THE USA JOURNALS
THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF POLITICAL SCIENCE LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY (ISSN- 2693-0803)
VOLUME 06 ISSUE11

PUBLISHED DATE: - 04-11-2024
DOI: - https://doi.org/10.37547/tajpslc/Volume06Issue11-07 **PAGE NO.: - 42-51**

RESEARCH ARTICLE **Open Access**

THE NEXUS BETWEEN CORRUPTION AND RESOURCE THEFT: IMPLICATIONS FOR NATIONAL SECURITY IN RESOURCE-RICH NATIONS

Patrick G. Onogwu
PhD Student City University, Cambodia

Olanrewaju Lawal
Department of Geography and Environmental Management, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract
The nexus between crude oil theft, corruption, and national security in Nigeria is complex and multifaceted. Oil theft directly impacts the nation's economy by reducing government revenue, which in turn limits the resources available for critical public services, including security and law enforcement. Corruption, by weakening governance and fostering impunity, compounds these security threats, allowing criminal networks to thrive This study investigates the intricate relationship between crude oil theft, corruption, and national security in Nigeria. The study utilised a longitudinal research design, examining secondary data from 2013 to 2023, including metrics such as oil theft, political corruption, violent events, and fatalities. Data from sources like the Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project (ACLED), the National Oil Spill Detection and Response Agency (NOSDRA), and the World Bank's political corruption index were analysed using Poisson regression to assess the effects of oil theft and corruption on national security. Findings revealed that crude oil theft has a statistically significant positive relationship with violent events, while political corruption, represented by the political corruption index, shows a strong negative relationship with security, with an estimate of -
26.475. This could imply that corruption may sometimes act as a stabilising force whereby, in corrupt systems, those in power might suppress violence to maintain order and avoid public attention that could threaten their positions. However, political corruption has a substantial positive effect on fatalities, with an estimate of 19.589. This highlights that as corruption increases, fatalities rise significantly, pointing to the detrimental impact of corruption on state institutions and the rule of law. These findings also suggest that while crude oil theft directly contributes to insecurity, political corruption may reduce overt violence by maintaining fragile stability. Therefore, addressing these issues requires a nuanced approach. Policymakers must recognise that combating corruption and oil theft alone will not be sufficient to ensure national security; instead, strategies should tackle both issues simultaneously, understanding that reducing visible violence does not always eliminate the underlying causes of insecurity.

KEYWORDS: National Security, Crude Oil Theft, Violent Events, Nigeria, Political corruption.

INTRODUCTION

Nigeria, as one of the largest oil-producing countries in Africa, grapples with the significant challenges of crude oil theft and corruption (Okorie et al., 2023). These issues not only undermine the nation's economic stability but also pose severe threats to national security. Crude oil theft leads to substantial revenue losses, environmental degradation, and has been linked to funding criminal activities and insurgency (Adishi & Hunga, 2017). Crude oil theft, often referred to as bunkering, involves the illegal extraction, transportation, and sale of crude oil. This illicit activity has been rampant in the Niger Delta region, where complex networks of criminals and local militants tap into pipelines, siphoning off vast quantities of oil (Romsom, 2022). The scale of this theft is staggering, with estimates suggesting that Nigeria loses hundreds of thousands of barrels of oil daily to illegal activities (Bodo et al., 2020). The consequences of crude oil theft are far-reaching: it results in significant revenue losses for the government, environmental degradation from oil spills, and potential funding for armed groups that destabilise the country and Niger Delta region.

Corruption exacerbates the problem of crude oil theft. Nigeria has long struggled with high levels of corruption, which permeates various levels of government and the private sector (Hope & Hope, 2017). Corrupt practices undermine the effectiveness of law enforcement and regulatory agencies tasked with protecting oil infrastructure and ensuring compliance with industry regulations. Bribery, embezzlement, and mismanagement of public funds erode trust in institutions and facilitate the continuation of illegal oil activities (Hope & Hope, 2017). The combination of crude oil theft and corruption creates a vicious cycle that hampers economic development, fuels social unrest, and could pose significant challenges to national security.

