Shaw and Mckay (1942). According to Bursik and Grasmick (1993:39), ‘key causal processes have been reformulated into a more sophisticated systemic model that

incorporates both intra-neighbourhood and extra-neighbourhood factors and more clearly specifies the relationships among these factors’.

More specifically, Sampson and Groves (1989) added urbanisation, family disruption and concentration of youths in a neighbourhood to the theoretical formulation of SDT. In these analyses, urbanization was used as the main criterion of social disorganization. It is argued that urbanization can have major effects on a neighbourhood’s quality of life. The deindustrialization of inner-city neighbourhoods would directly wash-out the number of blue-collar jobs, and increases economic deprivation, leading to the growth of illegal drug distributions and consumptions in socially disadvantaged neighbourhoods, and consequently aggravate youth violence (Doran & Lee 2005).

Other social determinants of social disorganization in a society are education, occupation, median family income and family disruption. It is argued that, a neighbourhood characterised by a high number of uneducated people, high levels of unemployed young people, high level of poor people and a high rate of divorce is a fertile-ground for crime and violence. It is suggested that social disorganization encourages youth violence through its effects on family structures and stability (Sampson & Grooves 1989).

While researchers have employed SDT empirically and theoretically to explain neighbourhood disparity in youth violence, critics have pointed out that the theory is at best substantively and methodologically deficient. According to Bursik (1988), a key problem is with the measurement of what constitutes social disorganization. He argued that the theory does not separate the presumed outcome of social disorganization (such as high rates of crime and delinquency) from disorganization itself (Kubrin&Weitzer 2003).

Critics contend that criminality and other forms of social disturbance were both often cited, as examples of disorganization, while in the real sense were something caused by social disorganization itself. It is difficult to delineate whether social disorganization is the dependent or independent variable.

To sum up, despite the criticism, SDT has occupied an important place in sociological and criminological thought because of its popularity and utility in the understanding of crime and violence (Lowenkamp, et al., 2003; Paulsen & Robinson 2004). The Social Disorganization Theory sheds some light on the prevalence of crime, especially youth crime in Kogi State. For instance, poor housing and settlement infrastructure around the Lokoja Central Market in the capital of the state is a good example of an environment riddled with little social solidarity and little respect for values and norms. The market and its environs is a haven for gangs and criminals to thrive. Another prominent town Okene is also contending with inadequate social amenities that ought to enable a decent quality of life.

2.3.3 Broken Window Theory (BWT)

Wilson and Kelling (1982) proposed the broken windows theory of crime. They adopted the analogy of ‘Window-Building’ to outline how minor fierce act may lead to major violent act if not legitimately attended to by the security agencies. According to Wilson and Kelling (1982), if the first broken window in a building is not repaired, the general population who like breaking windows would assume that nobody cares about the building and more windows would be broken. Before long, the building would have no windows. The underlining assumption of the theory to the understanding of crime and violence is that, where any fierce act of demonstration has gone unchallenged, un-

checkmated, or not legitimately managed by the appropriate security agencies, it would create more violent acts (Skogan 1990; Kelling & Coles, 1996). The theory suggests that signs of physical disorder (such as illegal dumpsites, dilapidated buildings, lack of security patrol, and unplanned structure) in a neighbourhood can predispose such neighbourhood to violence. The fundamental assumption of the theory is that physical disorder in a neighbourhood can infringe the ways in which residents can wield social control. Thus, lack of social control makes the neighbourhood prone to social disorder activities such as bars (public drinking), gambling, and brothels (prostitution).

The relevance of the Broken Windows theory to this study rests on the notion that certain parts of Kogi State have been so neglected that social order is not respected. For instance in Dekina town, which is also a Local Government Head Quarters, one can find abandoned buildings, unchecked erosion, and untidy premises that all contribute to the levels of deviance and criminality found in the area.

Nevertheless, researchers have questioned the theoretical relevance of the BWT, among the questions raised by critics were: what is the theoretical basis for BWT? Why are windows in the neighbourhood broken in the first place? According to critics, while the theory posited that the primary causes of youth violence are broken windows, failure of the theory to provide convincing answers to its hypothetical issues have diminished the hypothesis to a negligible theoretical exercise, with constrained theoretical, empirical and methodological importance in clarifying the etymology of youth violence in disadvantaged neighbourhoods.

Xu, Fiedler and Flaming (2005), Bratton and Kelling (2006), Gault and Silver (2008) took exception to this interpretation and argued that the broken windows thesis never

suggested a direct path between disorder and youth restiveness, but rather asserted that the path was indirect and asymmetric. They, accordingly, introduced a logical grouping of its hypothetical formulations. Likewise, socio-physical or physical disorder in a disadvantaged neighbourhood would build the trepidation of violent action the neighbourhood, which would decrease social control and leave neighbourhoods defenceless against criminal invasion.

Historically, RDT, SDT and BWT stand out among the prominent theories of crime and violence. Specifically, RDT explains frustration and aggression can exacerbate collective violence even though it tends to see the eruption of violence as a rational means to redress economic or political grievances (Gurr 1970; Sambanis 2002).

