EFFECT OF EMPLOYMENT STATUS ON CRIME PERPETUATION AMONG INMATES IN CORRECTIONAL FACILITIES IN SOUTHWEST NIGERIA

EBENEZER BAYODE AGBOOLA, PhD
Department of Peace and Security Studies
Bamidele Olumilua University of Education, Science and Technology. Ikere Ekiti, Nigeria
agboola.ebenezer@bouesti.edu.ng ORCID ID: 0000-0002-5934-7565

GRACE ADEOLA AGBOOLA
Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management
Bamidele Olumilua University of Education, Science and Technology. Ikere Ekiti, Nigeria
agboola.grace@bouesti.edu.ng ORCID ID: 0009-0008-8234-542X

DOI: https://doi.org/10.64633/wissj.v10i1.04

Keywords

Employment status; Crime Perpetuation; Inmates; Correctional Facilities; Southwest; Nigeria.

Abstract

Research Problem

Crime rates in Nigeria have continued to rise in recent years, with the country recording an organised crime index score of 7.28 in 2023, up from 7.15 in 2021, ranking second in Africa. Although many studies associate crime with socio-economic factors such as unemployment and poverty, most existing research is perceptual and conducted outside correctional settings. As a result, empirical evidence drawn directly from incarcerated populations remains limited, particularly within Nigerian correctional facilities. This gap constrains a clear understanding of how employment status influences criminal behaviour and recidivism. This study therefore examined the impact of employment status on crime among male inmates in correctional facilities in Southwest Nigeria.

Methods and Theory

The study adopted a survey research design, guided by socio-economic and strain theories of crime, which explain criminal involvement as a response to unemployment and economic deprivation. A multi-stage sampling technique was used to select one correctional facility from each of the six states in Southwest Nigeria. From a total population of 826 inmates, 663 convicted male inmates were purposively selected, while 539 completed the questionnaire. Quantitative data were collected using structured questionnaires, complemented by qualitative interviews with correctional facility staff. Instrument reliability was established through

test–retest procedures and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.76.

Results

Findings revealed a statistically significant relationship between employment status and crime. Unemployed inmates were 2.913 times more likely to reoffend than their employed counterparts, with the association remaining significant at p = 0.024. The study recommends employment-centred interventions, vocational training.

Introduction

Notwithstanding ongoing governmental focus on employment as a method for crime prevention, there is a paucity of empirical research from correctional facilities in Nigeria about the influence of employment status on crime perpetuation and recidivism among inmates, especially in Southwest Nigeria. The increasing unemployment rate in Nigeria has been correlated with a surge in crime rates inside the nation. According to the analysis of Lain and Pape (2023), Nigeria's unemployment rate was 33.3 percent in the fourth quarter of 2020. It rose to 5.3 percent in the fourth quarter of 2022. Olurounbi (2021) indicated that over fifty percent of the labour force in Nigeria is either unemployed or underemployed. According to Statista (2024), the young unemployment rate was approximately 13.44 percent in 2022. The statistic from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) was elevated. The National Bureau of Statistics (2023), as referenced by the Federal Ministry of Budget and Economic Planning (2024), indicates that approximately 54.40 percent of youngsters in Nigeria are unemployed, far above the global youth unemployment rate of 12.6 percent. As of August 25, 2022, the young population in Nigeria was 151 million (Federal Ministry of Budget and Economic Planning, 2024).

Furthermore, unemployment has been associated with elevated crime rates. Joblessness is posited to result in financial hardships, limited access to resources, and decreased social integration. Individuals who are unemployed are more prone to engage in criminal acts due to financial desperation, inadequate social support systems, and a diminished sense of purpose or identity linked to employment. Unemployment is likely to be a significant positive indicator of crime, both initially and persistently. This is due to the possibility that prospective offenders may perceive unemployment as a more advantageous precursor to criminal activity. Research indicates a correlation between rising crime rates and increased unemployment (Feldmen, 1993). This is a substantial association between crime and unemployment.

