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Onyeneke, Christopher Chimaobi

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Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke

(Student Number 2244740)

Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighbourhoods in Cities of the Global South-Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria.

Doctor of Philosophy

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of Engineering and the Built Environment, University of the Witwatersrand, in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Johannesburg, September 2022

Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my unaided work. It is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, and has not been previously submitted for any degree or examination. I hereby declare that part of this Thesis has been published or submitted for publication to the MDPI Journal of Urban science and 21st Conference of the NAERUS 2022 (conference proceedings), as part of the minimum requirements for graduation from the Doctoral program at the University of the Witwatersrand. More sections of this thesis will be further developed and published subsequently.



30th day of September year 2022

Abstract

Recent research indicates that one of the significant problems to reduce crime in cities is not the difficulty in apprehending criminals but the vulnerability of our socio-cultural environment. Available national and city-scale impact reports indicate that the rate of city insecurity variables tends to be higher than the national average, which may imply that urban residents may be more vulnerable. This study explores the determinants of social change in crime in vulnerable cities. Using Port Harcourt city, Nigeria as the case study area, the research applies a methodical approach to explore the relationship between the determinants and crime, focusing on the key concepts in urban social structural theories. The philosophical assumption behind this study is pragmatism with a phenomenological strand, based on scientific inductive reasoning as the approach to theory development. The study is cross-sectional, and the research strategy is case study. The data collected from in-depth interview through a semi structured interview guide were analysed using thematic analysis, hence, it is a multi-method qualitative research. This research, however, had some limitations and implications. The broad study area is limited by sample size, language barrier, and wrong interpretation of direct translation. Nevertheless, the result of the research highlights the impacts and role of socio-demographic, physical and socioeconomic characteristics on crime, as well as the effect of poor social control and how it affects the vulnerability of our socio-cultural environment. This study builds on the existing social structural theories such as social disorganization, general strain, routine activity, and the broken window theories. It fills the current gap in the literature by finding the post-critical factors that motivate crime in cities of the Global South. This research explicitly highlights the most critical factors that influence or affect crime and how to balance the need to ensure safety and maintain inclusive and participatory processes.

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Key words: Cities, Crime, Global South, Planning, Social Changes, Unemployment, Violence and Vulnerability

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INTRODUCTORY CHAPTERS

1. INTRODUCING SOCIAL CHANGE AND CRIME IN CITIES OF THE GLOBAL SOUTH

2. PHYSICAL, SOCIAL DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS THAT INFLUENCES CRIME IN CITIES

3. THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND SOCIO-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT ON CRIME.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCING SOCIAL CHANGE AND CRIME IN CITIES OF THE GLOBAL SOUTH

1.1 Background to the study

The world population is estimated to be 7.9 billion as of 2022, and the urban population is expected to be 56.4% (4.46 billion) of the total world population (World Bank, 2018). The Global South (Africa, Asia, and South America) holds over 82.7% (6.54 billion) of the world population (United Nations International Children Education Funds, 2019). By the year 2050, the global urban population is estimated to be 6.68 billion, 74.2% of the world population (The World Bank, 2021)**,** 90% of this rapid population increase will occur in the Global South, and income levels will be meager multiple of what they are now (World Population Review, 2022). This places urbanisation at the top of the most transformational trends above safety and security, big data, and globalisation in the 21st century (United Nations, 2020).

The magnitude at which the demographic figure increase in the Global South has become critical, especially when compared to the local authorities' capacity to provide services, housing, jobs, and security (Ojo & Ojewale, 2019). With a constant global increase and concentration of population in urban areas, humanity has witnessed developing threats to city security, safety, social control and social order (Global Report on Human Settlements, 2012). In managing social control, social influence and social norms should remain stronger (Patel, 2020). Social influence is the power or ability of an individual to change their ways of thinking, emotional state, character, or behaviour due to an interaction working with someone else or a group. Compared to authority, power and conformity, social influence differs in many ways (Gibson & Smart, 2017). Social norms are customary or ideal forms of behaviour to which individuals in a group try to conform or comply (Legros & Cislaghi, 2020). Factually speaking, the fundamental structure or form of social norms incites a positive signal loop between individual and group behaviour. The more widely practised a norm is, the more reason others are encouraged to practice it (Ju, 2017).

What causes deviance in our society is the absence or negligence of what ensures social conformity (Bhattacharyay et al., 2021). Conformity is the direct product of control within human society (Homer, 2017). Therefore, the absence, dwindling, or negligence of social control may result in criminal subculture breeding in societies (Norris et al., 2019; Weisburd et al., 2021). In testing Hirschi and Gottfredson's (1993) general theory of crime, Jenkins (2017) highlights four fundamental elements of social bonds in

societies that ensure social control. The first is attachment. If social attachments within societies are firm and mutual, they force members of society to conform to social norms and values (Bobbio et al., 2019). Thus, mutual attachment within members of society helps control individuals or potential offenders from committing a crime, creating societal unrest, and being deviant in society (Jenkins, 2017). Conversely, with the absence of this attachment and negligence to conventional societal norms and values, the contributions, opinions, and decisions of the public are given little or no consideration, and potential offenders tend to violate norms with no precursor to social disapproval (Hirschi, 2017). The second and third, respectively, are involvement and commitment. A higher level of conformity in society results from more vital personal involvement and sincere commitment towards achieving results through legitimate opportunities (Hirschi, Laub, Hirschi & Gottfredson, 2018). Lastly, an ardent belief in conventional virtue or integrity incites compliance (Hirschi & Hirschi, 2018). In sum, the fear of condemnation from others plays a significant role in controlling deviant behaviour.

Drawing from the above discussion, there are four fundamental elements of social bonds in societies, and these fundamental elements do not conform to existing social life in most cities (Goffman, 2016). As a result, urban managers and government alike are gradually losing the ability to guide the city and control human activities, and new events occur without the authorities' cognizance. The effect has been a concentration of population at the urban core, the rapid proliferation of urban sprawl, slums resulting from deterioration, breakdown of the institutions of social control, and gradual vulnerability set in within residential areas (Siwar et al., 2016).

Nigeria has risen to among the top nations (top 10%) of world crime statistics (Ghani, 2017). Nigeria has experienced a surge in violent and non-violent crime during the recent decade. Nigeria is the tenth most unsafe country in the world (Crime Stats, 2015), with two of its cities ranking within the top twenty (Oguntunde et al.,2018). As of 2018, Nigeria is ranked 13th in crime-prone countries and increased from 17th to 11th position among the most dangerous countries in the world (The Institute for Economics and Peace, 2018). Nigeria is one of four African countries classified among the top 20 most dangerous countries in the world, after Somalia, South Sudan and the Central African Republic, and competing with war-torn countries such as Afghanistan and Syria (Murray, 2015; Humanity, 2019).

Armed robberies have become a common kind of crime in Nigeria in recent years, accounting for approximately half of the 8,516 crime-related deaths between June 2006 and September 2015. Lagos, Port-Harcourt, and Onitsha were among the worst-affected cities. (Oguntunde et al., 2018). The government has shown an incapacity to address most of the root causes of crime, which explains why it has become difficult to nip in the bud in the southern part of Nigeria (Nwankwo and James, 2016). Port-Harcourt is currently the largest city in Rivers State, Nigeria. It has the highest crime index in the country, according to the Crime Stats (2015) and Oguntunde et al. (2018). The city has distinct high crime neighbourhoods such as Ogbunabali, Diobu, Borokiri, Ikwerre, Abuloma, Rumola and D-line (Edozie, 2017). The level of insecurity and crime has been heightened in recent times, citizens now live in fear, armed resistance groups and unemployed youths of these host communities forcefully extort and harass citizens in the name of control and local governance, thereby creating a sense of fear within the urban centre (Hawkins & Weis, 2017; Hew et al., 2018). Consequently, it is essential to understand the most significant factor driving crime in urban neighbourhoods. Knowledge of this factor will make vulnerability and risk discourses more prominent and motivate the actors of social policies. It is also important to rethink and synthesise these ideas through anthropological approaches by comparing and analysing how each variable affects crimes.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem/ Rationale for the study

A livable city encompasses efficient accessibility, robust and complete neighbourhoods, affordability, safety and security, a diverse, resilient local economy, and vibrant public spaces (Yang et al., 2020). Cities are places of social interactions that should be free from crime. One of the aims of a livable city is to manage the risk and precarious situation associated with crime, to ensure a vibrant public space (Ceccato-Vania, 2012). There is a concentration of crime in cities than in rural areas, cities are engulfed with multiple forms of crime. Urban public spaces in cities are gradually growing into crime dens, particularly in the Global South (Kaylen, 2014). Crime-prone social interactions within an urban complex, such as being a crime victim, are unpleasant experiences (Sreetheran & van den Bosch, 2014). Being a crime victim has psychological and sociological implications (Brown et al.,2013); security encompasses perceived safety, fear of crime, and vulnerability. Security is fundamental in assessing the urban quality of life, but marginalising or confining it to only a particular class of people may lead to social segregation

within a municipal complex, excluding some social classes from mainstream activities and stigmatising others (Ceccato Vania, 2012). Urban centres cannot attain social sustainability without considering these concerns (Posner et al., 2013; Sham et al., 2013; Toppireddy et al., 2018).

Socioeconomic factors, breakdown of social control, urban environments, and the urban fabric are held to be responsible for security challenges in urban centres (Khan et al, 2015, Jang & Agnew; 2015, Adel et al, 2016; He et al, 2017). However, because of the interlink between these factors as it relates to offenders, victims, and guards, it is difficult to control. Urban planning provides the most accessible entry point to create a better understanding of the phenomenon and provide a spatially organised society (Kinney et al, 2017).

Newman (1972), Taylor et al (1984), MacDonald and Gifford (1989), Cisneros (1996), Nelson et al. (2003), Warwick (2009), Cozens and Hillier (2012), Sohn (2016) and Walker et al. (2019) have employed defensible space theory to verify the idea of safety within residential neighbourhoods. It highlights that the physical features of urban neighbourhoods that offer better surveillance, territoriality, and symbolic barriers enable resilient informal control of outdoor spaces by urban residents, and therefore limit the fear and opportunity to commit a crime. Cities around the world are contained in regions within the Global North and South. These two categories of regions have contrasting characteristics.

The terms "Global North" and "Global South" refer to countries that are divided by socioeconomic and political issues. Latin America, Asia, Africa, and Oceania are together referred to as the "Global South." Wealth, economic progress, income inequality, democracy, and political and economic freedom, as assessed by freedom indexes, are often used to differentiate the two groups. Global North countries are generally wealthier and less unequal; they are industrialised, democratic countries that export technologically better-produced goods. Southern countries are often poorer, they are developing countries with younger, more fragile democracies that rely mostly on primary sector exports, as well as a history of colonialism by nations in the global North. However, these studies on crime prevention through the Defensible Space Theory, did not establish how this paradigm will function in cities of the Global South, particularly this study location, Borokiri Neighbourhood in Port-Harcourt city, Nigeria, with evident factors of social change which manifest in the breakdown of social control, ever-increasing population, unemployment, degenerating forms of poverty, growing socioeconomic inequality, territorial difficulty, increased vulnerability, and exclusion of specific areas of services (Adegbami & Uche, 2016). Therefore, ensuring safety is a significant challenge, particularly in the Global South. Studies from Naghibi et al.

(2015) and Hipp et al. (2018), consider physical deterioration and disorder as a precursor to fear of crime, most times adopting a broad scope and failing to recognise that an individual's immediate surroundings have the most significant impact on their level of fear.

Among the limitations highlighted above in the Global South, the ardent challenge facing environment-crime studies is the inability to provide empirical evidence in developing countries where the social and physical variables usually associated with the crimes are more prominent and contagiously intertwined. Unemployed and armed resistance groups in these host communities have self-saddled the responsibility of ensuring safety and security for citizens within their locality in the form of vigilante (Olate et al., 2015). They force, extort, and harass residents in the name of control and local governance, thereby compounding the issue. These have resulted in a high crime level and a sense of fear of crime within urban neighbourhoods (Hawkins & Weis, 2017).

1.3 Main Research Question and Sub Questions

The study, drawn from Bauman and Douglas (1994), Davy (2008), and Douglas (2013), on their works on risk and blame, highlights factors that motivate crime. Hence, there is a need to know the most critical factor of social change that motivates crime in an urban neighbourhood. This will raise the profile of vulnerability and risk discourse and encourage social policy actors to rethink and synergize their ideas using anthropological approaches. By isolating and comparing the level of influence, each physical, socio-demographic, socio-economic and socio-cultural component weighs on crime. On this note, this research explores the most critical factors that motivate crime in urban neighbourhoods in cities. That is physical, demographic, socioeconomic, and socio-cultural factors, and the role these variables play in the increase of crime in cities of the Global South. This research also explores the determinants of crime and violence from the standpoint of the breakdown of social control and our changing socio-cultural environment and its effect on human activities, particularly on delinquency and increasing crime rates in cities of the Global South. These builds on the standpoint to which the research questions are drawn from. The main research question; what are the influence of social changes on crime examined through residents' physical, socio-economic, demographic, and socio-cultural characteristics in cities of the Global South?

Sub-Research Questions

- Why have residents' physical, demographic, and socioeconomic characteristics played a critical role in influencing the vulnerability of cities in the Global South?
- How has the breakdown of social control over human activities significantly influenced the vulnerability of urban residential neighbourhoods in cities in the Global South?
- What are the components of the socio-cultural environment that pose a significant impact on crime in cities of the Global South?

1.4 Research Aim and Objectives

This research explores the influence of social change through residents' physical, socioeconomic, demographic, and socio-cultural characteristics on crime in vulnerable areas of the study and the role each component plays in vulnerability and delinquency. Hence, the research aims to determine the most critical factors that motivate crime in Port-Harcourt, Nigeria.

- To determine the influence of residents' physical, demographic, and socioeconomic characteristics on the vulnerability of urban residential neighbourhoods in cities of the Global South.
- To ascertain the nature of social control on human activities and its influence on crime in the residential neighbourhoods in cities of the Global South.
- To analyse the influence each component of the socio-cultural environment has on crime in the cities of the Global South.

1.5 Theoretical Underpinnings

Crime is an interdisciplinary field of study in both social and behavioural sciences, primarily the research of political scientists, economists, urban planners, philosophers, social anthropologists, psychologists, sociologists, biologists, psychiatrists, and lawyers. This research focuses on the social aspect of crime through an urban planning perspective. This perspective helps in the development of a better conceptualization or understanding of how individual, societal, and physical environmental factors can be reinterpreted in relation to crime propensities. A detailed discussion and examination of the theories that

underpin the research will be conducted in Chapter Four of this research. However, this Chapter will provide in brief, an explanation of the significant urban socio-structural theories related to crime, as well as works of literature on crime and urban security, to give us a prior understanding of the theories that ground the research for better assimilation. These theories will be evaluated to develop a theoretical framework of study by highlighting relevant critical concepts and exhibiting the research's direction. There are various sociological theories concerning crime, such as sociocultural theories, naturalisation theories, conflict theories, socio-structural strain theories, ecological theories, radical criminological theories, and self-control theories, but this research, coming from an urban planning and sociological perspective, makes use of ecological theories such as Social Disorganisation Theory, General Strain Theory, Routine Activity Theory, and Broken Windows Theory. This section will highlight the salient postulates of the various theories and how they will assist in guiding this research.

1.5.1 Social Disorganisation Theory

The concept of social disorganisation originated from the Chicago School of Urban Sociology (1942), led by Shaw and McKay (1942). It highlights that low-income residential neighbourhoods serve as breeding grounds for crime (Pereira et al., 2017). The theory focuses on the disintegration of social control in metropolitan areas, such as the family, school, and religious organisations. In an urban context, crime and insecurity cause social dislocation, population displacement, social tensions, and hatred. As a result, local and international investment is discouraged, business activities are halted, the cost of conducting business rises, and property values fall. As a result, local and international investments are discouraged, business activities are halted, the cost of conducting business rises, and property values fall.

Members of society become susceptible to crime, thereby creating an environment of mistrust, dread, anxiety, and frenzy. Demographic characteristics are measured by family size and structure, single parenting, and the rate of a jobless young population. (Yonai, Levine & Glicksohn, 2015; Eriksson et al., 2016) assumed that this theory could be investigated using family history, job status, and occupation. Kearney and Levine (2016), in their study on social disorganisation theory, believe that socioeconomic disparity, school dropout rates, and educational attainment are important factors to consider when studying crime in cities. The variables drawn out will immensely assist in grounding this research and creating a direction of flow for the study.

1.5.2 Routine Activity Theory

The Theory of Routine Activity is based on two concepts: vitality and territoriality. The basic assumptions of this theory are based on the areas we visit or travel to, as well as the kinds of social activities we engage in. Assumptions exist that social issues such as unemployment, poverty, and inequality have little effect on crime, but that crime is substantially connected with societal developments such as college enrollment, population growth, urbanisation, and suburbanisation. According to Fennelly and Crowe (2013), urban land use in the Global South is changing as a result of economic and political upheaval. This situation unavoidably has an impact on the quantity and scope of urban crime. Kinney et al. (2017b) highlighted that new urban places have become the focus of research and action, such as public spaces that are critical to the city's life. This helps to narrow our focus toward urban public spaces and understand other dimensions of urban crime and how the research will explore the critical issues in question.

1.5.3 Broken Windows Theory

The Broken Windows idea is concerned with the physical appearance of residential districts. Unrepaired shattered windows demonstrate a society's tolerance for crime, rendering the urban environment vulnerable. Burglar bars in private dwellings and high fence walls demonstrate society's dread for crime. Communities with less permeable interior layouts and narrow roadways with low traffic volumes were associated with lower crime rates (Monteiro & Iannicelli, 2009).

A study in Malaysia found that citizens who are less scared and better controllers of outdoor areas are less victimised, and their cities have defensive space qualities in better surveillance, symbolic barriers, and territoriality (Sreetheran, 2017). This is a social supplement to crime prevention, such as improving the situations of the underprivileged in urban areas. The traditional approach to this study challenge has been to separate physical environmental features and characteristics that impact crime. This will help in refocusing our redetermining the scope of this research as new areas such as physical and environmental features are now inclusive of the research.

1.5.4 The General Strain Theory

Crime is the conflict between the goals of people and the legal means by which they can obtain them (Murphy & Robinson, 2008). Most individuals in economically depressed neighbourhoods in cities are unable to attain their life aspirations through conventional means (Baron, 2006). If these goals aspired for are not within reach, they usually have feelings of anger, frustration, and resentment, which leads to a strain (Agnew, 2010). A strain is closely related to low social control and opportunities to engage in criminal activities (Sun et al., 2016). When negative emotions are examined, anger is more likely to evolve as a reaction to victimisation than depression.

According to Rebellon et al. (2012) empirical research, both vicarious and experienced victimisation contribute to aggressive behaviour. Negative emotions and deviant behaviours were also investigated by Drapela (2006), and the study found that people use hard drugs and commit crimes as a result of significant stress caused by the strain of not achieving their intended objectives and life aspirations. Unemployment, family size, and the number of dependents are important indicators or variables to consider when examining the impact of goal failure on crime. Another crucial word employed in the literature to represent this philosophy is the disjunction between expectation and achievement. Other characteristics that contribute to this, as identified by May et al. (2015), include family structure, maladjustment, criminal background, and fear of failure.

1.5.5 Implications of the Theories to Research

Following the brief description of the theories under consideration, there is a need to revisit the fundamental research question. Since current security challenges outweigh the capacity of the local authorities, prudent policy measures must be administered. This research assumes that human, socioeconomic, and demographic characteristics affect residents' (anti-social) behaviour in an urban setting and as well impact the vulnerability of residents to crime. The theories assume that offenders operate rationally and prefer to commit crimes in areas with limited opportunities to detect them. The physical characteristics of the area are essential and could play a role in opportunities to commit a crime.

The works of literature on urban sociological theories reviewed highlight socioeconomic factors, urban environments, and the urban fabric are held to be responsible for insecurity challenges in urban centres.

However, there is still a gap in knowledge. These theories from the Global North did not take into consideration critical issues of social change such as the breakdown of social control, ever-increasing population, unemployment, degenerating forms of poverty, growing socio-economic inequality, territorial difficulty, increased vulnerability, and exclusion of specific areas of services. This research aims at bridging the gap in existing works of literature by empirically scrutinising several contributions of social changes in urban centres to crime, is to find out the most critical factors that influence opportunities to commit a crime. The study will isolate and compare the level of influence each component has on crime.

1.6 Research Approach and Ethical Considerations

The assumption behind this study is pragmatism with scientific inductive reasoning. This section of the study will focus on the research methods adopted, sampling techniques, description of the method of data collection, characteristics, analysis, and presentation. The section will also discuss the limitations of the study and ethical issues that might arise.

The data needed to attend to the research questions of the study are sourced from residents' socio-economic status, demographics, physical environmental characteristics, and socio-cultural characteristics of the environment in the study area and what role each plays in promoting vulnerability and delinquency. Through this, the study will adopt a qualitative research approach that will be cross-sectional. That is, data will be collected from the field to logically satisfy all sets of the research questions, aims, and objectives of the study.

The data for this study shall be from primary (from field surveys) sources. Data collection is a critical stage in any scientific investigation; in fact, the soundness of the method used in data collection affects the fruitfulness of the inquiry to a remarkable extent. The method of data collection adopted is a semi-structured/in-depth interview. Secondary data was collected from literature, crime directories, crime archives, and police records to get a holistic view of crime issues in the study area.

With the use of snowballing and the volunteer self-selection sampling techniques (which is a method that allows participants to partake in a study when requested or in response to an advertisement.), an interview was conducted with a semi-structured/in-depth interview guide for thirty-two (32) adult residents of the district of study. The interview participants included twelve (12) clan heads, including the king, four (4)

vigilantes, two (2) private security, two (2) local government representatives, two (2) leaders of the women's wing, four (4) youth leaders, two (2) religious leaders, two (2) principals of secondary schools, and two (2) heads of market association. These selections are aimed at effectively assessing the informal social control mechanism of the study area. The first contact person is the king of the community from which other participants will be contacted. Eight (8) separate in-depth interviews were conducted with security experts (across ranks) and they were selected through snowballing and the volunteer self-selection sampling techniques. The first contact person was the Police Area Commander of the Port-Harcourt Metropolis. From that point, other participants were contacted.

The positionality or stance of the researcher in relation to the social and political context of the study, is that he has not been a victim of violent crime, neither a member nor ever been a member of any gang group before, has never lived within the study area Borokiri, Port-Harcourt, not a police officer nor a vigilante. The data for this research was collected using a digital recorder from the in-depth interview sessions. Anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed during the interview as no name or personal information was collected. If there was a need for support or counselling following the interview, these services are provided for free at Naphtali Physiotherapy and wellness clinic, No. 10 B Isaac Borough Street, Old G.R.A Port-Harcourt. Ethnographic observations were also adopted to access the urban fabric, the state of facilities, and infrastructure. Photographs were taken for graphical and visual understanding. The preliminary processing of the qualitative data was done horizontally and vertically, objective by objective, and quotable quotes were highlighted. Data were analysed using thematic analysis. Data were also presented on maps spatially to show hotspots, land use mix, and factors that affect crime and their location to residents.

1.7 The Study Area and its Issues of Crime

The scope of this research is to investigate physical, demographic, socioeconomic, and socio-cultural factors, and the role these variables play in the increase of crime in cities of the Global South. This research also explores the determinants of crime and violence from the standpoint of the breakdown of social control and our changing socio-cultural environment and its effect on human activities, particularly on delinquency and increasing crime rates in cities of the Global South.

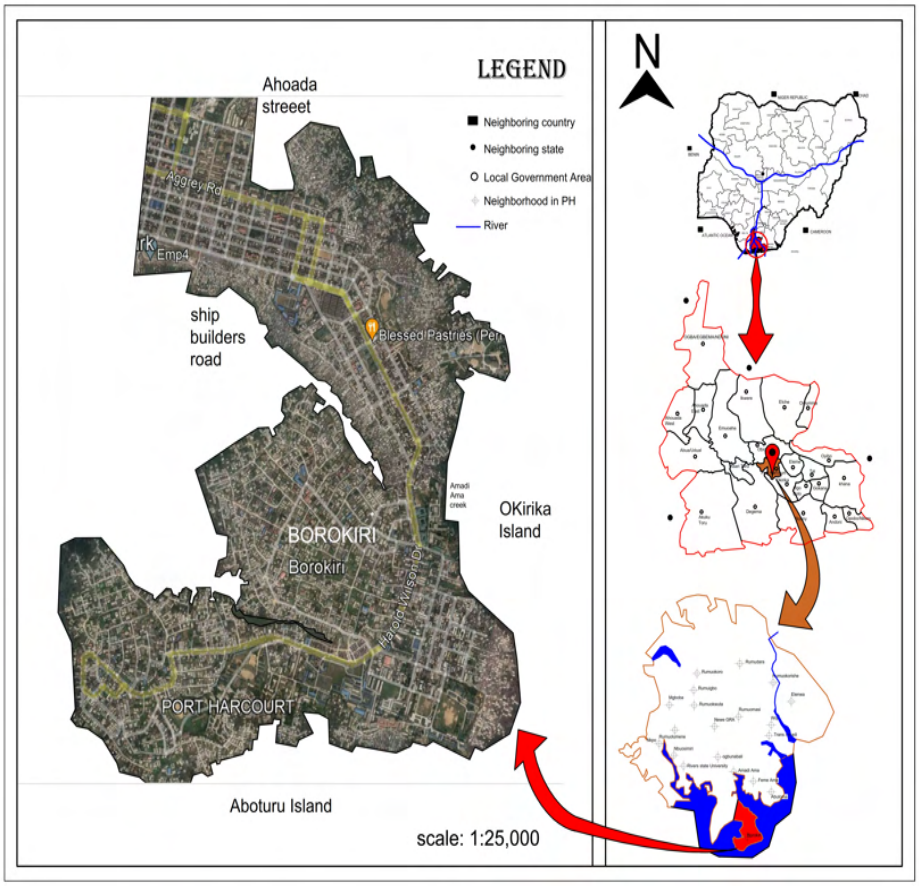
This research investigates crime in cities of the Global South, particularly with keen attention to the crime rates in Borokiri, Port Harcourt city, Rivers State, Nigeria *(See Map 1.1)*. The study examines different crime patterns and factors influencing the rise in crime rates in the Borokiri neighbourhood of Port Harcourt city. It seeks to investigate the extent to which the aforementioned social variables significantly affect crime in the Borokiri area of Port Harcourt city.