The theory posits that the experience of frustration, grievances and aggression often creates conducive atmosphere for the eruption of violence as experienced in most part of Nigeria, especially in Kogi state. The SDT argue that a neighbourhood characterized by social disorganization provides fertile-ground for violence. Such a society is characterized by lack of behavioural control mechanisms and a culture of violence. It identifies residential mobility, family disruption, low socio-economic status, poverty, and unemployment as causal factors of crime and violence. The theory posit that neighbourhoods with more of these vices and social ills are more prone to violence than those with less. BWT proposes that where any violent act goes un-checked, or not properly dealt with immediately either by the community or law enforcement agents, it could generate more violent acts (Skogan 1990; Kelling & Coles 1996). The moment a society or community fails to address crime immediately, the situation can degenerate to a more chaotic condition.

Given the complexity and diversity of violence, a single variable or factor is grossly inadequate in explaining its etymology. Although each of the RDT, SDT and BWT has their merits, each may not be sufficient to understand the complexity of restiveness in Kogi state or anywhere in the world. A combination of the assumptions and variables as proposed becomes indispensable in the understanding of crime and violence in any given society. Incidentally, researchers, including Merton (1956) have advocated for the adoption of multi-theoretical approach in sociological and criminological studies. A theoretical pluralism combines many theoretical formulations to explain a particular social problem. The importance of multiple-theoretical approach is situated in its exhaustiveness and extensiveness to provide the basis for the understanding of multi-factors aetiology of youth violence. It is considered a framework sufficient to provide thorough explanations of the multiple factors precipitating social problem like youth violence.

It is against this circumstantial that this thesis adopted a ‘Causal-Preventive Model of Youth Violence’ of Abdullahi and Issah(2016) as the theoretical pluralistic approach to explaining youth restiveness and insecurity in Nigeria. The “Causal-Preventive Model of Youth Violence” summarizes the predisposing and enabling factors of youth violence (with plus signs) as contained in the RDT, SDT and BWT and simultaneously suggesting policy options to promote long-lasting, sustainable peace (with minus signs) not only in Kogi state but Nigeria as a whole.

From the theory, it is evident that, RDT explains that the perceived gaps between value expectations and capabilities may lead to feelings of anger and disenchantment among the people in the state that are socially disadvantaged, and, consequently, can result in

collective restiveness. RDT argue that individuals will encounter relative deprivation when they need X, see that comparative others have X, and feel qualified to have X. This is even more likely where some groups of people compare their standard of living with others with whom they used to share similar characteristics that have used violence to gain access to political power. Incidentally, this may have further fuelled the resurgence of militancy in the Niger Delta regions because those who did not benefit from the Amnesty Programme of the government wanted to have share of 'national cake'. So, as the government is trying to quench the flame of violence in the Niger Delta, more violence may have been taking place. Similarly, previously condemned thugs in Kogi state are seen living large. Some of them are even holding political offices. When other criminals see this happening, they may wish to continue their activity hoping that government would listen to them some day.

Therefore, the real performing artists of youth restiveness in the state and other places in Nigeria have the tendency to compare themselves with the vast majority of the hooligans that have been utilised by the politicians to accomplish political goals, but who were later compensated for the 'good job' done with colossal sums of money, lucrative contracts and even political offices. This may spur an interest in violence to attract the political class or have access to resources. Relative deprivation among the dejected and neglected youth may result in sentiments of misery, disappointment, grievance, and outrage, and may be an effective motivator of violence, as are widely reported in the Ilorin metropolis recently. RDT suggests that youth reintegration programmes should be instituted in the neighbourhoods and that decision-makers should be realistic and transparent in the

utilization of financial resources for youth to reduce risks facing them in the neighbourhoods.

Social disorganization theory, explains youth restiveness in terms of socio-economic disadvantages such as of residential mobility or turnover, poverty and unemployment, and the presence of uncompleted or abandoned buildings, which may serve as the potential hideouts for the potential perpetrators of youth restiveness in the state. Research has found that the state physical and social characteristics contribute greatly to the incidence of youth restiveness. Scholars have posited that economically poor neighbourhoods differ from affluent neighbourhoods in a number of ways and those living in poverty have a much greater chance of being violent than the general population (Shaw & McKay 1972; Odumusu 1999; Siegel 2005; Moser & McIlwaine 2006).

Thus, disadvantaged neighbourhoods in the state are chromogenic as they are characterized by high concentrations of poor people with high levels of transiency, family disruption, crowded housing, school dropouts, criminal subculture, substance abuse, unemployment and underemployment (Baugher, & Lamison-White, 1996; Odumusu 1999; Siegel, 2005). It can thus be argued that the greatest incentive influencing violent behaviour among youth in the state include poor living conditions that youth find them in.

In consonance with this position, researchers such as Hong and Farley (2008); Eamon (2001); Smith and Jarjoura (1988) posit that what usually inspired violence among youth has to do with poverty, economic frustration, insufficient infrastructure, political disagreement, and failure of government to punish the previous perpetrators of violence.

Thus, the proposed model suggests urban renewal, poverty reduction strategies, slum upgrading programmes and promotion of social capital and cohesion in the neighbourhoods as a sustainable measure to ensuring peace and tranquillity in the neighbourhoods that are socially disadvantaged. BWT, which also has an association with the SDT, suggests that physical disorders such as the proliferation of vacant and uncompleted buildings, neighbourhood unplanned structures, illegal dumpsite, bar and cannabis joints and social disorders (pervasiveness of poverty, unemployment in the state) often lead to fear among residents and violent acts among the non-conformists in the state. Such unique characteristics in the state might be ‘pull factors’ for violence, because they serve as hide-outs for violent youths.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter illustrates the methods that were employed by the researcher to achieve the aim of the study which is effect of crime on security in Kogi state, Nigeria. The major components of the chapter include research design, population, sample size and sampling techniques, method of data collection, method of data analysis, validation of instrument, and reliability of instrument.