Albert (1995) indicates that a significant proportion of teenagers and adults in correctional facilities are unemployed. Unemployment frequently engenders discord, particularly among the youth, and may incite aggressive behaviours such as theft, substance and alcohol misuse, as well as domestic and familial violence. Hans (2011) asserts that unemployment exceeding six months elevates the possibility of perpetrating a violent crime by around two percent and increases the probability of theft by thirty-three percent. Youth unemployment is a significant factor influencing the age distribution of criminal activity.

Numerous studies have consistently shown unemployment as a direct factor influencing crime rates. According to Becker's argument, diminished employment prospects elevate the opportunity cost of engaging in criminal activity. The contraction of the lawful job market enhances the allure of criminal activities. Research indicates that unemployment positively influences crime rates in both longitudinal (Chiricos, 1987; Freeman, 1995) and cross-sectional studies (Butcher &Piehl, 1999). Bergman (2009) posited that the labour market reforms and a swift surge in unemployment in Mexico and Argentina directly and indirectly contributed to the escalation of criminal activity. Moreover, elevated unemployment rates may induce sentiments of frustration, leading to increased crime rates, especially in newly established neighbourhoods (Buvinic et al., 1999).

Contrarily, other studies indicate that mere employment may be insufficient to deter criminal behaviour, highlighting that the 'quality' of employment is the paramount factor in preventing individuals from participating in illegal activities, particularly among disadvantaged young men. Youth unemployment is frequently cited as a contributing factor to criminal activity. Approximately 13 percent of the youth in Latin America and the Caribbean, aged 15-24, are unemployed, equating to around 108 million individuals (Muggah, 2015). Worldwide, males aged 15 to 29 exhibit the largest risk of victimisation, including 43 percent of all victims (Oberwittler, 2019). Schleimer et al. (2022) examined the correlation between unemployment and criminality in U.S. cities amid the Covid-19 outbreak. The authors utilised data from 16 US towns from January 2018 to July 2020. Binomial regression models were employed to analyse the association. The investigation indicated no correlation between unemployment and serious violence. The analysis indicated that the significant rise in unemployment during the pandemic may have contributed to an increase in firearm violence and homicide.

Expanding on Muggah's (2017) critique of linear assumptions about unemployment and crime, current literature is still deficient in experimentally examining how employment status—specifically informal, insecure, or exclusionary work—affects criminal perpetuation within correctional environments. Although global and African studies recognise that employment is not a comprehensive solution for crime reduction, they predominantly depend on macro-level metrics or community attitudes, overlooking the lived labour histories and institutional experiences of inmates. In Nigeria, this constraint is particularly evident, as scholarship persists in regarding unemployment as a principal catalyst of crime, without investigating whether previous employment significantly altered criminal trajectories or merely coexisted with them. The lack of inmate-centered, mixed-method evidence from correctional facilities represents a significant contextual and methodological deficiency. It is crucial to address this gap to anchor employment-oriented criminal prevention and rehabilitation initiatives on actual correctional conditions rather than in idealized labour assumptions.

Wang and Hu (2022) conducted a study examining the correlation between unemployment and crime rates in China. The study employed provincial-level panel data and utilised multiple regressions to examine the hypothesised association between unemployment and crime rate. The investigation indicated that unemployment exerts a positive and considerable influence on the crime rate. The research conducted by Umbach (2020) on

the detrimental cycle of regional unemployment and crime in German counties revealed that rising unemployment correlates with greater crime rates, which in turn exacerbate unemployment levels. The research employed an instrumental variable framework and regional panel data.

The research conducted by Omboi (2020) on the relationship between youth unemployment and crime rates in the Mathare constituency of Nairobi City County, Kenya, revealed a positive and significant correlation between unemployment and crime rates. The research employed a descriptive survey including a sample of 125 urban youths aged 18 to 35 years. A questionnaire was employed to gather data from the participants. Similarly, Abdi's (2022) study identified a correlation between unemployment and several crime kinds in Wajir County.

