



ESJ Social Sciences

Socio – Economic and Financial Effects of Kidnapping in Birnin Gwari Local Government Area of Kaduna State

Bushi Kasimu Musa, PhD/M.Sc. /MBA

Independent Researcher and Consultant

Akintola Ismail, PhD

Department of Sociology And Anthropology

Faculty of Business and Social Sciences

Baze University, Kuchigoro, Abuja, Nigeria

Akintola Abdallah, PhD

Department of Natural Resource Economics

Faculty of Agriculture and Marine Sciences

Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat, Oman

[Doi:10.19044/esj.2023.v19n4p42](https://doi.org/10.19044/esj.2023.v19n4p42)

Submitted: 28 July 2022

Accepted: 31 January 2023

Published: 28 February 2023

Copyright 2023 Author(s)

Under Creative Commons BY-NC-ND

4.0 OPEN ACCESS

Cite As:

Musa B.K., Isamil A. & Abdallah A. (2023). *Socio – Economic and Financial Effects of Kidnapping in Birnin Gwari Local Government Area of Kaduna State*. European Scientific Journal, ESJ, 19 (4), 42. <https://doi.org/10.19044/esj.2023.v19n4p42>

Abstract

This paper focuses on the socio-economic and financial effects of kidnapping in BirninGwari Local Government Area of Kaduna State, Nigeria. Structured questionnaires were used to collect data from the study area. The data obtained were analyzed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Chi-square (χ^2) statistic was used to test the hypothesis. This study revealed that kidnapping has a significant effect on the socio-economic activities of the study area ($\chi^2=13.849a$, $\alpha=3$, p -value=0.003). To enhance the reduction in the rate of kidnapping, the government needs to provide job opportunities for the youth, train the security agencies, and provide them with the necessary equipment to fight crime, especially kidnapping, in the country. The individual community should also form an active vigilante group or any other form of informal crime control mechanism to support the effort of the police to improve the level of security in the society. There is need for improved sensitization and collaboration between the security agencies and

the community and all sections of society to pass the message of safety to Nigerians on the importance of reporting suspicious behaviour to the police and other security agencies.

Keywords: Socio-Economic, Financial, Kidnapping, Vigilante Group, Growth, BirninGwari, Crime

Background of study

Kidnapping can be defined as the illegal, forcible seizure and detention of an individual or individuals against their will, usually in exchange for money or to settle a score. According to criminal law, kidnapping is the forced removal or transfer of a person typically to place them in a fictitious prison without permission.

This act may be done principally to extract ransom or carry out another crime. Section 364 of the Nigeria criminal code deals with kidnapping. It states that any person who unlawfully imprisons any person or takes him out of Nigeria without his consent or unlawfully imprisons a person within Nigeria in such a manner as to prevent him from applying to a court for his release or from discovering where he is imprisoned or in such a manner as to prevent any person entitled to have access to him from discovering the place where he is imprisoned is guilty of a felony and is liable to imprisonment for ten years. The concept of kidnapping seems to have originated around 1682 among those who perpetrated this crime. The American Heritage Dictionary of the English language stated that the two words 'kid' and 'napper' were slang the criminals used. Kid still has an informal meaning such as little or joke, while 'napper' is an obsolete slang for a thief. This is from the verb "nap", which means to steal. In 1678, the word kidnapper was first used. At that time, kidnappers plied their trade to secure labourers for plantations in colonies in North America. Certainly, the development of human society has positive and negative aspects.

On the positive side, there is growth in terms of living, communication, inventions of technology, etc. However, the negative sides involve crime and other vices (Popescu et al., 2018). Globally, crime has been quite an issue and has become alarming in recent time (Fajnzyber et al., 2002).

Depending on the elements that are taken into account when analyzing it, there are various ways that crime can be defined. Paul Tappan (2008) defined crime as a deliberate act or omission that violates the law. It is performed without explanation or defense, and is punishable by the state as a felony or misdemeanour. Crime is also described by Shackelford (2015) as a public wrong, an act of offense which violates the law of the state and is strongly disapproved by society. Clifford (2010) asserted that a crime must have specific features in other to be seen as a crime. In a social setting, crime

must be legally forbidden, it must have done harm to some people or external consequence, it must be an intentional act or reckless action or inaction, it must be a criminal intent and the intent must coincide with the criminal action, and there must be a causal relationship between the legally forbidden act and the voluntary reaction. Sellin (2011) argues that crime transcends mere violation of law per se and maintains that mere violation of the criminal law is an artificial criterion of criminality.

There are different experiences of various types of crimes, but they are at different rates and levels in countries around the world. In a recent United Nations report on crime statistics for each country, major assaults dominate the types of crime reported. The highest-ranked continent with major assaults was Africa. North America was ranked second and relatively lower than Europe, Asia, and South America (Heiskanen & Harrendorf, 2010). Within the same report, homicide rankings for the continent were stated. High rates of homicide were accounted for within Africa, South America, and the Caribbean. On the contrary, homicide rates were relatively lower in North America, Asia, and Europe. From this example, it is important to note that various rates of crimes and their effects can depend on a geographical location. Each geographical location with various rates has different social and cultural perspectives that can influence crime rates. However, social factors within countries can have many links to crime rates.