3.1 Research Design

The social survey design was adopted for this study. This technique according to Kothari (2009) involves collecting data from respondents for the purpose of analysis. The study employed survey research design due to its ability to elicit data from a large population easily. The method ensures representativeness from the large population hence; it is a method used for obtaining data and information from a large population that can ordinarily not be able to be studied in its entirety given the largeness of a population.

Data to be used for this study was obtained by administering questionnaire and in-depth interview to the sampled respondents that are drawn from the larger population in such a way that it is representative of the entire population under study.

3.2 Population, Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

Kogi state has a projected population of 4,473,500 as at 2018 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2018). However, the target for this study is not the entire population of Kogi State but adult male and female who are 18 years and above and are residing in six (6) selected local government areas in Kogi State which include; Ajaokuta, Ibaji, Idah,

Ijumu, Lokoja and Okene. Two local governments each was selected from the three (3) senatorial districts in the State. The total population of the selected local government areas is projected to be nine hundred and sixty five thousand seven hundred and fifteen (965,715) according to National Bureau of Statistics (2018) population projections. Table 3.1 below describes the population across selected local government areas.

Table 3.1: Population Distribution of Respondents in selected Local Government Areas in Kogi State, Nigeria

Local Government Area	Projected Population	Percentage (%)
Ajaokuta	122,321	13
Ibaji	128,129	13
Idah	79,815	8
Ijumu	119,929	13
Lokoja	195,261	20
Okene	320,260	33
Total	965,715	100

Source: National Bureau of Statistics (2018) Population projection report.

Considering the fact that the population for the study is large, it becomes obviously difficult if not impossible to study the entire population. Hence, obtaining sample from the entire population shall be necessary. Therefore, a sample of four hundred (400) respondents was drawn using Taro Yamane's (1973) statistical formula for sample size

determination. Details of Yamane's statistical technique in the determination of sample size are given below:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N (e)^2}$$

Where:

n = sample size

N = Population

e = Error margin (5%)

I = Constant

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore, } n &= \frac{965715}{1 + 965715 (0.05)^2} \\ &= \frac{965715}{1 + 965715 (0.0025)^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{965715}{1 + 2414}$$

$$n = \frac{965,715}{2415}$$

$$n = 399.8$$

$$n = 400$$

Therefore, the sample size is 400.

Table 3.2: Population and Sample Size

Local Government Area	Projected Population	Sample Size
Ajaokuta	122,321	$122,321 \times 400 / 965,715 = 51$
Ibaji	128,129	$128,129 \times 400 / 965,715 = 53$
Idah	79,815	$79,815 \times 400 / 965,715 = 33$
Ijumu	119,929	$119,929 \times 400 / 965,715 = 49$
Lokoja	195,261	$195,261 \times 400 / 965,715 = 81$
Okene	320,260	$320,260 \times 400 / 965,717 = 133$
Total	965,715	400

Source: Computed by the Researcher, 2019

Table 3.2 above show details of the population of each selected local government and its sample size as computed by the researcher. The population of Ajaokuta is 122,321 with a sample size of 51; the population of Ibaji is 128,129 with a sample size of 53, and the total population of Idah is 79,815 with a sample of 33. Also, the population of Ijumu is 119,929 with a sample size of 49, Lokoja has a population 195,261 with sample size of 81, and the population of Okene is 320,260 and the sample size is 133. Hence, the total sample size for this study will be 400 respondents.

In this study multistage sampling technique was employed. A multistage sampling technique involves selecting sample from another sample. In this sampling procedure, the

primary groups and sub-groups are selected on the basis of geographical distribution rather than other characteristics. This technique was employed in the selection of Local Government; Electoral wards; main streets, houses/compounds, household and respondent/individual. The procedures are described as follows:

In stage one, six local government areas were selected from the three senatorial districts in the State using simple random sampling technique. Here, the lottery method of simple random sampling was employed where numbers were assigned to all the local government areas, folded and put in a bowl for the researcher to pick. This process was being repeated until six local government areas were selected.

In stage two, one electoral ward was selected from each local government area through the same procedure adopted in stage one so as to obtain a total of six electoral wards.

In stage three, simple random sampling technique was adopted to select six main streets (main streets are streets with high vehicular movement) from each electoral ward using the lottery method. Numbers were assigned to each street, folded and put in a bowl. It was shaking vigorously and picked by the researcher which gives a total of 36 streets.

In stage four, in each of the selected streets, systematic sampling technique was utilized to select houses/compounds with adult male and female that are 18 years and above. This procedure continued until eleven (11) houses/compounds were duly selected from 36 streets (that is 11 multiply by 36 streets equals to 396 adult male and female).

In stage five, in each of the selected houses/compounds, systematic sampling technique was employed to select households with adult male and female that are 18 years and above.

Finally, stage six was the selection of respondent/individual. In each household, simple

random sampling method was used to select respondents using lottery methods. The respondent/individual is the adult male and female that is 18 years and above in the selected households.