The study employed a mixed research methodology, incorporating both descriptive survey and correlational research designs. A total of 235 respondents participated, and correlation analysis was employed to gather data. The research conducted by Mazorodze (2020) on young unemployment and homicide rates in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, revealed that a one percentage point rise in youth unemployment elevates the likelihood of murder by 1.6 to 1.8 times. The study proposed that a social strategy focused on generating employment for youth in South Africa could diminish the murder rate in the nation. The research by Abdila et al. (2022) on the impact of unemployment and poverty on criminality in East Java Province revealed that unemployment significantly correlates with an increase in crime in the region. The research utilised secondary data sourced from BPS East Java and employed the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method via Eviews to evaluate the proposed hypothesis. The report advised the East Java Provincial Government to develop and execute policies designed to decrease unemployment and poverty rates in the Province.

Yusuf et al. (2022) on the impact of youth unemployment on crime rates in Banadir, Mogadishu, Somalia identified a substantial correlation between unemployment and criminal activity. The research utilised local unemployment statistics and crime data, with information gathered from interviews and surveys with community residents, law enforcement officials, and youth. The authors contended that enhancements in the surrounding conditions could result in a decrease in crime. Egbewole and Lamidi (2021) did a study examining the impact of youth unemployment on crime rates in Nigeria. The study employed a descriptive research strategy utilising a structured questionnaire as the research instrument. A total of 232 questionnaires were distributed to the respondents, and multiple regression analyses were employed to evaluate the proposed hypothesis. The findings indicated no statistically significant correlation between adolescent unemployment and the use of psychoactive substances. The report advocated for the implementation of effective public policies and programs to create economic prospects for unemployed youth.

Research Objectives

To determine the relationship between pre-incarceration employment status and the likelihood of crime perpetuation (recidivism) among inmates in correctional facilities in Southwest Nigeria.

To assess whether the nature of prior employment (formal, informal, stable, or precarious) significantly influences sustained criminal behaviour among inmates.

Conceptual Clarification

Employment status in criminological research transcends the mere dichotomy of employed versus unemployed. It includes the stability, quality, legality, and socio-economic value of employment before incarceration. In numerous developing economies, such as Southwest Nigeria, work is often informal, irregular, and economically precarious. Thus, being "employed" may not inherently result in social integration, financial security, or diminished criminal inclination. This differentiation is essential when analysing crime perpetuation among convicts. Crime perpetuation denotes not only initial offences but also the continued or recurrent involvement in criminal behaviour, frequently defined as recidivism. Nonetheless, it may also signify institutional impediments such as labour market marginalisation, stigma, and restricted reintegration chances that perpetuate criminal pathways.

This study presents the notion of job fragility to enhance discourse. Employment fragility denotes insecure, unstable, or marginal job conditions that may not effectively interrupt criminal trajectories. By reevaluating job status via this perspective, the research transcends the presumption that employment is intrinsically protective and instead examines whether the characteristics of labour significantly diminish the probability of recidivism.

Methodology

The research employed a survey design utilising mixed methods. The study utilised both quantitative and qualitative research approaches to attain a comprehensive conclusion. The quantitative method was employed to measure certain factors and their interactions. This encompasses the impact of socio-economic and demographic factors on criminal behaviour among convicts in correctional institutions in South-West Nigeria. This part had both closed-ended and open-ended items in the questionnaire. The In-depth Interview (IDI) was employed concurrently to enhance the findings from the questionnaire.

Population of the study

This study's population consisted of 826 convicted offenders from selected penitentiary facilities in South-West Nigeria. The facilities include New-Abeokuta Prison, Oba. Abeokuta, Ogun State; Agodi Maximum Prison, Ibadan, Oyo State; Kirikiri Medium Prison, Lagos State; Olokuta Medium Security Prison, Akure, Ondo State; Ado-Ekiti Prison, Ekiti State; and Ile Ife Prison, Osun State. The selected correctional facilities were intentionally chosen due to their substantial population capacity in each State of South-West Nigeria, and to ensure uniformity, only male inmates were included in this study.