The nexus between crude oil theft, corruption, and national security in Nigeria is complex and multifaceted. Oil theft directly impacts the nation's economy by reducing government revenue, which in turn limits the resources available for critical public services, including security and law enforcement (Henry & Mohammed, 2023). The environmental damage caused by oil spills from sabotage and illegal refining activities further compounds the human security crisis in affected communities, leading to health issues, loss of livelihoods, and forced displacement (Olufemi & Ogunmodede, 2021). Corruption undermines the rule of law and weakens the capacity of the state to respond effectively to security threats. It fosters impunity, allowing criminal networks to operate with relative freedom and perpetuating a culture of lawlessness (Singh, 2022). The funds generated from crude oil theft often finance armed groups, exacerbating violence and insecurity in the Niger Delta and beyond (Romsom, 2022). These dynamics contribute to a broader context of instability, where economic, environmental, and social factors converge to threaten national security.

Despite various measures taken by the Nigerian government and international bodies to curb crude oil theft and corruption, these issues persist, with dire implications for national security (Jooji et al., 2023; Nwozor et al., 2023; Okorie et al., 2023; Oziri & Achinike, 2021). There is a need for a robust empirical and quantitative analysis to understand the relationship between crude oil theft, corruption, and national security in Nigeria. By examining data on human security, oil spills due to sabotage, and corruption indices over time, this study aims to identify trends and relationships which will provide a better understanding of the problem. Furthermore, this study seeks to provide actionable insights and recommendations to policymakers, security agencies, and stakeholders committed to enhancing Nigeria's national security and economic prosperity.

Furthermore, most studies examining the relationship between crude oil theft, corruption, and national security in Nigeria have predominantly utilised qualitative methodologies (Adishi & Hunga, 2017; Okoli & Orinya, 2013; Onuoha, 2008). These studies have provided valuable insights into the socio-political and economic implications of crude oil theft and corruption, emphasising narrative descriptions

and case studies to highlight the issues. However, there is a significant gap in the literature regarding empirical and quantitative analyses that can systematically measure and evaluate these relationships.

Qualitative research, while rich in contextual detail, often lacks the statistical rigour and generalisability that quantitative studies can provide (Hays & McKibben, 2021). Consequently, there is a need for a study that employs empirical methods to quantitatively assess the trends, correlations, and impacts of crude oil theft and corruption on national security in Nigeria. This study aims to fill this gap by utilising robust quantitative techniques to analyse data over the past decade. By doing so, it seeks to provide a more objective and comprehensive understanding of the dynamics at play and offer actionable insights grounded in empirical evidence.

Studies have highlighted the pressing challenges facing Nigeria and Sub-Saharan Africa, particularly to oil theft, corruption, environmental degradation, and socio-economic instability. Nwozor et al. (2023) delved into the profound consequences of oil theft in Nigeria's Niger Delta, demonstrating how it not only fuels environmental degradation but also disrupts socio- economic stability and human security. The destruction of traditional livelihoods through oil theft and artisanal refining leaves communities impoverished and prone to unrest. To counter these effects, the authors suggest strengthening state institutions, legitimizing artisanal refining, and developing targeted welfare programs.

Building on this, Yahaya et al. (2020) broaden the scope by investigating the interplay between financial development, corruption, and environmental degradation across eight Sub-Saharan African countries. Their findings align with Nwozor et al.'s analysis, highlighting how corruption can magnify environmental harm, especially when financial growth is pursued without strong regulatory frameworks. They call for the adoption of energy-efficient technologies and robust anti-corruption measures as essential steps to mitigate environmental degradation in the region.

Corruption's destabilising effects are further explored by Shimawua (2020), who examines its role in prolonging the Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria. Corrupt practices within the military, the study argues, have diverted crucial resources from the fight against insurgency, thereby weakening the effectiveness of military operations. The solution, according to Shimawua, lies in eliminating corrupt officials from the military to restore operational effectiveness and enhance national security.

Olanrewaju et al. (2020) extend this discussion by addressing how the mismanagement of natural resources, driven by greed and grievance, fuels conflicts and security challenges throughout Africa. Their findings echo the arguments of previous studies, underscoring that without proper resource management and a concerted effort to curb corruption, the continent's security and stability remain in jeopardy. The economic dimensions of oil theft are quantified by Umar and Mohammed (2021), who estimate that Nigeria loses approximately US$6 billion annually due to this illicit activity. These losses, they argue, not only undermine the country's revenue generation but also exacerbate the socio-economic challenges facing local communities. To address this, they advocate for comprehensive measures to combat illicit financial flows and improve transparency in resource management.