There are concerns that most serious crimes are within developing countries, of which Nigeria is included (Natarajan, 2016). Nigeria has its share in the area of crime and other related vices. Thus, the evidence of teenagers and young adults committing all sorts of crimes in Nigeria has been challenging (Okei-Odumakin, 2011). However, criminal activities in a society usually hurt people (Huang et al., 2004). Specifically, crime-related matters may disrupt the development course like economic growth (Mauro & Carmeci, 2007). Also, economic inequalities between groups may stimulate or intensify ongoing conflict in a society by strengthening and reinforcing ethnic/racial and class disparities and antagonism (Demombynes & Ozler, 2002). Subsequently, high crime rates arising from all these factors bear negative consequences on the growth and development of a society (Mehlum et al., 2005). The damage caused by crime has a significant negative impact on the welfare of the society, which can lead to serious impediments for creating and maintaining a developed and well-functioning economy (Usman, 2016). It imposes high costs on the private and public sectors. This further causes harm to the personal well-being of an individual, as well as the welfare of the society as a whole. The effect of crime on the economy is substantial because it generates a greater cost to society at different levels, ranging from individual to national level. It is against this background that this study

examines the socio-economic effects of kidnapping in Kaduna State, Nigeria, using Birnin Gwari Local Government Area of Kaduna state as a case study.

Implications of kidnappin and crimialities

Rational choice, routine activities, and broken versions of the window theory suggest that criminal opportunity causes crime rates to rise. Therefore, it is believed that crime rate should decrease by increasing the number of guardians. As a result, targets will be less suitable and the number of offenders will decrease. The criminal justice system is capable of controlling crime and vigorous law enforcement and harsh punishment should dissuade criminals. This in turn will result in a significant decrease in criminal offending as a primary implication of interpreting offending in terms of a logical calculation. Nonetheless, the query, "Is crime rational?" still stands. These theories are flawed from the start because they assume that criminals are rational calculated individuals. Although there is ample data to support this theory's essential premises, its applicability has a fundamental problem in the notion that criminals think before acting and weigh their options before deciding to commit a crime. The prosecution of criminal organizations do not considerably support the consequences of assuming this rationality in terms of deterrence, despite the appearance of rationality in crime. The certainty, seriousness, and rapidity (speed) of legal consequences all contribute to deterrence. According to deterrence, rationally calculated criminals may be dissuaded from committing crimes if there is a good probability they will be caught, given severe punishment, and served justice quickly. As a result, if criminals are logical, punishment and crime should go hand in hand. As the cost of breaking the law rises, it should eventually become counterproductive for the offender to continue their unlawful behavior. It is implied that the threat and likelihood of receiving a criminal punishment affects and regulates crime rates. It is also a prevalent belief that if offenders faced harsher penalties, they would decide not to commit crimes as this would not be in their best interests. However, a thorough examination of deterrence literature from years ago by Doob and Webster (2003) concluded that differences in sentence harshness have little impact on the level of crime in society. Deterrence thus makes intuitive sense, but empirical study does not support it. According to LeBlanc and Frechette (1989), the challenge is that criminals, especially young offenders, make very little preparation for an offense. This indicates that the crime was not the result of careful planning or calculation. While Ladouceur and Biron (1993) acknowledge that some planning goes into committing crimes, these plans frequently concentrate on the immediate consequences of the crime rather than their long-term effects. Doob and Cesaroni (2004) contend that while analyzing consequences, it is important to distinguish between rational choice in the short term and long term. Young people often

lack long-term thinking skills, act impulsively, and are more concerned with the short-term benefits of their actions. Youth may consider the repercussions for the criminal justice system, but they disregard them because they are unlikely to get caught. All 60 respondents in interviews with convicts (Tunnell, 1996) indicated that they merely did not consider the criminal repercussions of their activities. More than half of them were not aware of the severity of the punishment for the offense, despite the fact that they knew their acts were illegal and tried to avoid being caught as most offenders do.

Situational crime prevention attempts to dissuade offenders from focusing on particular targets. Therefore, it is believed that criminal activities can be prevented by closely monitoring possible offenders, carefully guarding potential targets, controlling the means of crime, and reducing opportunities for crime (Siegel & McCormick, 2006, p.135). The drawback of situational crime prevention measures and specifically closed-circuit television and public monitoring indicates that they have a tendency to shift criminal activity away from areas that are not being watched. According to Wood et al. (2004), enforcement initiatives are unable to effectively reduce crime because they do not address fundamental problems including poverty, health, harm reduction, welfare, and housing.

In addition, increasing the punishment also presumes that offenders were aware of the earlier sanction and believed the risk was worthwhile. However, the new harsher punishment renders the risk unprofitable in a cost-benefit analysis. Nonetheless, this is under the assumption that offenders are conscious of the increase in the harshness of the sentence and carefully consider their options. Both targeted and universal deterrence methods have not produced the outcomes predicted by rational choice theorists since the literature does not support this premise. System theory considers the whole institution as a functional unit where a crack or breakdown of one component of the unit affects the whole unit. Birnin Gwari Local Government Area and the communities that make it up are regarded as a functional unit where individuals, families, communities, and governments are seen as components of this functional unit. Anyone (individual or group) who engages in any type of crime, be it violent or not, automatically breaks down the system. This is because their action will negatively affect others, including the community, church or government as the case may be. It could also be regarded as a system where the institutions and law enforcement agencies such as courts, police, EFCC, and other legal systems through which crime offenders are tried, persecuted, and sentenced in most cases arms twist the justice because of personal gains, which breaks down the functional unit of the legal system of preventing crimes in our societies.

Consequently, having trained individuals in the neighborhood whose job is to ensure safety can aid in reducing crime and preserving security. When

there is competent management directing them, law enforcement agents can be very effective since they have the training and tools necessary to address the various components of crime in the community. Many community watch initiatives will also play a similar role when professional law enforcement agents refuse bribes and favoring particular members of the society. The secure city model experiment clearly demonstrates that changes in police patrol procedures had minimal impact on crime because they collect money from these offenders and pave the route for them to pursue their goals (Omenyuru et al., 2014). No matter how likely it may be that they will be apprehended, most criminals do not believe they will be caught, presumably because they are aware that their money will clear the way for them. Burski et al. (2000) failed to identify a connection between the likelihood of being arrested or imprisoned and comparable crime rates which lends weight to this conclusion.