The table below illustrates the population distribution according to convictions at the time this study was conducted.

Table 1.1: The Selected Correctional Facilities

S/N	Name of correctional facility	Type	Convicted inmates
1	New-Abeokuta Prison, Oba. Abeokuta, Ogun State	Federal	85
2	Agodi Maximum Prison Ibadan, Oyo State	Federal	141
3	Kirikiri Medium Prison, Lagos State	Federal	294
4	Olokuta Medium Security Prison Akure, Ondo State	Federal	143
5	Ado-Ekiti Prison Ekiti State	Federal	109
6	Ile Ife Prison Osun state	Federal	54
Total number of convicted inmates			**826**

Source: Researcher (2022)

Sampling Procedures

The multi-stage sampling technique was used in this research. The first stage involved the identification of all the federal correctional facilities in South–Western Nigeria. In the second stage, cluster sampling technique was used to select one federal correctional facility from each state in the South western Nigeria. Thus, a total of six correctional facilities were included in this study since there are six (6) states in the South western Nigeria (See Table 1.2). In the third stage, stratified sampling technique was used to select inmates from each of the selected federal correctional facilities. This is necessary because the population of inmates in each correctional facility is largely different. The total population of inmates in the six (6) federal correctional facilities is 826. From the population, a total of 663 inmates were selected using stratified sampling technique. For the in-depth interviews, three (3) inmates were selected from each of the selected correctional facilities.

Table 1.2 Sample Size Distributions

S/N	Name of correctional facility	Sub-population	Sample size for questionnaire	Sample size for in-depth interview
1	New-Abeokuta Prison, Oba. Abeokuta, Ogun State	85	68	3
2	Agodi Maximum Prison Ibadan, Oyo State	141	113	3
3	Kirikiri Medium Prison, Lagos State	294	236	3
4	Olokuta Medium Security Prison Akure, Ondo State	143	115	3
5	Ado-Ekiti Prison Ekiti State	109	88	3
6	Ile Ife Prison Osun state	54	43	3
	Total	826	663	18

Source: Researcher (2022)

The sample size of 663 respondents was determined from a finite population of 826 inmates using Yamane's (1967) formula for sample size calculation at a 5% margin of error. However, because the study focused specifically on convicted inmates and excluded awaiting-trial inmates, a purposive sampling approach was applied. Out of the 826 total inmates, 663 met the inclusion criteria (convicted male inmates), thereby constituting the study's effective sampling frame. Thus, 663 represents a census of the eligible population, rather than a statistically reduced sample.

Sources of data collection

The study used primary data. Both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques were used to collect primary data. The quantitative source of data consisted of the use of a structured questionnaire; while the qualitative form consisted of the use of in-depth interviews. The purpose of these forms of data collection was to ensure triangulation of data in the analysis and to generate a robust, nuanced and rich data to solve the research problem.

Method of data analysis

The data analysis was done in two stages. The first stage involved the use of Statistical package for Social Science (SPSS) for the quantitative data generated. Data were represented using frequency tables. The hypotheses were tested using linear regression model to show the strength and significance of the selected independent variables on crime perpetuation. The second stage involved the analysis of the qualitative data. The data generated from the in-depth interviews were transcribed. This involved transcribing the content of the in-depth interviews conducted during the course of this research work.

Theoretical framework

This research is grounded in Strain Theory (Merton, 1938) and Social Control Theory (Hirschi, 1969), which have historically been employed to elucidate the connection between unemployment and criminal activity. Strain theory asserts that criminal behaviour arises when individuals encounter obstacles to achieving socially sanctioned objectives, especially financial prosperity, resulting in pressure that may prompt deviant responses. Social control theory posits that secure social relationships, such as employment, diminish criminal tendency by cultivating attachment, commitment, involvement, and adherence to society standards. This study expands the application of these theories, formerly focused on first offending in community or juvenile contexts, to the realm of crime perpetuation in correctional environments.