In Nigeria, several neighbourhoods still face crime problems, and what is considered a crime is defined by Nigerian laws (Ghani, 2017). A neighbourhood's ability to sustain residents depends on the ability of security agencies to prevent deviant behaviour in the neighbourhood (Ohmer et al., 2010). There are several kinds of criminal activity in Port Harcourt, ranging from armed robbery to kidnapping, gangster delinquency, sexual assault, and minor crimes. According to crime report data from the National Bureau of Statistics (2012a), Port Harcourt is ranked number one in violent crime among cities in Nigeria with high rates of property crimes and vandalism. Naturally, crime is a general phenomenon across nations of the world, particularly in urban areas including Borokiri Port-Harcourt, and has the propensity to impact the overall wellbeing of urban residents (Knepper, 2012).

Poor parenting, illiteracy, unemployment, homelessness, and poverty can influence youth and expose them to criminal behaviour (Oguntunde et al., 2018). As individuals become exposed over time to crime, they tend to constitute societal threats. Consequently, residents can be influenced to seek safer neighbourhoods over time. Urban centres in Nigeria are prone to major forms of crime. Many types of crime are prevalent in different areas of Port-Harcourt, which affect the everyday lives of the citizens. However, several other factors, such as accessibility, neighbourhood and environmental characteristics, have been identified to positively or negatively influence the rise in crime (Adegbami & Uche, 2016).

In many societies, crime is directed by criminal elements towards causing threats to the lives of residents in an area. This could be a result of the uncontrolled growth pattern in the fastest-growing urban and suburban neighbourhoods (Obinna et al., 2010). According to Gibbons (2004), the consequences of spontaneous urbanisation and the uncontrolled growth pattern in most cities manifest in diverse urban problems such as urban decay, where visible forms of drug use, criminal damage to public and private properties, and anti-social behaviour are the order of the day. Bannister and Fyfe (2001) are of the view that the fear of crime is related to densely populated and built-up environments, and that it promotes insecurity and anxiety among residents and affects many aspects of everyday life in our cities' neighbourhoods.

Map 1.1: Map of Borokiri



Source: *Drawn by Author and adapted from google earth imagery.*

Most residents of urban areas, especially those in Borokiri Port-Harcourt, live in constant fear and apprehension because of the fear of crime. The level and type of crime in an area can have a dramatic impact on the quality of urban life and development in that area. As a result, potential tenants who are aware of the neighbourhood's crime rate will choose to live in safer neighbourhoods if they can afford it. If a neighbourhood is unsafe because of crime, the demand for residential spaces is likely to fall, which will result in lower rental prices (Emmanuel & Lizam, 2017). Whatever the form of the crime, it will have a significant impact on the relocation intentions of individuals. Consequently, variations in crime will have an impact on the quality of life and livability of cities. In addition, potential developers weighs the crime

rates in deciding where to locate or situate their developments (Vania -Ceccato & Wilhelmsson, 2020). Thus, inhabitants in most neighbourhoods decide to live in rural or suburban areas because of the lower crime rates in suburban and rural areas. People choose to live in rural areas to save themselves from the problems resulting from various crimes prevalent in cities. An increase in crime rates also increases security risks in societies.

1.8 Chapters Outline.

This research study shall be structured into 9 (nine) chapters broadly categorised as Introductory Chapters, Central Chapters, and the Concluding Chapters.

Introductory Chapters

Chapter 1 (One) contains the background to the study, statement of the research problem investigated/the rationale for the study, the main research questions, sub-research questions, aim and objectives of the research, justification of the study, the scope and limit of the study, the theories that ground the research, research approach and outline of chapters.

Chapter 2 (Two) presents a systematic review of physical, demographic, and socio-economic factors that influence crime in cities, as well as discusses violent crime and critical issues in cities, causes of crime related to economic deprivation and social disorganisation; causes of crime related to stress and strain; causes of crime related to political instability and fear of crime; causes of crime related to geographical location and physical environment; and a summary of the causes of crime. It further examine the nature of crime in cities: physical and victimisation studies; relationship between neighbourhood characteristics and crime; and as well as the experiences resulting from victimisation to crime in cities; land use planning; zoning in neighbourhoods and crime. It also investigates the most vulnerable groups to crime in cities, spatial analysis of crime and victimisation in urban neighbourhoods, and residential housing types and crime. The relationship between socioeconomic factors and crime including (un)employment, was also examined. The importance of economic factors in crime research and the relationship between income inequality and crime were explored. The study also investigates the significance of education to criminal activities.

Chapter 3 (three) determines the influence of socioeconomic and sociocultural environments on crime; the role of social interactions in criminal research; and the hotspots of policing in crime impacts. Moreso, the chapter investigates the role of the socio-cultural environment on crime in cities; religious-based crimes in Nigeria; critical issues resulting in religious-based violence in Nigeria; the role of religion in curbing crime; self-control and religion; religion and social control; language and ethics differences and their relationship with violent crimes; the roles of police and community partnership in crime prevention; law enforcement in contemporary community policing and social change; and lastly, crime prevention challenges facing law enforcement and community policing.

Central Chapters

Chapter 4 (Four) puts forward the theoretical underpinnings and conceptual considerations of urban crime. It discusses the social disorganisation theory, the routine activity theory, the broken windows theory, and the general strain theory. This chapter also establishes the conceptual framework and further discusses issues such as deterioration, social control, vulnerability, and the fear of crime, as well as induces a summary/research gap.

The research methodology used for the study on the factors of social change and crime, as well as the research philosophy and approach to theory development, are presented in Chapter 5 (Five). It further discusses the methodological approach, research strategy, and determines a time horizon the research span and presents methods of data collection, which include semi-structured/in-depth interviews and participant observation. The sampling techniques, size, procedure, research ethics, methods of data analysis, and approach to data analysis, which includes thematic analysis of qualitative data, coding, and methods of data presentation, are all covered in this chapter.

Concluding Chapters

Chapter 6 (six) looks at contextual considerations for urban crime research, selecting a typical study area for the study of crime in the Global South. It goes further to consider crime and policing/security methods and the justice system, the role of policing/security in crime prevention, community type and policing/security methods adopted and challenges.

Chapter 7 (seven) examines security perception and newer models and alternatives to curb crime. It also concerns the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of residents and the roles they play in

influencing the vulnerability of cities in the Global South. Physical and victimisation perception, physical attributes of the neighbourhood and crime, experiential perception of crime, land use planning/design and crime, vulnerable groups and gender perception of crime; spatial perception of crime, and residential housing types and crime are discussed under the socioeconomic and sociodemographic characteristics of residents. Pushing a bit forward, the chapter went on to discuss the breakdown of social control on human activities, which has significantly influenced the vulnerability of urban residential neighbourhoods in cities of the Global South. Issues such as socioeconomic perception of crime, economic characteristics and crime perception, unemployment and crime correlation, income inequality and crime perception, education and crime correlation, social interaction and crime perception, hotspot policing; and crime control include issues discussed under the breakdown of social control. Also, the chapter investigates the impact of the socio-cultural environment on crime in the Global South. The issues discussed under this section include sociocultural/religious-based crime perception, religion and crime perception, self-control and crime perception; language/ethics differences and crime correlation, reinforcing police-community partnerships; law enforcement and community engagement in crime control, challenges to formal crime control, and significant deduction for theory modification and development.

Chapter 8 (eight) focuses on redefining community safety and crime prevention in cities of the Global South.

Chapter 9 (nine) presents limitations, contributions to knowledge, and suggests ways to reduce crime in the world's most violent cities, as well as areas of further research.

1.9 Conclusion

Crime in the Global South is a somewhat noticeable phenomenon. The rise in crime rates has impacted the overall livelihood of the societies of the Global South, particularly as it concerns the region under study (United Nations, 2021). The underlying causes of the rising crime in cities are of immense concern to this research. The rise in crime, hence the increased rate of insecurity, is quite perplexing and traumatising. The Global South has been characterised over the years by high rates of crime and delinquency. As a result, high and almost impossible to control rates of insecurity and terrific fear have crept into the peace of residents in cities of the Global South, particularly those with a prior interest in the Port Harcourt metropolis of Rivers State, Nigeria.

Furthermore, crime and delinquency are global phenomena; that is, crime is not limited or confined to just a particular society. However, this research investigates these crime rates with a prior interest and confinement to the Borokiri neighbourhood of Port-Harcourt. In the succeeding chapter, this research reviews existing studies on the issue of crime across the globe, intending to bridge the gap and make up for the shortfalls of the existing literature, particularly as it concerns the global region under study – the Global South.

CHAPTER TWO

PHYSICAL, SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE CRIME IN CITIES.

2.1 Introduction

In terms of determining the causes of crime and the determinants of increasing crime rates, the debate is endless. Nobody has ascertained with strong evidence which factors are the most crucial and which ones are less important. The characteristics of the physical environment can increase the likelihood of crime: consequently, crime rates may be observed over the long term in some nations (Sohn, 2016). In addition, criminal behaviour is partly influenced by how prospective offenders sense crime sites, how circumstantial factors surround crime sites, and whether natural guardians are nearby and visible. As a result, these four key variables— neighbourhood features, deterioration of physical structures, road network patterns/land use, and housing design/layout affect the propensity of crime within a particular neighbourhood (Valan & Srinivasan, 2021).

Some crimes are often related to poverty. Consequently, poor communities are often characterised by increasing crime rates (Iyer & Topalova, 2014). The poverty rate across countries is quite alarming, thereby culminating in an increase in criminal activities across countries (Andvig & Fjeldstad, 2008). The crime rate usually increases in societies that have undergone radical changes in terms of physical development or social revolutions in a short period (Butkus et al., 2019). The underlying causes of poverty-induced crimes are unknown, although they may be connected to the consequences of the various sorts of totalitarian systems on population morals. Many saw a chance to make a profession out of crime after the constraints were relaxed. Thus, this chapter reviews previous and recent studies as it concerns crime and its determining factors. In the proceeding subsections, this chapter discusses the crimes associated with several cities across the globe. The chapter also determines the elements and variables associated with cities and their probability of promoting crime.

2.2 Violent Crime a Critical Issue in Cities

The word "crime" originates from the Latin word "Crimen" meaning "charge" or "offence" (Wilson, 2015). Crime is a social fact, and it is a dangerous phenomenon in any city, region, or nation, whether a developed country or a developing nation (Mohit & Hannan, 2012). Violent or personal crimes within cities and urban centres include abduction, affray, burglary, hooliganism, kidnapping, riot, robbery, looting, lynching, manslaughter, pick-pocketing, mugging, hit and run, murder, rape, shoplifting, homicide, smuggling, theft, assassination, assault, trespassing, and hijacking *(see Picture 2.1)*. Most of these crimes are among youths and juveniles (Bui & Deakin, 2021).

Picture 2.1: Showing violent crime actions

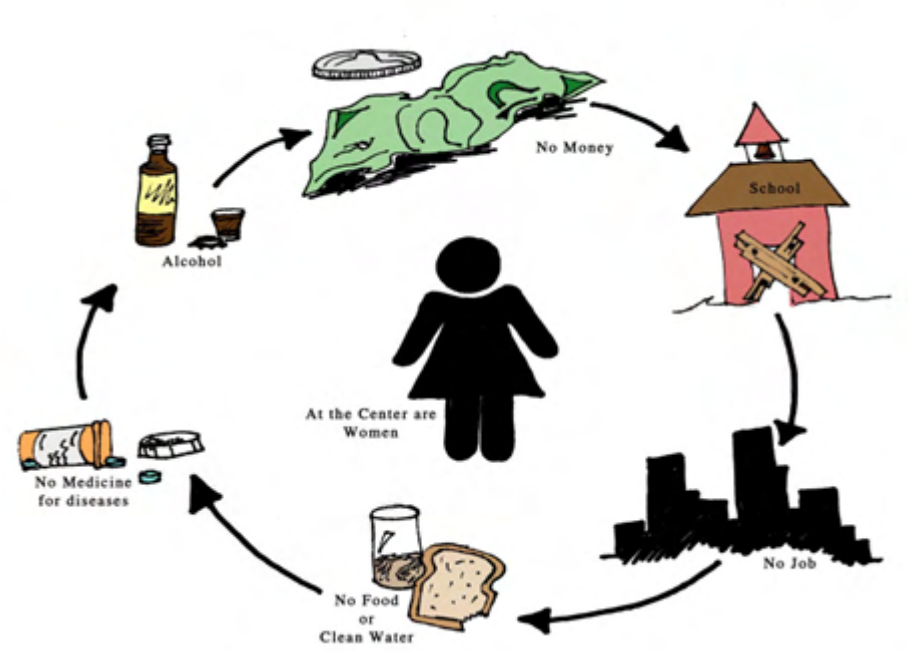


Source:[*https://st3.depositphotos.com/1029662/16914/v/1600/depositphotos_169147492-stock-illustration-violence-violent-crime-and-criminal.jpg*](https://st3.depositphotos.com/1029662/16914/v/1600/depositphotos_169147492-stock-illustration-violence-violent-crime-and-criminal.jpg)

What may start as a minor issue in the community or society, such as hooliganism, vandalism, and pick-pocketing, gradually evolves into something more serious and substantial, like mugging, robbery, theft, abduction, and even murder (Canter & Youngs, 2016).

The physical environment has a critical role to play in what causes crime in urban centres. Empirical evidence points out that whatever the level of risk an individual has at a particular time, things could worsen or improve based on their actions and location (Chung & Kim, 2019). Undoubtedly, the fear, anxiety, and paranoia that accompany crime and violent behaviour deter citizens from partaking in these

risky behaviours (Moses, 2011). However, the youth are always willing to take on this risk, mainly due to peer pressure (Costello & Hope, 2016). The youth appear to be the primary group associated with crime, and little is known about what motivates juvenile and violent crimes involving the youth (Yavuz & Welch, 2010). Recent developments in urban social research have resulted in a renewed interest in safety and security. These are indeed the core components of creating residential complexes and cities. In the recent years, people have built great fortresses to make their cities safe and secure. Recently, researchers have shown that despite the significant changes in urban morphology and growth, one of the essential factors in urbanisation and urban management is creating safe living neighbourhoods for human inhabitants (Iranmanesh & Etaati, 2009).



Source:https://2.bp.blogspot.com/-EnJ26LfA8HM/Wq_22v2dX2I/AAAAAAAADbc/TJ6lQU4Yoj0nmLorOElqSJ6gXO3fcGJEACLcBGAs/s1600/poverty2.jpg.

Furthermore, with the intention to fill the gap in the existing literature, a recent study by Arellana et al. (2020) focused on medium-sized Latin American cities to examine the influence of the built environment

on street walkability and the perception of crime. The results reveal that security trends within residential neighbourhoods pose the most significant impact on walkability and the possibility of crime within the city. Over the past three decades, many researchers have sought to determine the root causes of crime. Moreso, Otsu (2021) highlighted that since the 1980s, inner-city crimes have become a national issue and a public concern. Grave and lethal crime rates among youths have been on a steady increase. These rates are higher in the city core and have been steadily rising, particularly in cities with an estimated population of more than 250 people (Adeyemi et al., 2021). Violence has been identified as one of the leading causes or factors of youth assault at the core of urban centres. The statistics of violent crimes show that the number of adolescents between the ages of 10 and 16 years who have been assaulted is higher in major cities, especially among Latinos and African Americans in the United States, and youthful families whose annual household income is below $20,000 (McGarrell et al., 2010). This clearly shows that crime is related to socioeconomic characteristics, geographical location, and population.

From the economic point of view, urbanisation facilitates economic development and, thus, promotes industrial growth (Turok & McGranahan, 2013). However, due to the increase in population associated with urbanisation, crime is apparently promoted in urban centres, especially where the activities of urban citizens are not properly regulated (Ogneva-Himmelberger et al., 2019). According to several observational reports, crime levels are higher in larger cities (Chang et al., 2019). Nonetheless, urbanisation is not the only cause of the rising crime trends. Closely related to urbanisation are many other determinants which directly affect the increasing crime trend in urban areas. These determinants include unemployment and income inequality. Since the last decade, many empirical studies, such as Bin & Soh (2012) in Malaysia; Hassan et al., (2016) in Pakistan; Ojo & Ojewale (2019) in Nigeria; Gimenez et al., (2021) in Costa Rica; and Müller, (2021) in Brazil, have shown from their findings that urbanisation and crime are two correlated phenomena.

Considering the urbanisation–crime correlation and the effects of rapid population growth in urban areas, Crivellari and Ristea (2021) argue that the severity of crime issues varies significantly in form from one region to another. According to Prieto Curiel (2021), the persistent focus on crime is a consistent indicator of various forms of criminal activity. The degree of theft and robbery is quite consistent daily, and bank robberies happen weekly, which implies that a few hours in a week capture the most crime occurrences. This shows that crime intensity is not even throughout the city, as certain areas have significantly larger temporal and spatial concentrations of crime. Although various forms of crime and localities have

significantly varying intensity rates, crime concentration can be determined when viewed in weekly patterns. The existing trail identifies occurrences of various sorts of crime, which is an important component of policing strategy.

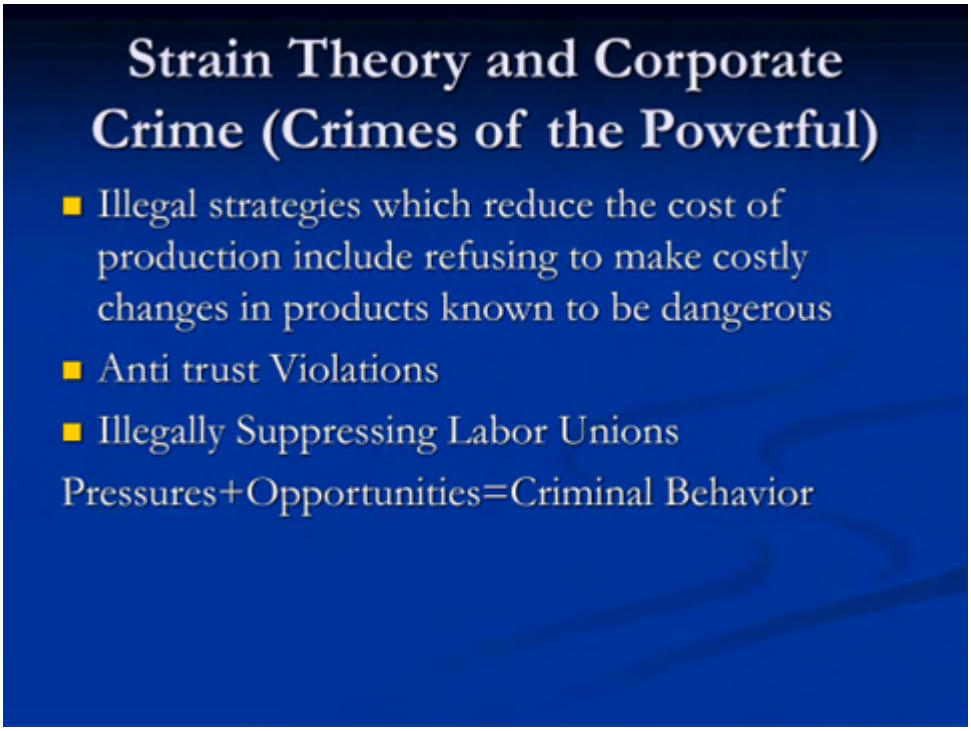
Furthermore, considering the rate of crime and causalities, Imbusch et al. (2011) argue that since the seventies in Latin America , overall crime rates have been on a steady increase. Urban areas, especially major cities such as Rio de Janeiro, Lima, Mexico City, and Caracas, are highly vulnerable to violent crimes because of the increase in urbanisation, poverty, and exclusion (Renfrew, 2020). Drawing from Müller's (2018) *'Crime is a Discourse,'* the main issues of concern in crime focus in Latin America include social effects, root causes of conflicts, and empirical crime determinants. There is a consensus among researchers such as Scheuerman (2013), Aguilera (2015), Albanese (2017), Bibas (2019), and Haines & Macdonald (2021) that injustice is the major cause of the high crime rate in Latin America. Apart from income disparity, major risk factors include low rates of schooling, low social capital, homelessness, urbanisation, and inadequate criminal justice systems in Latin America (Galain Palermo et al., 2019). Therefore, crime prevention initiatives are essential to combat the rising rates of crime.

2.2.2 Causes of Crime Related to Stress and Strain

The 'causes of crime' research has been controversial among social science scholars, such as Ayodele (2016) on demonology, beyond human control; Williams et al. (2018) on traumatic brain injury; Sampson & Winter (2018) on lead exposure; Ruggiero (2020) on anomie and control; Wikström (2020) on individual/developmental and ecological/environmental tradition; and Kessler & Reinecke (2021) on personal (moral) maturation and socio-ecological selection. The focus is usually on the conditions and events (strains) that put pressure or push individuals or residents into crime; measures that attract or pull individuals into crime; and measures that restrain individuals from responding or being tempted to commit a crime *(see Picture 2.3)*. Researchers such as Agnew (2016) and Alizadeh and Aliyev (2019) in the study of crime suggest that resisting the pressure and attraction to commit a crime is the function of controls and the individual's susceptibility and resistance to these criminal activities as described in the strain and social learning theories. The two variables of resistance and susceptibility are critical to the perception and interpretation of criminogenic activities. The resistance and susceptibility factors are enshrined in pleasure and sensation seeking, negativity, perceived social support, conventional efficacy, and the general

environment. However, these factors have been neglected in mainstream research that investigates the causes of crime (Robert Agnew, 2016).

Picture 2.3: Showing strain theory and corporate crime



Source: *https://image.slideserve.com/1182082/strain-theory-and-corporate-crime-crimes-of-the-powerful-l.jpg*

The view of resistance and susceptibility is further supported by Erkan and Sevin (2018), stating that not only is crime a physical matter, but it is often due to social and psychological influences, which makes the idea of crime occurrence and urban crime perception a phenomenon. For example, from a study conducted in Kadoka, Istanbul by Erkan and Sevin (2018), visitors negatively perceive the neighbourhood and link their fear to psychological and social factors. This accounts for the fear of crime as a phenomenon in urban areas.

An extensive range of studies on “Violence and resilience in Latin American cities” by Lucia Dammert and Guardia (2016), Skrabut (2018), Renfrew (2020), and Kruijt and Koonings (2021) pose the question, “Why are violent crimes more prevalent in Latin American cities?” In the past decades, due to the rise in population, it is evident that urbanisation has been on the increase in Latin American nations (Gwynne,

2017). Not just that, there is a sharp rise in poverty. Latin America crime rate is currently the highest globally and there is an increase in the illegal use of firearms and drugs and this has an influence on the events of local and trans-local organised crime (Rettberg, 2020). This issue has gained widespread concern as it relates to crime in cities. Drawing from a previous study by de Castro-Rodrigues and Sacau (2015) on the judicial decision-making process, particularly in sentencing, forty-nine judges participated in the research answering questions regarding the causes of crime and the justification. The results reveal that the judge's decisions are based on social-environmental characteristics, differences in internal features, and external situational causes. The study reveals three significant sources of crime: drugs, survival, and uncontrolled behaviour.

Coccia (2018) posits that the cause of rise in violent crimes is not clear. According to Rosenfeld's (2016) analysis of the rising crime rates in 56 major American cities, the causes of the increase in murder may have also contributed to reduced detention rates, leading to high rates of freed inmates in the nation prisons. It concluded that due to the ongoing crisis and the "Ferguson effect" (in the city of Ferguson, Missouri), that is, when police employ fatal force on minority residents, the action results in a reduced effect in public policing and could cause residents' distrust in the police, the hostility against the police. Almeida et al. (2018) highlight that the police are part of the problem in the city of Macapa, Brazil as they have generally been ineffective, corrupt, brutal to citizens, and unilaterally reactive.