Impacts of kidnapping and crime on the economy

In addition to social isolation, criminality has detrimental economic effects. It is challenging to fully foresee economic loss based on crime.

People become afraid and retreat from society when there are crimes, which prevents them from going out and spending money. They avoid going to shops, eateries, and other public locations that they consider unsafe.

Businesses in these regions that are considered dangerous suffer loss of revenue as a result (Doran, 2012, p.16). Businesses close to chaotic areas will further experience a drop in foot traffic because people avoid these areas when they are alone due to the disturbance.

Additionally, people feel compelled to leave their current residences when there is an excessive amount of terror and chaos in one location. According to Dorah (2012), this has a detrimental effect.

Due to neighborhood inhabitants leaving and adverse attitudes among possible buyers, the real estate market tends to suffer.

Tourists in the neighborhood are also affected by crime. People respond negatively when a particular location portrayed in crime is more hazardous. This is because they are afraid of what can occur in such locations. The forcible removal of personal items like phones, handbags, etc., are some reasons people no longer want to travel to locations such as Masaka, Ado, etc. People may be discouraged from travelling to such areas if their safety is not guaranteed. In such a situation, security may become a new top focus. There are numerous types of security, but they are not necessarily inexpensive. For instance, those who are extremely fearful will probably invest a lot of money in security by increasing the lighting outside their homes, fences or other protective constructions. Also, getting a guard dog, a home alarm, guns, and cameras are a few items people might invest in (Doran, 2012, p.17-18).

Additionally, if a person is very concerned about having something stolen or broken, they might purchase additional insurance (Grinshteyn, 2013, p.31). However, these have immediate financial consequences for the individual. Even while these purchases might benefit some sectors of the economy, people will have less money available to them. The government is another organization that invests a lot of money in security and security programs. To address many of these problems, the government is tasked with the responsibility of making effort to lower the overall crime rates. These courses are not inexpensive. Any program that the government develops will unavoidably be expensive because of how large it must be. Even small-scale initiatives have a high price tag since they affect entire cities or counties. Along with launching initiatives like putting up security cameras, the government also spends money on deploying more police personnel to fight crime (Doran, 2012, p.18). This is beneficial since a greater police presence can make locals feel safer and more protected.

Kidnapping and crime wave within the nigerian urban centres

An increase in crime rate in Nigeria has been reported as early as the eighties (Times International, London: November 4, 1985). Lives were no longer safe as the country was characterized by insecurity challenges posed by offenders. Essentially, urbanisation and development of large cities were not new, but the crime surge is rampant. Nigeria has over a century developed large towns and cities, but the reality of insecurity posed by criminals is worsening on a daily basis. The crime waves in Nigeria are becoming more frequent, more offensive, and horrendous. There are daily reports of more violent crimes (Agbola, 1997; Fabiyi, 2004).

The unexpected rise in urban insecurity has been associated with aggravated poverty that has become entrenched in most urban centres of many African nations. The population in poverty has been growing steadily in Nigeria. For example, in 1985, 27.2 percent of Nigerians were rated as poor; in 1990, it was measured as 56 percent; in 2000, it was estimated to be about 66 percent and in 2014, Nigeria was classified as the third poorest country in the world (Federal Office of Statistics, Nigeria, 1999; World Bank, 1999, 2000, & 2014). Insecurity and poverty both function in a symbiotic way to make life in most Nigerian urban cities very irritable and relatively irksome. Fabiyi (2004) also observed that another major cause of the increased wave of crime in Nigeria is due to technological advancement and opined that the internet has taught Nigerians (especially the young ones) how to kill themselves with impunity, to have little regard for human life, and to derive joy in shedding blood.

The official security apparatus in Nigeria has grossly failed to checkmate the security problems in the country. This is primarily due to

inadequate facilities to fight crime efficiently and the poverty level that has brought uncontrolled corruption within the security systems (Agbola, 1997; Onibokun, 2003; Fabiyi, 2004).

Olufolabo, Akintande, and Ekum (2015) identified eighteen (18) major categories of crimes associated with Nigerian urban centres. They posited that police departments emphasized stealing/theft/burglary as the most committed crime in most cities. They went further to mention illiteracy, broken home, bad company, porous environment, and failure of police and other judicial authorities in administering justice as the main causes of residential urban crime.

2. Statement of the reasearch problem

There are over 200 ethnic groups in Nigeria with different cultures, different backgrounds, different levels of education, and different crime patterns as well. Kaduna has its crime rate, patterns and effects on society, and kidnapping seems to be one of such criminal activities. Therefore, it is important to comprehend the issues related to crime in the society for the community to adequately confront crime and the difficulties it causes. One of the criminal acts noted in the research region is kidnapping, which violates accepted social norms and can hinder the community's ability to function smoothly. Also, it can be disastrous when it happens on a wide scale. Kidnappings are now common in the Birnin Gwari area. Communities have been affected by the growth of fear and anger, which has an effect on people's behavior. Although not everyone is a victim, these consequences can still be experienced by simply knowing someone who has been a victim.

Crimes against an individual include any threat of force or the actual use of force against somebody which usually results in an injury or even death due to an individual's intent or negligence. Insecurity in the study areas is alarming to the point that residents are scared to express themselves in public. This is because crime, especially violent crime, and infringes on the free movement and expression of the society, especially at night, usually has negative effects on the personal state of individual well-being and the society at large. Nightlife in the study areas is nothing to write home about considering residents' feelings when they learn kidnappings happened in their area.

