

UNEMPLOYMENT, CRIME RATE AND INTERNAL SECURITY IN EKITI STATE

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ABSTRACT

Unemployment, crime rate and security are impediments to social progress, and they lead to waste of human and material resources in the most nations of the world today, most especially developing countries including Ekiti State. Therefore, this study broadly examined the relationship among unemployment, crime rate and internal security in Ekiti State. The study employed both descriptive and inferential statistics using frequencies and percentage counts as well as binary Logit and Probit regression and marginal effect estimation to explore the stated objectives of this study. The population of study is 2,737,186 and the sample size using Taro Yamane formula is 400. The study adopted a multi-stage sampling technique (M-SST) and Ekiti State was stratified into three senatorial districts. 480 structured questionnaires were administered across the three senatorial districts of Ekiti State. From each senatorial district, six towns were selected (using simple random and systematic sampling techniques) comprising three urban and three rural towns, thus a total of 18 towns were selected in all. The findings showed that structural unemployment, crime-related socio-economic pressures, and the socio-economic consequences of unemployment significantly increase insecurity perception among the residents. The study also revealed that factors such as poor infrastructure, weak government policies, poverty, drug abuse, weak policing systems, inequality, and inability to meet basic needs accounted for unemployment and criminal activities which intensify insecurity concern in the State. The study therefore concluded that insecurity in Ekiti State is fundamentally driven by structural unemployment, socio-economic deprivation, and institutional weaknesses. Based on the findings and conclusion of the study, it is therefore recommended that government should prioritize employment creation programmes and improve infrastructural facilities in the State. More so, government should improve the operational capacity of security agencies in Ekiti State through adequate funding, modern security equipment, surveillance technology, and regular personnel training.

Keywords: Unemployment, Crime rate and Internal security, Ekiti State, M-SST.

1. INTRODUCTION

The main concept behind the formation of a state is security. Internal security is very critical to the functions of the state. The essence of the state is the promotion of good life and the creation of political conditions that would enhance the welfare of the citizenry. In recognition of the above, the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria specifically states that “The security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government” but in a situation where there is a threat to life and property as a result of governments’ inability to create and sustain an atmosphere conducive for the pursuit of economic interest by the population without interruptions from anybody, there is security crises. The causes of internal security are inevitable and they are parts of the fabrics of the society. The major determinants of it are unemployment, poverty, high rate of illiteracy, wrong use of security agencies, electoral fraud and manipulation, consequence of corruption and so on (Suleiman, 2018). Unemployment as one of the principal causes of insecurity and it is also a very important issue that has social effects on everybody and almost all the countries of the world either directly or indirectly. Unemployment as a social problem in Nigeria including Ekiti State has remained a major developmental challenge for a very long time. The plague of unemployment has ravaged almost all the countries of the world in different dimensions and at various times. Unemployment as a global phenomenon has engendered crime waves, perennial youth unrest and unstable socio-economic structure that have bedeviled several nations (Jamilu & Salihu, 2010). High unemployment in Ekiti State also drives a cycle of rising crime and internal security challenges. Prior to 2020, Ekiti State was consistently ranked among safest states in Nigeria with commonest and lowest crime

rate in Nigeria (NBS, 2017) but right from 2020 to date, Ekiti state has been facing escalating security challenges driven by a rising unemployment rate. Internal security has been on an increase due to unemployment that fuel violent crimes including cultism, rape, kidnapping and armed robbery. Studies like Falusi et.al (2024) and Luyi et.al. (2025) on criminology in Ekiti State, most especially the urban centres like Ado, Ikere, and Oye revealed a strong correlation between unemployment and criminal behaviour. Unemployment has led Ekiti youths to increased criminality such as burglary, theft, store breaking, armed robbery, cybercrime, political thug and kidnapping.

Statement of the Problem / Justification

Unemployment, crime rate and internal security are the most grievous problems facing most nations of the world today, most especially developing countries. They are impediments to social progress, and they lead to waste of human and material resources. There is increase in unemployment rate in Ekiti State from 2000 to 2018 and it is abnormal since 2020 till date according to National Bureau of Statistics. In 2002, unemployment rate was 17.5%, in 2004, it was 7.85%, in 2006 it was 8.7%, 2008 it rose sharply to 20.6, 2010, it maintained 20.6%, in 2012 it dropped to 13.3, in 2016 it was 14.9 and in May, 2018, it was 18.8% but unemployment surges to 33.3 % in 2020 in Ekiti State (NBS, 2021) as a result of economic hardship. The above statistical information is pointing out that there is high rate of unemployment in Ekiti and this portends serious social danger for the state. However, Ekiti state boasts one of the higher literacy rates in Nigeria but suffers from significant challenge of youth and graduates unemployment. This is attributed to lack of large-scale industries, collapse of local business and firms like textile industries and over reliance on public sector jobs, which have left many qualified graduate and youth idle.

Meanwhile, adoption of wrong timing of policy measures such as austerity measure and Structural Adjustment Programme conditionality's measure from International Monetary Fund (IMF) ushered in liberalization, deregulation and currency devaluation which resulted to the collapse of many industries in Nigeria including Textile industry in Ekiti State and many others. This factor is one among other factors that accounts for the high level of unemployment in Nigeria including Ekiti State as indicated above. Successive governments at the federal and state levels including Ekiti State had introduced various programmes to fight this high level of unemployment most especially among the youths in order to curb crime and criminality in our society but these programmes have been ineffective. These programmes failed to achieve the desired results partly because of poor implementation and other intervening factors. More so, the inability of the government to provide a secure and safe environment for lives, properties and the conduct of business and economic activities such as agriculture, industrialization and services has resulted in growing waves of crime and security crises. The insecurity in Nigeria has made the economy unattractive to foreign investors and this has slowed down the level of business and economic activities in Nigeria as well as retarding economic growth and national development. Based on the foregoing problems, the following research questions were specifically raised:

- (i) What are the magnitudes of unemployment and crime rates in Ekiti State?
- (ii) What effect does unemployment have on criminal behaviour in Ekiti State?
- (iii) What are the causal relationship among unemployment, crime rates and internal security in Ekiti State?

Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of this study is to explore the nexus among unemployment, crime rates and internal security in Ekiti while its specific objectives are to:

- i. Examine the magnitudes of unemployment and crime rates in Ekiti State.
- ii. Explore the effect of unemployment on criminal behavior in Ekiti State.
- iii. Ascertain the causal relationship among unemployment, criminal behaviour and internal security in Ekiti State

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual Issues

Concept of Unemployment

In macroeconomic statistics, unemployment is specifically defined by two main criteria: the absence of jobs and active pursuit of one. Unemployment is primarily driven by shifting economic cycles (frictional, structural, cyclical and seasonal unemployment). Unemployment is a condition that occurs when a person who is actively searching for employment is unable to find one. It is a situation where those who are willing and able to work cannot get work to do. The International Labour Organization (ILO) (2005), defined unemployed as the number of the economically active population who is without work but available and seeking a paid job, including people who have lost their job and those who have voluntarily left work. According to Adams Hayes(2026) defined unemployment as a situation in which persons of working age able and willing to work are unable to find a paid employment.

Concept of Crime

No society is free from crime and this has been attributed to many reasons like unemployment, hunger, greed etc. The major causes of crime in the state was found to be complex changes in economic, social and cultural factors such as unemployment, dysfunctional facilities, poor education, child abuses, substance abuse, economic inequality and community breakdown (Herman, 2009). Therefore, crime is defined as an act or omission against public interest to which a prescribed punishment is attached in the event of violation and it involves four major principles which are public wrong, moral wrong, law and punishment for the criminals (Dambazau, 2007). Also, according to Onoge, (1998), crime constitutes a problem when its incidence is as rampant in the society as it constitutes a threat to the security of life and property as well as social order and solidarity. The nature of these crimes include armed robbery, murder, rape, car theft, burglary, fraud, bribery, corruption, food and drug adulteration, gambling, smuggling, human trafficking, money laundering, internet scam, advanced fee fraud (419) and other illegal activities. Ekiti state also grapples with high rate of youth and graduate unemployment, driving up crimes like Cultism, petty theft kidnapping, armed robbery and cybercrime.

Concept of Internal Security

Imobighe (1990) conceptualized internal security as the freedom from or the absence of those tendencies which could undermine internal cohesion and the corporate existence of a nation and its ability to maintain its vital institutions for the promotion of its core values, socio-political and economic objectives as well as meeting the legitimate aspiration of the citizenry. The state cannot perform security purpose of the country unless maintenance of law and order is achieved. Therefore, internal security is quite an important aspect of national development. Internal security involves government coordination of all those actions that would guarantee that the equilibrium of state is constantly maintained or quickly brought to normal whenever it is threatened by any form of civil disturbances or distractions from students, political or religious groups (Ewentan and Urhie 2014). Besides, it also includes the capacity of the government to create and maintain agencies and mechanisms, and even institutions that would guarantee freedom from danger. In actual sense, a society without security threat is a dead society since security crisis is a reality of human existence and it is a means of understanding social behavior. Therefore, threat to life and property be it from the armed robbers, kidnappers, politically motivated killers, Boko Haram attack, civil disturbances, road blocks that endangered the road users and other distractions are symptomatic of lack of internal security.

Empirical Literature

Ajayi (2015) examined the effect of unemployment on the behaviour of the university graduates in Ado-Ekiti and environs. The study employed multi-stage sampling technique using simple random sampling to select four political wards out of the twelve in the study and the study made sample of 100 respondents each from the four wards selected for the study. Responses were solicited through questionnaire. The result of the Chi-Square method used as inferential statistic revealed that there is strong relationship between unemployment and criminal behaviours among the youth graduates in Ado- Ekiti.

Fayewa, Adeniran and Balogun (2018) examined principal component analysis of crime rate in Nigeria: A case study of Ekiti and Osun States. The study used principal component analysis (PCA) to explore the study. The statistical analysis of the study showed that petty theft, stealing, grievous harm, store and office breaking were the highest and on the rampage for the past ten years in Ekiti while house breaking, kidnapping and child stealing and the assault were the highest and on the rampage for the past ten years in Osun State.

Falusi, Omoyeni and Olabanji (2024) examined community policing and crime prevention in Ekiti State. The research critically evaluates the potential of community policing to enhance local safety and trust. The study explored the feasibility, advantages and the pitfalls of instituting a state police, survey methods was adopted for this study to generate responses from 425 respondents randomly selected for this study. The findings of the study revealed that there is symbiotic relationship between community participation and law enforcement efficacy and that adoption of state police could be beneficial in the long run

Luyi, Itodo and Ogunbayo (2025) investigated the relationship between youth unemployment and criminal tendencies among youths in Ondo State, Nigeria. A descriptive research design of survey type was adopted to enable systematic collection and analysis of data. A sample of 400 respondents was selected using a multi-stage sampling technique, including stratified random sampling to ensure representation across gender, education and employment. The findings showed that 62% of youth were unemployed with cultism, cybercrime and drug-abuse identified as most common criminal tendencies. Unemployment was found to cause significant financial hardship, emotion distress and isolation. The results of Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient used also revealed that there is a positive correlation between unemployment and youth involvement in criminal activities.

3. METHODOLOGY

This section presents the methodology adopted for the study. It discusses the research design, study area, population of the study, sample size determination, sampling technique, sources and method of data collection, model specification, description and measurement of variables, construction of composite indices, estimation techniques, validity and reliability of research instrument, and method of data analysis. The section also explains the econometric techniques employed in examining the relationship between unemployment, crime rate, and internal security in Ekiti State.

Research Design

The study adopts a cross-sectional survey research design. The survey design is considered appropriate because the study relies on primary data collected directly from respondents through structured questionnaires. The design enables the researcher to obtain detailed information regarding respondents' perceptions of unemployment, crime-related factors, socio-economic consequences, and internal security conditions in Ekiti State. The cross-sectional approach is suitable because it permits the collection of data from different respondents across various geographical locations within a specific period. The design is also appropriate for examining behavioural, socio-economic, and institutional relationships using limited dependent variable econometric techniques such as Logit and Probit regression models.

Area of the Study

The study was conducted in Ekiti State, Nigeria. Ekiti State is located in the South-West geopolitical zone of Nigeria and is administratively divided into three senatorial districts, namely: Ekiti Central Senatorial District, Ekiti South Senatorial District and Ekiti North Senatorial District. The state comprises sixteen Local Government Areas and has an estimated population of approximately 2,737,186 people (World Bank, 2023). Ekiti State is predominantly agrarian, although urbanization, unemployment, youth restiveness, and socio-economic pressures have increasingly become major concerns in recent years. The choice of Ekiti State is motivated by the growing concerns surrounding unemployment, youth vulnerability, poverty, crime-related activities, and internal security challenges within the state.