Finally, Agba and Aide (2020) bring the broader implications of corruption into focus, showing how it permeates governance, development, and security in Nigeria. They highlight how corruption erodes public trust, misallocates resources, and deepens poverty and inequality. Their call for a united national effort to eradicate corruption resonates with the solutions proposed across these studies, all of which emphasize the need for reform to improve governance, promote sustainability, and enhance socio-economic stability.

Together, these studies showcase the interconnected challenges facing Nigeria and Sub-Saharan Africa, linking corruption, resource mismanagement, and environmental degradation with broader socio-economic and security concerns. The solutions proposed converge on the

need for institutional reforms, anti-corruption measures, and sustainable resource management to promote long-term stability and development in the region.

Moreover, the current literature does not adequately link corruption in the oil sector, particularly crude oil theft, with national security. While the detrimental effects of corruption on political stability and economic growth are recognised, there is a need for a deeper understanding of how oil theft contributes to security threats. This includes exploring how stolen oil revenues finance activities that destabilise the country, posing a direct threat to national security.

Additionally, existing literature often addresses corruption and crude oil theft as isolated issues, without fully exploring their combined and compounding effects on Nigeria's overall security landscape. This study fills this gap by providing an integrated analysis of how corruption within the military and government institutions, alongside the rampant theft of crude oil, collectively undermines Nigeria's national security. This study is therefore highly relevant as it addresses these gaps by focusing specifically on how crude oil theft undermines economic stability and poses significant challenges to national security. By exploring these issues, the study contributes to a more nuanced understanding of the sector-specific impacts of corruption and provides critical insights into the effectiveness of recent anti-corruption measures and their implications for Nigeria's security and international relations.

DATA AND METHODS

This study employed a longitudinal research design, which is a method of study where data is collected from the same subjects repeatedly over an extended period of time (Mohajan, 2020). This approach is particularly useful for observing changes, trends, and developments within a particular phenomenon, population, or environment over time. The study area for this study is Nigeria, a West African nation that is one of the largest oil producers in the world and a significant player in the global energy market (Adedayo et al., 2021). Nigeria's oil industry, concentrated in the Niger Delta region which is comprised of nine states—Abia, Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Delta, Edo, Imo, Ondo, and Rivers—and rich in crude oil reserves and has been the hub of the nation's oil exploration and production activities since the 1950s (Edo et al., 2024).

Nigeria is a federal republic comprising 36 states and a Federal Capital Territory, with Abuja as its capital. The executive branch is led by the President, who serves as both the head of state and head of the federal government (Obiadi & Onochie, 2018). Nigeria's economy is the largest in Africa, ranking 31st globally by nominal GDP and 30th by purchasing power parity (PPP) (Isibor et al., 2022). In 2022, its GDP (PPP) per capita was $9,148, which is lower than that of South Africa, Egypt, or Morocco, but slightly higher than Ghana and Ivory Coast (Ojoare, 2023). Nigeria is a key player in Africa, particularly in energy, financial markets, pharmaceuticals, and entertainment. Beyond oil, remittances from Nigerians abroad are the second-largest source of foreign exchange earnings (Ayuba, 2023).

Nigeria's financial services sector is highly developed, featuring a mix of local and international banks, asset management companies, brokerage firms, insurance companies, private equity funds, and investment banks (Oshikoya & Durosinmi-Etti, 2019). The country has a lower-middle-income economy with abundant natural resources, including coal, bauxite, tantalite, gold, tin, iron ore, limestone, niobium, lead, and zinc. Despite these vast resources, Nigeria's mining industry remains underdeveloped (Ayuk et al., 2020).