Another drawback of unabated crime is the negative consequences on the socio-economic life of such communities. The magnitude of resources lost due to crime and fighting crime could have been channelled into other more productive aspects of community development. The experience of kidnapping can predominantly affect individuals' emotional well-being causing anger and anxiety in society. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that kidnapping harms society and studying this issue has become pertinent.

3. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to determine the socio-economic effects of kidnapping with the view to proffering solutions that will help in reducing or preventing this criminal activity in society.

4. Research objective

The objective of the study is to examine the socio-economic effects of kidnapping. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Examine the causes of kidnapping in the study area.
2. Find out why kidnapping is rampant in the study area.
3. Study the socio-economic effect of kidnapping on the people in the study area.
4. Proffer solutions and ways of preventing kidnapping in the study area.

5. Statement of hypothesis

H₀: kidnapping has no significant effect on the socio-economic activities of the study area

H_A: kidnapping has a significant effect on the socio-economic activities of the study area

6. Research question

1. What are the causes of kidnapping in the study area?
2. Why is kidnapping rampant in the study area?
3. What are the socio-economic effects of kidnapping on the people in the study area?
4. How can we prevent kidnapping in the study area?

7. Study area

Birnin Gwari is a Local Government Area in Kaduna State, Nigeria. Its headquarters are in the town of Birnin Gwari. It has an area of 6,185 km² and a population of 252,363 at the 2006 census. Birnin Gwari has been identified by many people as one of the major areas where kidnapping usually takes place in Nigeria. Apart from kidnapping, a lot of banditry activities have been reported along the Kaduna-Birnin Gwari Road.

8. Sample and sampling technique

Three clusters (which are equivalent to wards) were selected in the study area, and 110 interviews were proposed to be conducted in each of the clusters. The justification for this sample size (i.e. n=110) in each cluster is in line with what most statisticians accept, which states that the minimum sample size to get any kind of meaningful result is 100.

(<http://www.tools4dev.org/resources><http://www.tools4dev.org/resources>). Multistage random sampling technique was used to select respondents. In this method, 10 main streets were randomly selected from each cluster, and 10 households were selected in each of the streets with the use of a random sampling technique. From each household, an individual who is above 18 years was interviewed.

Table 1. Selected Clusters and Sample Size Distribution

State	LGA	Selected Cluster (Ward)	Sample Distribution	Size
KADUNA	BIRNIN GWARI	Magajin Gari	110	
		Kakangi	110	
		Kuyello	110	
TOTAL			330	

Source: National Population Commission, 2006 and Researcher Field Effort 2021

9. Data collection

Structured questionnaires were administered to the target respondents in the study area to obtain information needed to answer research questions.

10. Test of research instrument and validation

To ensure the face of validity of the instrument, the questionnaire and discussion guide was presented to the supervisor for scrutiny. Having effected the necessary corrections, experts in the unit of test and measurement looked through the instruments to confirm their validity. The feedback from them certified the instruments as content valid to measure the variables in the study.

11. Data analysis

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to enter and analyze the data, and descriptive and inferential statistics were used to show the findings. The Chi-square statistic (χ^2) was used to test the study hypothesis.

12. Data presentation and analysis

The data collected for this study are presented and analyzed in this chapter. Frequency and percentage distributions were used in the presentations.

Table 2. Questionnaire Administration

S/N	Selected Cluster	No of Questionnaires Allocated
1	Magajin Gari	110
2	Kakangi	110
3	Kuyello	110
Total		330

Source: Field Survey, 2021

According to the table above, the 330 questionnaires that were distributed among the chosen clusters (wards) in Birnin Gwari LGA in Kaduna state were dispersed equally. Although the study used 310 questionnaires, it is still a good margin to build the results that follow.

Table 3. Profile of Respondents

	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	167	55.8
Female	133	44.2
Total	300	100.0
Age Group		
18-29 years	63	21.0
30-39 years	70	23.2
40-49 years	92	30.6
50-59 years	42	13.9
60 years and above	34	11.3
Total	300	100.0
Marital Status		
Single 101		33.5
Married	94	31.3
Divorced	12	3.9
Widow	56	18.7
Widower	38	12.6
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The gender split was well balanced, with 55.8% for men and 44.2% for women. In terms of age, 13.9% fall between 50 and 59 years, 21.0% are between 18 and 29 years, 23.2% are between 30-39 years, 30.6% are between 40 and 49 years, and 11.3% are 60 years or older. The table also showed that 31.3% of respondents were married compared to 33.5% of respondents who were single.

Table 4. Respondents' Residences Within the Study Area

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	298	99.4
No	2	0.6
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Analysis of the data in the table above reveals that fewer than 1% of the sampled population does not live in the study area, while 99.4% reside there. This demonstrates that the research area's information was gathered from the correct intended population.

Table 5. Duration of Respondents' Resident in the Study Area

Duration of resident	Frequency	Percentage
0 – 5 years	39	12.9
6 – 10 years	63	20.9
11 -15 years	133	44.3
Above 15 years	66	21.9
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The analysis of the field data that was collected is covered in this part. The information in Table 5 shows that the majority of respondents have lived in the research area between 11 and 15 years (44.3%), while 12.9% of respondents have lived there for less than five years (0–5). 20.9% are those between 6 to 10 years and 21.9% are above 15 years. This indicates that the respondents have lived in the study region for a sizable amount of time. Therefore, they are qualified to comment on how abduction and other crimes that occur in their neighborhood affects them personally or have occurred over time in the study area.