3.3 Methods of Data Collection

The study generates data via the primary and secondary sources. The primary sources rely on questionnaire. Quantitative data was collected through the use of questionnaire. Questionnaire is the most appropriate instrument for this study because of its general simplicity and has a wider reach of the respondents. It provides a standard form of responses for the generality of the target respondents which also makes it easier for analyses. The questionnaire was structured into sections with thirty one (31) items. Section A contains socio-demographic characteristics of respondents and section B has items which contain the variables that border on the research questions. The structured questionnaire was designed using a five-point Likert Scale response of Strongly Agreed (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagreed (D) and Strongly Disagreed (SD).

Questionnaire in the study was administered using self-administered and interviewer-administered methods with the help of research assistants. The choice of these methods is considered more appropriate because the study area has educated and uneducated population. In addition, the research employed the services of six (6) research assistants. Research assistants were drawn from students of Faculty of Social Sciences, Nasarawa State University, Keffi. They were trained on how to administer questionnaires and communicate effectively with the respondents thereby eliminating language barrier to attract more reliable responses from respondents because the research assistants were selected from the local indigenes of each of the local governments selected. In addition,

research assistants were trained by the researcher to adhere to the ethics of research as well as procedures for follow-up in the events where questionnaires are not properly completed.

The qualitative data collection was generated through the use of in-depth interview and the questions which were related to variables embedded in the in-depth interview guide as a follow-up to justify research triangulation. Also, the researcher conducted in-depth interview with the security agencies (Police, Civil Defence, Immigration officers, Prison official and NDLEA), community leaders, religious leaders and relevant stakeholders in the sampled areas of study in Kogi state, Nigeria.

Secondary sources of data was generated through books, journals, bulletins, governments gazettes, monograph, newspapers and magazines; unpublished materials like theses, dissertations, projects, papers presented at conferences, workshops, symposia, and consultation fora.

3.4 Techniques for Data Analysis

Data generated in the course of this study was collated, coded and analyzed using both the descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics was presented in tables showing frequencies distributions and simple percentages to describe the socio-demographic information of respondents while the research questions was through the use of frequencies, percentages, charts, and a five point Likert scale respectively.

Also, the inferential statistics data was analyzed using the multiple regressions. This is because the study examined how crime affect security in Kogi State, Nigeria.

The multiple regression equation for testing the hypotheses is given as:

$$SEC = \alpha + \beta_1 ARMROB + \beta_2 KIDNAP + \beta_3 TERROR + \mu$$

Where;

SEC stands for insecurity

ARMROB stands for armed robbery

KIDNAP stands for kidnapping

TERROR stands for terrorism, and

μ stands for error term.

The qualitative data was transcribed verbatim into English, together with observational notes. Furthermore, the data was sifted and sorted. Analysis start with the first; reading and listening to tape that was used to record information over and over again to ensure proper transcription. To further check for validity of transcription, 5 per cent of the tapes was also be re-transcribed by another person to ascertain the accuracy of the information recorded. A manual sheet was developed after which the information was analyzed. This was necessary because the qualitative data was to promote a unique synthesis that enhances the understanding of the processes at play in evaluation. The words generated was transcribed, described, summarized and interpreted to provide insight on the effect of crime on the security of Kogi state, Nigeria.

3.5 Justification of the Methods Used

The primary data collected by means of questionnaire and in-depth interview were used because the study relies on the opinions of the respondents, and the best way to get these opinions is by asking the relevant authorities. The multiple regression analysis was used

because the study is on the effect of crime on security in Kogi State and the best way to measure these effects is to model it using the regression analysis.

3.6 Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

To ensure the content validity of the instruments to measures what was designed to measure, the drafted research instrument was presented to three experts one from the department of Sociology, Nasarawa State University, Keffi and the other experts who are knowledgeable in Scientific research from the Department of Mathematics and Statistics, Nasarawa State University, Keffi respectively who scrutinized the questionnaire, conduct factor analysis to ensure that the instrument conforms with the research variables and represent the research objectives formulated.

Also, the instrument was presented to the chairman supervisory committee for scrutiny and other observations, suggestions and corrections noted was duly incorporated to ensure compliance with ethical research regulations.

Reliability of this study was adopted to determine the internal consistency of the instrument. Neil (2009) observed that instrument is said to be reliable if it produces same results under consistent situations. The researcher note the coefficient of reliability that is between 0.50 - 99 was considered reliable and accepted. To test the reliability of the instrument, the researcher conducted a pilot study by distributing questionnaire numbering thirty (30) to target respondents through the help of one trained research assistant. The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient measure of internal consistency was used to ascertain the results. The reliability of the instrument using Cronbach Alpha reliability test aided using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and the result was analyzed accordingly.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The chapter is concerned with presentation, interpretation and analysis of data collected by researcher from the field. The presentation, interpretation and analysis cover quantitative data that were collected for the study. The study administered 400 questionnaires out of which 383 were duly completed and returned. Therefore, the data for this study were presented and analyzed based on the 383 questionnaires returned by the respondents.

4.1 Socio-demographic Characteristics of Respondents

This section highlights the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents as they relate to the subject of the study. In this regard, the study highlighted and analyzed the distribution of the respondents on the basis of their age, sex, marital status, religion, level of educational qualification, work experience and senatorial district.

Table 4.1 Gender distribution of the respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	261	68.1
Female	122	31.8
Total	383	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019

From Table 4.1, above is the gender distribution of the respondents with it can be deduced that most of the respondents were male, i.e. about 68.1% of the respondents while the remaining 31.8% were female. This shows that high proportions of the respondents are male in the study area.