Nigeria is the world's 15th largest oil producer, the 6th largest exporter, and holds the 9th largest proven oil reserves (Adedara & Adetifa, 2022). Oil is a major driver of the Nigerian economy, contributing about 80% of government revenue. Nigeria also has significant natural gas reserves, which are seen as key to unlocking economic growth along the Niger River. However, the country loses an estimated $2.5 billion annually to gas flaring and over 120,000 barrels of oil per day to crude theft in the Niger Delta, leading to conflict

and production disruptions. The Niger Delta Basin, in the south-south region, is Nigeria's most productive oil area, containing 78 of the country's 159 oil fields (Olade, 2021). Despite these resources, petroleum was Nigeria's main import until 2021, accounting for 24% of imports. However, challenges like oil theft have prompted international oil companies to consider divesting their Nigerian assets.

DATA

Secondary data used for this study was sourced from data repositories. The nature of the data for this study encompassed several quantitative metrics related to national security, crude oil theft and corruption. Specifically, the data will include crude oil theft, violent events and fatalities, oil spill statistics, and political corruption index. National security data was obtained from the Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project (ACLED). For oil spill data, the study relied on information from the National Oil Spill Detection and Response Agency (NOSDRA) while the data on corruption was political corruption index sourced from World Bank database.

METHODS

Data on violent events and fatalities, political corruption index, and crude oil theft was collated, sorted and cleaned using R to ensure its alignment with the aim and the period (2013 to 2013) this study. regression analysis was conducted to assessing the impact of crude oil theft and corruption on national security (human security). Poisson regression analysis was utilized to quantify the impact of crude oil theft and corruption on national security; this analysis was carried out in the context of two aspects of national security (violent events and fatalities). Poisson regression is particularly well-suited for this analysis because the dependent variables—national security indicators (violent events and fatalities)—are often count data, such as the number of violent events and fatalities. By employing this statistical method, the study aimed to model the relationship between these variables and the predictors (crude oil theft and corruption) while accounting for the frequency of occurrences within a given time frame.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

RESULTS

Influence of Corruption and Crude Oil Theft on National Security (Violent Event) in Nigeria Over the Past Decade

Table 1 shows results from Poisson regression on the influence of crude oil theft, political corruption on national security in Nigeria. The model assesses how changes in crude oil theft events count and the political corruption index influence the number of total security events. The model summary reveals significant findings. The intercept has a value of 30.761, with a standard error of 0.8546 and a highly significant Wald Chi-Square value of 1295.707 ($p < 0.001$). This indicates a high baseline level of security when other factors, such as crude oil theft event count and political corruption, are held constantly. This suggests that Nigeria faces inherent security challenges beyond those associated with crude oil theft and corruption.

Crude oil theft events have a positive and statistically significant relationship with total security events. The estimate for crude oil event count is 0.001, with a very small standard error of 0.00003, and a Wald Chi-Square value of 480.703 ($p < 0.001$). Although the increase in security events per crude oil event is small, the significance of the relationship indicates that oil theft plays a considerable role in fueling insecurity. Over time, the accumulation of oil-related crimes contributes to greater instability, further exacerbating national security concerns. Political corruption, represented by the political corruption index, shows a strong negative relationship with security, with an estimate of -26.475 and a standard error of 0.947. The Wald Chi-Square for this parameter is 780.975 ($p < 0.001$). This indicates that as corruption reduces, the number of security events increases.

Table 1 model summary on the influence of corruption and crude oil theft on national security (violent events) in Nigeria over the past decade

			95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
Parameter	B	Std. Error	Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.
(Intercept)	30.761	.854	29.086	32.436	1295.707	1	.000
COTEC	.001	3.366×10^{-5}	.001	.001	480.703	1	.000
PCI	-26.475	.947	-28.332	-24.619	780.975	1	.000
(Scale)	1[a]						

Dependent Variable: Total_Events

Model: (Intercept), Crude_oil_event_count (COTEC), Political-corruption index (PCI)

a. Fixed at the displayed value.

Influence of Corruption and Crude Oil Theft on National Security (Fatalities) in Nigeria Over the Past Decade

Table 2 showcases insights into the impact of crude oil event counts and political corruption on the total number of fatalities. The intercept was estimated at -9.962, with a standard error of 0.449, and a Wald Chi-Square value of 491.403 ($p < 0.001$). This indicates a low baseline level of fatalities in the absence of crude oil events and corruption, although other inherent factors may still influence fatality levels.