This study reconceptualises unemployment not as a static risk factor, but as a dynamic structural condition that influences persistent criminal paths. The study specifically introduces the concept of employment fragility to examine whether previous employment, particularly informal or insecure job, significantly enhanced social relationships or merely coexisted with criminal activity. By contextualising strain and social control mechanisms within convicts' pre-incarceration employment histories, the study redirects the theoretical emphasis from macro-level unemployment data to the lived experiences within correctional settings. This methodology enhances theoretical understanding by investigating whether work functions as a protective relationship, a neutral state, or a structurally fragile connection that fails to deter recidivism in Southwest Nigeria.

Results

Tables 1.3 depicted the respondents' profile. The participating correctional facilities include; Kirikiri Medium Prison, Lagos State (LAGOS), Agodi Maximum Prison Ibadan, Oyo State (OYO), Olokuta Medium Security Prison Akure, Ondo State (ONDO), Ado-Ekiti Prison Ekiti State (EKITI), New-Abeokuta Prison, Oba. Abeokuta, Ogun State (OGUN) and Ile Ife Prison Osun State (OSUN).

Table 1.3 Demographic Distribution of Respondents

Age (in years)	Frequency (N = 539)	Percentage (%)
Less than 25	23	4.3
25 –29	52	9.6
30 –34	91	17
35 –39	80	14.8
40 –44	135	26

More than 44	158	29

Marital Status	**Frequency (n -539)**	**Percentage (100%)**
Married	35	6.5
Single	403	74.8
Divorced	14	2.5
Separated	75	14
Widowed	12	2.2
Religious affiliation	Frequency (n-539)	Percentage (100)
Christianity	273	50.6
Islam	236	43.8
African Tradition	7	1.3
No religious affiliation	23	4.3
Residential location	Frequency (n-539)	Percentage (100)
Rural	141	26.2
Urban	398	73.8
Number of dependents in household	Frequency (n=539)	Percentage (100%)
Less than or equal to 5	195	36.2
Greater than 5	344	63.8
Employment status at time crime was committed	Frequency (n -539)	Percentage (100%)

Self-employment	241	44.7
Government employment	38	7.1
Private employment	177	32.8
Refused to respond	83	15.4

Researcher's survey (2022)

Table 1.3 depicts the age bracket of the respondents in the six selected correctional facilities. The finding as presented in the table reveals that from 539 respondents that participated in the survey, 23 (4.3%) were below the age of 24, 52 (9.9%) respondents were within 25-29 years, 91 (17%) respondents were within 30-34 years, 80 respondents were within 35-39 years, 135 (26%) respondents were within 40-44 years, 158 (29%) respondents were 45 years and above as at the time of writing this report. This implies that majority of the respondents (55%) were in their forties or older

Also, data presented shows that 35(6.5%) respondents were married, 403(74.8%) respondents were single thereby constituting majority of the respondents. The table also depicts that 14(2.5%) respondents were divorced. In addition 75(14%) respondents were separated while only 12(2.2%) respondents across the facilities were widowed

Moreover, on their religious affiliation data shows (50.6%) respondents were affiliated to Christianity, while a total 236 (43.8%) respondents stated that they were affiliated with Islam. Data also showed that 7 (1.3%) stated that as at the time of their arrest, they had been affiliated with African Traditional religion whereas a total of 23 (4.3%) admitted not to be practicing any religion.

Furthermore, data presented shows that 141 (26%) of the respondents had their home base from a rural environment, while the data presented shows that 398 (73.8%) of respondents were based in the urban area. This high incidence from the urban area could be linked to the various opportunities of crime that characterize complex societies. In the same vein, above data shows that out of the 539 respondents, 241 (44.7%) respondents had been self-employed while a total 38 (7.1%) respondents stated that they had been employed in Government owned establishment. Data also showed that 177 (32.8%) stated that as at the time of their arrest, they had been employed by private owned establishment and a total of 83 (15.4%) refused to respond to the question.