Consequently, as evident in this subsection, crime does not just occur from nowhere – it is often inspired by certain elements. These elements are most often overlooked or considered inconsequential. Cities characterised by this neglect, no doubt, are associated with rising crime rates. Crime in cities of the Global South results from the neglect of the poor economic condition of its inhabitants. When an individual's economic condition is such that it exposes the individual to chances of indulging in crime, it is probable that the individual will indulge in criminal activities. Poverty, as highlighted in the review, is the leading cause of crime, especially, among economically deprived persons. Moreso, the frustration resulting from poverty and the inability to improve living standards, inclines several individuals to criminal lifestyles. This is the belief of the general strain thesis. That is to say, crime in cities is a product of one or both elements of poverty and strain.

2.2.3 Causes of Crime Related to Fear of Crime

There is a correlation between crime and fear of crime (Lorenc et al., 2014). The difference between fear of crime and actual crime can be confusing. Fear of crime and actual crime are distinct but interrelated concepts: fear of crime is an anxious or emotional reaction to a possible crime occurrence, while actual crime is a measurable occurrence (Maruthaveeran & Van den Bosh, 2015). Hipp (2011) contrasts the connection between the rate of violent crime and the perception of crime amongst citizens in the United States census bureau. The robbery rate among these types of violent crimes is consistently associated with a greater perception of crime in the region. A structural shift seems to have occurred in the mid-1980s. Murder and aggravated battery rates influence the perception of crime, even when the robbery rate is taken into account. Hipp (2011) concludes that the fear of crime and residents' perception of crime are closely linked with the official violent crime rates.

In his study of Lyari in Karachi, Pakistani Kalia (2016), argues that the political approach to crime management has caused more harm than good. It has created space for criminal perpetrators to flourish and extend their criminal networks. Criminals working alongside civic leaders and state officials have made the apprehension of criminals an almost impossible task. Consequently, this has made Lyari, Karachi, one of the worst cities (as it relates to crime) in the world in the past few decades. He also argues that criminals use violent acts to impose orders and determine what happens in the city. They align with political and civic leaders who back their actions and cover up their criminal activities, thus making criminals inapprehensible. This has made crime inherent and an everyday occurrence. Almeida et al. (2018) conducted a study that set out to determine the perception of crime in Macapa Amapa, Brazil. The study highlighted that about forty-five thousand residents in Brazil have been victims of lethal crime (possibly leading to death) annually. Most of these victims are poor, young, and black, living in shacks in large metropolitan areas. A worrisome future is foreseen as the underlying cause of these crimes, and violence is not addressed.

Another school of thought has linked criminal perception to fear of crime. According to a study by Dammert (2009) in Santiago, Chile, urban centres in Chile have often been seen as different from other cities in the region, due to their relatively lower crime rate compared to other cities in Latin America. However, in recent times, the crime rate has increased, and the inhabitants are constantly feeling unsafe (P. Mason et al., 2013). The causes are difficult to identify and isolate because of their intertwining nature. However, socioeconomic characteristics such as income concentration, residential segregation,

precariousness, and regular reports of criminal occurrences in the media increase the feeling of insecurity among residents (Luco & Lazo, 2006). In their argument, Valera and Guàrdia (2014) argued that crime and violence are the most significant issues in cities. This is also evident in places observed to have low crime rates. They examined the potential probability of victimisation by crime and analysed the data collected from five hundred and seventy-one people residing in Barcelona city–Spain's working-class residential zone, on their experience of crime. The research reveals that personal socioeconomic characteristics, environmental characteristics, and social representation of unsafe places are associated with the fear of crime.

In several ways, fear of crime has been characterised, and one concept is that it is an emotional response marked by the sense that a threat may lead to physical injury; this is because the level of fear a person has is determined by factors that influence both actual and perceived risks (Grinshteyn, 2014). The causes of fear, especially in adolescents in urban neighbourhoods, were evaluated to make this assumption using data from adolescents, their primary caregivers, and their neighbourhoods. Perceptions of crime have been shown to have contrary impacts on the consequences of mental health studies. Fears of local violence has been shown to have dramatically improved the ratings for teenage anxiety and depression (Grinsteyn, 2014).

Furthermore, according to Fishwick and Mak (2015), both the poor and wealthy – even in their respective spaces are not left out in the experiences of political violence (driven by a desire to maintain or preserve political power), economic crime (driven by material gain), social crime (conscious challenge to a prevailing social order and its values) and violence (mostly sexuality-based), and institutional crime (including civic vigilance and guard). The degree to which deprivation or injustice has led to crime and violence is not yet addressed. More effective prevention of crime and violence must be addressed in line with the universal idea of fear and mistrust and the state's inability to control or prevent crime (Bibas, 2019). If this inability continues, the wealthy may flee to fortified enclaves or use advanced networks and private security outfits to protect themselves, leaving the disadvantaged groups to go through social unrest alone. They believe that they are more prone to crime and, as such, are more likely to be crime victims (Chilton & Triplett, 2015). Cities are gradually growing into dangerous environments where harassment, victimisation, theft, crime, and violence are more likely to occur, and spatial causes of violence are increasing significantly (Morrison & Rockmore, 2021).

In line with the above, particularly on social crime in cities, Duric and Popovic-Citic (2013) argue concerning the crime fear phenomenon that most reoccurring discoveries show that the fear of crime is exhibited mostly by women compared to men. Moreover, their research results confirm tangible gender differences, in that women express more fear of crime compared to men, considering the probability of being victims of crime, and as a result, device protective means against crime frequently. Furthermore, the perception of crime in cities, particularly in cities of the Global South, is a phenomenon of great concern. This is because the fear of crime is more traumatic than the actual experience of crime (Lane, 2015). Several mental health issues in the Global South have been traced to fears of being victimised. This fear is not just among the elderly but also among the young, children, and even the wealthy. Cities characterised by an enormous fear of crime may not be characterised by incredible crime rates. However, the mere fact that inhabitants feel, and express fear of crime is enough to mean that there is a possibility that the crime is perpetrated in such a city. As a result, means are sought (as highlighted in the previous paragraphs) by the wealthy to leave places that instigate fear of crime in them and to secure their mental health. But what about the poor, who are financially incapacitated and cannot afford the means of securing themselves? Who plans for their wellbeing? This is quite a serious issue in the Global South – the fear of crime, as opposed to actual crime.

2.2.4 Causes of Crime Related to Geographical Location and the Physical Environment

Research has consistently shown that crime stems from social, economic, political, psychological, physical, and geographical factors (Williams et al., 2018). Just as crime is being committed in geographical locations, it is worth discussing the relationship between crime and the location and characteristics of a neighbourhood. This may be examined differently, but ecological and human geographical factors may also lead to crime. Based on a study of the population of Turkey by Sargin and Temurçin (2010), the data collected and analysed from a longitudinal study between 1995 and 2010 reveals that 70.5% of the total population of Turkey lives in cities. This shows rise in the population towards urban areas. The geographical location greatly determines the movement of people and preferred places of settlement. While the safety and security of urban dwellers is vested in the police, the local authorities are in charge of the 29.5% who live in rural areas. According to Sargin and Temurçin's (2010) study, the distribution of individual crimes was very high in Istanbul, the largest and most populated city in Turkey. The data from

the longitudinal study mentioned above shows to a large extent a steady increase in the crime rate, especially in recent years. This data shows that crime is correlated to geographical location, as well as population movement.

In addition, Rotarou (2018) studied 52 municipalities in Santiago, the Chilean capital, on the public perception of crime through the index of socioeconomic development. The results reveal that women express more fear of crime than men, while inactive people living in rural areas with higher education and higher income have a lower perception of crime. Furthermore, poverty is highly correlated with a higher perception of crime (Iyer & Topalova, 2014). Finally, concerning socioeconomic development within the different municipal neighbourhoods, residents who inhabit well-developed municipal neighbourhoods exhibit a lower fear of crime than those living in depressed neighbourhoods of urban areas.

In another study, Lançon (2013) found that cities' growth and rising development attracted people struggling to survive off the land, especially in rural areas. This results in overpopulation, leading to poverty, hunger, violence, and criminality. This is inevitably related to cities where inhabitants experience everyday crime on urban streets. Similarly, Carmo (2014) argues that population growth induces disorganised urban sprawl, on the outskirts of major cities in Latin America and is also very significant in other regions of the Global South (Africa and Asia). This, in effect, generates problems related to politics, culture, the environment, and other fields, as well as issues related to urban crime (Carmo, 2014).

A study in Binghamton, New York City has shown that preserving and maintaining physical infrastructure (keeping in good order) is associated with the frequency of crime happening in the neighbourhood (O'Brien & Wilson, 2011). Therefore, understanding public security and crime perception using physical structures alone as indices may be theoretically possible. O'Brien and Wilson, (2011) further examined how citizens could assess urban communities. Individuals view the perception of crime through social inclusion, community economic activities among juveniles, and the preservation of the physical infrastructure, and the result shows that people use the general physical condition of neighbourhoods to draw a perception of crime, reflecting a strong implication for the role of urban maintenance *(see Picture 2.4)*.

In line with the above, and in consensus with the broken window theory, it is argued that crime-fighting forces can most efficiently fight against crime if they concentrate their resources on preventing chaos, nuisance-related behaviours, and insignificant offences such as vandalism, public drinking, loitering,

rowdiness, and disorder-related behaviour, as well as dilapidated physical structures in urban areas (Skogan, 2015). Disorder-related attitudes have been shown to raise crime apprehension, reduce social resilience, and contribute to crime. However, perception of crime was not substantially linked to group effectiveness as expected. The direct effect of observed societal dysfunction on crime expectations is the most decisive influence of any model (Volker, 2017).

Picture 2.4: Showing the relationship and impact of social dysfunction on individuals



Society	Community	Relationship	Individual
Economic inequality	Poverty	Poor parenting	Victim of child maltreatment
Gender inequality	High unemployment	Marital discord	Psychological / personality disorder
Cultural norms that support violence	High crime levels	Violent parental conflict	Violent parental conflict
High firearm availability	Local illicit drug trade	Low socioeconomic household	Low socioeconomic household
Weak economic safety nets	Inadequate victim care services	Delinquent peers	Delinquent peers

Source: adapted from World Health Organization 2004

Source: *https://publichealthmatters.blog.gov.uk/wp-content/uploads/sites/33/2015/06/Untitled2.png.*

Further research on public safety by Koch and Geller (2017) shows that there has been an increase in the concern for public security among politicians and public opinion experts through citizen's safety requests from field surveys and datasets of the police consisting of filed reports from citizens in Lombardy, Italy (Stefanizzi, 2011). This method of investigation is unique, particularly to the region. This method was to

get more insight into how citizens view urban security issues and seek counsel/assistance within their neighbourhood. The result shows a need to broaden the concept of urban security towards newer frontiers, particularly in quality of life, economic, and social dimensions. The perception of insecurity and crime in Lombardy is connected to a paradigm shift in the city's urbanistic, architectural, and urban social morphology, upholding the broken window theory of what causes crime.

Consequently, it is suggested that the physical properties of a particular city or environment can place it in a condition that is prone to crime (Liu et al., 2016). That is, cities with enhanced and developed physical environments including good housing facilities, good road networks, industrialization, better commercial opportunities, and better employment opportunities, have a higher probability of experiencing criminal events. This is because, people relocate to places where they can find better life opportunities to enhance their living standards. As a result, such cities have gradually become more developed and economically advanced. Moreover, cities with rapid development and economic growth are at the risk of rapid urbanisation (population growth) – which in turn leads to overpopulation – and overpopulation has a role to play in the propensity of crime.

2.2.5 Summary of the Causes of Crime

The causes of crime *(see Picture 2.5)* have been a subject of intense debate, and this issue has had lots of varied opinions in the literature. The causes of crime are yet to be resolved, and this makes it a legitimate subject of debate (Piquero, 2012). Above, show varied studies of crime from different perspectives in search of the root causes of crime spanning the four major urban social structural theories. Urbanisation has highlighted many issues relating to crime, which indirectly cause social and economic dislocation and isolate inner-city neighbourhoods from services and facilities, majorly occupied by low-income households (Jargowsky & Park, 2009). The argument is that poverty is not the root cause of property crime, but the opportunity it presents (Danner, 2019).

Raesearch emphasises property crime rates in cities with a focus on intentional and deliberate attempts to cause property loss (Autumn, 2013). The location and hotspots for crime, stress the social and environmental roles in establishing crime causative theory. This is particularly on the interaction between people and public spaces in the causes of crime. Thus, creating a link between offences, offence inducement and offence tendency (Feng, Dong & Song; 2016).

Picture 2.5: Causes of crime including social and economic factors



https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Carlos_Vilalta/publication/260146710/figure/fig1/AS:614272275070990@1523465331604/Social-disorganization-causes-of-crime-a-selection-of-factors-Source-Reconstructed-by.png.

The specific reason for looking at crime causes from this point of view is because the majority of the factors (as highlighted earlier) are rather extrinsic than intrinsic. After all, social forces have been indicated to affect an individual's engagement and opportunity to commit a crime. Another significant issue of concern is the crime – fear of crime relationships. Differentiating crime from fear of crime as a social and political issue through the perception of the extent of crime and subjective assessment of the likelihood to commit or be a victim of crime is not acceptable (Jennings & Sturgis, 2012). Four significant indicators were identified in the literature as a cause of distrust and trust of citizens and security guards:

neighbourhood disorder, fear of crime, police corruption, and police ineffectiveness. Until these are addressed, there is no headway in restoring neighbourhood trust in the police (Boateng, 2015).

Another major issue of intense debate is how urbanisation leads to crime. Factors of urbanisation are selected as the major causes of crime in urban areas, such as population and migration. Still, this argument holds very little as population growth and migration are inevitable, as cross-regional interaction is necessary for sustainable development (Muggah, 2014).

2.3 Crime in Cities: Physical and Victimisation Studies

Crime is concentrated in the time, space, and location in which it happens. This section discusses the relationships between the foregoing dimensions. It indicates that the research on the concentration of crime may benefit from some ameliortion and proposes tentative steps toward this investigation. Considering the crimes in cities and societies, it is pertinent and enough reason for the study of crime. This is so that the study of crime in cities can investigate the causes of crime and proffer solutions as well as suggest measures for containing and preventing further occurrences of criminogenic events.

Furthermore, the correlation between recurrent victimisation and the regional prevalence of reoccurring crime is evident (Fisher et al., 2010). Thus, offenders are prone to be chronic offenders, and victims are more likely to be reoccurring victims (Farrell, 2015). Cities and metropolitan areas appear to be associated with slower economic development on local and national levels in the Global South due to misplaced priorities, poor resource allocation, and economic and financial crimes (Kessides, 2005). Although research from the early 21st century by Laws and Marshall, (2003) centred on the behavioural development of offenders and their interactions with the community features they grew up, worked and lived in, and how individual–environment interaction affects crime. This study aims to investigate primarily, the relationships between unlawful behaviour and socioeconomic factors such as unemployment, age, income level, race, and crime.

Complementary views from scholars like Chiodi (2016) and Volker (2017) in the social and built environment have claimed that urban design, environment, and the city's architectural fabric play a critical role in the tendency to commit a crime. For example, poor lighting for visibility in dark places promotes crime. Also, the lack of natural vigilance against crime (as strong security threatens the surfacing of

criminal activities) means that a less criminal attractive area may easily turn out to be a crime hotspot (Lorenc et al., 2012). Further investigations by urbanists and architects like Vania-Ceccato (2020) on the relationships between crime, urban environment, and people dynamics suggest that crime is significantly affected by the presence of people, especially young people. For example, urban activist Jacobs (2016) strongly argues that the natural surveillance of residents is a crucial deterrent and security watch against crime in urban residential neighbourhoods. The constant movement and interaction through social activities among residents within their neighbourhood enable stronger social ties. They were able to keep watch on new and strange events and actions happening within their locality. Consequently, Jane Jacobs indicates that high demographic density, a high number of tourists, social events and people on the street at all times lead to the protection of a given area and result in less crime. Newman and Franck (2017), on the contrary, contend that a high mix of individuals generate the necessary obscurity for crimes. In line with the above, the characteristics that protect an area include low demographic density, low visitor ratio, and a high resident ratio (Warwick, 2009).

Many studies have attempted to explain these complementary hypotheses. Clarke and Felson (2017) proposed the theory of routine activity, which explores how different circumstances and lifestyle distinctions affect crime opportunities. Researchers such as Mead (2017) found that certain places like pubs, clubs and bars promote crime. Social scientists such as Birks et al., (2020) have taken to examining large crime clusters at microlevels, particularly those concerned with location. Recent studies have shown that in places commonly considered the good parts of cities, there are many streets with high concentrations of crime. However, there are places relatively free of crime even in places mainly described as poor areas (Ha et al., 2015). Weisburd (2015) suggests that the traditional people-centred model of police action should be modified to a place-centred paradigm. Based on these results, the researcher followed a place-centred and data-driven approach. Explicitly, he examines the power of people's movements generated from a combination of demographic information and mobile network activity to assess whether a particular location has more tendency to become a crime hotspot.

Clear, well-documented and robust evidence from Almanie et al. (2015) supports the concept of location in finding spatial and temporal criminal hotspots. A comparison was drawn using two different crime datasets from Los Angeles in the United States through statistical analysis to envisage frequent patterns for criminal hotspots: and the analysis of the crime data set from the two study areas with their

demographic variables reveal the reason (which include, violence and lethal crimes) that hinders safety in residential neighbourhoods.

Recent investigations have demonstrated that the ability of law enforcement agencies to utilise mapped crime patterns to project approaches to crime prevention is seriously impeded if crime hotspots are not identified (Velasco et al., 2021). Using a reaction-diffusion system with established boundary conditions, a study of mobile criminals in a marked out area found that most crime targets, particularly in violent crimes, include residential structures, automobiles, or individuals (Gu et al., 2017). Potential crime targets spread continuously in space and places are marked by a chance of victimisation (Short et al., 2010).

Moreover, there is an awareness that the places of crime are increasing (Lee et al., 2017). A place (or place of crime) could be said to be a very small location, usually a section of a street corner, address, building or lane. The focus should be on places of crime, particularly in residential neighbourhoods. Neighbourhood theories typically emphasise offender development, while hypotheses at the place level emphasise incidents of crime. The theory of routine activity highlights the importance of understanding crime by studying crime sites/places. While both theories are mutually supportive, daily behaviour and crime patterns have different reasons for crime in various locations. Research suggests that crime concentrations are in three major categories: concentration on particular facilities (e.g. bars), special areas of the neighbourhood, and offender mobility (Eck & Weisburd, 2015). Instead of criminal displacement, the benefits of prevention efforts should be extended to vulnerable locations otherwise called crime hotspots.

2.3.1 Relationship between Neighbourhood Characteristics and Crime

Research suggests that about 25% of the population in Western countries have been crime victims at least once and this figure keep rising (Goudriaan et al., 2006; Hipp ,2011; Wickes et al., 2018), with average crime index of 34%.The situation is more aggravated in the Global South with frighting figures of an average of 64% (Crime Stats, 2015; Numebo,2022). the police get limited crime information from victims and witnesses (Almeida et al., 2018; Criminal Legalities in the Global South, 2019 ; Ghasemi 2019). This connotes that a large amount of evidence stays concealed from the police and the courts. Thus, this poses a significant challenge in relating crime to neighbourhood characteristics in the Global South (Goudriaan et al., 2004).

Nonetheless, crime research has noted an impact of the political, economic, and social spheres (that is, contextual factors) on variations in neighbourhood crime (Farrall et al., 2020). Research on the association of neighbourhood contextual effects on crime was based mainly on social disorganisation theory (Míguez, 2014). These are critical theoretical perspectives that link socioeconomic and demographic characteristics such as ethnic heterogeneity and economic disadvantage with the occurrence of neighbourhood crime (Bruinsma et al., 2013). Neighbourhoods with a high degree of deprivation like poverty and unemployment also suffer more violence as fewer services are available to combat it. Services in geographically deprived communities within deprived cities or regions may be incredibly scarce, resulting in higher crime rates, particularly violent crime and property crime (Antunes & Manasse, 2022). To address this, the local community or neighbourhood should be investigated both in the area where the crime occurs and where the perpetrator lives (Wang et al., 2019).

Eriksson & Broidy (2017) examine the theory of General Strain as it concerns the potential impact of the environment surrounding the neighbourhood on crime, as well as the observed impact inequality has on crime. Also, Kim et al., (2002) investigated the relationship between the variance in neighbourhood physical characteristics and community crime using residential neighbourhoods in large cities to establish this assumption. As measured for instance, by the degree of income inequality, this can lead to stress, strain or frustration, leading the citizen or resident to engage in a criminal act (Rufrancos & Power, 2013). Consequently, this establishes the relative disparity or economic deprivation that a person might feel is a challenge (Snyder et al., 2016).

The probability of crime could be due to the absence of a capable security watch, the availability of a potential victim, and the inclination of an individual to perpetrate crime. This is in the belief of the routine activity thesis. The theory of routine activity provides an alternate explanation for the nature of crime, when an inspired individual finds an avenue (perhaps a reasonable victim) without an effective guardian (Bunei & Barasa, 2017). This is to say that, potential offenders find it quite impossible to perpetrate crime in neighbourhoods that are of standard quality and follow the Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) standard and in neighbourhoods that are well secured and protected against criminal events. Furthermore, the theory of routine activity provides crucial geographical methods for comprehending the link between a potential crime site, the location of the potential victim, and the propensity to commit crimes in the absence of a security measure (Andresen & Ha, 2019).

Unfortunately, few studies such as Mason et al., (2013) have concurrently explored the relationship between levels of reported crime, perceptions of crime, disorder, and crime protection with rates of physical activity in relation to the Routine Activity theory. The perceptions of some significant local antisocial activities (burglary and drunkenness) and personal safety (feeling insecure at home and walking alone at night in the local area) were strongly correlated with the fear of crime. In addition, Foster et al., (2014) highlighted that there is a slight but essential correlation between walking frequency rates in neighbourhoods with higher reported individual crime rates (but not property crime). This is when viewed with other disorder and crime protection factors, but not when additionally accounting for socio-demographic, neighbourhood and community factors. However, the significance of these neighbourhood and community factors and their crime-related effects is low. The features of the psycho-social environment and social cohesion (having a sense of cohesion from community living, group engagement and favourably rating social settings), as well as deprivation of health and personal income, can more strongly determine community walking rates (Foster et al., 2014)

The above assertion from Foster is in line with the works of Jacobs, (1961) who believes that constant physical and social activities within the neighbourhood will create safer environments free from crime at the community level. They also demonstrate a degree of significance of local neighbourhood management, which decreases disorder issues, and social restoration, and helps to strengthen communal living (Delclòs-Alió & Miralles-Guasch, 2018). From the foregoing, we can see that Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) has a deterrent effect on crime in neighbourhoods.

Furthermore, the relationship between neighbourhood characteristics and delinquent behaviour has been published in several studies (Huang & Ryan, 2014; Liu et al., 2016; Olavarría-Gambi & Allende-González, 2014). Interestingly, only a handful of research on the effect of physical characteristics of neighbourhoods on the reports of victims has been done (Berg et al., 2013). Throughout studies on the determinants of the resolution to report crimes, it is usually assumed that crime victims weigh the consequences, as well as the most relevant elements while deciding to report a crime. Consequently, while much research concentrates on the impact of the perceived seriousness and the financial damage caused by crime, physical injury, and psychological harm, only a few research studies concentrate on the victims' location or the neighbourhood or community they live in (Foster, Wood, et al., 2013).

In comparison, research investigating the impact of the characteristics of neighbourhoods, focuses mainly on its socioeconomic depression and rarely pays concern to certain of its characteristics that might be deemed important. For instance, the quality of the social features, the extent of social stability, as well as the quality of the physical features are barely considered in research. The indifference to the social characteristics of neighbourhoods in crime reporting studies is surprising, mainly because recently, the social sciences have dedicated great attention to the impact of environmental features. The impact of social informal regulation and stability, and the socioeconomic impact of crime perception and victimisation are studied limitedly in various studies (Goudriaan et al., 2006a).

This study argues that the environmental characteristics of a neighbourhood have a propensity for inspiring crime. In neighbourhoods where there is gross income inequality and poverty, inhabitants are more inclined to criminogenic practices. Also, neighbourhoods characterised by a dense population, pose a great threat to the physical and social infrastructure – as these infrastructures are in limited supply. When social and physical infrastructure are in short supply and the population these infrastructures serve is great, there is every probability that crime – especially violence, assault, and vandalism will be experienced.