The crude oil event count demonstrated a small but statistically significant negative relationship with the total number of fatalities, with an estimated coefficient of -0.00006 ($p = 0.001$). This suggests that, counterintuitively, as crude oil theft events increase, fatalities may slightly decrease. While the effect is minimal, this could reflect the complex dynamics of criminal activities related to oil theft, where more oil theft incidents may not always lead directly to higher fatality counts.

On the other hand, the political corruption index had a substantial positive effect on fatalities, with

an estimate of 19.589, a standard error of 0.495, and a Wald Chi-Square value of 1562.575 ($p < 0.001$). This finding highlights the significant role corruption plays in exacerbating fatal security events. As corruption increases, the weakening of state institutions and the erosion of law enforcement contribute to a greater number of fatalities, creating a dangerous environment where violence and conflict thrive. Therefore, while oil theft may not always result in an immediate increase in deaths, political corruption has a clear and strong link to higher fatality rates. Reducing corruption and strengthening governance will be crucial in addressing the rising fatalities associated with security events in Nigeria.

Table 2a model summary on the influence of corruption and crude oil theft on national security (fatalities) in Nigeria over the past decade

			95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
Parameter	B	Std. Error	Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.
(Intercept)	-9.962	.449	-10.843	-9.082	491.403	1	.000
COTEC	$-6.081x10^{-5}$	$1.7613x10^{-5}$	$-9.534x10^{-5}$	$-2.629x10^{-5}$	11.921	1	.001
PCI	19.589	.4956	18.618	20.560	1562.575	1	.000

Dependent Variable: Total_Fatalities

Model: (Intercept), Crude_oil_event_count (COTEC), Political-corruption index (PCI)

a. Fixed at the displayed value.

DISCUSSION

The Poisson regression results highlight the influence of both crude oil theft and political corruption on national security in Nigeria. These findings offer critical insights into how economic crimes and governance issues exacerbate insecurity. The significant baseline level of security events, as indicated by the intercept, implies that Nigeria faces underlying security challenges that persist even without the direct influence of crude oil theft and corruption. This suggests that the national security landscape is shaped by multiple factors, some of which may be rooted in broader systemic or structural issues within the country.

The positive and significant relationship between

crude oil theft and security events underscores the destabilising role that oil-related crimes play in Nigeria's security dynamics. Although the marginal increase in security events per oil theft incident is small, the cumulative effect over time cannot be ignored. These findings align with studies such as Nwozor et al. (2023), who emphasise the broader implications of oil theft on human security and environmental degradation in Nigeria's Niger Delta. Oil theft not only depletes national resources but also fosters conditions of instability that enable further criminal activities and conflict.

However, the surprising negative relationship between crude oil theft and fatalities adds a layer of complexity. While theft increases violence, it minimally reduces fatalities. This suggests that oil-related crimes might be evolving into less overtly violent operations, perhaps involving more covert activities that result in fewer immediate fatalities. This result contrasts with the findings of Umar and Mohammed (2021), who emphasise the economic damage of oil theft but do not directly link it to a reduction in fatalities.

In contrast, political corruption exhibits dual effects. The significant negative relationship between political corruption and violent events suggests that corruption may sometimes suppress overt violence. This could be because corrupt officials attempt to maintain a fragile order, preventing violent outbreaks that might destabilise their control. Yet, the deeper implication of this finding reveals how corruption erodes governance and law enforcement. As corruption rises, weakened institutions and governance mechanisms reduce the state's ability to effectively respond to security threats. This mirrors Shimawua (2020), who highlighted how corruption has crippled Nigeria's military efforts, prolonging conflicts like the Boko Haram insurgency.