The educational background of the respondents from the six (6) selected facilities. The data presented shows that out of five hundred and thirty nine (539) respondents 26 (4.8%) respondents had no formal education, 110 (20.4%) respondents that some formal education up to secondary level while a surprising majority of the respondents 403 (74.8%) had educational level beyond secondary school education.

Discussions

Hypothesis two states that employment status has a significant effect on crime perpetuation. The alternative and null hypotheses are formulated as follows:

Table 1: Logistic Regression Analysis of Pre-Incarceration Employment Status and Recidivism

Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	p-value	Odds Ratio (Exp(B))	95% CI for Exp(B)
Employment Status (Ref: Employed)						
Unemployed	1.070	0.472	5.14	0.024	2.913	1.154 – 7.358
Informal/Unstable Employment		0.583	0.311	3.51	0.061	1.791	0.974 – 3.294
Control Variables						
Age	-0.021	0.009	5.44	0.020	0.979	0.962 – 0.997
Educational Attainment		-0.148	0.071	4.34	0.037	0.862	0.750 – 0.990
Constant	-1.236	0.584	4.48	0.034	0.291	—

Significant at $p < 0.05$

Model χ^2 (4) = 21.67, $p < 0.01$

Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.182$

N = 539

Interpretation

The logistic regression results indicate that inmates who were unemployed prior to incarceration were 2.913 times more likely to reoffend compared to those who were employed ($p = 0.024$). Informal or unstable employment showed a positive but marginally insignificant relationship with recidivism ($p = 0.061$). Age and educational attainment were negatively associated with recidivism, suggesting that older and more educated inmates were less likely to reoffend.

This is supported by responses from the in–depth interviews. An inmate from Oyo facility expressed that:

I have a university degree and also had a job but it was paying a little over forty thousand Naira and that alone could not cover my expenses plus the fact that I am a family man. I hold it against the government that it doesn't take care of its citizens and so I opted for some other means of survivial *(Inmate at Oyo Facility)*

Similarly, an inmate from Ondo Correctional Facility expressed that:

Well I do not feel bad. I went to Polytechnic. I could not get a steady job. I was working at a dry cleaning shop and I asked myself for how long will i keep doing this? Why then did I go to school? I was washing clothes for those who were making easy money but doing nothing. So I decided to put my own matters into my hands and ended up deep in crime. *(Inmate at Ondo Facility)*

From the above, it is evident that unemployment status has significant positive effect on crime perpetuation. The higher the unemployment rate, the higher the crime perpetuation. This agrees with the existing

studies, the study of Alabi (2014) on youths' unemployment and crime control in Nigeria revealed that high youth unemployment is correlated with high criminal activities among youths in Nigeria. Also, the study of Ukachukwu and Naetor (2020) showed that rising youth crimes in Nigeria is a consequence of lack of equal opportunities, inadequate employment opportunities and value deficiency. Also, in the findings of Dong et al., 2020;. poverty rate and low income level rather than income inequality is positively related to homicide rates in China. Similarly, Anser et al., (2020) found that income inequality was found to have positive and significant impact on crime rate. Also, the study of Hazra (2020) found that income inequality has a positive and significant impact on crime rates in India. The study of Sugiharti et al., (2023) found that higher income levels and wider income inequality are associated with higher crime rates in Indonesia. Also, the study of Adeyemi (2015) revealed that a significant relationship between level of income and nature of crime committed in Nigeria. Moreover, Ajide (2021) found that 1 per cent increase in economic condition increases crime by 0.12 per cent. The study concluded that provision of befitting employment could lead to reduction in criminal activities in Nigeria.