2.3.2 Experiences Resulting from Victimisation to Crime in Cities

Studies have ultimately shown that a larger crime rate occurs in bigger cities than in small towns or rural areas (Xiao & Zhou, 2020). One of the most significant social misfortunes of our cities has been identified to be fear of crime, even in cities with much lower crime rates (Valera & Guàrdia, 2014). Once the fear of crime is instilled, it metamorphoses via multiplex social processes far above clear understanding (Kane et al., 2018). In the media, crime is like a social emergency, which surfaces regularly. It creates both collective perceptions as well as personal anxiety (La Inseguretat Ciutadana Ha Canviat Les Nostres Vides, 2011), the perceived risk associated with victimisation and social stigmatisation (Quillian & Pager, 2010), urban and social dichotomy (Vilalta, 2011), and loss of public space as a social arena (Valera & Guàrdia, 2014).

Furthermore, there is a modest degree of evidence on police statistics across European and American cities, that have shown a steady decline in crime rates due to improved neighbourhood design and

facilities, and the various crime prevention mechanisms (Nivette et al., 2021). In comparison to the police statistics across European and American cities, the situation in cities in the global south, particularly on the average, victimisation data is significantly higher. This is because many people confess to having been crime victims, regardless of the weight of the crime. This has led to fear in urban public spaces. It is clear from literature evidence that the perception of crime and insecurity is well developed. Not only is it developed from issues of environmental factors and relevant crime data, as highlighted by the theories of social disorganisation and broken windows, but also from the breakdown of social control and the social construction of unsafe environments (Buckner-Brown et al., 2014).

As opined by Gray, Jackson, and Farrall (2008), Foster et al. (2013), Lane (2015) and Hodgkinson et al., (2017) crimes have varying effects on fear, and generally, fear does not correlate with objective levels of victimisation and crime. Crimes induced by incivilities are usually correlated to potential threats and social degradation. This idea forms the framework of the broken windows theory of Wilson and Kelling (1982). This theory exhibits a widely successful assumption related to the victimisation – fear relationship in cities. It assumes that the more the perceived disorder of a neighbourhood by its residents, the more worry about their sense of safety, creating more disorder in the environmental and social setting. This disorder could be physical or social. Physical disorder, it could be exhibited in the form of unmaintained urban infrastructure, decreased participation in maintaining order on the street, and unrepaired physical deterioration in the urban fabrics, while the social is seen in the form of vandalism, incivilities, rowdiness, loitering, increase in delinquency, and disorderly behaviour among locals (Aiyer et al. 2015).

Similar work has also been pursued by Wagers, Sousa, and Kelling (2016) identifying other variables that determine the urban quality of life as related to crime, fear and victimisation phenomena such as difficulties in social integration, the emergence of threatening social groups, ethnic diversity, crowding, social conflict, building size and degrees of urban greenery has also been investigated to have a relationship with victimisation and fear of crime (Maskaly & Boggess 2014; Hooghe & de Vroome 2016; Newman & Franck 2017). Moreover, it should be noted that previous studies have indicated that socio-demographic variables, such as gender and age, are relevant variables for the perception of fear and victimisation (Zeren et al., 2013). Studies and reviews have been undertaken to explore the effect of socio-demographic factors on victimisation, particularly in juveniles, women and older people and found it true (Liu et al., 2009; Christian et al., 2011; Samuel & Omar, 2012). Nonetheless, although there is widespread acknowledgement that women, juveniles and older people experience more fear of crime after

victimisation, disagreement remains about the notion that women who have been victimised generally feel a lower level of risk of being sexually assaulted, especially when compared to their peers who have not been victimised (Gidycz et al., 2006). Though literature results are controversial on age as a factor of fear after victimisation (Sweeten et al., 2013), yet the results place socio-demographic characteristics in a dwindling state as a direct indicator of vulnerability.

In addition, Armstrong et al., (2015) in their systematic reviews of the available data on neighbourhood and social characteristics, revealed that there is a significant influence social control mechanisms and collective efficacy play on crime. However, the issue is often seldom about fear of crime or the crime perpetrator, but rather concentrated on social disparity (Ding et al., 2012). Recent work has demonstrated the predominance of social factors in identifying a location as dangerous rather than environmental factors. (Ross & Polk, 2017). Different scholars, including Roazzi et al. (2009) have considered variables such as location attachment, residential satisfaction, and location identity to describe modulative effects on individual residents' perceptions of insecurity. The underlying hypothesis of these authors stresses the association between perceived security in the community and perceived attachment as well as identity and their positive impact on psychosocial wellbeing, quality of life and well-being. In particular, residents who worry about the infrastructural decline of the neighbourhood and who see the neighbourhood less sustaining express greater feelings of discomfort and fear of crime (Hipp 2009; Turgut Yıldız et al., 2010; Hipp 2010; Jung & Lee 2017).

2.3.3 Land use Planning, Zoning in Neighbourhoods and Crime

More common than actual victimisation is the fear of crime, nonetheless, studies have examined the connection between urban environments and fears. In addition, people can limit their physical and social activities so to mitigate their concerns to stay in particular places or circumstances that they discern as crime-prone. This isolation will affect social relations, rates of physical activities, as well as social participation (Foster & Giles-Corti, 2008). Studies have developed concerns about the built environment's prospects of probable enhancement of physical activity. Some of these physical characteristics are also linked to crime, indicating some commonalities between those conditions that facilitate walking and those that impact community protection. (Ferdinand et al., 2012; Adlakha et al., 2015).

From a study in new urban housing development by Masik et al. (2021), using the land use characteristics of the environment with particular reference to public spaces, facilities, enabling pedestrian movement, and territorial guardian, the research explores the chances of being fearful across the different sections of the city. Reyes et al. (2021) revealed that residents in neighbourhoods with such characteristics related to the low-density neighbourhood were perceived safer. Even after adjusting to some social characteristics such as demography, collective efficacy, and victimisation issues, they still express a higher level of perceived safety. The research strongly affirms the findings of previous works of literature that walkable neighbourhoods are safer neighbourhoods. Mouratidis (2019) provided more proof portraying a paradigm drift from the concept that low-density development is usually much safer than high concentration suburban development. This is aimed at developing neighbourhoods with high walkability and access to neighbourhood facilities, such as parks and shops (Foster et al., 2014).

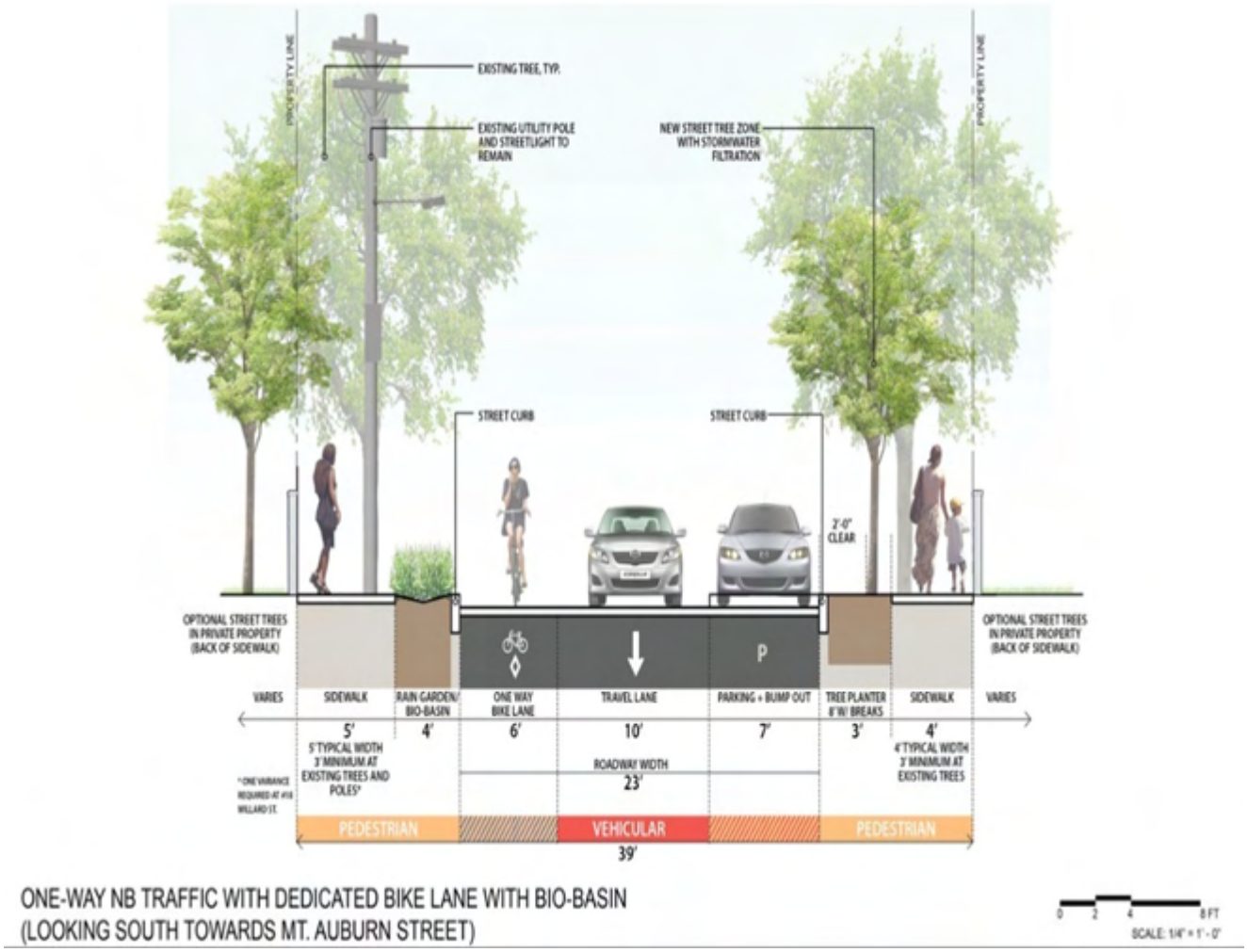
Image disorder and suburban incidences, for example, may intensify feelings of vulnerability, and these negative visual signs may discourage citizens from physical activity (De Donder et al., 2013). Broader urban design and planning characteristics show positive correlations with utilitarian walking. Still, evidence shows that many walkability features are correlated with more violence, and that homogeneous neighbourhoods with restricted access to vehicles and pedestrians are safer (Curriero et al., 2013). Therefore, the neighbourhood characteristics that lessen crime may not apply to those that alleviate the fear of crime among neighbourhood inhabitants (Letourneau et al., 2018). Some physical features have been connected with presumed protection via the ability to enhance natural observation, as Jane Jacobs opined in her 1961 book – *'The Death and Life of Great American Cities,'* but little empirical evidence confirms this. Yes, there is some vague proof that community design can enhance or restrain residents' perception of safety (Paul Cozens & Melenhorst, 2014).

Most offences are by chance, that is, they are committed as prospective offenders find possible targets as they go about their everyday activities (Brantingham & Brantingham, 2019). The theory of routine activity suggests that three factors: a target, a perpetrator, and the lack of a competent witness are all necessary for a crime to occur (Lambert, 2017). This theory lends credence to the assumption that walkable neighbourhoods are desirable and can limit violence and guarantee the protection of guardians. Nonetheless, guardians' effectiveness in avoiding crime is still reliant on the sort of crime that offenders commit. Capable guardians can prevent serious crimes, but many people can neglect or disregard minor offences, such as stealing and pickpocketing (Andresen & Ha, 2019).

Drawing from recent research, property crime happens near popular attractions for inhabitants and guests, whereas crimes against people occur in the house or near pubs and bars (Ghani, 2017). Recent research has confirmed the link between crime and non-residential land use (Twinam, 2017). However, research has also advocated that non-residential land uses such as police posts, correctional facilities, commercial banks and public buildings, with heavy security presence can act as a deterrent to criminal activity, just as Jane Jacobs opined this assertion was supported by Browning et al. (2010). Foster et al. (2014b), in their study on walkability in residential neighbourhoods and crime, found that certain areas of the neighbourhood, particularly for recreation, which provide opportunities for residents' interactions and walkability, are usually associated with fewer crimes in deteriorating neighbourhoods. Other land uses, particularly institutional and commercial like schools, churches, and even small enterprises can increase the number of potential users needed to support and avert loneliness that leads to crime. This emphasises the intricacies of land use and demonstrates that analysis that distinguishes between commercial and residential land use may be significant in determining the prevalence of crime (Twinam, 2017).

Permanent street designs *(see Picture 2.6)* that make walking easier by providing access will tend to decrease criminality and promote a sense of safety. Wu et al. (2015) proposed a city-level indicator that: block sizes and street connections are found to have a moderately favourable link with crime and walkability. The consensus from many works of literature seems to point out that there is a correlation between street connectivity and crime (Hillier & Sahbaz, 2012; Birks & Davies, 2017; Yue et al., 2018).

Picture 2.6: Street design showing effective accessibility for road users



Source: *https://www.bing.com/images/blob?bcid=RC9llFBZ7-YDadY2BT0J3XB13.qR.....3A*

There is also evidence that cul-de-sacs maybe counterproductive to property crime (Paul Cozens & Hillier, 2008). Nonetheless, accessibility alone cannot impact crime because other factors attract potential criminals to the area (Twinam, 2017). Burglary in residential houses was connected to the gridding street networks because logical layouts simplify navigation and exploration (Johnson & Bowers, 2010).

Furthermore, Blom et al, (2010) in a cross-sectional study on safety and security reveal that the percentage of urban land for commercial purposes is a critical indicator of increased crime in Bangalore and New Delhi residential neighbourhoods. Consequently, Ceccato-Vânia (2012) highlighted that the urban environment and its physical features are critical factors usually associated with crime. Other studies in Ab-Kooh in Iran, Putrajaya in Malaysia, and Cali in Columbia found that the cities' internal layouts were

less permeable in low-crime neighbourhoods. Moreover, the findings suggest that narrow streets with low traffic volume and one-way streets are associated with lower crime rates. (Karim & Azmi, 2013; Marvi & Behzad, 2015; Martínez, Short & Ortíz, 2015). In Malaysia, a study conducted by Sreetheran (2017) revealed that residents who were less fearful and better controllers of outdoor spaces were less victimised, and their cities possessed defensible space features. From the findings of the studies above, the use of land for mixed purposes and the design of streets have a significant impact on crime.

There is also a belief that green spaces shield crime perpetrators – that offenders hide in greeneries while in wait for the target, committing an offence, and fleeing the scene (Ye et al., 2018). On the contrary, green spaces containing well-tended grass and broad canopy trees do not block visibility or hide criminals, and this creates a greater sense of safety among residents (Jing et al., 2021). Some studies indicate that vegetation can serve as a shield or cover for criminals while perpetrating crimes. Consequently, potential criminals hide undercover in vegetation to perpetrate crimes on a potential victim considered vulnerable enough. Moreso, after committing a crime, the offender flees the scene undetected, because the vegetation in the environment is not well pruned (Bonaccorsi et al., 2020; Lin et al., 2021).

Researchers on urban crime have adopted several strategies to address urban insecurity and ensure public safety. Among them are; prediction, detection, prevention, and control approach (Lab, 2016). The prediction approach uses innovative techniques based on advanced crime-mapping systems and data analysis to unravel offenders and likely crime spots (Austin, 2018). However, this approach's data requirements and technical dependency make its adoption difficult in cities of the Global South where finance, funding, valid data, and skilled human resources are highly deficient.

The second approach, detection, involves using people and surveillance cameras to uncover offenders through monitoring. This is regarded as the end of the pipe approach since losses or harm are likely to be sustained before the response is offered (Minaei et al., 2017). This usually comes as a complement to the prevention of crime in social terms, such as reducing the conditions of the disadvantaged and the poor in areas of unemployment, weak family ties, isolation, and depression, which are often factors generating criminal/anti-social behaviour (Park, 2011; Recasenset al., 2013).

The control approach relies on the use of security guards, and this approach is also defective because guards are usually humans and are usually inadequate in quantity and quality (Portillos et al., 2012). Moreover, these security guards are prone to errors, especially in developing countries with inadequate

technological aid to support and enhance the guard's monitoring function (McMillen et al., 2019). Also, there are no policy guidelines or properly articulated laws or regulations (Ugwuanyi & Chukwuemeka, 2013). Furthermore, there are no clearly defined duties for the various law enforcement agencies, each activity conflicting in their terms of reference of operation, thereby compounding the misery of the citizens (Adebayo, 2013). The shortage of law enforcement agents also contributes to most of the security problems in cities of the Global South (Barker, 2014). All these approaches discussed above revolve around the design, implementation, and management of urban space, but address them in isolation, and sometimes they conflict with one another.

2.3.4 The Most Vulnerable Groups to Crime in Cities

The vulnerability concept indicates that people believe their physical or social disadvantage makes them more vulnerable to future victimisation, regardless of their actual risk of victimisation. (Rader et al., 2012). There are two types of vulnerability examined in the literature: physical and social vulnerability (Cardona et al., 2012; Luna, 2017). Physical vulnerability involves physical characteristics that can increase the vulnerability of a person to victimisation. Gender and age are two of the most significant characteristics listed in the literature.

Many women, children, and older people also experience significant fear of violence. They believe their capacity to defend themselves during a physical assault will be stifled by being a woman or an older person (Fuller, 2015). Health status has recently been recognised as a further function of physical vulnerability in the literature (Jonathan, Jackson & Stafford, 2009). Social vulnerability generally involves social features that can make a person more vulnerable. The most influential features in the literature are race and socioeconomic status at the individual level (J. Liu et al., 2009). Minorities and less privileged citizens feel their disadvantaged status increases their chances of becoming victims of crime. However, still, the literature in this area is limited. (Chilton & Triplett, 2015).

Míguez (2014) suggests that both physical and social vulnerability should be investigated within a framework that takes into account the link between neighbourhood disorganisation and fear of crime . In other words, neighbourhood characteristics may heighten the feeling of social vulnerability, which in turn may increase the fear of crime. Similarly, existing social vulnerabilities are likely to be influenced by neighbourhood disorder (Luna, 2017). The focal point of fear or re-examination at the criminal level is

thus the emphasis on individual vulnerability within a background of community disorder. Instability, a lack of support in urban places, social disorganisation and disorder might render inhabitants more vulnerable to possible victimisation (Gill et al., 2014). The concepts of social and physical vulnerability have been extensively discussed in the literature. However, these concepts are seldom evaluated as contradictory terms as they concern the fear of crime. Are these physical vulnerabilities, social vulnerabilities, or a combination of both? Gender is undeniably important in determining criminal fear: because the strongest indicator of fear is one's gender (Callanan & Teasdale, 2009). It has been widely discussed in the literature that there are reasons why women fear crime more than men (Rader et al., 2012).

There is a crucial link between gender and fear that is explained by the idea of physical vulnerability. That is to say that the expression of fear of crime could be attributed to one's gender. In other words, women are more sensitive to physiological disorders because they fear they would be unable to protect themselves against assault (Fox et al., 2009). Recently, literature confirmed two similar hypotheses concerning women and fear of crime. The sexual assault theory is the first of them. This suggests that women are terrified of sexual assault and that this fear influences their worry about all crimes (Adefolalu, 2014; Orchowski & Gidycz, 2015; Riggs & Cook, 2015). The second hypothesis is on socialisation, women are afraid of criminal behaviour since it is the socialisation that leads to victimisation in public spaces (Cranney, 2015). Furthermore, women believe that males must be present for their safety to be assured (Fisher et al., 2015; Krahé, 2018). This belief, as well as women's fear of sexual assault, explains why women feel they are physiologically prone to crime. However, there is less clarity about the connection between age, vulnerability, and crime fear.

Although recent studies have shown that older people between the ages of 60 and beyond are more fearful of crime than youth between the ages of 18 and 30, studies reflect a more intricate interaction between these variables (Gallagher et al., 2010; Hayman, 2011; Serfaty et al., 2016). The connection between fear of crime and age is non-linear, meaning that children and elderly people are more scared than people of a youthful age because the youth could easily flee from crime scenes compared to the aged (Hirschi & Gottfredson, 2017). As far as insecurity is concerned, elderly people feel they are at greater risk since they are unable to protect themselves against aggression, as a result of a decline in physical abilities. Sweeten et al., (2013) explains that at old age, this decline is more prominent in men and this contributes to the growing perceptions of criminality. Michalski et al. (2007) suggest that for the juvenile generation,

children below the age of 18 are more inclined to see themselves as possible victims and as such fearful of crime.

Phenix (2015) reinforced the "shadow" of powerlessness by showing that physical size in young children is a critical determinant of fear, thus raising the fear of crime among more children. Britt (2018) suggests that younger children at age 10 are more vulnerable to victimisation, even among adolescents below age 18. The influence of health as it affects physical vulnerability has been a topic of debate. Perhaps, ageing does not affect the probability of a person's vulnerability. Moreso, there is the belief that health problems contribute significantly to the feeling of vulnerability (Jackson & Stafford, 2009). Studies on crime, safety, and fear reveal that objective well-being (disability and health restrictions) forecasts on crime concerns are statistically significant regardless of age (Davies & Foley, 2014; World Health Organisation, 2015). Research has recently shown that self-evaluated well-being can better predict crime perception than actual health (Foster et al., 2016). It is, therefore, not only illness or physical disability that matters. It is also important if people believe they are well. This is particularly critical when analysing vulnerability because it can affect the victimisation of individuals who feel unsafe (Cardona et al., 2012; Luna, 2017).

The relationship between race and fear is not well researched. Researchers found that racial non-indigenes happen to be more prone to being crime victims and express fear more than natives (V. J. Callanan, 2012) However, more recently, the relationship between race and fear has been found to rely on a varied range of other factors including age, or gender (Fisher et al., 2015; Krahé, 2018). People of the lower class feel more vulnerable to victimisation because they are more vulnerable and cannot afford crime reduction or prevention devices such as security and locks (Liska & Baccaglini, 2017). Evidence has found that fear of crime can be more significant in homeless communities and people with high disorder in their neighbourhoods (Lehman et al., 2018).

2.3.5 Spatial Analysis of Crime and Victimisation in Urban Neighbourhoods

Several social groups have been affected by crime, which is a significant societal problem (Moore & Recker, 2017). Victimisation is the result of a person's or institution's purposeful activity to exploit, oppress, or injure another, or to damage or unlawfully obtain another's property or belongings (Singer et al., 2019). Several studies on the determinants of crime explore physical properties such as the land use type, spatial structure, and road configuration. This approach was based upon the study by Jane Jacobs

and subsequently extended by Jeffery in his CPTED (Jeffery & Zahm, 2019) and the Defensible Space Theory of Oscar Newman (Reynald & Elffers, 2019). Another set of studies hinged on the postulations of Shaw and McKay (1942). Their theory of social disorganisation of crime causation focuses on the neighbourhood residents' social characteristics, such as racial economic deprivation and residential stability and how they lead to strain and changes in their neighbourhoods (Cole, 2019). Whereas most previous research focused on various social factors to explain why some people are more likely to commit crimes, some recent studies stressed the role of physical elements in creating incentives for crime (Thomas et al., 2021). In addition, some recent studies reveal possible variables that enhance the probability of possible victimisation and identify crime as an occurrence that doesn't happen randomly. Therefore, it is essential to better understand the factors as well as the chance features that promote crime possibility (Almaw & Kadam, 2019 ; J. Wang et al., 2020).

Furthermore, a crime pattern is a series of crimes that share similar characteristics, such as the item stolen, the damage caused or the place in which they occurred. Research has been undertaken to establish factors that culminate in evolving crime patterns over time. Some of the factors are the surrounding environment, household characteristics, immediate architectural design, and planning characteristics (Gonzales et al., 2005). Moreso, the housing style is used as a variable in spatial planning as it concerns crime patterns (Cullen et al., 2012). Research also suggests that crime is influenced by social and physical factors (Winter et al., 2021). In addition, Frank et al. (2012) argue that the spatial structure, that is CPTED-based designs, has a significant impact (especially, an impeding effect) on the spread of crime. The spatial structure of crime has to do with crime mapping, in its basic form, it is the use of a Geographic Information System (GIS) to display and organise geographical data for more formal statistical analysis. Geographical analysis may be used in both exploratory and confirmatory contexts to determine how particular community or ecological elements (such as demographic characteristics of the built environment) impact spatial crime patterns. Frank et al.'s (2012) study focused on space, distance and direction of crime, social and spatial factors function in crime distribution. He clarifies that the directionality of crime and economic variables are heavily involved in the determination of a criminal space. Thus, any attempt to understand and explain the concept of crime, should not leave out the four concepts.

As reported by the Department of Statistics Malaysia (2020), the most common kind of criminal activities particularly in the Penang region of Malaysia include burglary and robbery (that is, events of theft of motorbikes and burglary). The Government of Malaysia has just launched the Safe City initiative to create

safer neighbourhoods. Therefore, it is necessary to address crime concerns and the efficacy of the implementation of CPTED to ensure that cities are secure and free from all physical, social, and emotional crimes. The effectiveness of Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) in the control and prevention of crimes related to spatial structure. Thus, the Malaysian government in implementing the Safe City initiative (which is a CPTED approach), demarcated pedestrian walkways from the motorist paths, provided street gates, improved the blighted environmental quality, made public roads open to public sight, and installed street lights to light up the dark corners of the city where crime can comfortably be perpetrated. This is because crime happens in space. This helped in the containment of crime and the overall improvement of the city. Thus, implementing CPTED will do great good in curtailing crimes relative to spatial structure as well as enhance the environmental quality (Kim et al., 2019).