Table 6. Witness of any Kidnapping or other Criminality Committed within the Study Area by the Respondents

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	196	65.2
No	104	34.8
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 6 tries to find out how many people have seen kidnappings or other criminal activity that had previously been a feature of the research area. 65.2% of respondents said they had seen it over time, while 34.8% said they had not seen any kind of criminal activity there. However, based on the

preceding data, it can be stated that the research area was marked by a higher number of crimes.

Table 7. Type of Crime Witnessed by the Respondents

	Frequency	Percentage
Kidnapping	165	84.2
Thefts	20	10.2
Sexual offences	11	5.6
Total	196	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Kidnapping (84.2%) is the most common crime in the research area based on the findings in Table 6. In other words, kidnapers commit the majority of crimes in the study's target area. 10.2% of crimes are thefts, while 5.6% are sexual offenses.

Table 8. Time Crime are Usually Being Committed in the Study Area

	Frequency	Percentage
10am – 2pm	117	39.0
2pm – 6pm	10	3.2
6pm -10pm	17	5.5
10pm -2am	81	27.1
2am - 6am	76	25.2
6am – 10am	0	0.0
Total	300	100

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Majority of the crimes were found to be perpetrated between 10 am and 2 pm and between 10 pm and 2 am (39.0%) according to 27.1% of the data. Others (25.2%) are between 2am and 6am. Only 3.2% and 5.5% of crimes are perpetrated between 2pm and 6pm and 6pm and 10pm, respectively. Consequently, it is confirmed that kidnapping is the most common crime in the studied area. This is because during the "off-peak period", between the hours of 10 a.m. and 2 p.m. and 10 p.m. and 2 a.m., students, traders, craftsmen, civil servants, and laborers must have left for the day's work, leaving the neighborhoods and roads largely deserted. The same thing occurs between the hours of 10 p.m. and 2 a.m., which is also a prime time for armed robbers and burglars to operate.

Table 9. Number of Respondents that Reported to Police After Attack

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	102	33.9
No	117	39.0
Don't know	81	27.1
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Common issues such as the underreporting of numerous sorts of crime, including kidnapping, can obscure the true extent of victimization. In Nigeria, a large amount of victimization is unreported, and reporting varies depending on the incident. However, majority of domestic abuse, larceny, and burglaries go unreported. The ability to determine the nation's true victimization rates will be hampered by underreporting. The results showed that majority of crimes go undetected. 39.0% of people who are attacked or have their things stolen do not call the police, whereas 84 people (27.1% of the sampled population) show indifference. Only 33.9% of attacks are reported to police stations.

Table 10. Individual Effects of Kidnapping in the Study Area

Effects	Frequency	Percentage
1 (No effect)	74	24.5
10 (Total effect)	226	75.5
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The red line in the table above represents the repercussions of crime. It affects 75.5% of the population while having little impact on the remaining 25%. In order to protect the communities under study from crimes, the security agencies need to intervene because abduction has eaten deeply into Birnin Gwari and its surroundings.

Table 11. Reasons Why Respondents Reported to Police After Attack by Offenders

	Frequency	Percentage
offender to be caught/punished	51	50.4
To stop it from happening again	14	14.0
To recover property	31	30.0
To get help	6	5.6
Total	102	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The reasons why people report occurrences of attacks to the police were looked at for 102 respondents who reported crime to the police (as shown in Table 11). While 30.0% report to police because they want their property recovered, 50.4% said they want the offender to be found and punished. 14.0% of people call the police because they do not want similar incidents to happen again, while 5.6% call the police because they need assistance.

It is the responsibility of the police to protect the lives and property of their constituents, but the real concern is: "Are the police doing enough to protect lives and property?" (For additional study).

Table 12. Opinions of the Respondents if They are Satisfied With the Services Rendered by the Police

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes (satisfied)	28	27.2
No (dissatisfied)	47	45.6
Indifference	28	27.2
Total	102	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

It is obvious that while 45.6% of those who complained to the police were dissatisfied with their services or responses, 27.2% chose to show little interest in the topic at hand. Only 27.2% said they were happy with the services provided by the police. The aforementioned result implies that the police force has failed to carry out its obligations under the Nigerian constitution.

Table 13. Major Causes of Kidnapping in the Study Area

	Frequency	Percentage
Too lenient sentencing	28	9.4
Poverty	68	22.6
Too few police	10	3.2
Lack of discipline from parents	27	9.0
Unemployment	86	28.7
too much strike from ASUU	43	14.2
Drugs	38	12.9
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 13 shows that poverty (70%) and unemployment (89%) are the two main factors that lead to kidnapping. Another factor leading to kidnapping among young men is the excessive ASUU strike activity (14.2%). This is followed by too lenient sentencing (7.4%), and a lack of discipline from parents. From the above table, it can be inferred that unemployment is the driving force behind kidnapping and other crimes that people conduct to survive. Poverty is the second major cause of kidnapping. Therefore, anything that impacts "A" must also affect "B." ASUU's (Academic Staff Union of Universities) frequent strikes have a negative impact on the topic at hand. Engaging in an endless strike frequently causes young men to involve in criminal activities.

Table 14. Opinions of the Respondents on How Safe They Feel Walking Alone After Dark

	Frequency	Percentage
Very safe	58	19.4
Fairly Safe	27	9.0
A bit safe	52	17.4
Very unsafe	163	54.2
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Out of 300 populations that were studied, the aforementioned data showed that 54.2% are not safe, while 17.4% are somewhat safe. The implications of the aforementioned finding indicate that the study regions under consideration are not safe, and 168 locals have attested to this reality.