Population of the Study

The population of the study comprises all residents of Ekiti State. Based on available demographic estimates, the population of Ekiti State is approximately 2,737,186.

Sample Size Determination

The sample size for the study was determined using the Taro Yamane (1967) sample size determination formula.

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

Where:

n = Sample size

N = Population Size

e = Level of Precision (0.05)

Substituting the values:

$$n = \frac{2,737,186}{1 + 2,737,186(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = 400$$

To accommodate possible non-response, incomplete questionnaires, and data entry errors, an additional 20 percent adjustment was incorporated, thus, a total of 480 respondents were selected for the study.

Estimation Technique

The study adopted a multi-stage sampling technique.

Stage One: Stratification by Senatorial District

Ekiti State was stratified into three senatorial districts: Ekiti Central Senatorial District, Ekiti South Senatorial District and Ekiti North Senatorial District.

Stage Two: Selection of Towns

From each senatorial district, six towns were selected (using simple random and systematic sampling techniques) comprising: three urban and three rural towns, thus a total of 18 towns were selected in all. The urban-rural representation was intended to capture variations in unemployment, crime, and insecurity conditions across locations.

Stage Three: Allocation of Questionnaires

Accordingly, 480 questionnaires were administered across the three senatorial districts of Ekiti State. At the end of the field exercise, 440 questionnaires were validly completed and retrieved, representing a response rate of 91.67%. The administered and valid responses were therefore analysed as follows.

Table 3.1. Allocation of Questionnaires

Senatorial District	Questionnaires Administered	Valid Responses Used
Ekiti Central	160	146
Ekiti South	160	147
Ekiti North	160	147
Total	480	440

Approximately 27 copies of the questionnaires were administered per town.

Stage Four: Selection of Respondents

Respondents within the selected towns were chosen using simple random and systematic sampling techniques. This ensured equal probability of selection and minimized sampling bias.

Structure of the Questionnaires

The study relied primarily on primary data obtained through the administration of structured questionnaires.

The questionnaire was divided into five sections:

- **Section A:** Demographic information
- **Section B:** Causes of unemployment
- **Section C:** Perception of crime and safety
- **Section D:** Causes of crime
- **Section E:** Consequences of unemployment and insecurity perception

The questionnaire items were measured using a four-point Likert scale as in table 3.2

Table 3.2: Likert Scale

Response	Code
Strongly Disagree	1
Disagree	2
Agree	3
Strongly Agree	4

The exclusion of a neutral category was intended to minimize central tendency bias and encourage respondents to express clear opinions.

Model Specification

The study employed Binary Logit and Binary Probit regression models to examine the determinants of internal security perception in Ekiti State.

The functional relationship is expressed as:

$$INSECURITY = F(UNEMP_INDEX, CRIME_INDEX, SOCIOECON_INDEX, X)$$

Where:

INSECURITY = Internal Security Perception

UNEMP_INDEX = Unemployment Structural Index

CRIME_INDEX = Crime related factors Index

SOCIOECON_INDEX = Socioeconomic Consequences Index

X = Vector of Demographic Control Variables

The explicit econometric model is specified as:

$$INSECURITY_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 UNEMP_INDEX_i + \beta_2 CRIME_INDEX_i + \beta_3 SOCIOECON_INDEX_i + \beta_3 X_i + \mu_i$$

Description and Measurement of Variables

Table 3.3: Description and Measurement of Variables

Variables	Description	Measurement
INSECURITY	Internal Security Perception	1=High Insecurity, 0= Low Insecurity
UNEMP_INDEX	Unemployment Structural Index	Composite Index
CRIME_INDEX	Crime-related Factors Index	Composite Index

SOCIOECON_INDEX	Socio-economic Consequences Index	Composite Index
AGE	Age Category	Ordinal
SEX	Gender	Male = 1, Female = 0
EDU	Educational Attainment	Ordinal
UNEMP	Employment Status	Unemployed = 1, Employed = 0
INC	Income Level	Ordinal
H S	Household Size	Ordinal
RELIG	Religion	Categorical
LOCAL	Locality	Urban = 1, Rural = 0
DISTR	Senatorial District	Ordinal
MARITAL	Marital Status	Married = 1, Single = 0

Construction of Composite Indices

To reduce multicollinearity and improve measurement reliability, related questionnaire items were aggregated into composite indices using arithmetic mean scores. The composite index is computed as:

$$CI = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Q_1}{n}$$

Where:

CI = Composite Index

Q_1 = Individual Questionnaire item

n = Number of items

The following indices were constructed:

Unemployment Structural Index (UNEMP_INDEX)

This index was constructed from the items in Section B of the questionnaire relating to, educational mismatch, poor infrastructure, Corruption, weak government policies, urban-rural migration, industrial decline, graduate oversupply, and other structural unemployment factors.

Crime-Related Factors Index (CRIME_INDEX)

This index was constructed from the items in Section D of the questionnaire relating to youth unemployment, poverty, drug abuse, poor institutional quality, weak policing and moral decadence.

Higher values indicate stronger perception that crime-related factors worsen insecurity.

Socio-Economic Consequences Index (SOCIOECON_INDEX)

This index was constructed the items in Section E of the questionnaire relating to poverty, inequality, inability to meet basic needs, corruption and political thuggery. Higher values indicate stronger agreement that unemployment generates severe socio-economic consequences capable of worsening insecurity.

Validity of Research Instrument

The questionnaire was subjected to face and content validity. Experts in economics, criminology, and social science research methodology were consulted to evaluate the relevance, clarity, adequacy, and appropriateness of the questionnaire items. Corrections and modifications were made based on the suggestions provided by the experts to ensure that the instrument adequately captured the objectives of the study.

Method of Data Analysis

The study employed both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques.

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics used to summarize respondents' demographic characteristics and composite variables are frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, minimum, and maximum values.

Inferential Statistics

The inferential analysis relied on Binary Logit regression, Binary Probit regression, and marginal effects estimation.

The Logit and Probit models were employed because the dependent variable is binary (low insecurity and high insecurity) in nature. The marginal effects were estimated to determine the magnitude of the impact of explanatory variables on the probability of high insecurity perception.

4. EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

This section presents the empirical analysis, findings, and discussion of results obtained from the study on unemployment, crime rate, and internal security in Ekiti State. The section specifically focuses on the presentation and interpretation of data generated from the field survey and the econometric estimation of the relationship between unemployment-related factors and insecurity perception among residents of the state.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1: Distribution by Age

Age Category	Frequency	Percent
10–15	63	14.32
16–20	16	3.64
21–25	161	36.59
26–40	171	38.86
Above 40	29	6.59
Total	440	100.00

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The age distribution indicates that the majority of respondents fall within the economically active age groups. Specifically, respondents aged 26–40 years constitute the highest proportion with 38.86%, followed closely by those within 21–25 years representing 36.59%. Respondents aged 10–15 years account for 14.32%, while those within 16–20 years and above 40 years constitute relatively smaller proportions of 3.64% and 6.59%, respectively. This suggests that the study is dominated by youths and young adults who are more likely to experience unemployment challenges and are also more exposed to insecurity-related issues. The dominance of respondents within the productive age bracket further strengthens the relevance of the study because unemployment and crime are usually more prevalent among economically active populations.

Table 4.2: Distribution by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	207	47.05
Male	233	52.95
Total	440	100.00

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The gender composition shows that 52.95% of the respondents are male, while 47.05% are female. This indicates a relatively balanced gender representation, although males slightly dominate the sample. The slight dominance of males may reflect the fact that men are more directly exposed to labour market participation and are often more vulnerable to unemployment-induced criminal activities and insecurity.

Nonetheless, the near balance in gender representation improves the reliability and inclusiveness of the survey responses.

Table 4.3: Distribution by Educational Status

Education	Frequency	Percent
Primary	18	4.09
Secondary	194	44.09
Tertiary	228	51.82
Total	440	100.00

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The educational distribution reveals that 51.82% of respondents possess tertiary education, 44.09% have secondary education, while only 4.09% have primary education. This implies that the majority of respondents are relatively educated and therefore capable of providing informed opinions on unemployment, crime, and insecurity issues. The high proportion of tertiary-educated respondents may also indicate the growing concern about graduate unemployment in Ekiti State.

Table 4.4: Distribution by Employment Status

Status	Frequency	Percent
Employed	191	43.41
Unemployed	249	56.59
Total	440	100.00

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The employment distribution shows that 56.59% of respondents are unemployed, while 43.41% are employed. This finding suggests a relatively high unemployment rate among the sampled population. The implication is that unemployment constitutes a serious socio-economic challenge in Ekiti State and may contribute significantly to crime and insecurity. The predominance of unemployed respondents also supports the central focus of the study.

Table 4.5: Distribution by Income

Income Group	Frequency	Percent
< ₦20,000	200	45.45
₦20,000–₦50,000	47	10.68
₦50,000–₦100,000	45	10.23
₦100,000–₦200,000	127	28.86
> ₦200,000	21	4.77
Total	440	100.00

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The income distribution indicates that 45.45% of respondents earn less than ₦20,000 monthly, while only 4.77% earn above ₦200,000. Furthermore, 28.86% earn between ₦100,000 and ₦200,000 monthly. The dominance of low-income earners suggests widespread economic hardship among residents of Ekiti State. Low income levels are often associated with poverty, frustration, and vulnerability to criminal behaviour, thereby reinforcing the nexus between unemployment and insecurity.

Table 4.6: Distribution by Household Size

Household Size	Frequency	Percent
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1–5	134	30.45
6–10	208	47.27
>10	98	22.27
Total	440	100.00

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The household size distribution reveals that 47.27% of respondents have household sizes between 6 and 10 persons, while 30.45% have between 1 and 5 persons. Respondents with household sizes above 10 account for 22.27%. This suggests that a substantial proportion of respondents live in relatively large households, which may increase economic dependency pressures and aggravate unemployment-related hardship.

Table 4.7: Distribution by Religion

Religion	Frequency	Percent
Christianity	252	57.27
Islam	114	25.91
Traditional	74	16.82
Total	440	100.00

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The religious composition shows that Christianity dominates with 57.27% of respondents, followed by Islam with 25.91%, while traditional religion accounts for 16.82%. The distribution reflects the religious structure of Ekiti State and indicates that respondents were drawn from diverse religious backgrounds, thereby enhancing representativeness.

Table 4.8: Distribution by Locality

Locality	Frequency	Percent
Rural	183	41.59
Urban	257	58.41
Total	440	100.00

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The locality distribution reveals that 58.41% of respondents reside in urban areas, while 41.59% reside in rural areas. The higher proportion of urban respondents may reflect greater urban exposure to unemployment pressures, migration, crime, and insecurity. Urban centres are typically associated with higher competition for jobs and higher crime incidence.

Table 4.9: Distribution by Senatorial District

District	Frequency	Percent
Ekiti Central	146	33.18
Ekiti South	147	33.41
Ekiti North	147	33.41
Total	440	100.00

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The distribution across senatorial districts appears relatively balanced. Ekiti North accounts for 34.55%, Ekiti South 33.18%, and Ekiti Central 32.27%. This balanced representation strengthens the geographical reliability of the study and ensures that findings adequately reflect the experiences of residents across the three senatorial districts.

Table 4.10: Distribution by Marital Status

Status	Frequency	Percent
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Single	40	9.09
Married	400	90.91
Total	440	100.00

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The marital status distribution indicates that 90.91% of respondents are married, while only 9.09% are single. This suggests that the majority of respondents possess family responsibilities and may therefore be more sensitive to economic hardship, unemployment, and insecurity issues.

Table 4.11: Perception of Internal Insecurity

Insecurity Perception	Frequency	Percent
Low Insecurity	183	41.59
High Insecurity	257	58.41
Total	440	100.00

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The distribution of the dependent variable shows that 58.41% of respondents perceive insecurity to be high, while 41.59% perceive insecurity to be low. This implies that a larger proportion of residents perceive insecurity as a major challenge in Ekiti State. The result supports the argument that unemployment and socio-economic conditions may be contributing to rising insecurity within the state.

Table 4.12: Descriptive Statistics of Composite Variables

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
UNEMP INDEX	440	2.950413	0.1147207	2.636364	3.181818
CRIME INDEX	440	3.376515	0.1489148	3.000000	3.500000
SOCIOECON INDEX	440	3.961364	0.0994653	3.500000	4.000000

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The unemployment index has a mean value of 2.95 with a standard deviation of 0.11. The mean value suggests that respondents generally agreed that structural factors such as corruption, poor infrastructure, weak government policies, educational mismatch, and industrial decline contribute significantly to unemployment in Ekiti State. The relatively low standard deviation indicates limited dispersion in responses, implying strong consensus among respondents concerning the structural causes of unemployment. The minimum value of 2.64 and maximum value of 3.18 indicate that responses are concentrated around the "Agree" category, suggesting that respondents generally share similar perceptions regarding unemployment determinants.