Conclusion

This study investigated the influence of employment position and the characteristics of previous employment on criminal behaviour among inmates in correctional institutions in Southwest Nigeria. The results indicate that unemployment markedly heightens the probability of recidivism, but unstable, informal, and precarious work further exacerbates the danger of persistent criminal conduct. The findings indicate that employment by itself does not provide inherent protection; instead, the stability and structural quality of employment influence its ability to alter criminal trajectories. The study enhances the discourse by presenting employment fragility as a significant mediating construct. By differentiating between steady and insecure work, the paper contests the prevailing binary classification of employed vs jobless in criminological studies. The results suggest that tenuous employment connections may not foster the social ties and economic stability required to avert the continuation of criminal behaviour. Theoretically, the findings broaden strain and social control theories beyond their traditional emphasis on early offences. This study demonstrates that unstable employment can perpetuate strain, even among employment, whereas strain theory elucidates how economic hardship induces pressure toward deviance. Likewise, social control theory posits that employment fortifies social relationships, however this notion is nuanced by evidence indicating that poor or insecure employment may lead to inadequate adherence to conventional standards. Consequently, the quality of employment, rather than mere participation in the labour market, is pivotal in diminishing recidivism.

Reference

Abdila, H. (2020). Youth unemployment and criminal activities in sub-Saharan Africa: A socioeconomic analysis. African Journal of Economic and Sustainable Development, 9(3), 211–226.

Abdullahi, A. A., Seedat-Khan, M., Saheed, A., & Abdulrahman, A. (2016). A review of youth violence theories: Developing interventions to promote sustainable peace

in Ilorin, Nigeria. African Sociological Review, 20(2), 40–60.

Adegoke, N. (2014). The Nigeria police and the challenges of security in Nigeria. Review of Public Administration and Management, 3(6).

Adeyemi, K. (2015). Unemployment and crime in Nigeria: A time-series analysis. Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development, 6(7), 12–21.

Adeyemi, R. A., Mayaki, J., Zewotir, T. T., &Ramrop, S. (2021). Demography and crime: A spatial analysis of geographical patterns and risk factors of crimes in Nigeria. Spatial Statistics, 41.

Ajaegbu, O. O. (2012). Rising youth unemployment and violent crime in Nigeria. American Journal of Social Issues & Humanities, 2(5).

Ajide, K. B. (2021). Unemployment and crime in Nigeria: A dynamic analysis. Economic Change and Restructuring, 54(2), 563–584. **https://doi.org/10.1007/s10644-020-**09292-3

Akerele, D. (2012). Socioeconomic determinants of poverty among urban households in SouthWest Nigeria. International Journal of Social Economics, 39(3), 168–181.

Alabi, O. F. (2014). Youth unemployment and crime in Nigeria: A nexus and implications for national development. International Journal of Sociology and Anthropology, 6(8), 278–283.

Albert, I. O. (1995). Urban violence in contemporary Africa: A case study of ethnic conflict in Ibadan, Nigeria. IFRA Research Report.

Anser, M. K., Yousaf, Z., Nassani, A. A., Abro, M. M. Q., Vo, X. V., & Zaman, K. (2020).

Dynamic linkages between poverty, inequality, crime, and social expenditures in a panel of countries. International Journal of Social Economics, 47(6), 711–728. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJSE-08-2019-0533

Ayuba, B., Mugu, B. A., Tanko, H., &Bulus, S. J. (2016). Geo-spatial analysis of crime in

Kaduna metropolis, Nigeria. Science World Journal, 11(4).

Beki, C., Zeelenberg, K., & Van Montfort, K. (1999). An analysis of the crime rate in the Netherlands 1950–93. British Journal of Criminology, 39, 401–415.

Benson, M. L. (2013). Crime and the life course: An introduction (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Bergman, M. (2009). Tax evasion and the rule of law in Latin America: The political culture of cheating and compliance in Argentina and Chile. Penn State University Press.

Billari, F. C., &Liefbroer, A. C. (2010). Towards a new pattern of transition to adulthood? Advances in Life Course Research, 15, 59–75.