Table 15. Level of Kidnapping in the Study Area as Observed by the Respondents

Factors	Frequency	Percentage
A lot more crime	34	11.3
A little more crime	48	16.1
About the same	43	14.2
A little less crime	102	33.9
A lot less crime	74	24.5
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The results indicated that 33.9% was the most important component. This is followed by 24.5%, 16.1%, 14.2%, and 11.3%. When kidnapping is out of control, facts about this were revealed by the choice of the table. It is not an overstatement to say that the police and other security authorities have not carried out their obligations under the constitution, which has resulted to an upsurge in kidnappings in the studied regions.

Table 16. Opinions of the Respondents if there is Any Vigilante Group Currently Operating in the Study Area

	Frequency	Percentage
No	80	26.5
Yes	154	51.3
Never heard of any vigilante group currently operating in my area	66	22.2
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The data demonstrate that vigilante groups are active in the research areas as reported by 51.3% of respondents, whereas 26.5% and 22.2% of respondents indicated that there are no vigilante organizations in their localities. Either the aforementioned vigilante organizations are inactive due to a lack of professionalism or they lack the necessary tools to produce greater results which keeps the public in the dark about their presence.

Table 17. Major Effects of Kidnapping in the Study Area

	NO	NO	NO	Total	%
Loss of personal belongings (e.g., Money, Appliances, handsets, Jewries, car, bicycle motorcycle etc)	40	20	30	90	30.0
Sleep disorders and Loss of appetite, excessive appetite, or eating disorders	22	30	14	70	23.3
Physical injuries that can lead to other health conditions (such as heart attack, stroke, fractures from falling, and loss of dexterity)	18	23	10	51	17.0
Assault victims: possible exposure to sexually transmitted diseases, exposure to HIV, and unwanted pregnancy.	12	8	21	41	13.7
Substantial lifestyle changes including restriction of activities once enjoyed	14	20	18	48	16.0
Total	106	101	93	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The information in Table 17 illustrates how kidnapping affects society. Loss of personal property accounts for the largest portion of the effect (30.0%). This is followed by sleep disorders and eating disorders (23.3%), as well as loss of appetite. Also, 17.0% of physical injuries result in other illnesses. On the other hand, significant lifestyle adjustments which includes limitations on previously liked activities is another major effect of kidnapping(16.0%), and assaulted victims are exposed to STI's, HIV, and unwanted pregnancies (13.7%). Failures by many security organizations tasked with the responsibility of protecting lives and property have led to offenders operating at will, robbing people of their possessions, hurting them, making them have restless nights, and instilling terror in them.

Table 18. Ways to Curb the Rate of Kidnapping in our Societies

Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Long sentencing	29	9.4
Job creation	102	32.9
Increase security	87	28.1
Good parental upbringing	37	11.9
Boost economic base of the study areas	55	17.7
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021

The selection of the above table reveals that 32.9% of respondents believed that employment would significantly lower the rate of kidnapping in communities, while 28.1% opined that enhancing security both inside and outside the study regions would end these kidnappings. In the meantime, 17.7% feel that the economic foundation of the studied areas should be

strengthened in order to lower the rate of kidnapping, and 9.4% stated that penalizing offenders would do the same.

Hypothesis testing

The analysis and interpretation of the study's hypothesis are covered in this part. Chi-square is the statistic that was used to analyze the data. The analysis level of significance is 5% (i.e., 0.05). There is no significant association between the variables if the P-value is larger than 0.05. Conversely, there is a significant relationship if the P-value is less than 0.05 according to the decision rule.

Hypothesis Statement

H₀: kidnapping has no significant effect on the socio-economic activities of the study area.

H_A: kidnapping has a significant effect on the socio-economic activities of the study area.

Table 19. Hypothesis Testing

Socio-Economic Effect Of Kidnapping	Major Causes Of Kidnapping In The Study Area							TOTAL
	Too lenient sentencing	Poverty	Too few police	Lack of discipline from parent	Unemployment	Too much strike from ASUU	Drugs	
1 (No effect)	7	17	2	7	21	11	10	74
10 (Total effect)	21	51	8	20	65	32	28	226
TOTAL	28	68	10	27	86	43	38	300
$\chi^2 = 12.849$		DF=3		P=0.003				

Given that the P-value (0.003) in the table above is below the threshold of significance (0.05), it is assumed that kidnapping has a major impact on the socio-economic activities of the studied area.

Discussion of the findings

The data obtained in this study was utilized to demonstrate how certain socio-demographic factors and kidnapping, as well as its consequences are related. It also helps to clarify how the theoretical claims about crime victimization can be supported by survey-generated empirical data.

Sex and age distributions

According to Table 3, there are 55.8% men and 44.2% women, which is proportional when their vocations are considered. The study was primarily concerned with individuals who were 16 years and older. Based on the result, the largest age cohort of residents in the study region is between 27 and 37,

which accounts for around 23.2% of the population. This is followed by ages 21 and 26. This suggests that the study area's residents are in their prime years, and this is one of the factors contributing to kidnapping in the area. Adolescent exuberance can also be blamed for this.

Kidnapping and other of crimes often committed in the study area

The primary offense that was frequently perpetrated in the research region was shown in Table 7. Burglary and armed robbery, which are the most prevalent crimes perpetrated in the research region, were confirmed by 39% and 30.7% of the respondents, respectively. This is because the majority of offenders are young men and women as indicated in Table 3.

Table 8 reveals that, according to 39% of the respondents, crimes are mostly committed between the hours of 10 a.m. and 2 p.m. and 10 p.m. and 2 a.m. (27.1%). This shows that thefts typically occur between 10am and 2pm and 10pm and 2am.