Moreso, the relationship between political corruption and violent events could be explained by the notion that corruption may sometimes act as a stabilising force. In corrupt systems, those in power might suppress violence to maintain order and avoid public attention that could threaten their positions. Corruption could also divert resources away from overt criminal activities, leading to fewer visible violent incidents, although deeper systemic issues remain unresolved. The significant positive relationship between political corruption and fatalities underscores the deadly consequences of weakened governance. As corruption escalates, lawlessness increases, leading to more fatal security events. This highlights the urgent need for anti-corruption reforms to improve national security. The findings align with Yahaya et al. (2020), who observed that corruption exacerbates environmental degradation, further demonstrating the far-reaching impacts of corruption on public safety. The strong correlation between corruption and fatalities reinforces the need for stronger, more transparent institutions to combat corruption and its fatal effects. Overall, while crude oil theft and political corruption are major drivers of insecurity in Nigeria, they affect different security metrics in distinct ways. Oil theft contributes to insecurity through non-lethal means, while corruption intensifies violence and lawlessness, resulting in higher fatality rates. This multifaceted nature of Nigeria's security challenges demands comprehensive strategies that tackle both economic crimes and governance failures.

CONCLUSIONS

The regression analysis provides insight into the complex relationship between political corruption, crude oil theft, and violent events in Nigeria. The model shows that even in the absence of these variables, there is a baseline level of violence, indicating that factors beyond corruption and oil theft contribute to national security challenges. The analysis reveals that crude oil theft is positively correlated with violent events, meaning that as oil theft increases, so does the level of violence. This suggests that illegal activities tied to the oil industry, such as resource conflicts or criminal syndicates, are significant drivers of violence in the country. Crude oil theft fuels unrest, likely due to competition over valuable resources or the funding of militant groups through illegal proceeds.

Conversely, the relationship between political corruption and violent events is negative, indicating that as corruption increases, violent

events decrease. Although counterintuitive, this could be explained by the notion that corruption may sometimes act as a stabilising force. In corrupt systems, those in power might suppress violence to maintain order and avoid public attention that could threaten their positions. Corruption could also divert resources away from overt criminal activities, leading to fewer visible violent incidents, although deeper systemic issues remain unresolved. These findings suggest that while crude oil theft directly contributes to insecurity, political corruption may reduce overt violence by maintaining a fragile stability. However, addressing these issues requires a nuanced approach. Policymakers must recognise that combating corruption and oil theft alone will not be sufficient to ensure national security; instead, strategies should tackle both issues simultaneously, understanding that reducing visible violence does not always eliminate the underlying causes of insecurity.

REFERENCES

1. Adedara, V. O., & Adetifa, E. (2022). Oil Production and Energy Consumption: Is OPEC a Blessing or Impediment to the Nigerian Oil and Gas Industry? IJOCLLEP, 4, 116.
2. Adedayo, H. B., Adio, S. A., & Oboirien, B. O. (2021). Energy research in Nigeria: A bibliometric analysis. Energy Strategy Reviews, 34, 100629. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esr.2021.100629
3. Adishi, E., & Hunga, M. O. (2017). Oil theft, illegal bunkering and pipeline vandalism: It's impact on Nigeria economy, 2015–2016. International Journal of Economics and Business Management, 3(2), 47-65.
4. Ayuba, M. R. (2023). Remittance flows: examining the frequency and relevance in Nigeria.
5. Sapientia Global Journal of Arts, Humanities and Development Studies, 6(1).
6. Ayuk, E., Pedro, A., Ekins, P., Gatune, J., Milligan, B., Oberle, B., Christmann, P., Ali, S., Kumar, S. V., & Bringezu, S. (2020). Mineral Resource Governance in the 21st Century: Gearing extractive industries towards sustainable development. International Resource Panel, United Nations Envio, Nairobi, Kenya.
7. Bodo, T., Gimah, B. G., & Seomoni, K. J. (2020). Illegal oil bunkering in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria: a challenge to Nigeria's development. European Scientific Journal, 16(29), 134-154.
8. Edo, G. I., Samuel, P. O., Jikah, A. N., Ekokotu, H. A., Ugbune, U., Oghroro, E. E. A., Emakpor,
9. O. L., Essaghah, A. E. A., Ainyanbhor, I. E., & Ojulari, A. E. (2024). Petroleum discovery, utilization and processing in the World and Nigeria: a comprehensive literature review. Sustainable Chemical Engineering, 191-215.
10. Hays, D. G., & McKibben, W. B. (2021). Promoting Rigorous Research: Generalizability and Qualitative Research. Journal of Counseling & Development, 99(2), 178-188. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/jcad.12365
11. Henry, A., & Mohammed, S. U. (2023). Oil pipelines vandalism and oil theft: Security threat to nigerian economy and environment. J. Envtl. L. & Pol'y, 3, 171.
12. Hope, S., Kempe Ronald, & Hope, K. R. (2017). Corruption in Nigeria. Corruption and Governance in Africa: Swaziland, Kenya, Nigeria, 125-162.
13. Isibor, A. A., Kehinde, A. A., Felicia, O. O., Tolulope, A. F., Victoria, A. A., & Mercy, U. E. (2022). Achieving sustained performance in the Nigerian oil and gas sector despite exchange rate fluctuations: A VAR Approach. International Journal of Energy Economics and Policy, 12(3), 341-351.
14. Jooji, I., Okwara, E. C., & Momoh, Z. (2023). A Retrospect On Oil, State And Insurgency In Niger Delta Region And Its Implications For Nigeria's National Security. Journal of Namibian Studies: History Politics Culture, 33, 3879-3892.
15. Mohajan, H. K. (2020). Quantitative research: A successful investigation in natural and social