The Malaysian setting shows that the influence of target hardening characteristics on the victimisation level is not substantial (Hedayati Marzbali et al., 2012b). Research has also shown that most home-breaking crimes in the region have been perpetrated through the front entrance since few inhabitants have made burglar alarms. Natural monitoring and community upkeep have considerable negative impacts on the victimisation rate (Tseloni et al., 2017). Research also shows that zoning, social disorder and safety regulations should be in line with attempts to protect residential stability since housing instability and decline in poor urban areas have to do with crime and other social issues (Boggess & Hipp, 2010; Cotton, 2017; Merrick et al., 2018).

2.3.6 Residential Housing Type and Crime

One of the key findings of Hipp et al. (2019) reveals that burglary rates vary by place of residence, irrespective of housing size. Tillyer & Walter (2019), in a study using data from several lower-income neighbourhoods, suggest that the danger of burglary in semi-detached and detached houses is more significant than in terraced houses and flats. Similarly, Park (2014) highlighted that housing type was an essential element contributing to the burglary risk. For instance, living in a detached house puts individuals more at the risk of burglary than living in a unit of apartments. In line with this evidence, Tillyer & Walter (2019) asserted that flats exhibit a lower crime rate than other residential structures.

Further evidence in the literature (Adani et al., 2020) found that semi-detached buildings were less of crime target because adjoining units could hear when intruders attempted to enter or entered neighbouring

apartments. A study by Freedman and Owens (2011) also found that semi-detached and detached housing units exhibit lower risk levels of criminal activity, particularly burglary. Also, a study by Ghasemi (2019) in Iran showed that burglary and other criminal tendencies are higher in the suburbs occupied by low-density structures of unit apartments and flats. Acolin et al. (2019), in their findings from research across Brazilian cities, showed a lower percentage of burglary victims among residents who occupy detached houses than those who occupy terrace housing, indicating a higher burglary crime rate. These assorted results from different works of literature may result from household characteristics, location, and socioeconomic characteristics. Thus, the relationship between housing type and crime is not explicitly conclusive in the literature.

From the review of relevant literature as it concerns the crimes committed in cities, it is quite evident that cities across the globe are faced with incredible rates of crime. The consequences of these crimes culminate in limitations in the economic and social growth of the city (Detotto & Otranto, 2010). There is an increase in the fear of crime amongst individuals, especially among women, children, and the aged who are defenceless against crime. It is obvious that while greeneries enhance the environmental quality if properly managed, on the other hand, they may be a risk by concealing criminals or crime if they are not properly managed. Additionally, the environmental quality of the city has a role to play in the crimes committed in cities. The fear of sexual crime in cities resulting from socialising with peers, particularly in cities of the Global South, has resulted in the withdrawal of several women from social gatherings. In addition, the housing type occupied by an individual has the propensity to incite fear of crime. That is to say, occupants of semi-detached houses are safer than occupants of detached houses.

2.4 Socio-Economic Characteristics and Crime

Family income can be used to identify both target attractiveness and possible offenders in burglary risk (Ramos, 2019). It is undeniable that family income is a significant determinant of the likelihood of being a victim of crime (Fierros-González et al., 2020). This demonstrates how crucial it is to include this aspect in crime research. Crimes, such as street crimes, are viewed with regard to the environment in which they occur. As a result, low income is linked to some of these crimes (Oluwaseyi & Simo Fotso, 2020). Furthermore, evidence implies that housing value is one probable burglary vulnerability indicator: and

that burglars select more valuable houses as targets (Caplan & Kennedy, 2019). The burglar's judgement and the crime rate are influenced by socioeconomic factors such as income level (Yin, 2017). Given factors such as socioeconomic factors and housing cost variability, it appears that communities and neighbourhoods that are poor have less residential stability and social network. This culminates in greater rates of crime and victimisation as compared to wealthy neighbourhoods with higher levels of place attachment (Davies & Johnson, 2015). Moreover, more research is needed to determine the relationship between individual socioeconomic status and place attachment. As Oluwaseyi and Simo Fotso (2020) argue, poor neighbourhoods have higher rates of place attachment than the wealthy.

The association between socioeconomic variables and CPTED principles has received minimal attention in studies. Some studies have linked CPTED and the functioning of the territory to demographic elements, implying that there is a correlation between neighbourhood stability and territoriality. According to research, CPTED principles help to increase neighbourhood stability while also lowering law enforcement expenses (Arabi et al., 2020). They hold that staying in a community for a more extended period increases residential strength and positively influences neighbourhood connection. From another perspective, low-income households are unlikely to afford security equipment, and as a result, they live in locations with high burglary rates. Poor residents in socially chaotic situations with low informal monitoring, low socioeconomic position, and degraded residential stability are more likely to commit crimes (Md Sakip & Abdullah, 2017).

Following the general strain theory, crime is an emotional response to a bad stimulus, whose origins could be economical in the long run but are often assumed to correspond to interpersonal processes on a more immediate level (Robert Agnew et al., 2009). This is to examine the probability of poverty and strain being potential measures to incite crime (Ibrahim & Ahmad, 2020). With the introduction of self-reported delinquency in criminology, the poverty theory of crime was called into question. Early surveys revealed that crime was far more evenly dispersed throughout various socioeconomic strata than previously shown in official data (De Nadai et al., 2020).

However, some studies do not agree that crime is related to socioeconomic status. For instance, Schneider (2011) suggests that the link between socioeconomic class and crime is "fiction." In addition, Bhorat et al., 2017) have been perplexed since their observation that the socioeconomic status (SES) and crime association were seldom predicted by the socioeconomic theory (Wassie et al., 2020). The proposed remedies to this problem can be divided into recommendations for better SES measurement and more

precise definitions of crime in SES. The question comes down to how SES is defined and quantified in terms of methodology. SES has several aspects, and how it is quantified can impact estimations of the likely “socio-economic gradient” in the phenomena being studied (Newman, 2018). Low SES appears to be connected to crime when the crime is rated in terms of severe delinquency, and is sensitive to sustained social disadvantage (Tan et al., 2011).

People who cannot meet their fundamental needs due to financial constraints, such as falling behind on bills or refraining from preferred activities, are generally in a crime-instigating social position that is not confined to crimes related to income such as, theft (Inzunza & Carlsson, 2021). According to Agnew et al. (2009), high-SES persons may have aspirations that they cannot accomplish, creating a scenario conducive to criminogenic frustration. People with low socioeconomic status, on the other hand, may be eligible for a transfer of income to save them from financial hardship. Regarding these theoretical advancements, risk factor assessments should incorporate various indicators that tap into diverse dimensions of disadvantage. As a measure of SES, it seems that the occupation-based income class is woefully inadequate.

According to Agnew et al. (2009) researchers have generally concentrated on a single form of strain at a time, which contradicts major beliefs in the stress or strain literature that emphasise the aggregate impact of numerous strains coinciding. However, the exact nature of this aggregate impact is unknown. A similar theoretical debate over the link between SES and crime is around the issue of causation versus selection. According to an extreme selection theory, the association is driven by an individual’s antecedent level of probability to commit a crime such as substance misuse, or impulsivity, which may cause both crimes and low SES independently (Akers & Jennings, 2019).

2.4.1 The Significance of Economic Characteristics in Crime Research

A newfound area in crime research is the issue of economic constraints, which has gained momentum owing to a significant rise in crime in the last century. Following Becker's innovative study on our understanding of criminal behaviour in 1968, Fleisher went on to argue that the link between crime and unemployment affects youths. (Fleisher, 1963). Fleisher's (1963) empirical research determined the relationship between crime and economic factors among juveniles. The study has been furthered by Durán (2016), exploring the economic factors and conditions that could affect criminal behaviour. These factors include unemployment,

inflation, inequality, and poverty, which affected economic growth and resulted in social problems such as social issues and crime, particularly among youths. Crime is a dangerous external phenomenon that has significant societal consequences. It is, therefore, appropriate to explore and implement viable and effective social and economic policies to combat crime. In carrying out the implementation of crime control and prevention policies, it is important that the socioeconomic determinants of crime are properly handled (Imran et al., 2018). One of the economist's primary goals is to design and test effective solutions (Heun & Brockway, 2019). Economic analysis must assist policymakers in pursuing and implementing the most appropriate and effective measures for proffering solutions to socioeconomic crimes. It is necessary to identify the factors that influence criminal behaviour and investigate the linkages between social and economic characteristics (Segeren et al., 2020).

Adeyemi et al. (2021) expand on Becker's analysis by looking at the correlation between economic distribution and income levels and their impact on criminal inclination and the rate of crime. Adeyemi opines that crime (especially property crime) is dependent upon the vulnerability level of the potential victim and the amount criminals earn from committing such crimes. In Adeyemi’s opinion, the genuine options offered to potential offenders can be estimated by the average level of the income of individuals whose income falls below the national average. In addition, research suggests that cities with lower incomes are connected with higher rates of crime, especially property-related crimes like burglary (Wrigley-Asante et al., 2016). Furthermore, an estimate of income disparity, the share of households earning less than half the average income, was connected to greater rates of crime (Ramos, 2019). The conclusion on the role of economic disparity, in particular, backs up the findings of Fleisher that economic disparity is connected to greater rates of crime. From the foregoing, this thesis suggests a link between socioeconomic disparity and crime.

Also, Groot & van den Brink (2010) suggest that education has the potential to 'civilise' people, diminishing the incidence of criminal behaviour. They opine that the average number of years of education completed by adults (over the age of 25) has a substantial and positive correlation with the number of property offences committed. The impact of the presence of the police, convictions, and the severity of punishment on the level of criminal activity is one of the primary topics in the pioneering study and the correlation between economic conditions and crime (Nagin, 2013). When deciding whether to commit a crime, people are expected to weigh the probability of being caught and the penalty associated with such a crime. According

to empirical evidence, both characteristics have a detrimental impact on crime rates. This is the consciousness that education instils in individuals that helps control and manage crime.

According to Bun et al. (2020), deterrence fundamentally aims at changing the cost of crime for every offender. In contrast, debilitation, and rehabilitation work by removing a group of sentenced criminals from the market for offences, either by placing them in legal labour markets or by secluding them from society due to antecedent events. The effectiveness of debilitation and rehabilitation is shown to be based on the rate of offenders' recidivism as well as their reactiveness to economic stimulants (Bun et al., 2020).

2.4.2 The Relationship Between (Un)employment and Crime

The unemployment–crime correlation is ambiguous in both its nature and the strength of the association (Janko & Popli, 2015). From early contributions to crime economics, researchers attempted to determine whether there was a link between crime and unemployment (Altindag, 2012). This is because it is widely assumed that most criminals are unemployed, despite various studies showing otherwise (Nordin & Almén, 2017). Many people who are employed also indulge in criminal activities. Guerci et al. (2021) explain that most criminals are actually employed. As a result, more attention will be paid to these aspects to proffer a clearer picture of the unemployment–crime correlation (Tripodi et al., 2010).

The fact that social scientists like Hagan (1993) and Gould et al. (2002) in the late 1970s found that the correlation between unemployment and crime (examined at the accumulative level) was inconsistent and also insignificant backs up Freeman's scepticism (Sugarman, 2015). Barone and Masciandaro (2017) recently published a comprehensive and clarifying overview of the different empirical and theoretical models of the relationship between unemployment and crime. They highlighted that most people who commit crimes are working, and that unemployment is not an essential indicator of crime. The effect of the labour market on criminal activity must then be examined. Truly, there is a distinction to be made between the general rate of unemployment and the rate of youth unemployment. It is also crucial to understand the difference between job opportunities and employment. Previous publications on the relationship between labour markets and crime focused primarily on the labour market – crime relationship and produced inconclusive results (Fallahi et al., 2012).

2.4.3 Issues of Income Inequality and the Role it Plays in Crime

One of the critical causes of crime is believed to be income disparity (Ramos, 2019). As previously stated, criminal acts can be driven by economic reasons (Kang, 2016). Many research articles have been written on this subject, and in recent years, intriguing and valuable research has been done on the inequality – crime correlation. Income disparities have widened significantly in the last 30 years, and crime rates have risen dramatically at the same time(Ramos, 2019. This section seeks to see if crime and income inequality are linked, but there must be care to separate inequality from the effects of poverty (Heimer, 2019). There are numerous effects of income inequality on crime that can be distinguished (Atems, 2020). According to Jacob (2011), in the economic theory of crime in locations of high-income disparity, impoverished people whose assets are exposed to theft and probable damage are more inclined to criminal propensities. Moreso, the strain theory contends that the more significant the gap, the greater the strain, and the more the incentives for poor people to indulge in criminal activities, especially, when confronted with relative success (Wemmers et al., 2018).

In general, crime causes may be distinguished into two categories: one that is strictly economic and another that is psychological. It is probable to claim that the impact of income disparity in society is dependent on the relative income position of the individual. In the case of the wealthy, rising income inequality is unlikely to motivate them to commit crimes (Braithwaite, 2018). For the poor, growth in income inequality may encourage crime because it suggests a wider income difference between the rich and the poor, indicating a possible cause for criminogenic occurrences. Growth in disparity may as well exhibit a crime-inducing impact by lowering the moral threshold of an individual, an incident known as the 'envy effect'. Consequently, rising inequality influences (at least some) the inclination of potential offenders to commit a crime. The next natural step is to figure out what produces income inequality in the first place (Kang, 2016).

According to various scholars, including Kaboub et al. (2010), significant growth in income inequality is one of the key drivers of rising delinquent behaviour. Chiu & Madden (2007) explored the link between crime levels and income distribution, suggesting that when income distribution becomes more unequal, the frequency of burglaries increases. Their research gives a theoretical explanation for an empirically confirmed association between economic inequality and property crime. The rise in differential inequality

means a rise in crime rates. Furthermore, a rise in progressive income tax lowers crime rates. Note that, according to the model of Chiu and Madden, more wealthy neighbourhoods may have lesser crime rates than poorer neighbourhoods due to reduced relative economic disparity or because the richest households in more affluent neighbourhoods deploy better burglary defence systems.

According to Jones (2021), young men are more likely to indulge in criminal activity compared to the rest of the population. Freeman et al. (1996) documented the increase in the involvement of poor young males, especially young black men in America, with less education in unlawful activities. In their research, aimed at evaluating the extent of criminal activity in society, they also demonstrated that crime has long-term adverse effects on their opportunity to get employed, and that committing a crime is only economically rational in the short term. As a result of a substantial drop in earnings and work options for less educated young men, this group has flooded the criminal market over the last two decades. With actual earnings declining, teenagers may have felt that they lacked a future in the regular job market (Bratsberg et al., 2019).

Another possible source of the rising involvement of youth in crime is related to income inequality in society (Doyle et al., 1999). According to Freeman et al. (1996), the rich have two critical effects on crime. Firstly, the richer the wealthy become, the higher the probability of the possible occurrence of robbery or burglary. Secondly, the probability of a possible increase in criminal opportunity as a result of greater wealth Grogger (2005). Research also discusses youth involvement in crime and the factors that lead to youth involvement in illegal activities. According to Imrohoroglu et al. (2005), youth arrest rates have grown dramatically due to widespread youth involvement in criminal activities. Furthermore, according to Grogger (2005), blacks in the United States are involved in more crimes than whites due to the income discrepancy between both groups. The black-white differences in crime rates could account for some of the disparity in crime rates if crime is reactive to wages.

2.4.4 The Significance of Education to Criminal Activities

This section investigates the relevance of education as it concerns criminogenic practices. This is to further examine the education – crime correlation deeply. Moreso, research suggests that the educational level gained, and the social and economic background of an individual appear to be inextricably linked to crime (Bovenkerk & Fokkema, 2016). Most criminals are not educated and come from a lower socioeconomic

base compared to non-criminals (Abdullah & Said, 2018). As a result, recognising low education as a factor of delinquent behaviour will enable us to develop productive and appropriate policies to raise educational and schooling levels in order to lower crime rates (Crime Prevention Through Education, 2018). This topic is intertwined with other factors that influence and decide crime rates, such as age and socioeconomic inequity. Most contributions that discuss how education affects crime emphasise how talents and skills are improved, increasing the number of people who take to legitimate means of livelihood and raising the rate of withdrawal from criminal behaviour. However, there are dividends to education not considered by people, implying that the societal gain from education is greater than the individual gain. Individual preferences are influenced by an indirect (non-market) effect of education (Ades & Mishra, 2021).

Crime has a massive societal costs as a negative externality (Canter & Youngs, 2016). If crime is reduced by education, then being educated could have significant social returns that individuals fail to consider. In this instance, the societal benefits of education may outweigh the personal benefits (Bell et al., 2021). This study examines whether crime has any relationship with education and determines constructive approaches to reducing crime. Given the high social implications of crime, even a slight fall in crime connected with education could be economically significant (Machin et al., 2012).

According to Lochner and Moretti (2004)), economists consider the significance of education in combatting and reducing crime rates for various reasons. Their explanations can be summarised as follows, first, education reduces the probability of delinquent behaviour by raising the rewards from legal work. In addition, jail is frequently used as a form of punishment for criminal behaviour. Schooling increases the cost of time spent outside the labour market by raising wage rates. Second, education may have a direct influence on the monetary or psychological advantages of crime.

Åslund et al. (2018) examined the relationship between education and crime, suggesting that education has a crime-impeding effect, implying that it reduces criminal behaviour. The students' and societal educational value, as far as earning potential is concerned, is a civic externality. Not only are students taught to follow the law and be patriotic, but they are also taught to be productive. An "anarchy" model includes externalities such as the civic externality in which people choose between farming, robbery, and schooling, which contributes to a dislike of bureaucracy. When civic externalities are ignored, estimates of the return to education are skewed downward. Education encourages good citizenship, as the author

states in the opening of his work. Schooling does more than build skills that improve one's ability to earn money, it also emphasises the ideals of hard work and honesty while upholding community standards and teaching people how to serve their communities (Anders et al., 2020). As a result, education has multiple applications in crime prevention. Education can increase skills and capacities, resulting in a higher income, more work alternatives, and a "civilisation" effect. Then, in general, and especially among young people, adequate and proper education or schooling plans can be highly advantageous in combatting and lowering crime.

2.5 Conclusion

A wide range of physical environmental factors at the street block and neighbourhood levels are useful in predicting crime-related outcomes, such as fear of crime and neighbourhood confidence (Lorenc et al., 2013). However, it is difficult to distinguish between the relative crime-prevention or fear-reduction impacts of redesign and the favourable effects of ongoing local social dynamics or organisational growth around the redesign endeavour. To summarise, the importance of the physical environment appears to be dependent on a variety of non-physical characteristics, as well as the sort of crime or crime-related consequence of the issue (Jeong et al., 2017). So far, research has taken four main theoretical approaches. These distinct points of view on the topic offer different points and methods of action to the practitioner. The integration of these several views may result in a more robust understanding of the link between crime and design (Blake, 2019).

Furthermore, according to Eyüboğlu and Eyüboğlu (2018), there is a link between crime, socioeconomic and sociodemographic factors (education level, income, employment status, inequality, age, gender, work position, and parental marital status). Most offenders commit crimes such as theft, vandalism, violence, rape, and abduction, and these crimes are a function of various characteristics such as age, education, the offender's occupation, and the family’s social and economic status (Dean et al., 2018). The offender's educational level and the social and economic status of their parents are the two broadest and most relevant variables in predicting reoffending or recidivism of criminals. Contingency plans and procedures must be put in place to guarantee that individuals who are expected to be serial offenders when released back into the community and society do not endanger the county's security and safety. Community-based educational initiatives, counselling, and psychotherapy might all be used to accomplish this (Kermen,

2018). In addition to the socio-demographic variables that affect crime, other variables also explored are socioeconomic and sociocultural factors.

CHAPTER THREE

THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL CONTROL AND SOCIO-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT ON CRIME

3.1 Introduction

Drawing from the previous chapter, particularly on socioeconomic variables, crime and socioeconomic variables intersect with a variety of areas, including geography, psychology, sociology, and anthropology (Mordwa, 2016). Crime is strongly influenced by family background and culture, social exclusion, poverty, wage and income inequality, level of education, and other socioeconomic variables that may influence a person's probability of committing a crime (Wykes, 2017).

Criminal activity may also increase in new emerging societies, and consequently, several countries around the world have been affected by corrupt practices made possible through poverty or deprivation (Alaeddin et al., 2019). On this basis, crimeare perceived differently in different cultures (Harris et al., 2018). Moreover, crime rates might be affected by a society's adaption to crime. People in many cultures display a high degree of adaption; that is, they do not seem to be concerned about the rise in crime rates but are rather careful of becoming victims, and as such they develop a high adaption to crime. However, the trend may not be applicable to some other societies where even the tiniest of crimes are reported to the law enforcement institutions. Worries may exist concerning the existence of crime and its relative repercussions. There is the fear amongst individuals of being victimised by crime perpetrators in the process of reporting their activities to law enforcement agencies (Geiger & Leček, 2018).

Alongside the working class and middle class, there is also a criminal class in some cities (Mahoney & Kearon, 2018). They are born into a life of crime as youngsters and grow up to be pretty proficient at it (Farrington & Welsh, 2012). Some of these children prefer to pickpocket, while others are involved in other social vices. It is frequently stated that jails and cells are now mere correctional centres where talent may be identified and developed (Wong et al., 2018). From the foregoing, it is suggested that criminals may be deterred from committing crimes if a robust police force combined with harsh penalties is in place (Paternoster, 2019). It has been argued that the death penalty is successful because a strong deterrence decreases crime (Kyambalesa, 2019). There is, however, little evidence that supports this view (Williamson, 2019). Some governments prevent the possible occurrence of minor infractions. In these

countries, crime levels may be low, yet they still exist. It is observed by Gorbenko (2020) that the diligence of the nation's ruling class may have the biggest effect on its crime rate. There is minimal chance of decreasing general crime levels if the government and businesses are seen to be corrupt and dishonest. This may change if the leadership demonstrates an increased rate of ethics and honesty. This chapter examines the influence of social control as well as the impact of sociocultural variables as it concerns crime propensity.

3.2 The Role of Social Interactions in Criminal Research

This section looks at how social factors play a role in explaining crime rates. It appears that social interactions, social characteristics, and social networks are all highly linked to criminal tendencies. Crime-prone areas may have fewer social penalties for committing crime and criminal activity may be contagious. Limiting access to good social interactions such as schools, public spaces, and parks impedes the opportunity cost of crime. Poverty in the neighbourhood and the absence of these social facilities can negatively impact opportunities to commit crime. Poverty in the neighbourhood, as well as a lack of social facilities, can reduce opportunities to commit crime (Ngutu, 2014).

According to Taylor et al. (2020), children who were raised in "crime-plagued neighbourhoods" are often associated with dangerous social outcomes. People who participate in criminal activities exhibit a lower level of human capital development, drop out of school, have less access to education, and an increase in adolescent pregnancy and families with single parents after childbirth are common. Moreso, neighbourhood traits that are linked to personal behaviour could be due to families with comparable qualities residing close to one another. In other words, individuals' decisions are influenced by their peer group (e.g., friends, schoolmates, parents, neighbours, and relatives) and their socioeconomic status.

Pezzin (2004) explored the impacts of family background and neighbourhood relations on youths' behaviours in low-income neighbourhoods, starting with the fact that unemployment rates for disadvantaged and less-educated youths have increased sharply since the early 1970s and poverty rates amongst families whose heads are youths have increased since the early 1970s. He concludes that the attitudes of families are strongly connected to the corresponding attitudes of youths. He also noted that neighbourhood peers' actions have a significant impact on youth behaviour. For example, a substantial rise

in the likelihood of an individual indulging in crime is related to living in a neighbourhood where a significant number of other teenagers are criminals. In addition, drug and alcohol use and the likelihood of youth being out of school have a significant neighbourhood peer effect (Arshad & Rahim, 2018). Hence, the probability of an individual engaging in criminal activities can be increased by family and peer influence (Icli & Coban, 2012).

3.2.1 The Impact of the Socio-cultural Environment on Crime in Cities

Events that are contrary to the prevalent laws and morals of any society are considered criminal (Oguntunde et al., 2018). However, looking at crime from the wider social process where it derives its meaning, it becomes clear that defining crime entails more than merely referring to the language of legislation. It can be said that the law has social foundations; it is shaped and influenced by the society where it works (C. Harbin Burt et al., 2012). Regarding this, the act of defining what comprises a law violation as well as subsequent measures of handling such behaviour is dynamic, fluid, ever-changing, and influenced by a variety of societal factors and events. These decisions are often not reflected by the incredible extent of the agreement. The way we comprehend and respond to certain acts, according to Parkovnick (2015), is, to a large extent, a projection of the way society is constituted rather than a mere sign of fundamental flaws with individuals categorised as criminals. For example, in the 1940s, Edward Sutherland popularised the concept of white-collar crime, challenging the widespread belief that delinquency was primarily a phenomenon of the lower class. Many evaluative thinkers followed, delving into the meaning of delinquency and associated control measures, exposing significant gaps and contradictions in the written law and how it functions and is enforced (Kirk & Papachristos, 2011).