4.3.3. The causes of kidnapping and other types of crimes in the study area

The root causes of crime in the research area are discussed in Table 13. As evidenced above, 89% of respondents claimed that poverty and unemployment are the two main contributing factors to crime. This indicates that crime is continuously rising unabatedly as a result of people's struggles with poverty and unemployment as well as the area's weak economic foundation. On the other hand, poverty has its detrimental impacts on people, which raises the local crime rate. As seen in Table 13, young unemployed youths or the underprivileged are typically involved in armed robberies.

4.3.4 The effects of kidnapping on the society

Table 17 revealed the effects of crime on society. Respondents confirmed that loss of personal belongings and loss of appetite are the major effects of crime as experienced in the area. This is followed by physical injuries that lead to other health conditions (16.5%), substantial lifestyle changes including restriction of activities once enjoyed (15.5%), and assaulted victims are exposed to STI's, HIV, and unwanted pregnancy (13.2%).

According to Table 14, 54.2% of the respondent affirmed they are not safe, while 54 (17.4%) felt a bit safe. The implication of the result above shows that the study areas under study are not safe and 168 inhabitants of these areas attested to this fact.

4.3.4 How to prevent kidnapping and other criminalities in the study area

In Table 18, the majority of respondents to the study's analysis believed that providing work for the populace would significantly reduce kidnapping and other crimes in the study area (32.9%). 28.1% opined that addressing insecurity head-on would unquestionably put an end to kidnapping and other crimes in the research area. Furthermore, 17% of respondents stated that increasing the economic foundation of the study areas would encourage people to start their businesses, which would lower abduction and other crimes.

5.1 Summary of findings

The results of the field study have shown that there is a strong correlation between crime, kidnapping, and other criminal acts with the socio-economic standing of society. However, there are risks and weaknesses associated with this. It is important to mention that the research area played a key role in the locals' (respondents') decision to associate local insecurity with unemployment and poverty.

The following is a summary of the results:

- This survey found that the most common crime committed in the study area was kidnapping.
- The research also found that the majority of these criminals, including kidnapers, operate between the hours of 10 a.m. and 2 p.m. and 10 p.m. and 2 a.m.
- Once more, the majority of offenses in the study area go undetected.
- The research area's crime rate is also continuing to rise.
- Due to the lack of protection, few people venture outside at night in the study area.
- In the research area, unemployment and poverty are the main contributors to insecurity.
- Although there are watchdog organizations in the research region, they are not active.
- The majority of those who use the police do not do so in a manner that is appropriate.

5.2. Recommendation

Given the above-mentioned facts, the government should create job possibilities for young people and give the police and other security agencies the necessary training and tools to combat crime, including abduction, in the nation. Additionally, each community should establish an active vigilante organization or some other kind of unofficial crime-control mechanism to support the police in their efforts to raise the level of security in the community. In order to spread the message of safety to Nigerians about the

significance of reporting suspicious behavior to the police and other security agencies, there is a need for increased awareness and collaboration between the security services, the community, and all segments of society.

Conclusion

The Nigerian government has recently taken several actions to try and prevent abduction and other crimes, but it appears that none of these actions are sufficient to stop the nasty trend of various sorts of crime and insecurity in the nation. The suggestions provided above should be carefully followed to lessen the effects of kidnapping and other crimes devastating the research region.

References:

1. Adepoju, A. S. (2014). Housing development finance among civil servants in Ibadan. Being unpublished M. Sc. Dissertation submitted to the Department of Estate Management, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria.
2. Agbola, T. (1997). The Architecture of Fear: Urban Design and Construction Response to Urban Violence in Lagos, Nigeria. Research Report, IFRA, Nigeria. <http://www.openedition.org/6540> Aigbokhan, B. E. (2000). Poverty, Growth, and Inequality in Nigeria: A case study (Vol. 102). African Economic Research Consortium
3. Armitage, R. (2013). Crime Prevention Through Housing Design. Crime Prevention and Security Management Series. Palgrave Macmillan, Hampshire RG21 6XS, England.
4. Bennett, G. (1989). Crime warps: The future of crime in America. New York: Anchor Books.
5. Chilton, R. & Datesman, S. (1987). Gender, race, and crime: An analysis of urban trends, 1960-1980. *Gender & Society*, 1(2), 152-171.
6. Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics (1994). Canadian crime statistics, 1992. *Juristat*, 14(3). Statistics Canada.
7. Crowe, T. D. (2000). Crime prevention through environmental design: Applications of architectural design and space management concepts. Revised by Lawrence J. Fennelly. Butterworth-Heinemann. First printed in 1991.
8. Carmichael, S. & Piquero, A. R. (2004). Sanctions, perceived anger, and criminal offending. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*. Special Issue: Offender Decision Making, 20(4), 371-393.
9. Crime on Behavioral Health Outcomes and Behavioral Health Treatment.
10. Clarke, R. V. (1989). Theoretical Background to Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) and Situational Prevention.