The crime index recorded a mean value of 3.38 and a standard deviation of 0.15. This implies that respondents strongly agreed that unemployment, poverty, drug abuse, poor institutional quality, and weak security systems contribute to criminal activities in Ekiti State. The low standard deviation indicates substantial agreement among respondents regarding the causes of crime. The minimum and maximum values of 3.00 and 3.50 further confirm that responses are heavily concentrated within the upper categories of agreement. This suggests that respondents perceive crime as largely driven by socio-economic and institutional deficiencies.

The socio-economic consequences index has a mean value of 3.96 with a standard deviation of 0.10. This extremely high mean value indicates that respondents strongly agreed that unemployment leads to poverty, corruption, political thuggery, inability to meet basic needs, and rising insecurity. The very low standard deviation suggests remarkable uniformity in respondents' opinions. Additionally, the minimum value of 3.50 and maximum value of 4.00 imply that nearly all respondents strongly agreed on the severe socio-

economic consequences of unemployment. This finding demonstrates the intensity of public concern regarding the socio-economic implications of unemployment in Ekiti State.

Table 4.13: Composite Variables (High Insecurity)

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
UNEMP INDEX	257	2.974178	0.1093310	2.818182	3.181818
CRIME INDEX	257	3.349546	0.1608922	3.000000	3.500000
SOCIOECON INDEX	257	3.968872	0.0827027	3.750000	4.000000

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

Table 4.14: Composite Variables (Low Insecurity)

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
UNEMP INDEX	183	2.917039	0.1140803	2.636364	3.181818
CRIME INDEX	183	3.414390	0.1208662	3.166667	3.500000
SOCIOECON INDEX	183	3.950820	0.1185391	3.500000	4.000000

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The study further compares the composite indices across respondents who perceive insecurity as high and those who perceive insecurity as low. Respondents who perceive insecurity as high exhibit: higher unemployment index mean (2.97), high crime index mean (3.35), and higher socio-economic consequence index mean (3.97).

Conversely, respondents perceiving insecurity as low show slightly lower unemployment and socio-economic consequence means. This suggests that perceptions of insecurity are positively associated with unemployment-related hardship and crime-related factors. The implication is that worsening socio-economic conditions and unemployment significantly intensify insecurity perception among residents.

Regression Analysis

Table 4.15: Logistic Regression Results (Log Odds)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	Z	P> z
UNEMP INDEX	4.836584	1.069734	4.52	0.000
CRIME INDEX	3.114638	0.993732	3.81	0.000
SOCIOECON INDEX	4.338544	1.253353	3.46	0.001
AGE	-0.2493996	0.1058361	-2.36	0.018
SEX	0.3972967	0.2244671	1.77	0.077
EDU	0.1904839	0.1934661	0.98	0.325
UNEMP	0.328525	0.6074358	0.54	0.589
INC	-0.0403859	0.2152719	-0.19	0.851
H S	0.3683542	0.1545981	2.38	0.017
RELIG	-0.0515797	0.1434169	-0.36	0.719
LOCAL	0.5596519	0.2304852	2.43	0.015
DISTR	0.3499671	0.1894633	1.85	0.065
MARITAL	-0.8546154	0.4063200	-2.10	0.035

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

Table 4.16: Logistic Regression Results (Odds Ratios)

Variable	Odds Ratio	Std. Error	Z	P> z
UNEMP INDEX	126.0381	134.8273	4.52	0.000
CRIME INDEX	0.0288455	0.0268477	-3.81	0.000
SOCIOECON INDEX	76.59593	96.00172	3.46	0.001

Variable	Odds Ratio	Std. Error	Z	P> z
AGE	0.7792685	0.0824748	-2.36	0.018
SEX	1.487797	0.3339616	1.77	0.077
EDU	1.209835	0.2340621	0.98	0.325
UNEMP	1.388918	0.8436785	0.54	0.589
INC	0.9604187	0.2067512	-0.19	0.851
H S	1.445354	0.2234489	2.38	0.017
RELIG	0.9497279	0.1362071	-0.36	0.719
LOCAL	1.750063	0.4033637	2.43	0.015
DISTR	1.419021	0.2688523	1.85	0.065
MARITAL	0.4254468	0.1728675	-2.10	0.035

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

Table 4.17: Marginal Effects after Logistic Regression

Variable	dy/dx	Std. Error	Z	P> z
UNEMP INDEX	1.158284	0.25571	4.53	0.000
CRIME INDEX	0.8491624	0.22169	3.83	0.000
SOCIOECON INDEX	1.039011	0.29933	3.47	0.001
AGE	-0.0597272	0.02533	-2.36	0.018
SEX	0.095097	0.05350	1.78	0.076
EDU	0.0456178	0.04633	0.98	0.325
UNEMP	0.0788606	0.14584	0.54	0.589
INC	-0.0096718	0.05155	-0.19	0.851
H S	0.0882149	0.03698	2.39	0.017
RELIG	-0.0123525	0.03434	-0.36	0.719
LOCAL	0.1344663	0.05518	2.44	0.015
DISTR	0.0838115	0.04542	1.85	0.065
MARITAL	-0.183478	0.07519	-2.44	0.015

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

Table 4.18: Probit Regression Results

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	Z	P> z
UNEMP INDEX	2.899571	0.6379689	4.55	0.000
CRIME INDEX	2.424320	0.8123414	3.77	0.000
SOCIOECON INDEX	2.589382	0.7481620	3.46	0.001
AGE	-0.1387169	0.0625899	-2.22	0.027
SEX	0.2454554	0.1342394	1.83	0.067
EDU	0.1064087	0.1161826	0.92	0.360
UNEMP	0.1839714	0.3626947	0.51	0.612
INC	-0.0263422	0.1289471	-0.20	0.838
H S	0.2180613	0.0924486	2.36	0.018
RELIG	-0.0286124	0.0863108	-0.33	0.740
LOCAL	0.3309683	0.1367612	2.42	0.016
DISTR	0.2041888	0.1152679	1.77	0.076
MARITAL	-0.5325946	0.2480226	-2.15	0.032

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

Table 4.19: Marginal Effects after Probit Regression

Variable	dy/dx	Std. Error	Z	P> z
UNEMP INDEX	1.122203	0.24726	4.54	0.000
CRIME INDEX	0.8246202	0.21813	3.78	0.000
SOCIOECON INDEX	1.002152	0.28917	3.47	0.001
AGE	-0.0536867	0.02423	-2.22	0.027
SEX	0.0949396	0.05175	1.83	0.067
EDU	0.0411827	0.04497	0.92	0.360
UNEMP	0.071314	0.14063	0.51	0.612
INC	-0.010195	0.04990	-0.20	0.838
H S	0.0843949	0.03576	2.36	0.018
RELIG	-0.0110737	0.03340	-0.33	0.740
LOCAL	0.1283656	0.05288	2.43	0.015
DISTR	0.0790259	0.04466	1.77	0.077
MARITAL	-0.1890196	0.07783	-2.43	0.015

Source: Authors' Computation from Field Survey Data (2026).