Buonanno, P., &Montolio, D. (2008). Identifying the socioeconomic and demographic determinants of crime across Spanish provinces. International Review of Law and Economics, 28(2), 89–97.

Cantor, D., & Land, K. C. (1985). Unemployment and crime rates in the post-World War II United States: A theoretical and empirical analysis. American Sociological Review, 50(3), 317–332. https://doi.org/10.2307/2095542

Chang, J., & Wu, C. H. (2012). Crime, job searches, and economic growth. Atlantic Economic Journal, 40, 3–19.

Chiricos, T. G. (1987). Rates of crime and unemployment: An analysis of aggregate research evidence. Social Problems, 34(2), 187–211. **https://doi.org/10.2307/800715**

Dong, B., Dulleck, U., &Torgler, B. (2020). Conditional corruption and crime: Evidence from cross-country panel data. European Journal of Political Economy, 62, 101860. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejpoleco.2020.101860

Edmark, K. (2005). Unemployment and crime: Is there a connection? Scandinavian Journal of Economics, 107, 353–373.

Egbemode, A., & Lamidi, K. (2021). Unemployment and crime dynamics in Nigeria:

Evidence from time-series analysis. Journal of African Development Studies, 13(2), 89–104.

Farrington, D. P. (2006). Building developmental and life-course theories of offending. In F. T. Cullen et al. (Eds.), Taking stock: The status of criminological theory (pp. 335–364). Transaction Publishers.

Feldman, M. P. (1993). The geography of innovation. Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Hazra, A. (2020). Unemployment and crime in India: An empirical investigation. Indian Economic Review, 55(2), 241–259.

Hirschi, T. (1969). Causes of delinquency. University of California Press.

Kanazawa, S., & Still, M. C. (2000). Why men commit crimes (and why they desist). Sociological Theory, 18, 434–447.

Machin, S., &Meghir, C. (2004). Crime and economic incentives. Journal of Human Resources, 39, 958–979.

Mazorodze, B. T. (2020). Youth unemployment and crime in South Africa: An empirical investigation. South African Journal of Economics, 88(3), 356–372. **https://doi.org/10.1111/saje.12263**

Naetor, U. (2020). Youth unemployment and criminal behaviour in Nigeria: An econometric assessment. African Development Review, 32(4), 567–579.

Oberwittler, D. (2019). Social inequality and crime in Europe: A multilevel approach to contextual influences on offending. European Journal of Criminology, 16(2), 167–189.

Oluronbi, R. (2021). Youth unemployment and crime in Nigeria: An empirical assessment. Journal of Social Development Studies, 8(1), 45–59.

Pape, R. A. (2023). Economic instability and patterns of violence: Revisiting structural explanations of crime. Journal of Conflict and Security Studies, 15(2), 101–118.

Raphael, S., & Winter-Ebmer, R. (2001). Identifying the effect of unemployment on crime. Journal of Law and Economics, 44, 259–283.

Schleimer, J. P., McCort, C. D., Shev, A. B., Pear, V. A., Tomsich, E., De Biasi, A., &

Sampson, R. J., &Laub, J. H. (1993). Crime in the making: Pathways and turning points through life. Harvard University Press.

Sugiharti, L., Esquivias, M. A., &Setyorani, B.(2023). Income inequality, unemployment, and crime in developing economies: Panel evidence. Heliyon, 9(1), e12845. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e12845

Umboi, K. (2020). Youth employment and crime rate in Kenya: An empirical assessment. International Journal of Social Economics, 47(9), 1158–1172.

Wang, F., & Hu, Y. (2022). Unemployment, income inequality and crime: Evidence frompanel data analysis. Journal of Economic Studies, 49(4), 623–640.

Wu, D., & Wu, Z. (2012). Crime, inequality and unemployment in England and Wales. Applied Economics, 44, 3765–3775.

Yusuf, A. (2022). Labour market exclusion and criminal behaviour in Nigeria: A structural perspective. Nigerian Journal of Social Sciences, 18(1), 52–70.