Those who use rhetoric create stereotypes of criminals to spread fear of crime. As a result, the criminal justice system can also foster anti-immigration attitudes and policies by scapegoating immigrants. This will divert attention from the failures of the criminal justice system. Hence, law and order fear should be seen for what it is: a means of prolonging racism, providing an intellectual makeup for failures within the system, sustaining the ruling class, and serving as a social control instrument that guides working-class people (Ratnayake, 2016). On the contrary, some sects of the ruling class keep driving the realisation of crime, especially violent crime, to be beyond control because of the gain in disorganising electoral process (Solimano, 2013). Consequently, despite budget cuts in other parts of the government, criminal justice

remains a thriving industry. In reality, in nations such as the United States, where municipal and state governments do more than the provision of social services, they spend more on the criminal justice system (Abeling-Judge, 2020).

There is no getting around the fact that race and crime are inextricably linked (Peffley & Hurwitz, 2002). It is impossible to speak fairly about the interplay between the two without irritating or even provoking members of both the minority and majority groups across several cities. The truth is, it is far too bad that racism and ethnic differences affect the criminal justice system (Pettiway, 2006). There is a need to consider the responses of minorities to community violence, especially among their youth. As violence in the inner cities grew in the early 1990s. Historically, black colleges and universities in the United States (HBCUs) took action to combat it, especially among African American males, on the issue of the psychology of youths from communities of blacks, after observing youths residing in crime-plagued neighbourhoods resorting to violence as a means of survival.

Our decisions and contemplations on whether to indulge in crime are guided, effectively, by a survey of moral possibilities that we are not aware of. Everyday interactions shape our moral perspective (Jeffery & Zahm, 2019). Several individuals have lost touch in constructing a theoretical situation that isolates them from the environment and adapts to inauthentic landscapes as a means of creation. This loss can be seen in individuals' changing attitudes toward one another and society. In addition to its other characteristics, western civilization has lowered the importance of our intangible qualities. The credibility of those areas of individual existence that touch on the human spirit has been taken away. What makes Western civilization unique and modern is the extent to which it has been moulded by the desire for control over human existence in material circumstances (Kagan, 2014). The prevailing idea that what is important can be measured, touched, seen, and controlled reflects Western culture's loss of reliability in the intangible aspects of individuals' private and social lives. This means that significance and worth are attributed to things in individuals' daily lives. Individuals support those who claim that "things" will be better if "others" will do this or that. Alternatively, we become increasingly convinced of what we "know" or want to be true (Touraine, 2011).

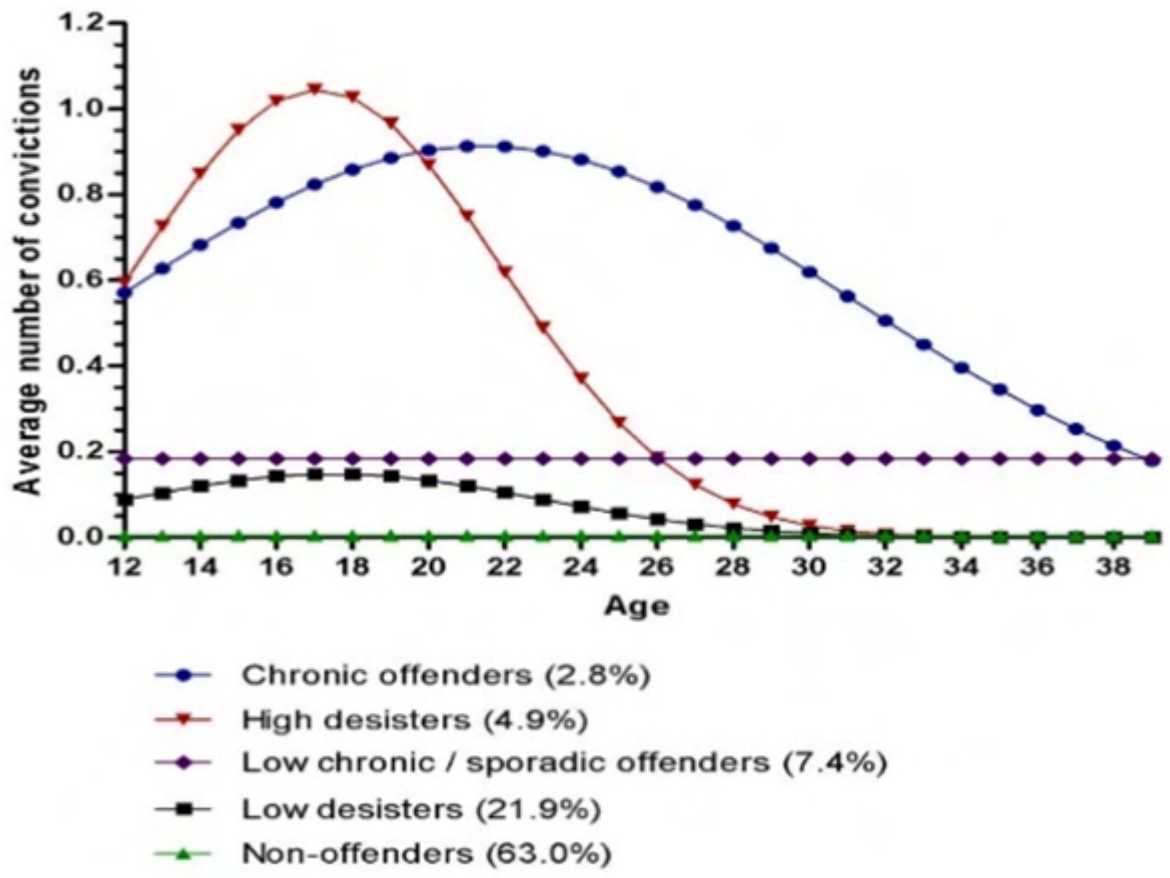
Human behaviour is affected by both genetic inheritance and experience (Gubanov & Gubanov, 2018). The growth of people is influenced by their surrounding social environments and situations as well as their genetic potential. The scientific theme is the correlation between genetic potential and experience, as well as their influence on human behaviour. Everyone is born into a social and cultural context that includes

religion, language, socioeconomic class, community and family, and they form many social ties throughout their lives. The characteristics of the social environment of a child influence how the child learns to behave and think, for example, via education, incentives, and punishment (García et al., 2019). The environment includes the neighbourhoods, schools, homes, and potentially local churches and law enforcement groups. Casual interactions between the child, his or her family, peers, and friends, as well as the news and entertainment media, are all included. Individual responses to these effects, or even which impact is the most powerful, are rarely predicted. However, how a person reacts to the same pattern of influences, that is, being raised in the same culture, is surprisingly similar (Smith & Bond, 2019).

In addition, behavioural patterns generated from culture, humour, and body language are over time embedded in the human psyche that they frequently work outside people's knowledge. Socially accepted human conduct varies by culture and time. In every social group, there are laid down rules and regulations generally adhered to by members. Universal conduct might be deemed humorous, repulsive, or even criminal. Some behaviours that are typical in one culture may be regarded as inappropriate in another. In a very collaborative culture, for example, fiercely competitive behaviour is deemed to be impolite. The social class of people is born with impacts on their language, diet, tastes, and interests as youngsters, thus viewing the social world (Bearden et al., 1979).

Furthermore, class influences the pressures and opportunities that people face and the pathways they take, such as marriage, occupation, schooling, and living standards. Despite this, many people live lifestyles that are not in conformity with the norm for their social class. This research draws attention to age as an element in crime at this point in the discussion. It is no surprise that youth crime rates are high. Because age strongly influences crime rates, it is frequently referred to as the “age-crime curve”. The age–crime curve *(see picture 3.1)* peaks in late adolescence for most people, and emphasises the tendency for crime to peak in a person's early years and then fall as they get older (Camilleri & Azzopardi, 2020). For example, data on robbery and burglary rates by age shows that the peak age of offending for both crimes is around 17.

Picture 3.1: Showing relationship between age and crime



https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Sytske_Besemer/publication/259344433/figure/fig4/AS:654410782887945@1533035097842/Age-crime-curves-for-sons-convictions-England.png

which is followed by a sharp fall due to the ageing of offenders (Ulmer & Steffensmeier, 2014). By the age of 21, the rate of burglary had fallen by 50%, but the rate of robbery had fallen to half its peak by the age of 25. Murder by age-specific patterns show a distinct way; the trends for such crime have shifted dramatically over the last decade. The period between 1965 and 1985 witnessed remarkably persistent rates of murder, with a peak encompassing age 18 to 24 across several American cities. People in this age group were the most likely to commit murder over 20 years, with the rate dropping to half the peak in the mid-30s. Then, starting in 1985, the murder rate began to shift abruptly, with an acute rise at the age of

18, rather than the more conventional flat peak throughout the 18 to 24 age range. Significant racial disparities exist in the indulgence of murder crimes, both in the change and rates since 1985 (Beck, 2021).

Despite both groups' murder rates being relatively steady from the mid-1970s to the mid-1980s, African American boys between 14 and 17 years of age have had murder rates that are four to five times those of white boys (Myers, 1980). Then, starting around 1985, both groups' rates rose, though blacks' growth rates were significantly faster. From 1976 to 1987, the yearly rate of murder for white males in this age bracket was 8.1 per 100,000, then nearly doubled four years later (from 7.6 in 1987 to 13.6 in 1991). Within those four years, the arrest rate of black males for murder within this age bracket more than doubled, from 50.4 to 111.8 per 100,000 (O'Flaherty & Sethi, 2010). This simply shows that financial capabilities and a sense of social responsibility affect the willingness to indulge in crime. There is a hazy understanding among the public about the relationship between the rise in violence and drug use among African American youths (Esbensen, 2014). Partially, this stems from an understanding that the illicit drug industry and its effects have significantly impacted many elements of criminal conduct, particularly in the last decade.

Beyond drug offences, the drug-crime link has been defined as having multiple forms: compulsive and economic crimes perpetrated by drug addicts to finance their addiction; and psychologically and pharmacologically induced crimes triggered by the substance's qualities. The most well-known link is between drinking and the violence it causes (Leidenfrost et al., 2018). Black American drug arrests have increased due to the large-scale recruitment of vendors into the market crack, which necessitated far more stringent business practices. The disparity in the rates of arrest between blacks and whites in the United States reflects the extent to which blacks indulge in drugs and related crimes compared to whites (Ulmer et al., 2012).

Thus, the sociocultural environment of an individual, as discussed in this section, has a significant impact on the inclination to criminal and delinquent activities. The degree to which an individual commits a crime could, to a large extent, be traceable to the sociocultural elements and determinants surrounding such an individual. In cities and neighbourhoods where sociocultural variables, including those discussed in the preceding paragraphs, as well as juvenile exposure to abuse, are left unchecked, crime is inevitable. This is because the more a child is exposed to violence and abuse, the greater the chance that violence will be seen as a way of life by the child. This breeds more crimes, hence, a rise in crime rates across cities.

3.3 Impact of Hot-spots Policing on Crime

According to Piza et al. (2020), over the last two decades, there has been a suggestion that police can effectively address chaos and delinquency when they concentrate on minor geographic areas with rising crime rates, otherwise called hotspots. Piza et al. (2020) described policing techniques and tactics as place-centred and called it "location-based policing" or "hotspot policing" *(see picture 3.2)*. The empirical basis for the effectiveness of hotspot policing in crime reduction and restiveness is very evident, and this has led to significant falls in chaos and delinquency.

Picture 3.2: Showing hot spot policing



Source: *https://sedibengster.com/wp-content/uploads/sites/118/2017/03/smooth.jpg*

Although there is substantial evidence that hot spot policing reduces crime and unrest in hot spots, little is known about if and to what extent such techniques would affect crime levels in more significant urban regions where similar strategies are adopted. Moreover, it is impossible to say if hot spot policing tactics implemented across jurisdictions would significantly impact overall crime patterns because of the lack of estimates of the approach's wider area.

Geographical displacement is not a significant issue in hotspot interventions, but may be crucial to the impact of hotspot policing. The concept of spatial crime displacement states that attempting to remove

crimes in one location will cause criminal activity to relocate to another, undermining any crime-control benefits (Ready, 2010). However, in their comprehensive assessment of hotspot policing, Yang et al. (2018) found that relocation to surrounding neighbourhoods is improbable in hotspot police programmes. Indeed, a diffusion of crime-control advantages in which the communities around the target hotspots also exhibit a reduction in disorder and crime was a more likely and substantial effect of such interventions.

Pollock (2012) changed prevalent cynicism about the police's ability to combat crime by shifting the geographic concentration unit. However, this shift in emphasis has limited the conclusions derivable from those investigations. It is known that crime can be reduced by hotspot policing in specific areas, but it is not known if such efforts can lower crime generally in a major city. Results from previous reseaches cannot be relied on to provide a direct response to this topic. It is quite challenging to determine whether crime is generally reduced by the engagement of hot areas policing in cities (Warrag & Abd Elmajed, 2019)

There are several assumptions and conclusions concerning the implications of hot spot policing in larger cities. Drastically, hotspot policing can enhance crime reduction in persistent hot crime areas with minimal proof of displacement. Consequently, prevalent rates of crime in cities decrease rapidly. Theoretically, this approach might be used to quantify the total jurisdictional implications of hotspot policing. de Brito and Ariel (2017) found that making information readily available to police about how unassigned police patrol time is used made it possible for them to boost patrols in places with high crime rates in a randomised trial in Dallas, Texas.

Contrary to the assertions above, Santos and Santos, (2021) and Connealy (2021), questioned the effects of policing methods on cities with high crime rates. Consequently, there is doubt about the police's ability to combat crime in any way. For example, Audu (2021) found that crimes are not prevented by the Police. This is a hidden truth in modern life. Police officers and experts know about it, but it is not the case with the rest of the population. There is a presence in the police department to be the best criminal defence in society, suggesting if they were given more resources, particularly human resources, they would protect communities from crime (Hope, 2018).

However, despite several arguments about whether hot spot policing helps in the prevention and control of crime in cities, several crimes including rape, murder, homicide, kidnapping, trafficking, and burglary have decreased. There are many challenges faced by the police in ensuring effective policing.

Nevertheless, decrease is associated with the fear of being caught in action by the police. The fear of police arrest has restrained several potential criminals from indulging in criminal activity. That is to say that hot spot policing against opposing views has a positive effect on the prevention and control of crime in cities. The mere knowledge of an active police patrol team in cities, especially cities of the Global South, delays criminals from crimes.

3.4 Religious-based Violence in Nigeria

Many civilisations have used religion as a tool for societal cohesion; however, it has also been used to motivate violence, labelling it a "double-edged sword" in some publications (Babatunde et al., 2014). Religious fanatics have, in the name of religious beliefs, tried to legalise violence since the dawn of humanity. Terrorist attacks and other acts of extreme violence are frequently rationalised as "holy warfare" (Kassamali, 2011). Religion has been at the heart of the world's most deadly conflicts over the past two centuries, earning its recognition as one of the world's top security issues in the aftermath of the Cold War (Juergensmeyer, 2019a). Communities split across religious faiths are more inclined to severe and long-term disputes than civilizations separated along territorial, political, or racial lines. Perhaps this explains why religious violence is at the top of Nigeria's security priority list (Montalvo & Reynal-Querol, 2005). Religiously inspired violence has afflicted the nation beyond every other threat to security. Various causative examinations of the religious crisis in Nigeria abound (Sulaiman, 2016). Still, much of the research in this field addresses underlying economic, governance, and socio-political factors resulting in not only violent disputes but also religious disputes in general (Olorunnisola, 2020).

Nigeria's primary religious groupings are Christianity and Islam, which have a combined total of nearly 180 million people (Stonawski et al., 2016). There are estimates from the DHS and GHS panel Survey concerning these religious organisations' numerical strength or geographical dispersion, but these are only estimates not taking account of migration and conversion, as the National Census was last conducted 2006. Nonetheless, the Islamic faith predominates in the north eastern and north western regions (comprising Sokoto, Borno, Yobe, Kebbi, Gombe, Adamawa, Jigawa, Kano, Taraba, Katsina, Adamawa and Bauchi states). However, Christianity is more prevalent in the geographical zones of the South-South and South-East (including Imo, Abia, Enugu, Anambra, Cross River, Edo, Delta, Ebonyi, Rivers, Bayelsa, and Akwa Ibom states). The Christian and Muslim populations of the North-Central and South-West zones, which

include (Ekiti, Ogun, Oyo, Osun, Lagos, Ondo, Nassarawa, Kogi, Kaduna, Plateau, and Kwara states) and (Benue, Kaduna, Niger, Kwara states, and also the Federal Territory, are balanced respectively. Traditional religion, despite its marginalisation, maintains a significant share of followers and is by no means immune to religious violence (Wlodarczyk, 2013). For example, traditional masquerade practices have been a significant cause of conflict in Kwara, Nassarawa, and Kogi states (Flint et al., 1998; Sulaiman, 2016).

Since Nigeria returned to democracy in 1999, a claimed traditional breach of a religious ceremony sparked the most recent outbreak of religious violence. Due to the lack of an adequate statistical database, it can be difficult to estimate the exact number of deaths in Nigeria related to religious conflicts (Salawu, 2010). There have been generally accepted assumptions about the exponential increase in religious violence since 1999, when democratic rule returned. However, official statistics suggest that at least 95% of all religious crises have occurred in the north (Onah, 2014). A subculture of reciprocal intuition and destructive strife has developed between Nigeria's two broadest religious communities due to long-standing religious rigidity. Even though religious freedom is explicitly guaranteed by section 38(1) of the Nigerian Constitution and the declaration of a state religion is prohibited under section 10, religious conflict has not decreased as state patronage and veneration of the two dominant religious groups have contributed to the tensions and rivalry. As a result, contentions among Muslims and Christians in Nigeria have frequently led to severe inter-religious violence (Sulaiman, 2016).

The literature focuses on determining the economic, governance, and socio-political factors that inspire violent religious disputes in Nigeria. Rather than looking at remote societal forces that drive religious violence, attention has been drawn to the apparent reasons that generate it (Juergensmeyer, 2019). A careful examination of the remote economic, governance, and socio-political factors instigating religious violence in Nigeria reveals that oppression, neglect, bigotry, victimisation, exploitation, marginalisation, discrimination, and nepotism are predisposing factors to religious disputes (Salawu, 2010; Jegede, 2019). Salawu (2010) also identifies the causes behind brutal disputes in Nigeria from the time of the inauguration of democrats as the fragility of state institutions regarding their capability to control corruption, diversity, increasing disparity between the poor and the rich, environmental degradation, land contestations, and glaring human rights violations. Adegbami and Uche (2016) explain that a failure of governance causes Nigeria's reoccurring sectarian violence, whilst Omotosho (2003) suggests insolent publications and literature from both Muslim and Christian elites are the principal sources of the nation’s religious violence.

According to Ngbea and Achunike (2014), inter-religious conflicts in Nigeria are caused by a misunderstanding of people in other religious faiths, a lack of religious attitude, the low literacy level of religious adherents, the selfishness of religious people, government religious indulgence, and pervasive poverty. Salau (2020) compiled 70 of the causes of strife among religious groups in Nigeria, though the list is still incomplete. He identified both socio-political and economic forces and immediate elements that contributed to religious violence in Nigeria.

To begin the discussion about the causative elements of Nigerian religious violence, extremism, fundamentalism, and intolerance were purposefully chosen because they serve as the foundation (substructure) for subsequent outcomes of religious violence (Ameer et al., 2017). Intolerance as regards religion is defined as the hatred of other religions, and the failure of fanatics to reconcile the doctrines of their religion with their practical applications (Law, Religion and Human Rights in Nigeria, 2008). This includes bigotry, the adamant and uncompromising adherence to one's thoughts and preconceptions, particularly the display of hostility and intolerance against people with different beliefs (Rosenbaum, 2014). Among the roots of religious delinquency, intolerance has been spotted across several cultures since the dawn of time, pervading all kinds of human civilisation and accompanied by destructive tendencies (Hobolt et al., 2011).

Extremism and fundamentalism, as regards religion, constitute symptoms of intolerance and are like them (Berger, 2018). There are three viewpoints on religious fundamentalism: (1) a cognitive point of view, in which the term relates intimately with a personality type that portrays literality, particularity, moral rigour, and exclusivity (2) a theological or cultural viewpoint in which the term connotes resistance to cultural and religious liberalism in the protection of religiousness and orthodoxy (3) and lastly, a psychological standpoint, in which the term expresses opposition to religious and cultural (Vorster, 2008). Religious fundamentalism is, in the end, a movement whose main purpose is to emphasise the literal interpretation of religious doctrines as well as rigid adherence to them, especially as a return to traditional scriptural prescriptions and doctrines. It strives for strict commitment to the traditional truths of certain faiths in Nigeria. For instance, Islam and Christianity detest modernism, which tends to distort or reduce basic beliefs. Consequently, religious fundamentalists place impeccable value on "correct doctrine" as well as "the need for joint combat against modernism" (Turaki, 2007 pg 7).

Most times, violence are not caused by religious fundamentalism and intolerance; but the extreme manifestations of intolerance and fundamentalist ideologies (Brizay, 2018). Fundamentalists who follow

religious fundamentalism to the absurd extreme of being violent to those with opposite beliefs are religious extremists. Religious radicals believe that if people do not follow their beliefs, they will be punished (Walklate & Mythen, 2016). They despise other faiths' preaching and take to violence to stop it. They are adamant that their religious beliefs must be incorporated into law throughout the world and that economic, political, and social systems should be built on their beliefs. In religious extremism, any changes to society are rejected, especially when they are not in favour of their beliefs. In a hierarchy of intolerance, religious extremism is the most severe and lethal sort (Turaki, 2007). Hence, religious crimes and violence are a consequence of non-adherence to national policies and laws. Also, as a result of the desire to dominate over every other religion in society and the desire for political power (Murphy, 2015).

3.4.1 Critical Issues Resulting from Religious-based Violence in Nigeria

It is crucial to understand Nigeria's two major religions' willingness to compromise on religious issues before determining why these religious adversities occur. Could they possibly be liberal or dogmatic? Can Christianity or Islam agree to relinquish any theological or doctrinal rights to fulfil societal needs? (Dreisbach, 2019). The temporal authority theory says Christianity enjoins Christians to practise obedience to political, economic, and social orders authorised by secular power, if there is no clash between its worship and these orders. As a way of life, Islam encapsulates all aspects of law, politics, and cultural interactions; therefore, it is described as total submission to Allah (God) as revealed in the Quran through his messenger (Abikan, 2017). Oyekan (2003 pg 11), in his description of Islam's regulation of Muslim life states, "Islam does not permit a limited religious view by limiting it to specific philosophies, rites, and rituals inside the confines of worship." In its most literal sense, Islam is more than just a religion; it is a lifestyle that encompasses every aspect of life, both personally and nationally.

A sect of Islam holds an absolutist view of Islam, which considers Jihad a tool for excluding Islam from modernization as well as its perceived interference with traditional values. In Nigeria's Muslim-dominated north, where strict adherence to Islamic tradition, or Wahhabism, is constantly expanding, this explains why there is such a high level of religious violence (Sampson, 2012). While other religious groups may have the right to follow the same ethics, Wahhabi Islamic fundamentalists respond violently to any interference with sharia law. As a result, in their endeavour to conserve a pristine Islamic condition,

radicals have consciously or mistakenly infringed on other people's rights, triggering religious conflict (Ngbea & Achunike, 2014).

Both the Maitatsine riots of 1980 and the current Boko Haram sectarian violence result from a dogmatic commitment to the doctrine of sharia. They support the Jihad of Islam as well as the destruction of Western civilisation (Onuoha, 2012). Islam's desire to maintain its purity in a multicultural, multi-religious society was equally responsible for Tafawa Balewa's religious crisis in Bauchi state in 1991. Because pork meat is considered haram (forbidden) in Islamic sharia, Christian pork traders were attacked at the Tafawa Balewa market's public abattoir (Adebayo, 2015). The Miss World violence in Kaduna in 2002 was also sparked by Muslim resistance. Muslims believe that the sight of ladies parading themselves in semi-naked garments and prancing in front of an adoring crowd was against Islamic principles (Onuoha, 2012). The Secretary-General of the Nigerian Supreme Council of Islamic Affairs (SCIA) argued that holding the event during Ramadan insulted Nigerian Muslims (Fafore, 2019).

Modest Christians and Muslims detest nudity. Though they are willing to accommodate reconstructing social ethics under secular authority, yet their aggressive attributes and constraints, and their likelihood of objecting to the occurrence are still projected, thus, they oppose it in mosques, churches, and other places of worship. Moreover, the exhibition of Islamic fundamentalism was the catalyst for the brutal attacks of Christians by Islamic extremists who linked the occurrence to Christianity. This also highlights the widespread misunderstanding among Islamic devouts, who typically equate Christianity with profanity since it allows for allegedly immoral or twisted social, economic, and cultural activities. In actuality, the Biblical principle of letting Caesar and God do what is legitimately theirs underpins this liberal acceptance of secular priorities and the widespread acceptance of secularity that, at the turn of the 17th and 18th centuries, swept Western civilisation (Eggert & Hölscher, 2013). As a result, notwithstanding its inconsistency with the requirements of their faiths, modest Muslims and Christians are inclined to adapt to and obey the secular legitimate order (Adebayo, 2015).