Table 4.2 Age Distribution of the Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
21-30	93	24.2
31-40	107	27.9
41-50	122	31.8
Above 50	61	15.9
Total	383	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019

From Table 4.2 above is the presentation of age distribution of respondents. The number of respondents between the ages of 21 and 30 are 93 which represent about 24.3 percent of the respondents. Similarly, 107 of the respondents were between the ages of 31 and 40, that is about 27.9 percent, 122 of them were aged between 41 and 50 years which is about 31.8 percent of the respondents and finally, 15.9 percent of them which is about 70 respondents were 50 years and above. This shows that majority of the respondents are between the age of 41-50 years in the study area.

Table 4.3: Marital Status of the Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Single	109	28.4
Married	218	56.9
Divorced	45	11.7
No response	11	2.8
Total	383	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Information in table 4.3 illustrate that 28.4 percent of the respondents in Kogi state are single, while 56.9 percent are married, 11.7 percent of the total respondents are divorced and 2.8 percent of the total respondents are for no response from the study area. From the above table, it is clear that the highest proportions of the total respondents are married and constitute the active working group in the study area.

Table 4.4 Educational Qualification of the Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
O'LEVEL	121	31.5
OND/NCE	102	26.6
BSC	81	21.1
MASTERS	56	14.6
PHD	23	6.0
Total	383	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 4.4 shows the qualifications of the respondents. Out of the 383 total respondents, 31.5 percent have O'level certificate, 26.6 percent of the total respondents have OND/NCE certificate, 21.1 percent of the total respondents have BSc certificate, 14.6 percent of the total respondents have master degree and 6.0 percent of the total respondent have PhD degree. This implies that high proportion of the respondents have O' level certificate in the sampled area of study.

Table 4.5 Work Experience of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Below 1 year	20	5.2
1 – 3 years	103	26.6
Above 3 years	64	16.7
No experience	196	51.2
Total	383	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019

The work experience shows that 20 respondents representing 5.2 percent of the total respondents had a work experience below one year., 26.6 percent of the respondents, had been working between one and three years, 16.7 percent of the total respondents had been working three years and above and 51.2 of the total respondents have no working experience. This shows that majority of the total respondents have no working experience in the sampled area.

Table 4.6 Senatorial District

Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Central	131	34.2
West	128	33.4
East	124	32.3
Total	383	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019

The distribution of respondents based on the senatorial districts are shown in Table 4.6. From this table, the central senatorial district has the highest response rate of about 131

respondents, followed by the western senatorial districts with 128 respondents, and finally, the eastern senatorial districts with 124 respondents. The percentage distribution of the respondents was 34.2 percent, 33.4 percent and 32.3 percent for the central, western and eastern senatorial districts respectively. The data were collected from the three senatorial districts of Kogi State, which the study was carried out. Thus, the data were collected from the all the senatorial zones to enable proper representation and avoid bias. The nature of the crimes and how they are committed might be different from one senatorial district to the other.

4.2 Data Analysis

4.2.1 Armed Robbery and Insecurity in Kogi State

The data collected were described using tables, percentages, mean and standard deviations. To test the hypothesis and answer the research questions, ordinary least square regression analysis was employed. This is to show the effect of armed robbery on insecurity in Kogi state.

Table 4.7: Summary Statistics of data of the first Hypothesis

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. dev	Min	Max
Security	383	4.42134	0.721	1	4
Arm Robbery	383	4.1122	0.626	3	5

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 4.7 shows the summary statistics of the coded response of the questionnaire from the 383 respondents. The table shows that the average responses for questions on security is 4 which is the code for agree. This mean that most of the respondents agree that there are security challenges in Kogi state. The minimum responses were 1 which stand for strongly disagree and the maximum responses was 4 which stand for agree.

Similarly, the responses for questions on armed robberies has an average response of 4 which shows that most of the respondents agreed to the questions. The standard deviation shows that there are little deviations from the mean responses. The minimum responses were 3 which stand for strongly undecided and the maximum responses was 5 which stand for strongly agree.

In the in-depth interview, most of the respondents agree that there are security challenges in the sampled areas of the study as reported by a police officer that;

“in recent time our area has experienced a lot of security issues like kidnapping, armed robbery, insurgency, assassination, political thuggery, ethnic rivalry and other criminal activities”.

Also, a community leader affirmed that;

“.....seriously, we can’t sleep with our eyes closed because of insecurity in our community. These days we have different forms of crime such as terrorism kidnapping, armed robbery, assassination, political thuggery and ethnic rivalry”.

Effect of Armed Robbery on Insecurity in Kogi state

The Ordinary least square Regression was used to test the hypothesis on the effect of armed robbery on insecurity in Kogi state. The regression result is shown in table 8.

Table 4.8: Regression Result for the first hypothesis

security	Coef.	Std. Err	T	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
ArmRob	-0.6126	0.1635	-3.75	0.003	-0.1220	0.01141
_cons	3.7112	0.1144	32.44	0.000	4.12117	5.23219

Source: Field Survey, 2019

From the result, it shows that armed robbery has negative effect on security in Kogi State. This effect is significant at 5% level of significance, since the p-value is less than 0.05. this finding is in conformity with the a priori expectation of this study as incessant armed robbery activities will continue to lead to insecurity in the state.