The results in Tables 4.15, 4.16, 4.17, 4.18 and 4.19 depict the logistic regression (Log Odds), logistic regression (Odd Ratios), Marginal effect logistic regression, Probit regression and Marginal effect Probit regression respectively.

From the results, it was revealed that the **unemployment index** has a positive and statistically significant effect across all models. In the Logit model, the coefficient is 4.8366 and significant at 1%. The odds ratio is 126.04, meaning that a one-unit increase in the unemployment index substantially raises the odds of high insecurity perception. The Logit marginal effect is 1.1583, while the Probit marginal effect is 1.1222, both significant at 1%. The positive sign implies that worsening structural unemployment factors significantly increase the likelihood of perceiving insecurity as high in Ekiti State. This suggests that respondents who strongly agree that corruption, poor infrastructure, weak government policies, educational mismatch, industrial decline, and poor job creation are major causes of unemployment are more likely to perceive insecurity as severe.

The finding supports the Economic Theory of Crime proposed by Becker (1968), who argued that criminal behaviour increases when legitimate economic opportunities become limited. According to Becker (1968), unemployment reduces the opportunity cost of engaging in crime, thereby increasing criminal participation and insecurity. The result also aligns with Raphael and Winter-Ebmer (2001), who found that unemployment significantly increases crime rates, especially among economically vulnerable populations. Similarly, Altindag (2012) established that labour market deterioration contributes positively to criminal activities and insecurity. Within Nigeria, the finding corroborates the studies of Okafor (2011) and Adebayo (2013), both of whom concluded that youth unemployment significantly contributes to armed robbery, kidnapping, political thuggery, and social unrest. Likewise, Nwosu and Abah (2014) found that unemployment and poverty are major drivers of insecurity in Nigeria. The significant positive marginal effects from both the Logit and Probit models further confirm that increases in structural unemployment conditions substantially raise the probability of high insecurity perception among residents of Ekiti State.

The coefficient of the **CRIME_INDEX** is 3.114638 with a standard error of 0.993732 and a probability value of 0.0000, indicating significance at the 1 percent level. Similarly, in the Probit model, the coefficient is 2.424320 with a standard error of 0.8123414 and probability value of 0.0000, also significant at the 1 percent level. The positive sign implies that as respondents' perception of crime-inducing factors increases, the likelihood of perceiving insecurity as high also increases significantly. Specifically, respondents who strongly agree that factors such as youth unemployment, poverty, poor institutional quality, drug abuse, weak policing systems, and moral decadence contribute to criminal activities are substantially more likely to perceive insecurity as severe in Ekiti State.

The result is theoretically consistent with the Routine Activity Theory developed by Cohen and Felson (1979), which argues that crime and insecurity occur when motivated offenders converge with suitable targets in the absence of effective guardianship. According to Cohen and Felson (1979), socio-economic conditions that increase criminal motivation and weaken social control mechanisms naturally intensify insecurity perception. The finding is also consistent with the Economic Theory of Crime advanced by Becker (1968), which posits that criminal behaviour is partly a rational response to economic hardship, unemployment, and expected gains from illegal activities. Becker (1968) maintained that individuals are more likely to engage in criminal activities when legitimate economic opportunities are limited. Thus, rising crime-related pressures associated with unemployment and poverty are expected to worsen insecurity conditions.

Empirically, the corrected result strongly aligns with several previous studies. For example, Raphael and Winter-Ebmer (2001) found that unemployment significantly increases property crime and violent crime rates, particularly among youths and economically vulnerable groups. Similarly, Altindag (2012) established that worsening labour market conditions contribute significantly to criminal activities and insecurity outcomes. The implication from these studies is that economic deprivation and unemployment-related frustrations heighten the probability of criminal participation and insecurity.

Within the Nigerian context, the finding corroborates the study of Nwosu and Abah (2014), who reported that unemployment and poverty significantly increase crime and insecurity in Nigeria. Likewise, Okafor (2011) argued that persistent unemployment among Nigerian youths contributes to rising armed robbery, kidnapping, political thuggery, and other forms of insecurity. Similarly, Adebayo (2013) observed that unemployment-induced frustration among youths often translates into criminal behaviour and social unrest. The positive and significant relationship between the CRIME_INDEX and insecurity perception also supports the findings of Igbuzor (2011), who emphasized that poverty, youth unemployment, weak governance, and institutional failures are major drivers of insecurity in Nigeria. According to Igbuzor (2011), insecurity thrives in environments characterized by socio-economic deprivation and weak social institutions.

The **socio-economic consequences index** is positive and statistically significant across all models. In the Logit model, the coefficient is 4.3385, significant at 1% level, while the odds ratio is 76.60. The Logit marginal effect is 1.0390, and the Probit marginal effect is 1.0022, both significant at 1%. This indicates that respondents who strongly agree that unemployment leads to poverty, corruption, inability to meet basic needs, political thuggery, inequality, and social disorder are more likely to perceive insecurity as high. The result supports the argument of Merton (1938) under the Strain Theory, which posits that socio-economic pressures and inability to achieve socially approved goals through legitimate means often push individuals toward deviant and criminal behaviour.

The finding also agrees with Igbuzor (2011), who argued that poverty, inequality, and socio-economic frustration significantly contribute to insecurity in Nigeria. Similarly, Oluwatobi and Ogunrinola (2011) found that worsening socio-economic hardship increases criminal tendencies and insecurity perception among Nigerian youths. Empirically, the result aligns with Fajnzylber, Lederman, and Loayza (2002), who found that inequality and economic deprivation significantly increase crime rates across developing economies. Likewise, Bourguignon (2001) emphasized that poverty and socio-economic exclusion are strong predictors of criminal activities and insecurity. The positive marginal effects further imply that increases in socio-economic hardship significantly raise the probability of high insecurity perception among respondents.