Paper presented at the Designing Out Crime: Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) convened by the Australian Institute of Criminology and NRMA Insurance and held at the Hilton Hotel, Sydney, June 16 – 19

11. Dike, V. E. (2005). Corruption in Nigeria: A new paradigm for effective control. *Africa Economic Analysis*, 1-22.
12. Doran, B. J. & Burgess, M. B. (2012). Chapter 2 Why is fear of crime a serious social problem.
13. Dugan, L. (1999). The effect of criminal victimization on a household's moving decision*. *Criminology*, Doob, A. and C. Cesaroni. (2004). *Responding to Youth Crime in Canada*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
14. Doob, A. & Webster, C. (2003). Sentence severity and crime: Accepting the null hypothesis. In M. Tonry (Ed.), *Crime and Justice: A Review of Research* (Vol. 30, pp. 143–195). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
15. Dugan, L. & Apel, R. (2005). The differential risk of retaliation by relational distance: A more general model of violent victimization. *Criminology*, 43(3), 697-730. 37(4), 903-930.
16. Exum, M. L. (2002). The application of robustness of the rational choice perspective in the study of intoxicated and angry intentions to aggress. *Criminology*, 40(4), 933-966.
17. Exum, M. L. (2002). The effects of alcohol intoxication and anger on violent decision making in men. *Dissertation Abstracts International, A: The Humanities and Social Sciences*, 62(9), 3195-A.
18. Felson, R. B. (1997). Routine activities and involvement in violence as actor, witness, or target. *Violence and Victims*, 12(3), 209–221.
19. Felson, M. & Cohen, L. E. (1980). Human ecology and crime: A routine activity approach. *Human Ecology*, 8(4), 389–405.
20. Farrell, G. & Pease, K. (1993). *Once Bitten, Twice Bitten: Repeat Victimization and its Implications for Crime Prevention*, Crime Prevention Unit Paper 46. London England: Home Office
21. Felson, M. & Clarke, R. V. G. (1998). *Opportunity makes the thief: Practical theory for crime prevention* (Vol. 98). Home Office, Policing and Reducing Crime Unit, Research, Development and Statistics Directorate
22. Grinshteyn, E. G (2013). *Causes and Consequences of Fear of Crime: The Impact of Fear of crime*.
23. Huang, C. C., Laing, D., & Wang, P. (2004). Crime and poverty: A search-theoretic approach*. *International Economic Review*, 45(3), 909-938.

24. Honkatukia, P., Nyqvist, L., & Poso, T. (2006). Violence from within the reform school. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice* 4(4), 328-344.
25. Hipp, J. R. & Yates, D. K. (2011). Ghettos, thresholds, and crime: does concentrated poverty really have an accelerating increasing effect on crime?*. *Criminology*, 49(4), 955- 990.
26. Hartnagel, T. & Lee, G. (1990). Urban crime in Canada. *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, 32(4), 591-606.
27. Ladouceur, C. & Biron, L. (1993). Ecouler la merchandise vole, uneapprocherationelle? *Canadian Journal of Criminology* 35(2), 169–182.
28. McCollister et al. (2010). The cost of crime to society: New crime-specific estimates for policy. www.elsevier.com/locate/drugalcdep , 98-10
29. Matsueda, R. L., Kreager, D. A., & Huizinga, D. (2006). Detering delinquents: A rational choice model of theft and violence. *American Sociological Review*, 71(1), 95-122.
30. MacCoun, R. & Reuter, P. (1992). Are the wages of sin \$30 an hour? Economic aspects of street-level drug dealing. *Crime and Delinquency*, 38(4), 477–491.
31. Maher, L. (1996). Hidden in the light: Occupational norms among crack-using street-level sex workers. *Journal of Drug Issues*, 26, 143–173.
32. Mehlum, H., Miguel, E., & Torvik, R. (2006). Poverty and crime in 19th century Germany. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 59(3), 370-388.
33. Natarajan, M. (2016). Crime in developing countries: the contribution of crime science.
34. Newman, O. (1973). *Defensible Space: Crime Prevention Through Urban Design*. New York: Macmillan.
35. Omotor, D. G. (2004). An Analysis of Federal Government Expenditure in the Education Sector of Nigeria: Implications for National Development. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 9(2), 105-110.
36. Özkan, G.Ö.K. (2011). The role of opportunity in crime prevention and possible threats to crime control benefits. *Polis Bilimleri Dergisi, Turkish Journal of Police Studies* Vol. 13 (1) pp97-114.
37. Obanya, P. (2002). *Revitalizing education in Africa*. Stirling-Horden.
38. Ogwumike, F. O. (2002). An appraisal of poverty reduction strategies in Nigeria. *CBN Economic and Financial Review*, 39(4), 1-17.
39. Onibokun, A. (2003). Poverty and insecurity in Anglophone West Africa. *Security, crime and segregation in West African cities since the 19th century*, IFRA publication, 175-182.
40. Ojerinde, D. (1985). Analysis of Nigeria's national policy on education. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 11(3), 249-253.

41. Putting Fear of Crime on the Map Investigating Perceptions of Crime Using Geographic Information Systems. Page 12
42. Smith, D. J. (2010). A culture of corruption: Everyday deception and popular discontent in Nigeria. Princeton University Press.
43. Short, J. (1991). Poverty, ethnicity and crime: Change and continuity in U.S. cities. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency* 28(4), 501-508.
44. Sherman, L. W. (1997). Communities and crime prevention. Sherman, LW. <https://www.ncjrs.gov/works/chapter3.htm>.
45. Shaffer, R., Deller, S., & Marcouiller, D. (2006). Rethinking community economic development. *Economic Development Quarterly*, 20(1), pp.59-74.
46. Siegal, L. & McCormick, C. (2006). *Criminology in Canada: Theories, Patterns, and Typologies* (3rd ed.). Toronto: Thompson, Nelson
47. Ucha, C. (2010). Poverty in Nigeria: Some dimensions and contributing factors. *Global Majority E-Journal*, 1(1), 46-56.
48. UN Habitat (2007). *Enhancing Urban Safety and Security: Global Report on Human Settlements* 2007. UK: Earthscan. http://www.unisdr.org/files/2585_2432alt1.pdf(accessed December 3, 2014).
49. World Bank (2014). Nigeria, third on world poverty index. World Bank official release as published in the Vanguard Newspaper, April, 11 <http://www.vanguardngr.com/2014/04/440695>.