In the study area a religious leader during an in-depth interview asserted that;

“....almost on daily basis, there are different cases of armed robbery in this community especially on our market day. This is actually affecting the community. No visitor wants to come to our village. We find it difficult to comprehend what is really the problem. We are just living by the grace of God”

In another in-depth interview a police officer confirmed that;

“.....in my division, we have cases of armed robbery reported almost on daily basis. It is more frequent on the community’s market days and it is re-occurring decimal”

4.2.2 Kidnapping and Insecurity in Kogi State

The second hypothesis for the study was also tested using Ordinary Least Square regression. But first, the descriptive statistics of the coded variables on insecurity and kidnapping was analyzed in Table4. 9.

Table 9: Summary Statistics of data on second hypothesis

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. dev	Min	Max
Security	383	2.47082	0.599	1	4
Kidnap	383	3.92218	0.41626	3	5

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 4.9 shows the summary statistics of the coded response of the questionnaire from the 383 respondents. The table shows that the average responses for questions on security is 2 which is the code for disagree. This means that most of the respondents disagree with the fact that there is adequate security in place in Kogi state. The minimum responses were 1 which stand for strongly disagree and the maximum responses was 4 which stand for agree.

In the in-depth interview there is clear consensus that most of the respondents disagree with the fact that there is adequate security in place in the sampled areas of Kogi state, Nigeria as demonstrated by a respondent as;

“we don’t have security in this area at all. All the security agencies are helpless. We have to organize ourselves to form community vigilante to assist with the rising cases of criminal activities in the community. Sometime even if you report to the police or civil defence, they don’t do anything about it. There is increase in level of insecurity in recent time.

Effect of kidnapping on insecurity in Kogi state

The Ordinary least square Regression was used to test the effect of kidnapping on insecurity in Kogi State. The regression result is shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Regression Result

Security	Coef.	Std. Err	T	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Kidnap	-0.0806	0.0635	-1.27	0.005	-0.2054	0.044111
_cons	2.78708	0.25044	11.13	0.000	2.29507	3.27909

Source: Field Survey, 2019

From the result, it shows that kidnapping has negative effect on security in Kogi State. This effect is significant at 5% level of significance, since the p-value is less than 0.05. This finding is in conformity with the a priori expectation of this study as incessant kidnapping activities will continue to lead to insecurity in the state.

4.2.3 Terrorism and Insecurity in Kogi State

To test the hypothesis and answer the research questions on terrorism and insecurity in Kogi State, the ordinary least square regression analysis was employed. This is to show the effect of terrorism on insecurity in Kogi State.

Table 4.11: Summary Statistics

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. dev	Min	Max
Security	383	4.1152	0.812	1	4
Terrorism	383	4.1122	0.116	2	5

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 4.11 shows the summary statistics of the coded response of the questionnaire from the 383 respondents. The table shows that the average responses for questions on security is 4 which is the code for agree. This mean that most of the respondents agree that there are security challenges in Kogi state. The minimum responses were 1 which stand for strongly disagree and the maximum responses was 4 which stand for agree.

Similarly, the response for questions on terrorism has an average response of 4 which shows that most of the respondents agreed to the questions. The standard deviation shows that there are little deviations from the mean responses. The minimum responses were 2 which stand for undecided and the maximum responses was 5 which stand for strongly agree.

The Ordinary least square Regression was used to test the effect of terrorism on insecurity in Kogi state. The regression result is shown in table 12.

Table 4.12: Regression Result

Security	Coef.	Std. Err	T	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Terror	-0.8512	0.5615	-4.75	0.004	-0.1220	0.01141
_cons	3.7112	0.4224	33.44	0.000	4.12117	5.23219

Source: Field Survey, 2019

From the result, it shows that terrorism has negative effect on security in Kogi state. This effect is significant at 5% level of significance, since the p-value is less than 0.05. This finding is in conformity with the data from this study as terrorist activities will continue to lead to insecurity in the state.

Also, there is clear consensus that most of the respondents agreed to that they have experience cases of terrorism in the sampled area as confirmed by a politician in the area that;

“.....in Kogi State, we have our own share of terrorism going on in the world. There are incidents of attack in this area. But some of them are arrested, although not prosecuted which has given more impetus to other criminals to engage in the act. Government should do something about it before they re-attack”

4.3 Discussion of Findings

In the preceding sections, the three research questions on the effect of crime on insecurity in Kogi State were answered. The conclusion from the three hypotheses was that kidnapping, armed robbery and terrorism have negative and significant effects on security in Kogi State.

As stated earlier, armed robbery has negative effect on security in Kogi State. This effect is significant at 5% level since the p-value is less than 0.05. This finding is consistent with the finding of Okon *et al.* (2015) who examined the impact of insecurity on business activities in Kogi State. It is also consistent with the findings of Yecho (2010) who lamented that armed robberies entail the direct loss of property which is transferred from the rightful owner to another Person. It may also lead to the loss of productivity as victims of violent armed robberies are incapacitated, thereby denying the society of their contribution to the output of the nation. Almost all the studies on armed robberies and insecurity are in agreement that it has negative and significant effects on security.