Age has a negative and statistically significant effect in both models. The Logit coefficient is -0.2493996 with probability value of 0.018, while the Probit coefficient is -0.1387169 with probability value of 0.027. The negative sign indicates that older respondents are less likely to perceive insecurity as high compared with younger respondents. This suggests that younger individuals are more vulnerable to unemployment frustration, peer influence, and exposure to criminal activities. The result supports the findings of Raphael

and Winter-Ebmer (2001), who observed that youths are more likely to be involved in crime due to unemployment pressures. Similarly, Okafor (2011) argued that youth unemployment in Nigeria contributes significantly to rising insecurity and criminal behaviour. The result is also consistent with Hirschi's (1969) Social Control Theory, which suggests that younger individuals with weaker social bonds are more prone to deviant behaviour and insecurity-related activities.

Gender has a positive coefficient in both the Logit and Probit models and is weakly significant at the 10 percent level. The positive sign implies that male respondents are more likely to perceive insecurity as high than female respondents. This may reflect greater exposure of males to labour-market competition, political violence, mobility risks, and social conflicts. The finding aligns with Messerschmidt (1993), who argued that masculinity and socio-economic pressures often increase male involvement in crime and violence. Similarly, Adebayo (2013) observed that unemployed male youths in Nigeria are more vulnerable to criminal recruitment and social unrest. Although the variable is only marginally significant, the direction of the relationship remains theoretically meaningful.

Education is positive but statistically insignificant in both models. This suggests that educational attainment does not significantly influence insecurity perception after controlling for unemployment structure and socio-economic conditions. The insignificance may reflect the growing problem of graduate unemployment in Nigeria, where educational attainment no longer guarantees employment opportunities. This finding supports Okafor (2011), who noted that rising graduate unemployment weakens the protective effect of education against insecurity and crime.

The **unemployment** dummy variable is positive but statistically insignificant in both models. This implies that personal unemployment status alone does not significantly determine insecurity perception once broader unemployment structures and socio-economic consequences are controlled for. The finding suggests that insecurity in Ekiti State is more structurally driven rather than merely dependent on individual employment condition. This aligns with Altindag (2012), who emphasized that aggregate labour market conditions matter more for crime and insecurity than individual unemployment experiences.

Income has a negative but statistically insignificant effect in both models. The negative sign suggests that higher income reduces insecurity perception, although the effect is weak. This is theoretically expected because higher income improves living conditions and reduces economic vulnerability. The result is consistent with Becker (1968) and Bourguignon (2001), who argued that economic deprivation and low income increase criminal incentives and insecurity.

Household size is positive and statistically significant in both models. The Logit coefficient is 0.3683542 with probability value of 0.017, while the Probit coefficient is 0.2180613 with probability value of 0.018. This implies that larger households are more likely to perceive insecurity as high. Large household sizes may increase dependency burdens, financial pressure, and vulnerability to socio-economic hardship. The finding supports Malthusian population pressure arguments and also agrees with Todaro and Smith (2015), who emphasized that high dependency burdens intensify poverty and socio-economic stress in developing economies.

Religion is statistically insignificant in both models. This suggests that insecurity perception in Ekiti State is not primarily driven by religious affiliation. Rather, the insecurity problem appears more socio-economic than religious in nature.

Locality is positive and statistically significant in both models. The Logit coefficient is 0.5596519 with probability value of 0.015, while the Probit coefficient is 0.3309683 with probability value of 0.016. This indicates that urban residents are more likely to perceive insecurity as high compared with rural residents. The finding supports Cohen and Felson's (1979) Routine Activity Theory, which argues that urban areas provide more opportunities for criminal interaction due to population concentration, social anonymity, and target availability. The result also aligns with Shaw and McKay's (1942) Social Disorganization Theory,

which posits that urban environments characterized by social instability and weak communal control are more susceptible to crime and insecurity.

Senatorial district is positive but weakly significant. This suggests slight geographical differences in insecurity perception across Ekiti Central, South, and North senatorial districts. The result may reflect differences in urbanization, unemployment exposure, infrastructural development, and crime incidence across districts.

Marital status is negative and statistically significant in both models. The Logit coefficient is -0.8546154 with probability value of 0.035, while the Probit coefficient is -0.5325946 with probability value of 0.032. This implies that married respondents are less likely to perceive insecurity as high compared with single respondents. The finding supports Hirschi's (1969) Social Bond Theory, which argues that stronger family attachment and social integration reduce deviant behaviour and insecurity vulnerability. The result also aligns with Sampson and Laub (1993), who found that stable family structures reduce criminal tendencies and social instability.

Both the Logit and Probit models are statistically significant. For the Logit model, the LR chi-square is 91.20 with a probability value of 0.0000, while the Probit model records LR chi-square of 90.52 with probability value of 0.0000. This means that the explanatory variables jointly explain variations in internal security perception in Ekiti State. The pseudo R^2 values are also close: 0.1526 for Logit and 0.1515 for Probit, suggesting that both models perform almost identically.