In other Christian-majority states, this ideology is the polar opposite. Furthermore, while the Muslim and Christian Pilgrims' Commission has been set up by the federal government with state funding, certain northern states have single pilgrims' commissions, while others are not inclusive. The clerics are given significant responsibilities as well as entitlements on an official basis according to whatever religion has greater strength numerically in a state, while the others are marginalised. In certain jurisdictions, the governing religion restricts the availability of certain benefits to other religious organisations, such as land

for the construction of worship centres or radio slots for religious broadcasts. This mindset results in political and economic favouritism for the favoured religious group(s), while others are marginalised (Onuoha, 2012).

Hackett (2011) asserted that in 16 northern states, Christians have been denied access to electronic media, while in the same area, Islam enjoys a 24-hour broadcast monopoly. Muslims broadcast aggressive words about Christianity every hour. They believe that people only go to church on Sundays to dance and listen to music. It is not surprising to hear religious organisations complain about being marginalised by economic and political privileges and government jobs, including political perks. Attitudes like this generate inter-religious strife and encourage religious sentiments to influence political and economic policy (Angerbrandt, 2018).

In the 1987 Kafanchan religious riots, immediately after the start of the violence, news reports on Radio Kaduna said that Muslims were being slaughtered mercilessly by Christians, who set fire to their mosques and copies of the Holy Qur'an before exiling them from town. The news claimed that a peripatetic preacher blasphemed Prophet Mohammed's name by misquoting the Qur'an and encouraging the slaughter and burning of Muslim mosques by Christians (Tridiani Febrisia, 2019). The reports sparked Muslim retaliation across Kaduna state, resulting in a significant loss of life and property. As a result, the media has been charged with having fanned the flames of religious disputes through aggressive and inflammatory news reports by religious leaders. During religious upheavals, news headlines like *'hundreds of Christians killed near Jos by Islamic assailants', 'Christians in central Nigeria slain by Muslims', and 'about 400 – 500 Christians slaughtered by Muslims in the Jos crisis'* (Amin & Afzal, 2015), and these repeated events have led to continuous tension in most Nigerian cities.

The Nigerian state has implemented several policies and legislative and constitutional measures to handle religious strife and violence since the early 1980s. They include: (i) the debarment of religion as a guide in the plan, performance, and survey of national population censuses (ii) the establishment of the Nigeria Inter-Religious Council (NIREC) in 2000 to promote interfaith cooperation and dialogue and (iii) the legitimate institution of the Federal Character Commission (FCC) to watch over the predominance tendency of one religion; (iv) the restriction of religious appellations on bank registration (v) the political implementation of the power-sharing consensus between Muslims and Christians as well as the north and south (Arifianto, 2020).

According to Elsanousi (2017), despite these control measures, a distinct lack of a long-lasting strategy to comprehensively address the remote and immediate causes of religious violence and a long-lasting strategic solution for their control exists. As a result, the aforementioned control measures have been mainly responsive, remaining incoherent, incomprehensive, uncoordinated, and ultimately ineffectual. The government prefers short-term reactionary actions to suppress violent religious impulses over a holistic conflict management approach. The Nigerian government's reaction to religious disputes since 1980, has favoured the use of vengeful brutality and the ad hoc formation of a legal investigation committee, which often seldom has the political will to implement the recommendations (Rasak et al., 2018).

Forming an inquiry team in Nigeria to look into the reasons for religion, as well as several other sorts of violence, has become a cliché (Salawu, 2010). White papers are frequently created but seldom implemented. However, some critics have claimed that the Nigerian government's aversion to implementing the suggestions stems from the incorporation of religion into politics and the absence of a political will, making things more complicated (Muzakki, 2014). The state, like transitional justice, is frequently torn between prosecuting perpetrators of religious violence and exacerbating, if not perpetuating, the violence. This is because, under such circumstances, guilt extends beyond the overtly involved foot soldiers. In most situations, highly reputable groups and individuals, such as state public service bureaucrats, the economic sector, the academics, and the armed forces, provide masterminding and tactical planning responsible for religious disturbances (Rasak et al., 2018). Consequently, prosecuting such individuals instead leads to enhancing the whole dispute. As a result, no government proposal concerning religious violence was ever implemented, only retaliatory measures, which even spawned more violence (Ratelle & Souleimanov, 2017). As a result, the hatred of other religious beliefs and the extreme desire by a religious group to declare a state religion, particularly in cities of the Global South such as Nigeria, has resulted in a significant increase in crime, particularly violent crime.

3.4.2 The Role of Religion in Curbing Crime

Many criminals may have chanted, "The devil made me do it!" in the age of the demonological conception of crime. During this period, in the late 17th and early 18th centuries, the offender was viewed as a sinner possessed by demons or doomed by transcendent powers (De Klerk, 2017). Religion has played a key role

in how Western nations have dealt with offenders since then. From the 4th century AD to the Middle Ages, there was no significant difference between crime and civilization. As a result, penalties for misbehaviour were derived from Roman Catholic theology and established by following Biblical precepts like ‘an eye for an eye’. Consequently, religion infiltrated every aspect of colonial European society, with early beliefs that some people had been preordained by God to be criminals (Rotenberg, 2017).

It is not unexpected that subsequent social change agents constructed penal institutions, parole, and probation as venues for criminals to pay for the misdeeds they have committed and accept a divinely righteous lifestyle. (Cruft et al., 2011). As a result, several sociologists have promoted the idea that religious devotion and engagement impede criminal behaviour in later centuries. The repression of criminal behaviour by religion eventually became a focus of empirical research. “Hellfire and Delinquency,” ground-breaking research by Hirschi & Stark (2017 pg 1), paved the way for empirical research into the religion–crime correlation. Based on Durkheim's assessment of religion as "necessary to ensure and maintain compliance with social values". Sumter et al. (2018), observed no difference in the propensity for criminal activity between regular and non-regular church visitors. Butts et al. (2003) assert that there was no difference in criminal inclination between students who trusted in the Devil and life after death and those who did not.

Nonetheless, DiIulio, (2009) in his re-conceptualization of religion and delinquency, contended that sustaining religion through contact and building a common consensus on the necessity and value of religion encourages compliance to social values, as well as supports religion as a structural defence against crime. Moreover, the results from empirical research throughout the last 40 years on the crime-religion correlation are indecisive and inconsistent. Empirical research suggests that religion and crime have an inverse connection. This is because empirical studies suggest that rather than increase, religion decreases the likelihood of crime (Heaton, 2006). Whereas this correlation seems feasible, other studies such as Johnson & Schroeder, (2014) argue that religion has no impact on delinquent conduct, implying that the correlation between crime and religion is inconsistent.

Given various interpretations of religion, and it is often understood, the religious-crime correlation between sociological and criminological studies remains ambiguous, despite its popularisation being inverse (Sumter et al., 2018). Sociological and criminological studies’ ability to scientifically analyse the crime-religion correlation is harmed by this contradiction in conceptualising religion. According to Sumter (2018), the method used to estimate an individual’s level of religiosity is critical in examining the crime-

religion correlation. As stated by various social scientific fields, their ability to accurately characterise and operationally analyse the core meaning of religion has been impeded (Clear & Sumter, 2002).

Scholars are prone to employing representative measures that just scratch the surface of religion's fundamental significance as a social establishment, posing a particular difficulty to empirical research on the religion-crime relationship. Nonetheless, two major theories of religion exist, both of which are based on Durkheim's and Marx's ideas. Religion, according to Durkheim, is a set of sacred ideas and rituals that establish a virtuous group or aggregate of voluntary individuals who commit to basic beliefs and activities while being integrated into the greater social construct and controlled toward virtuous behaviours (Tiryakian, 2021). Religion is an ideology employed to legitimise repressive social systems that perpetuate inequality and hierarchy. Despite their differing perspectives, both Durkheim and Marx agree that religion is a social control mechanism. As a result, religion is a set of beliefs and practices that are taught and imbibed in people to influence their actions and decisions. As a result, self-control and social control have been suggested as possible meddlers in the religion-crime correlation.

The conclusions of current studies on the correlation between religion, crime, and self-control agree that low self-control levels increase criminal/deviant conduct (Reisig et al., 2012). For example, the more devout individuals are to religious rites and activities, the less likely they are to have poor self-control and, as a result, to engage in delinquent behaviour (Evans et al., 1995). Additional research, on the other hand, highlights the independence of important social qualities and self-control in predicting criminal/deviant behaviour. Barton-Crosby (2020) found that whereas morality and self-control had substantial effects on delinquent/aberrant tendencies, morality had the most decisive influence. These findings suggest that self-control alone is insufficient to explain criminal behaviour and that other variables should be included when analysing the religion-crime association. According to existing evidence, higher degrees of religion contribute to higher levels of social control, which lessens the chance of criminal offending (Obasola, 2013).

Obasola (2013) found that the greater youths' disapproval of delinquency, the lower their interaction with delinquency-affirming peer groups, and the lower their involvement in delinquency, the stronger their religious commitment, partly through their degree of involvement in religious activities and practices that socialise moral transgressions of criminal behaviour. Despite these findings, there is a paucity of studies on the role of self-control, social control, and religion in delinquent/aberrant tendencies. Members of society actively subscribed to fundamental sets of beliefs, according to Durkheim, which either absorbed

them into society's fabric or guided individual behaviour and decisions, promoting pro-social behaviour. Horii (2017) highlighted that Karl Marx is known for his investigation of religion. Unlike Durkheim, he largely focused on the extent to which religion functioned as an ideology capable of legitimising socioeconomic systems that maintained social injustice. Regardless of Marx's focus on religion's role in prolonging disparities, crucial sections of his work show that adherence to religious ideas was a necessary component of such control (Kotzé, 2021).

The study of religion and crime necessitates an examination of Durkheim's theory of religion as well as a discussion of Karl Marx's views on religion. According to Durkheim, religion is composed of core sets of ideas and practices associated with sacred objects. As Durkheim calls it, these behaviours bring people together to form a moral society or a church. Thus, society instils in its members several values that are negative to criminal proclivities. Members are made to believe that committing crimes against one another is more like committing them against the creator. As such, religion impedes the propensity to commit crime. The essential parts of religion are examined in the next section and how they relate to exercising control over an individual as a means of controlling crime and delinquency.

3.4.3 Self-control and Religion in Crime Propensity

When studying self-control, academics have traditionally looked at how internalised attitudes, beliefs, ideologies, and values might impact an individual's behaviour. As a result, when it comes to criminal conduct, individuals who have adopted a system of beliefs, philosophies, attitudes, and values castigating it are less likely to engage in it. One example of a system that integrates these aspects is religion. The Self-control theory, proposed by Akers & Jennings (2019 pg 11), states that people who have a high level of self-control, defined as "the differential inclination of people to shun illicit behaviour regardless of context," are less likely to commit crimes or participate in abnormal behaviour. When criminogenic opportunity structures are available in specific conditions, individuals with poor self-control are more prone to criminal/deviant behaviour (Callie H. Burt, 2020). As a result, the degree to which individuals can employ self-control is defined after it is learnt during childhood through parenting and socialising, if this is not learnt it simply means as Henry Thomas Buckle puts it “Society prepares the crime; the criminal commits it.

The ability to exercise restraint to prevent criminal activity is usually retained. Self-control, once achieved, remains constant throughout one's life and is resistant to change (Higgins & Osborne, 2015). The current evidence supports Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) assumptions that individuals' criminal tendencies are influenced by self-control. Kerley et al. (2011), for example, investigated if personal Christian religiosity (i.e., frequency of prayer, attendance at religious meetings, the importance or significance of beliefs, religious interpretation, or liberalism) was associated with future wrongdoing (i.e., the probability that respondents are likely to engage in illegal gambling, petty theft, assault, and tax evasion in the future). Their study focused on Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) claim that the antecedent influence of self-control comes in part through links between imprudent conduct, fraud, social variables, and force.

Given the importance of self-control in supporting people in adhering to the fundamental standards of their moral society and conforming to and safeguarding social ties, the link between social variables such as religion and criminal offending appears implausible. Individuals also internalise and operationalize critical ideas of their religion through self-control, which further governs and steers individual behaviour toward conformity. In contrast, Higgins & Osborne (2015) found that religion was not dependent on self-control from earlier years to predict future misconduct. Instead, socioeconomic factors (such as level of education, family negligence, race, age, gender, and childhood habitation type) revealed that religiosity and self-control work independently. This implies that high levels of religiosity and self-control impede the probability of misbehaviour in the future.

While it is clear that self-control has deterrent effects on criminal behaviour, existing literature such as Antonaccio & Tittle (2008) contradicts Gottfredson and Hirschi's argument that it provides the best determinant of criminal behaviour. To establish their relative predictive strength, Antonaccio and Tittle distinguished the effects of morality (i.e., contextual, and specific actions and dynamic moral beliefs) and self-control on criminal tendency. Religion, defined as childhood religiosity, was used as a control variable in their study (i.e., the degree to which respondents were religious as children). According to Antonaccio & Tittle (2008), it is not only the lack of self-control that adversely affects criminal inclination, but also morality that is even more strongly associated with the tendency.

In a separate study, Kim et al. (2019) looked at the validity of the religious-crime link after controlling for individual variances in self-control in various multivariate circumstances. In three major domains, religion was defined by how often people pray and attend religious meetings (religious activity), the extent their religious beliefs are imbibed in them (religious devotion), and personal acceptance of life after death

(religious view). Independent of self-control, Kim et al. (2019), found that all spiritual practices lowered the risk of people participating in ascetic offending significantly (i.e., individual gratification is banned in many religious precepts and criminal codes but not wholly rejected by the general society). However, in the case of secular offending (that is, behaviours that are law-breaking with intense standards against conduct portrayed by devout and non-devout people), all spiritual denominations were minor, the total of all control measures, with self-control emerging as the most significant predictor. Thus, in this case, religion has a possible inhibitory influence that is not self-control dependent, depending on the nature of the transgression.

Hence, literature suggests that self-control is a powerful predictor of criminal behaviour, but religion also appears to have a significant independent effect (Sumter et al., 2018). By incorporating attitudes, philosophies, and values associated with a specific faith, one can reduce criminal behaviour. Furthermore, current studies show that other characteristics, such as morality, are more important in predicting the adverse crime-religion correlation relationship compared to self-control; the crime-religion correlation is not solely determined by self-control.

3.4.4 Social Control and Religion in Crime Propensity

Since self-control can be induced through religion, it can equally be debated that specific component of faith can be used to exert social control. When social scientists look at religion as a social control measure, they usually focus on how belonging to a religious community can influence people's decisions and behaviours. In this view, behaviour regulation is primarily about satisfying the group's expectations and maintaining a relationship. Failure to conform to specific practices is seen as a violation of the religious group's standards. As a result, individuals may avoid engaging in aberrant activities to avoid being shunned by their peers. Furthermore, it has been suggested that participating in religious activities is a sort of social control (Hoffmann, 2015).

According to Sambhaji (2016), there is an essential link between youth socialisation and “strong moral beliefs”. Desmond et al (2008), found that children were taught from a tender age that criminal behaviour, irrespective of the kind, from theft to drug abuse, was against morality, and they should not engage in it. The idea that "religiosity reduces delinquency largely because religious participation boosts his or her disdain for delinquent actions" and reduces the connection of teenagers to delinquent peer relations is

based on a youth's commitment to their religious views. In their evaluation of earlier crime and religion studies, Knudten and Knudten, (1971 pg 14) presented similar conclusions. Knudsen and Knudsen found that “criminal behaviour is a by-product of our society's implicit assumptions,” and such assumptions were ingrained in our modern society's ideas of crime. Consequently, Knudten and Knudten questioned the extent to which religion fosters social control as well as the impact of religious insights on public policy. Their research found that, in many cases, obsessive religious organisations would abstain from any form of criminal action, demonstrating religion's social control over a society's sustainability.

According to the findings of Sherkat and Ellison (1999), socialisation within religious households, as well as social position, gender, and events in the course of life as well as ageing, had a direct impact through the communication of ideologies and values. The factor of commitment in social bond theory was also influential in guiding people against crime. In addition, in line with existing studies, the more religious organisations' social control fostered, the lesser the probability of group members indulging in criminal activity. As a social control agent, religion supports conformity and minimises the risk of deviance/crime by incorporating virtuous patterns and embracing social standards (Paraschiv, 2013). However, it is questionable if religion alone can diminish an individual's proclivity for crime and deviance. As a result, Paraschiv (2013) scrutinised the effect of religious factors (such as religious affiliation, religious salience, and religious engagement) on several delinquent indicators (including property theft, vandalism, substance abuse, and assault). Paraschiv (2013) found that social control variables mediated the religion-crime nexus despite supporting the adverse association between religion and delinquency. Similarly, in determining the impact of the contrary effect of the crime-religion correlation, and examining the influence of informal social control, morality, bad emotions, social support, and self-control on the probability of crime, Brauer et al. (2013) found that theoretical processes of morality, self-control, and informal social control were likely to explain the crime-religion correlation.

Regnerus (2003 pg 12) in “moral communities and adolescence” asserts that religion is researched sociologically at the macro-level as a communal process rather than an individual phenomenon. The researchers looked into the likelihood of social misbehaviour among teenagers who lived in religiously congruent schools and nations with "social disorders above average." School connection, family contentment, and parental autonomy were all social control factors at the individual level. Simultaneously, in this study, religiosity was measured concerning being a “born again” Christian as well as a teenage self-recognized level of church attendance. To determine the rate of religiosity at the national level in terms of

church membership and religious adherence, Regnerus (2003) engaged several variables including the number of children aged 5 and beyond, residential movability, family disruption, the population of black Americans, and households headed by women, as well as school-level variables including the number of students involved in sexual relationships, the number of students from broken homes and inter-generational transmission as indices of social disorder. Regnerus's (2003) findings imply that the religious-crime correlation is false, as Traditionalist and Protestant similitude in nations and schools not only protected adolescents from crime but also arbitrated the antithetical association between crime (such as theft) and religion perceived as self-recognition as being "born again" Christians *(see Picture 3.3)*.

Picture 3.3: Showing the impact of religion on crime



Source: *https://www.immigrantandrefugeenff.ca/sites/d7nff.settlementtech.org/files/faith_wheel.png*

Also, as argued by Breuer et al. (2016), informal societal restraints can be blamed for the well-known deception between religion and crime. Relationships' characteristics (that is, relationship basis, number of relations, number of relationship bonds, and relationship strength) may drift with time so that orthodox ethics and beliefs are interfered with, promoting unorthodox/delinquent subcultures. For example, the loss of a parent or ultimate dissociation from one's religious group may diminish the quality of one's attachments and reduce prosocial contacts and interactions. These aberrant trends may more likely reveal waves of antithetical behaviour that increase the proclivity of aberrant and delinquent conduct due to a lack of regulation and integration, as well as "freedom" from a moral centre. According to Antonaccio &

Tittle (2008), self-control and morality function independently, only interacting in specific circumstances and with particular criminal/abnormal actions.

Hirschi & Gottfredson's (2017) general theory of crime is negligent about some other possible elements that can as well determine delinquent/aberrant conduct, rather, it totally concentrates on one prime determinant element. Self-control was noted to have a less meaningful correlation than morality in determining further delinquent conduct, according to Antonaccio & Tittle (2008), showing the necessity for recommended theoretical frameworks' integration. To create a greater variety and wider coverage of empirical findings and conclusions, these frameworks are necessary. However, if extreme conceptualisation and operationalization of essential variables are not prioritised, empirical studies will be rendered arbitrary by reusing antecedent estimation and explanation methods that seldom address the issue of religion. Consequently, the conclusions drawn from the empirical enterprise will be unsettled and limited in their ability to depict and deal with its underlying meaning and significance.

The dispute over religion's usefulness as a social control mechanism has a long history, having origins in functional thinking, which asserts that society's stability is sustained by educating and imbibing a similar set of beliefs, standards, and values to all members of society. This perspective was influenced by the views of Emile Durkheim, who viewed religion as a crucial mechanism for maintaining social order and fostering a shared set of values and beliefs (Sumter 1999). Sumter et al. (2018), investigated religion's significance as a social control device. Generally, the study found a negative association between religiosity and crime, emphasising that religion impedes criminal behaviour. Although this is true, it remains an unresolved and complex issue because these studies were unable to pinpoint the precise mechanism by which religiosity influences criminal behaviour.

Although, from the foregoing, religion is suggested to have an impeding impact on criminal and delinquent behaviour, none of the studies looked at the extent to which individuals have been given religious teachings and practices, there is a need to understand if the level of religious attendance and engagement decreases crime more than the degree of knowledge or belief (Clear and Sumter 2002). Overall, future empirical studies of the crime-religion correlation must tackle these practical flaws in explaining and quantifying religiosity to encompass self-control and social control and emphasise the delinquent/aberrant conduct impeding processes of religion as a social control measure.

3.5 Roles of Police and Community Partnership in Crime Prevention

Nigeria reverted to democracy after years of military rule from 1983 to 1999. Nigeria's democratic period has seen an upsurge in the perception of many forms of crime and fear (Das, 2018). Traditional policing approaches were widely believed by security stakeholders to be incapable of controlling the drift of insecurity and crime (Walker et al., 2006). As a result, the Nigerian security and justice systems have made concerted efforts to begin a private-public partnership project with other national enforcement institutions. As a result, significant progress has been made in seeking to reform the police organisation in line with worldwide ideas of introducing democratic principles into the practice of policing in Nigeria. Implementation of community policing strategies was one of these endeavours. In this setting, community policing and crime prevention practice balance reactive-rapid reactions and proactive problem-solving strategies focused on crime's root causes. This was supported and noticed by Igbo (2003), who stated that recognising and efficiently addressing these crime-related concerns in the community and enhancing progress and development in society required police cooperation with residents as partners.

The official endorsement of community policing and crime prevention by Nigerian police authorities in 2003 targeted reducing crime and criminality (Clarke & Newman, 2007). Clarke and Newman believe that the government of Nigeria's community policing and crime prevention programme is intended to change the values of the Nigerian police and its organisation through community-inclined policing and partnership, with an emphasis on engendering what he calls a value system of flawlessness in service provision and that individual officers have a strong feeling of responsibility (Ward et al., 2007). In terms of crime prevention and control, the Nigerian police force performs various tasks, including investigating suspected criminals, detecting crime, escorting residents and other officials on defined duties, penalising and charging criminals in court, guarding goods, and incarcerating suspected criminals (Ganapathy, 2000). In addition, Nigerian police are empowered to carry out defined functions such as preventing and controlling all types of crimes, patrolling and protecting citizens' properties and lives, guarding and escorting visiting foreign officials, and collaborating with international police to combat terrorism, drug dealers, and human trafficking as slaves or minors (Zikhali, 2019).

The authority will be used to detect and prevent crimes, arrest offenders, and uphold laws and regulations which are their responsibility, and as obliged by or under the authority of this or any other Act to perform official responsibilities within Nigeria, according to Section 4 of the Police Act and Decree No.23 of 1979, as amended. The police in the country have statutory authority to investigate suspects, penalize/grant bail

to suspects, and serve warrants to superintendents or disperse unlawful assemblies and precessions awaiting completion of the investigation or before court arrangement (Harmon, 2016). In addition, Nigerian police are authorised by the constitution to search and seize property suspected of being stolen or linked to crime and keep records to identify, measure, photograph, and fingerprint all community members.

Community policing interactions are inter-group relations in which the police and the host community see each other as distinct groups with distinct features determined by norms and values (Giwa et al., 2014). Both police and community policing attitudes and perceptions are influenced by the experiences of different groups, resulting in stereotypes being established to protect the host community from violent crimes. Police obtain information from community members, i.e., the host community, or else challenges in gathering information will be the norm if the host community does not cooperate in combatting, prevention, and control of crime (El-Khatib et al., 2021).

Furthermore, community policing is an ideological system based on police cooperation and the traditional community crime prevention and control system. It also refers to a programme with political goals to improve the connection between the police and communities dissatisfied with bureaucracy and impersonal police organisations by emphasising direct communication with citizens about neighbourhood social issues (Rauf Ambali & Ayanda Araba, 2020). Hence, community policing is an ideology aimed at reducing crime and disorder in the host community by establishing trust, respect, and collaboration between police officers and residents or community members in reporting violent and nonviolent crimes. This is accomplished through recognisable trademarks, the formation of partnerships between police and traditional community institutions, and the establishment of key institutions that aid in the reduction and control of crime (Ganapathy, 2000). In addition, by stressing proactive crime control and prevention through traditional ways of obtaining information such as vigilante groups, the community is better positioned to report and prevent disturbances in society with logical and rational measures. Similarly, Vania Ceccato (2021) argued that the development of police organisations is to respond to community concerns about crime prevention and control, which will, in turn, give recognition to the community in promoting trust through active collaboration and teamwork with education, housing estates, businesses, charities, and other organisations dedicated to community well-being.