sciences. Journal of Economic Development, Environment and People, 9(4), 50-79.

16. Nwozor, A., Afolabi, O., Chidume, C. G., & Owoeye, M. O. (2023). What has state weakness got to do with it? Oil theft and implications on human and environmental security in Nigeria's Niger Delta region. Local Environment, 28(11), 1428-1445. https://doi.org/10.1080/13549839.2023.2221893

17. Obiadi, B. N., & Onochie, A. (2018). Abuja, Nigeria urban actors, master plan, development laws and their roles in the design and shaping of abuja federal territory and their urban environments. IIARD Int. J. Geogr. Environ. Manag, 4, 23-43.

18. Ojoare, W. (2023). The Political Economy of Foreign Aid: Nigeria in Perspective. Available at SSRN 4602904.

19. Okoli, A. C., & Orinya, S. (2013). Oil pipeline vandalism and Nigeria's national security.

20. Global Journal of Human Social Science, 13(5), 67-75.

21. Okorie, C., Udoh, E., & Bassey, O. B. (2023). Mirroring the developmental challenges of oil-rich Nigeria within the context of resource curse/Dutch disease and paradox of plenty. TIJER–International Research Journal, 10(4), 818-834.

22. Olade, M. A. (2021). Mineral deposits and exploration potential of Nigeria. Prescott books. Olufemi, O., & Ogunmodede, O. D. (2021). Safeguarding the Food Basket from Oil

23. Spills/Pollution in Nigeria: Post-Oil City Perspective. Journal of Inclusive Cities and Built Environment, 1(1), 67-79.

24. Onuoha, F. C. (2008). Oil pipeline sabotage in Nigeria: Dimensions, actors and implications for national security. African Security Review, 17(3), 99-115. https://doi.org/10.1080/10246029.2008.9627487

25. Oshikoya, T. W., & Durosinmi-Etti, K. (2019). Frontier capital markets and investment banking: principles and practice from Nigeria. Routledge.

26. Oziri, M. H., & Achinike, M. C. (2021). Reforms in the Oil and Gas Sector in Nigeria from 1999–2021: A Critical Appraisal.

27. Romsom, E. (2022). Countering global oil theft: Responses and solutions. WIDER Working Paper.

28. Shimawua, D. (2020). Corruption and national security: The military campaign against Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria. International Journal of Advanced Research in Public Policy, Administration and Development Strategies (IJARPPADS), 4(1), 101-113.

29. Singh, D. (2022). The Causes of Police Corruption and Working towards Prevention in Conflict-Stricken States. Laws, 11(5), 69. https://www.mdpi.com/2075-471X/11/5/69

30. Umar, B., & Mohammed, Z. (2021). The effects of illicit financial flows on oil and gas revenue generation in Nigeria. Journal of Money Laundering Control, 24(1), 177-186. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMLC-07-2020-0081

31. Yahaya, N. S., Mohd-Jali, M. R., & Raji, J. O. (2020). The role of financial development and corruption in environmental degradation of Sub-Saharan African countries. Management of Environmental Quality: An International Journal, 31(4), 895-913. https://doi.org/10.1108/MEQ-09-2019-0190