The hypothesis on the effect of kidnapping on insecurity in Kogi State found that it has a negative and significant effects on security in the State. This hypothesis was tested using

OLS regression method and at five percent level of significance. The finding of this hypothesis is in agreement with almost all the studies in this area. Nnaji (2000) opined that the rising trend of kidnapping in Nigeria has, more than anything else, created security and economic climate that impede sustainable national development. This is also in agreement with Tzanelli (2006), Raheeb (2008), Soyombo (2009), Nwogwugwu et al, (2012), and Ezeibe and Eze (2012).

On the hypothesis of the effect of terrorism on insecurity in Kogi state, it was found that it has negative and significant effects on security in Kogi State. It also tested at five percent level of significance that is we are ninety-five percent confident that kidnapping has negative and significant effects on security in Kogi State. This is in agreement with Enders and Sandler (2006), Gaibullov and Sandler (2009), Nwanegbo and Odigbo (2013), Adegami (2013), Ewetan and Urhie (2014). Almost all the scholars are in agreement as to the effect of terrorism on insecurity. For instance, in Kogi state, the discovery of several terrorist enclaves, especially IED/bomb making “factories” in Okene area of Kogi in early 2012 did lead to series of clashes between security agencies and the terrorists. These clashes and fear of further terrorist activities have had negative and significant effects on businesses in Okene which is an important commercial town in Kogi state.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

In recent times, insecurity in Nigeria has become a frequent phenomenon and this makes Nigerians in most parts of the country to live in perpetual fear every day for their lives, not knowing from where and when the next attack will come from. Criminal elements like kidnappers, armed robbers, herdsmen, terrorism, suicide bombers and insurgency have become regular occurrence in our daily lives. Thus, this study examined the effects of crimes on security in Kogi state and this thesis answered three research questions, three objectives and hypotheses which were advanced in the introductory chapter one.

In chapter two, the literature review was done in three main sections; the conceptual review, the empirical review and the theoretical review. In the conceptual review, the study addressed the concept of crime and the concept of security. For the empirical review, studies by various authors on crimes and security were reviewed. Specifically, the reviews were done in subsections; kidnapping and insecurity, armed robbery and security, and terrorism and security in Kogi state. Finally, theories of crimes like the Relative Deprivation theory, Social Disorganization theory and the Broken Windows Theory were reviewed.

In chapter three, the methodology adopted for the study was discussed. The research design adopted was the survey design. Respondents were selected from three senatorial districts of Kogi state. Analyses were done using both the descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The descriptive tools used were tables and percentages while the

descriptive tool was the ordinary least square regression analysis, since the study is looking at the cause-effect relationship.

In chapter four, the hypotheses were tested and the results showed that kidnapping, armed robbery and terrorism have negative and significant effects on security in Kogi State. These findings were discussed in line with similar studies on crimes and security around the world.

5.2 Conclusion

The main objective of this study was to examine the effect of crimes on security in Kogi state. The components of crime used as proxies are armed robbery, kidnapping and terrorism. From the data collected and the analysis done on those data, it was found that all the proxies of crime; armed robbery, kidnapping and terrorism have negative and significant effects on security in Kogi state. Thus, it can be concluded that crimes have negative and significant effects on security in Kogi state.

In explaining and understanding the specific crimes of armed robbery, kidnapping and terrorism, the Relative Deprivation Theory (RDT) draws attention to the consequences of the unfulfilled goals and aspirations of residents of Kogi State. Social and economic development appears to be stagnant. For instance, like most states in Nigeria Kogi has a large civil service population. Unpaid salaries for months to over a year cripple economic activities in the state and all other forms of livelihood. In another example, teachers are routinely on strike most of the time. Hence youths are not kept busy and eventually end up on the streets, thereby getting involved in various forms of criminal activities. In another scenario, and as alluded by respondents in this study, due to the rate of robberies

and kidnapping, many banks have shut down branches in villages and communities – the resultant effects are reduced commercial activities and ultimately job creating ventures as local and foreign investors do not find the environment conducive for business.

Finally, the crimes of armed robbery, kidnapping and terrorism are almost in all cases related or can be associated with economic motives. This is a clear indication that the citizens or residents of Kogi state are yearning for an atmosphere of improved investments by the government especially in the area of social responsibility and job creating initiatives. With this it is hoped that more towns and cities will emerge in Kogi state.

5.3 Recommendations

The major aim of every study is to make relevant recommendations to improve the phenomenon studied and this study is not an exception. Considering the findings of the study and conclusions that arises from it, the following recommendations are made:

- i. Non-governmental organizations and the government can help to reduce the crime of kidnapping by organizing workshops and seminars for parents, which will guide them in modelling youths to be disciplined and useful to the society. Religious leaders can make their own contributions through their teachings by instructing parents on the need to guide the wards in their custody to acquire better skills.
- ii. The security formation in Kogi state should be properly equipped to fight the menace of these crimes. If any officer is found wanting after this, there should be a machinery for proper discipline to be meted on them.

- iii. The punishment for those caught in these criminal activities should be severe and the judicial system should be apt in providing judgment for criminal cases. They should be no compromise for those caught as it will serve as deterrent to others nursing the idea.
- iv. The government should come up with robust economic policies that can create jobs and make people gainfully employed. The social investment and the empowerment programmes must be properly implemented as this will encourage the criminals with skills that have nobody to sponsor them can develop their talents and also become employers of labour. Youths can be exposed to latest innovation in science and technologies through periodic excursions by the government and NGOs' through different higher institution of higher learning in Nigeria.
- v. The security and intelligence system should develop a means of stemming the ugly issues of the proliferation of small and light arms in the country. This is encouraging criminal activities as there are lots of assault rifles in wrong hands. This can be achieved by replicating the amnesty programmes, where those with assault rifles can surrender them and won't be punished for it. Those that are using them for crimes can be rehabilitated.