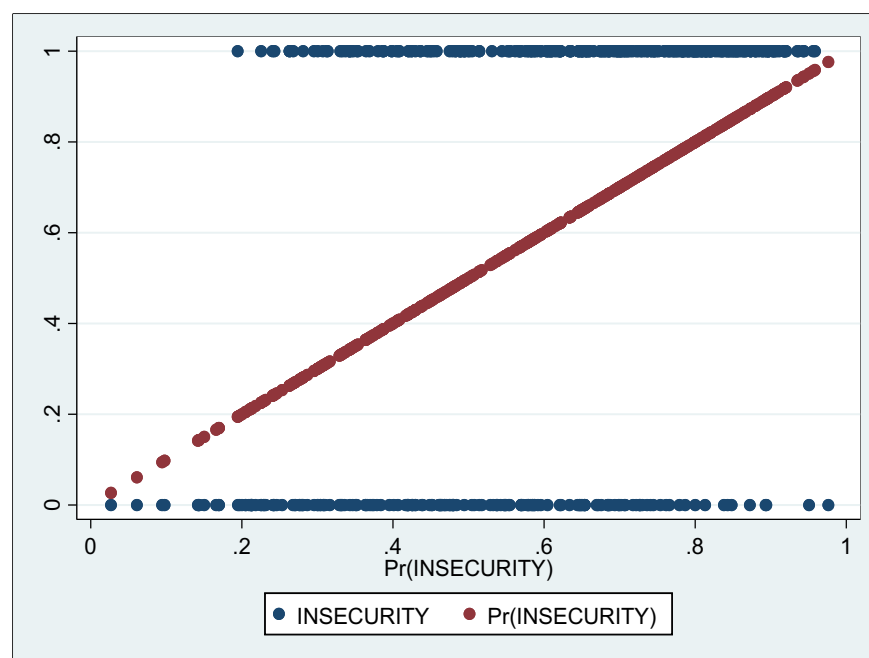


Figure 4.1: Predicted Probability Graph

The predicted probability graph shown in Figure 4.1 illustrates the relationship between the observed insecurity outcomes and the estimated predicted probabilities from the Binary Logit/Probit model. The graph shows that the predicted probabilities increase smoothly from values close to zero toward values approaching one, indicating that the estimated model conforms to the theoretical properties of binary response models. Most observations associated with high insecurity perception are concentrated around higher predicted probability values, while low insecurity observations are concentrated around lower probability values. This suggests that the model possesses reasonable predictive power in distinguishing between high and low insecurity perceptions among respondents. Overall, the graph confirms the reliability

and predictive validity of the estimated Logit and Probit models in explaining the determinants of insecurity perception in Ekiti State.

5. CONCLUSION AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusion

This study examined the relationship between unemployment, crime rate, and internal security in Ekiti State using Logit and Probit regression techniques based on primary survey data obtained from 440 respondents across the three senatorial districts of the state. The findings revealed that structural unemployment, crime-related socio-economic pressures, and the socio-economic consequences of unemployment significantly increase insecurity perception among residents. Specifically, factors such as poor infrastructure, weak government policies, poverty, drug abuse, weak policing systems, inequality, and inability to meet basic needs were found to intensify insecurity concerns in the state. The results further showed that younger respondents, larger household sizes, and urban residents were more likely to perceive insecurity as high, while marital stability reduced insecurity perception. However, individual unemployment status and educational attainment were statistically insignificant after controlling for broader socio-economic conditions. The consistency of the Logit and Probit estimates confirms the robustness of the empirical findings. Overall, the study concludes that insecurity in Ekiti State is fundamentally driven by structural unemployment, socio-economic deprivation, and institutional weaknesses rather than merely individual employment conditions. The findings therefore support the propositions of Becker's Economic Theory of Crime, Merton's Strain Theory, Cohen and Felson's Routine Activity Theory, and Hirschi's Social Bond Theory. Consequently, sustainable internal security in Ekiti State requires comprehensive socio-economic reforms, effective employment generation policies, poverty reduction programmes, and strengthened institutional and security frameworks.

Policy Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following policy recommendations are proposed:

1. Government Should Prioritize Employment Creation Programmes

Since structural unemployment significantly increases insecurity perception, both the Federal and Ekiti State Governments should intensify efforts toward sustainable job creation. Policies aimed at promoting industrialization, entrepreneurship development, small and medium-scale enterprises (SMEs), and youth empowerment programmes should be strengthened. Particular attention should be given to labour-intensive sectors such as agriculture, manufacturing, digital services, and vocational industries capable of absorbing unemployed youths.

2. Educational Curriculum Should Be Reformed Toward Skill Acquisition

The findings suggest that structural labour market deficiencies contribute significantly to insecurity. Therefore, educational institutions should shift from certificate-oriented education toward practical skill acquisition, entrepreneurship training, digital literacy, and vocational education. This would reduce graduate unemployment and improve employability among youths.

3. Government Should Improve Infrastructure Development

Poor infrastructure such as unstable electricity supply, poor road networks, and weak internet connectivity discourages investment and limits employment opportunities. Government should therefore invest heavily in infrastructure development to stimulate private sector participation, attract investors, and create employment opportunities capable of reducing insecurity pressures.

4. Poverty Reduction and Social Welfare Programmes Should Be Strengthened

Since socio-economic hardship and poverty significantly increase insecurity perception, targeted poverty alleviation programmes should be expanded. Government should strengthen social intervention schemes, conditional cash transfer programmes, youth grants, cooperative financing, and community empowerment initiatives, especially for vulnerable households and unemployed youths.

5. Security Institutions Should Be Strengthened

The study established that crime-related institutional weaknesses contribute significantly to insecurity. Therefore, government should improve the operational capacity of security agencies through adequate funding, modern security equipment, intelligence gathering, surveillance technology, and regular personnel training. Community policing initiatives should also be strengthened to improve trust and cooperation between residents and security agencies. . A strong case should be made for state Police, especially with the rate at which abduction and banditry are escalating in Nigeria

6. Drug Abuse Prevention and Rehabilitation Programmes Should Be Intensified

Given the strong relationship between crime-related pressures and insecurity, government and relevant stakeholders should intensify campaigns against drug abuse among youths. Rehabilitation centres, counselling programmes, and public enlightenment campaigns should be expanded to reduce substance-related criminal behaviour.

7. Urban Security Management Should Be Enhanced

Since urban residents exhibit higher insecurity perception than rural residents, urban security management should receive greater policy attention. Government should improve street lighting, neighbourhood surveillance systems, urban employment programmes, and youth engagement initiatives in urban centres where insecurity pressures appear more concentrated.

8. Family and Community Support Systems Should Be Encouraged

The negative relationship between marital stability and insecurity perception suggests the importance of social integration and family cohesion. Government, religious institutions, and community organizations should promote family support systems, moral orientation programmes, and community-based conflict resolution mechanisms capable of reducing social disorganization.

9. Anti-Corruption and Institutional Reforms Should Be Strengthened

Corruption and institutional weaknesses indirectly worsen unemployment and insecurity by diverting public resources away from productive investments and social development. Therefore, anti-corruption agencies should be strengthened, while transparency, accountability, and good governance should be promoted at all levels of government.

10. Integrated Security and Economic Policies Should Be Adopted

Finally, the study recommends that insecurity should not be treated solely as a policing problem. Instead, government should adopt integrated socio-economic and security policies that simultaneously address unemployment, poverty, education, youth empowerment, and institutional reform. Sustainable security can only be achieved when the root socio-economic causes of insecurity are effectively addressed.

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