5.4 Suggestion for Further Studies

In the quest to explain and understand the effect of crimes in the socio-economic and political situation in Kogi state, other crimes not covered in this study such as illegal mining, child trafficking and domestic violence could be investigated. Similar studies can be replicated for other states in Nigeria.

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APPENDIX
RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE
LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

Institute Governance and Development Studies,
Nasarawa State University, Keffi.

July 17, 2018.

Dear Respondent,

REQUEST TO COMPLETE QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a postgraduate student in the above-mentioned Institution. I am carrying out a research on the topic, **THE EFFECTS OF CRIME ON INSECURITY IN KOGI STATE.**

Consequently, I am soliciting for your kind cooperation to complete the questionnaire below. The attached questionnaire is designed to collect data for the study. It is purely for academic research purposes. All information provided will be treated as confidential.

Thank you.

Yours Faithfully,

IHIABE, Samson Abdul

(Researcher)

QUESTIONNAIRE

PART A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Instructions: Please fill in the correct information or tick as appropriate (✓)

1. State your rank.....
2. *Gender:* Male [] Female []
3. *Age:* 21-30yrs [] 31-40yrs [] 41-50yrs [] 50 above []
4. *Marital Status* Single [] Married [] Divorced []
5. *Educational Qualification:* OND/NCE [] B.sc/B.Ed/HND [] M.sc/M.A/MBA [] PhD []
Professional Qualification []
6. *Length of Experience:* More than 3 years' Experience [] One to Three years of Experience []
One Month to One Year of Experience []
7. Which senatorial District do you come from? Kogi West [] Kogi Central [] Kogi East []

PART B

1. Have you being a victim of armed robbery in Kogi State? Yes/No
2. Have you being a victim of kidnapping in Kogi State? Yes/No
3. Have you being a victim of Terrorism in Kogi State? Yes/No

PART C

Instruction: In the following section, please be guided by the scoring system below and select the most suitable options regarding your opinion

Keys to responses categories

- | | | |
|----------------|---|------|
| Strongly Agree | - | (SA) |
| Agree | - | (A) |
| Undecided | - | (U) |
| Disagree | - | (D) |

Strongly Disagree

- (SD)

A. CRIME

Item	Item Description	SA	A	U	D	SD
Q1	ARMED ROBBERY					
1	Armed robber normally come in groups when on operation.					
2	The armed robber operates freely without interference from security or other personnel as they wish.					
3	The mode of operations of the robberies differs from case to case.					
4	The robbers are motivated mostly the need to earn regular illicit income to pay bills and support family.					
5	They normally considers in detail any security measures that may be present and takes action to overcome them.					
6	Rarely, there are caught during operations					
7	They spend considerable time and effects organising disguises and escape plans.					
8	How often do armed robbers get caught before, during and after operation?					
9	They are normally armed with sophisticated weapons.					
10	The attitude of the robbers towards their victims is such that there are unconcerned of the impact of their crime on victims.					
11	Most take little pleasure in intimidating and injuring their victims.					
12	The number of physical injuries to victims caused by fire arms is relatively small compared with other weapon types.					
13	We often experience armed robbery around our community					
Q2	KIDNAPPING					
	We often experience kidnapping around our community					

14						
15	The incidence of kidnapping in Kogi State is very high					
16	Kidnapping is a treat to freedom in Kogi State					
17	The major motivation for kidnapping activities in Kogi State is a ransom payment					
18	People involved in kidnapping due to failure of Government to meet its basic obligations					
19	High rate of death are normally recorded from the incidence of kidnapping.					
20	I have been involved or know someone that has been directly involve in ransom payment to kidnappers.					
21	The criminal justice system are ineffective in curbing kidnapping activities in Kogi State.					
Q3	TERRORISM					
22	There is use of unlawful and ascerted weapon by groups whose motive are political, ideological and religious					
23	There are secretive membership recruitment drive in resident location by unknown group					
24	There are occasional attacks on security and civil locations around my vicinity.					
25	There are cases of suicide and car bombing, assassination, abduction, hijacking and disguising around our vicinity.					
26	There are attacks at public squares, government buildings and installations, worship centres, schools, and security operatives in the state.					

Q4 A. SECURITY

27	Security operative respond to crime complain promptly					
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28	Security at entrance to Kogi State and within the State are always alert to monitor inflow and outflow of arms and dangerous weapons in the State					
29	Crime take place often and freely without the culprit being brought to book					
30	There are security posts around most of the settlement in Kogi State					
31	Is social activities in Kogi affected by insecurity?					

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR EFFECT OF CRIME ON SECURITY IN KOGI STATE, NIGERIA

- i. What are the dimensions of crime in Kogi State, Nigeria?
- ii. What are the rates of crime in Kogi State, Nigeria?
- iii. What are the implications of crime on security in Kogi State, Nigeria?
- iv. What are the factors that motivate people to commit crime in Kogi State, Nigeria?
- v. What are the contributions of government on security in your area?
- vi. What are the roles of communities on security in your area?
- vii. Suggest possible solutions to eradicate crime in your community?