3.5.1 Law Enforcement, Contemporary Community Policing and Social Change

The shocking brutality perpetrated by Nigerian police against unarmed civilians has resulted in a structural transformation and repositioning of the Nigerian police and orthodox community policing ties. The removal of unnecessary checkpoints has provided a great deal of relief to road users who have been subjected to police extortion (Terrasse, 2019). Without solid evidence, the bail term has been shortened to twenty-four hours; advanced technology such as C.C.T.V. is employed to monitor sites thought to be criminogenic in character and structure. These significant changes have restored community trust in police-community relations, while there are still lapses in human rights violations committed by officers in their line of duty against law-abiding individuals due to their use of the AK47 pistol gun to frighten innocent citizens (Aborisade, 2021).

The global agenda for the structural repositioning of police aims to restructure the police to meet their role in the prevention, reduction, and control of terrorism globally. This can be accomplished through community informer policing. Protecting the global community from terrorism and all types of crime against humanity is becoming a worldwide issue (Nagar, 2018). According to Clarke and Newman (2007), terrorism is today's common enemy of humankind, and it exists in every country. Without repositioning the police to meet global challenges in creating a conducive environment for economic prosperity, political stability, religious tolerance, socio-cultural development, and promotion of global peace among countries, the world will be doomed by crimes coordinated by countries.

The old concept of police has come to be considered an inefficient method to fight crime in the face of rising crime rates and an increasingly varied and complex society (Malone & Dammert, 2021). Under the banner of "community policing," an approach to policing has arisen that places a strong focus on police-community interactions and the value of involving the community in problem identification and resolution initiatives. The community policing approach to law enforcement has been embraced by most countries, particularly those in the world's most advanced democracies, as an effective technique for combatting crime and criminality (Akinbowale et al., 2020). Traditionally, police units have been established to facilitate routine patrols, rapid reaction to cries for aid from danger, arrests, and follow-up investigations once a crime has happened. Whereas community policing necessitates a more planned and thoughtful integration of these areas of police work into a more prominent police mission centred on proactive crime and disorder prevention. In a nutshell, community policing is based on the concept that law-abiding citizens must engage in policy.

The Endeavour was part of the Nigerian Police Force's attempt to improve its performance. The Force's goal was to transform crime prevention and control into a modern and professional policing system capable of ensuring the safety of people and property in Nigeria. Unfortunately, due to corruption, institutional constraints (police officers' resistance to community policing), insufficient human resources (in both capacity and professionalism), deficient training and orientation, deficient equipment, as well as unencouraging conditions of service for the typical police officer, the community-inclined policing system has failed to make any significant impact as it concerns the Nigerian environment (Mason & Moran, 2019).

Thus, the unethical deeds and the lack of proper orientation of the police on the work ethics and modes of operation as it concerns community policing, is a set back to the actualization of effective policing and, hence, crime control across the country. Community policing has the potential to break down the barriers that exist between the police and the public as it concerns crime control and prevention, as well as instil a broader set of community service principles in police officers. In fact, through problem-solving approaches and community-police collaborations, community policing will encourage and support organisational efforts to tackle the causes of crime, diminish crime-related fear, and reduce social disorder (Police Force of Nigeria, 2005).

3.5.2 Crime Prevention Challenges Facing Law Enforcement and Community Policing

Community policing is a vital instrument in crime prevention worldwide, but never has it been without difficulties. Detractors of this plan of action said that it is impossible to establish community-inclined policing due to the two-way traffic. Put another way; it will require both police and community efforts (Riyanto et al., 2020). According to Ordu & Nnam (2017), there is very little research evidence to prove that community policing and crime prevention work in terms of definition. In contrast, Schwartz (2018) believes that the failures of community policing in terms of definition stem from police history, which has been interpreted concerning previous mistakes. It will be tough to create a total for policing the community. Because the police are viewed as institutions dedicated to preventing and combatting crime, anything involving law enforcement and community collaboration will be difficult to defend. Many policing activities have been considered inconvenient demands to the community's service (MacHold, 2020), indicating that not all police officers and agencies consider community policing and crime prevention as part of their professional values rather, they tend to use community policing and crime

prevention for their gain while ostensibly maintaining law and order. There are evidence of some police constables and police officers engage in bribery, robbery, and corruption while claiming to be carrying out community policing.

According to Alexander (1995), community policing and crime prevention programmes provide the host community with minimal influence. In most situations, it is a cosmetic operation, community policing and crime prevention programmes that rarely serve as a handle for genuine reform of police agencies' severe accusations. Community policing and crime prevention are similar to other police tactics used to shape and manipulate communities. Because the police have complete control over all information about crime and disorder, they will continue to use rhetoric and bribery to sway the community. This claim is backed up by Miller (2016), who stated that when the police and members of the community work in partnership, there is a higher risk of police dishonesty as the community has no idea what is in the police records.

Detractors point out some of the difficulties some police foot patrols face to lower crime rates and the usage of the city’s preventative patrol experiment. Although they can lower crime, the inclination formed between police officers and the community makes the police familiar in the public's eyes by causing the population to lose respect for them. Hutchinson (2010) highlighted that patrol experience is also problematic since it reveals actual police personalities that would otherwise go unnoticed by the public if not for community policing and crime prevention. In an attempt to better understand police, Miller (2016) argued that much of the opposition to community policing and crime prevention is justified based on high-cost, effectiveness and efficiency concerns.

Furthermore, Miller (2016) pointed out that the long-term benefits may outweigh the initial expenses and that even sceptics are unsure how to quantify police efficacy adequately. Some of the basic services that police agencies give to the community are inexpensive and need less manpower, while others require many people. He stated that detractors still struggle to comprehend the cost and effectiveness of community policing and crime prevention in some scenarios. According to Choi & Lee (2016), community participation is the cornerstone of community policing; however, police involvement in the community has remained minimal. Community policing and crime prevention efforts are established with the idea that inhabitants of the community will be able and inclined to attend to them; nevertheless, an evaluation of Nigerian projects indicated that responses vary greatly. Thus, the cooperative effort of both the community and law enforcement agencies is imperative to the actualisation of community crime prevention and control via community policing.

3.6 Conclusion

From the discussions above, several factors influence the rate of crimes in cities, especially, cities of the Global South. These factors as highlighted in the literature review above include the absence of quality social interaction (which is believed to enhance social ties), the ineffectiveness of community policing and law enforcement agencies, the extremism of religious fundamentalists, the lack of self-control, and the ever-evolving nature of the society (United States Ministry of Justice, 2009). However, while certain crimes are attributed to religion, research suggests that the self-control effect, which is a function of positive religious virtues and teachings, has a crime-prevention effect. Moreso, the rate of violence portrayed by religious fanatics, fundamentalists, and extremists is as a result of lack of self-control. Also, crimes emanating from the ineffectiveness of the police and criminal justice systems can be prevented and controlled by the revitalization and rebranding of all the crime-fighting and law enforcement agencies (Weisburd et al., 2022). From the review above, several crimes are associated with the institutional failure of the criminal justice systems including the brutal and racist behaviour of the police. So, if this aspect of crime instigating factors is left unchecked, crime will inevitably continue to flourish.

Moreover, this research concentrates on socioeconomic and sociocultural variables including religion, disparity, socioeconomic context, employment status, age, education, and social interactions offering both conceptual and empirical new submissions (Britt, 2018). Consequently, this leads to the conclusion that crime is a complicated phenomenon influenced by several socioeconomic factors, and that to establish and execute constructive and intensive crime-reduction initiatives, the linkages between them and crime must be comprehended (Visconti, 2020). This research shall delve deeply into the theoretical underpinnings and conceptual considerations of urban crime in the following chapter.

CENTRAL CHAPTERS

4. THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS AND CONCEPTUAL CONSIDERATIONS ON URBAN CRIME

5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY ADOPTED FOR THE STUDY ON THE FACTORS OF SOCIAL CHANGES AND CRIME

6. CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATION FOR THE URBAN CRIME RESEARCH

CHAPTER FOUR

THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS AND CONCEPTUAL CONSIDERATIONS ON URBAN CRIME

4.1 Introduction

Crime is any deed or action that is termed unlawful and is punishable by an authority or by the state (Keane, 2016). It is deviant behaviour that violates prevailing cultural standards and social norms that guide how humans behave (Michalowski, 2016). Crime is harmful to individuals, society, and the state. The complex realities surrounding crime, such as changing social**,** environmental, psychological**,** and economic conditions, may affect the concept of crime, particularly in depressed urban centres (Lobonț et al., 2017).

The study of urban crime is multifaceted and spans a wide range of studies such as economic, sociological, psychological, historical, anthropological, and even medical studies. However, this study concentrates on the sociological aspect of crime. This research adopted the sociological perspective because it is for the purpose of understanding human behaviour within society. This enhances a more objective look at society, allowing one to know how the elements of society fit together, as well as understand the social change in our urbanising world (Giddens & Sutton, 2018). Through the sociological perspective, there will be an understanding of the milieu as it is expressed in attitudes, values, and behaviours. This will aid the understanding of society and the motivations of others.

In this section, relevant urban socio-structural theories associated with crime and works of literature on urban crime are reviewed to establish a conceptual framework for the study. This will be done by highlighting critical concepts and demonstrating the direction of the research. The urban sociological theories considered in this research include Social Disorganisation Theory, Routine Activity Theory, and Broken Windows Theory. The General Strain Theory was thrown into the mix to explore the effect of strain and stress on crime. These theories are the contemporary perspective of urban sociology, drawn from the Chicago School. There are two types of works on urban crime literature: those that seek to understand why some cities have higher crime rates and those that provide explanations for the variations in crime levels in cities. However, both types of studies use similar theories and place attention on social forces for the specific observation they seek. Like the latter, this research explains variations in crime

levels through social forces. The selected theories of social disorganisation, general strain, routine activity, and broken windows typically fit the research, to provide direction for the research.

4.2 Social Disorganisation Theory

As established in the works of sociological positivists from the Chicago school of urban sociology such as Park (1913), Small (1916), Thomas (1918), Burgess (1928), and Louis Wirth (1928), social forces operating in urban areas are factors responsible for the crimes committed in cities. The social disorganisation theory evolved from the work of Chicago urban sociologists, led by Shaw and McKay (1942). These social forces include economic status, education, religion, belief system, social media, and peer groups. Overwhelming scientific evidence has proven that these intrinsic urban factors motivate crime (Farbodet al., 2017).

The city has two distinct areas *(see picture 4.1)* the areas of the affluent or wealthy class and those suffering from depressed infrastructural facilities, poverty, and disintegration (Lynch & Barrett, 2019). This distinction is regardless of religion, race, and ethnicity (Warner & Clubb, 2012). However, recent research has confirmed a negative association between religion and crime. However, experts in crime research are

Picture 4.1: Showing two distinct areas in the city of Cape Town

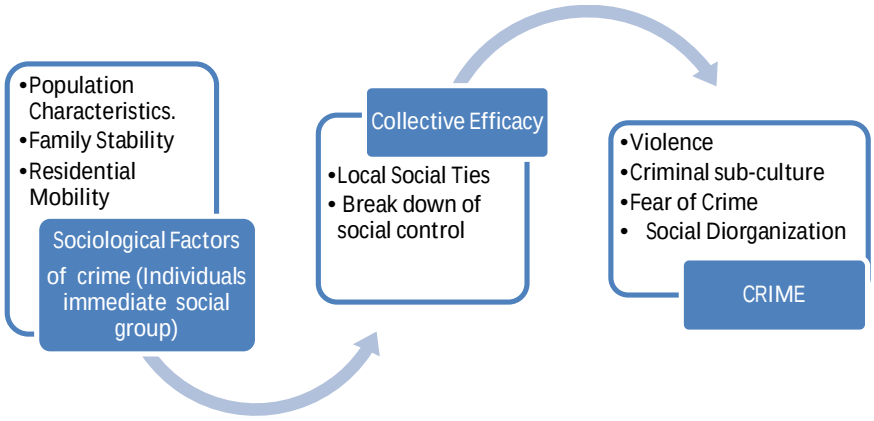


Source:*https://www.capetownetc.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/Screen-Shot-2019-05-03-at-9.53.57-AM.png*

still in doubt about including the scientific study of religion as a significant concept in crime studies (Jang & Franzen, 2013). Social forces influence the behaviour and actions of people living in these areas within an urban setting, which leads to the evolution of the natural regions of crime (Groff, 2015).

The theory holds that low-income residential neighbourhoods plagued by the breakdown of social control in families, schools, and religious bodies are the focal points for crime breeding in urban centres (Pereira et al., 2017). As illustrated in the figure below, the theory emphasises that the urban social environment (social factors) significantly influences the crime rate. A disorganised urban setting is one in which the institution of social control is weakened or broken. As a result, the ability of urban areas to carry out their normal functions is hampered (Wickes & Hipp, 2018). Thus, gradually the city becomes socially disorganised, and it becomes difficult to control and protect residents against crime and criminal behaviour from offenders *(see Figure 4.1)*.

Figure 4.1: Social Disorganisation Theory



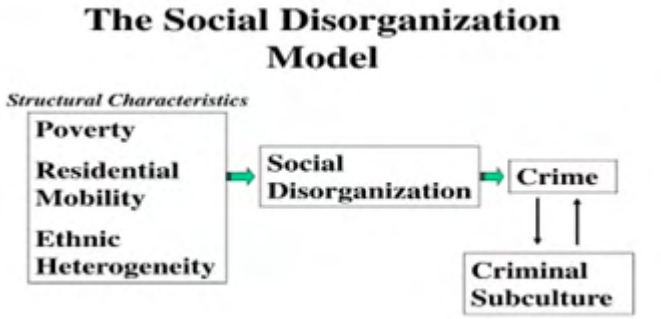
Source: *Constructed by the author (2019)*

Sections of the cities where the fabric of social life is hampered by economic depression are facing challenges to provide the essential services for their residents. This is evident in services such as decent housing, educational facilities, and quality health care. Gradually delinquency and crime become a sub-culture (Braun, Fung, Iqbal, & Shah, 2018). Residents in these crime-ridden areas of the city tend to flee at the slightest opportunity, and new residents without a record of their criminal history replace them (Sakamoto, Iida, & Yokohari, 2018). Gradually residents become uninterested in community matters. The neighbourhood they occupy becomes destabilised as inequality continues to grow in the city, and more sections of the city fall into this fray (Walker et al.,2019). Crime leads to constant population turnover,

which weakens communications, blocks the actualization of goals, and slows down development. The residents' indifferent attitudes lead to streets being littered, and untidy, and the urban fabrics deteriorating. The neighbourhood is gradually re-zoned out of necessity for mixed-use (residential and commercial properties next to each other) and is difficult to control by the usual sources of social control (Lynch & Barrett, 2019).

Crime is a serious threat affecting the everyday life of urban residents, the quality of urban space, and its socioeconomic and cultural prospects. The consensus report from studies such as Muggah (2014), Ewetan and Urhie (2014), and Bakker et al. (2014) demonstrates that the overall impact of insecurity limits socioeconomic development in various ways. Crime and insecurity in an urban setting create social dislocation, promote population displacement, increase social tensions, and encourage hostility. This, in turn, deepens poverty, discourages local and foreign investment, halts business operations, increases the cost of doing business, and reduces property value. Members of society become vulnerable and create an atmosphere of mistrust, fear, anxiety, and frenzy, among other things (Liu, Song, & Xiu, 2016).

Figure 4.2: Showing the social disorganisation model



Source: *https://image.slideserve.com/1293699/the-social-disorganization-model-l.jpg*

Major concepts used to examine this theory include; population characteristics, residential mobility, diminishing social ties, breakdown of social control, and criminal sub-culture. From literature, these concepts have been explored in various ways. Population characteristics, according to Yonai, Levine, and Glicksohn (2015), in their research conducted on crime in Israeli cities, measure population characteristics through household size and structure, single parenting, and the rate of an unemployed youthful population. Eriksson et al. (2016) presumed that the concept could be examined through family background,

employment status, and occupation. Kearney and Levine (2016) see socio-economic inequality, rate of school dropout, and educational qualification as key to examining population characteristics as it concerns crime in cities. Uggen and Kruttschnitt (2018) support the above variables on population characteristics but added that age and gender are as well very significant indicators/variables in assessing the influence of population characteristics on crime.

Residential mobility is another fundamental concept used in literature to describe this theory. According to Boggess and Hipp (2010), racial and ethnic composition and socioeconomic inequality are vital variables used to describe this concept as it relates to the theory of social disorganization. The rate of residential mobility in an area and poor interpersonal relationships were highlighted as significant variables of crime (Sciandra et al., 2013). Proximity to facilities, availability of infrastructure and services, and physical environmental deterioration are as well critical to crime (Mburu and Helbich, 2016). Moreso, weak social ties and breakdown of social control as used to describe this theory in literature. These were determined by crucial variables such as educational qualification, poor actualization of goals, social status, level of exposure, and family structure (Norris, Wilson, and Allan, 2019b and Norris, Wilson, Haggerty, and Ericson, 2019). The criminal sub-culture explored in literature is examined through the number or percentage of people who practise deviancy, societal acceptance, and public compliance with the illicit acts (Hall, Winlow, and Ancrum, 2013; Helfgott, 2015).

4.2.2 Routine Activity Theory

The routine activity theory derived from the works of Felson and Cohen (1974) on crime rate change in the United States. The theory explores the temporal aspects of human behaviour and activities within neighbourhood settings (Breetzke and Cohn, 2013). The theory examines critically the natural and physical environmental context in which crimes tend to occur (Leukfeldt, 2014). The routine activity is simply a theory of place, where different social and physical agents intersect in space and time. The fundamental assumptions of this theory rely on the people we interact and associate with, the places we visit or travel to, and the kind of social activities engage in, tends to influence the opportunities and distribution of crime opportunities and behavior (Bratt, 2018).

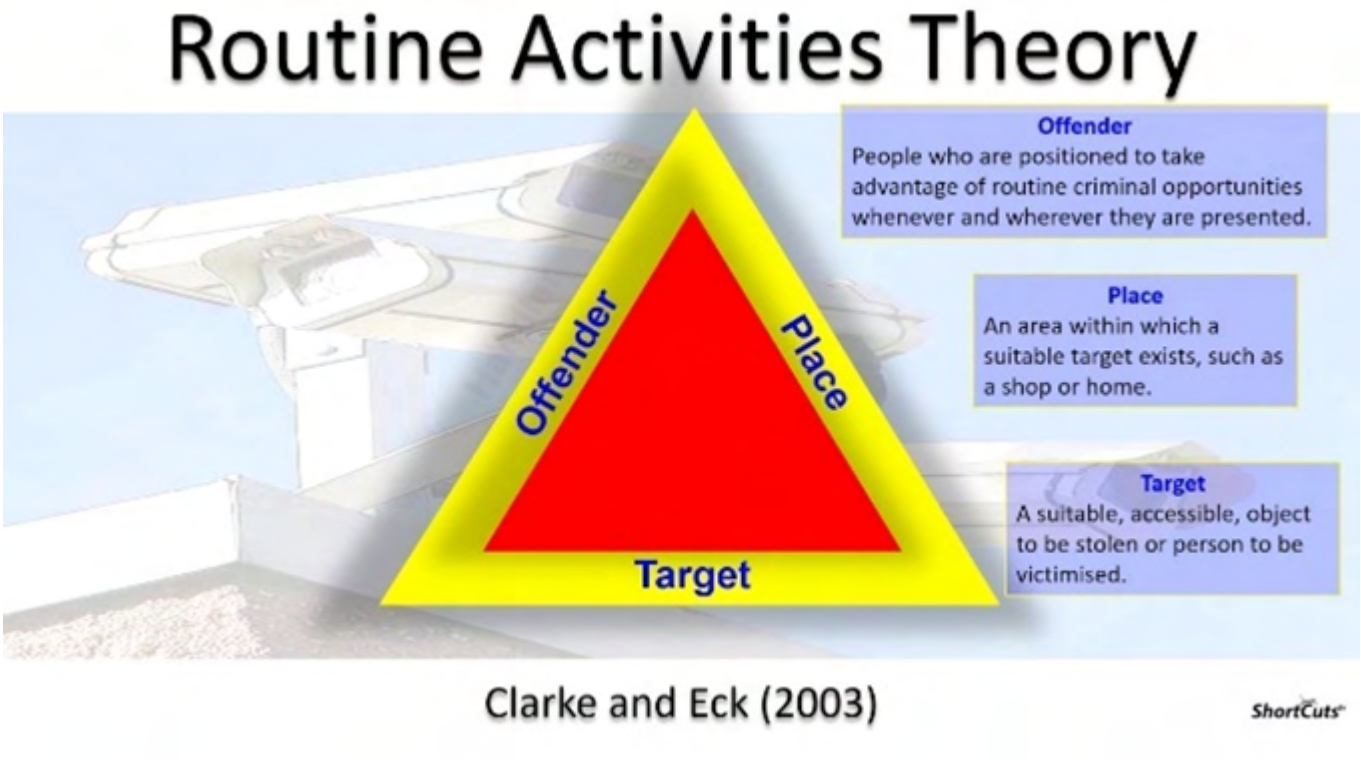
Figure 4.3: Routine Activity Theory



Source: *Constructed by the author (2019)*

Routine activity is simply a theory of place – where different social and physical agents intersect in space and time. The fundamental assumptions of this theory rely on the people we interact with, the places we visit or travel to, and the kinds of social activities engaged in, which tend to influence the opportunities and distribution of crime opportunities and behaviour (Bratt, 2018). *Figure 3* above is a representation of population interaction and how it relates to crime. As seen in the figure above, there is an emphasis on the intersections and interactions of the population in space, when timing motivates offenders; suitable targets are identified (quality of infrastructure, adjourning land use, poor street lighting, uncompleted buildings, and un-kept open spaces); and the absence of reliable guardians, such as few security operatives, time of watch hours, and poorly motivated security personnel, when all these are favourable to the potential offender, crime will occur (Simons et al., 2014).

Picture 4.2: Showing the routine activity theory triangle



Source: *https://i.ytimg.com/vi/JZ_anxjlXpI/maxresdefault.jpg*

Picture 4.3: Showing an example of an overpopulated area Lagos Nigeria.



Source: *https://th.bing.com/th/id/OIP.9hQ0Y0vPN4FX-ObE-jjIQHaE8?pid=ImgDet&rs=1*

In addition, the theory assumes that crime is not affected by social factors like inequality, poverty, and unemployment but is highly correlated to social changes in college enrolments, population increase, urbanisation, sub-urbanisation, and lifestyle *(see Picture 4.3 above)*. All these contribute to opportunities to commit a crime. Another critical concept is physical and environmental deterioration. For example, in examining the relationship between the built environment and crime, Bracy et al. (2014) highlighted significant variables to assess the physical environment, such as sanitation level, road network, utilities, physical defects in buildings, and building facilities' efficiency. Frank et al. (2012) presumed that the concept could be examined through settlement patterns and urban forms such as setbacks, floor area ratios, density, and land use mix against the minimum approvable standard within the locality.

Routine Activity theory is built around two concepts: vitality and territoriality (Felson, 2016). The concept of vitality emphasises that urban space accommodates human activities, including movement, buildings opening onto the street, and windows overlooking it; and this is considered the primary safety factor (Lambert, 2017). The concept of territoriality relates to the feeling of ownership. The fundamental assumption of this concept is that people defend and respect places that belong to them, and in situations where it is difficult to establish territorial marks, there is a profound need for safety (Andresen & Ha, 2019). The two concepts also lay the foundation for Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED). This approach relied on city functions and how the urban fabric is shaped. However, the city's functions are dynamic and driven by state control, market forces, and citizens' rationality. In the same vein, the use of space changes with demographic variables, politics, social, and economic development (Lambin & Meyfroidt, 2011).

Consequently, Fennelly and Crowe (2013) noted that urban land use in the Global South is undergoing conversion as a result of socioeconomic and political transformation, changing lifestyles and tastes. This scenario invariably affects the magnitude and dimension of urban crime. By implication, spaces including public spaces, essential for vitality in cities, become concerns of research and intervention. The perception of safety and fear of crime is considered as necessary as the crime itself. Also, particular care should be given to the more vulnerable sections of the population, including women, children, older people, and minority groups (Lambert et al., 2019).

4.2.3 The Broken Windows Theory

Besides personal traits and choices considered biological and psychological factors, insecurity constitutes criminal behaviour, violence, and related fear, strongly associated with the human-environmental condition, particularly in urban neighbourhoods (Yavuz & Welch, 2010). Based on the Broken window theory of Wilson and Kelling (1982), this research suggests that the physical environment is a critical factor in enhancing informal social control and social cohesion in the urban sphere. Recent research on the further development of the Broken Windows Theory highlights social and physical incivilities relating to crime as a significant indicator (Ten Eyck, 2016) *(see Picture 4.4)*. Broken windows theory places concerns on the physical image of residential neighbourhoods. Emphasis is placed on physical and environmental deterioration, such as reduced maintenance, absence of lighting, and rowdiness, which may increase fear of crime and the opportunity to commit a crime (Skogan, 2015).

Picture 4.4: Showing a broken window (an indicator of burglary)

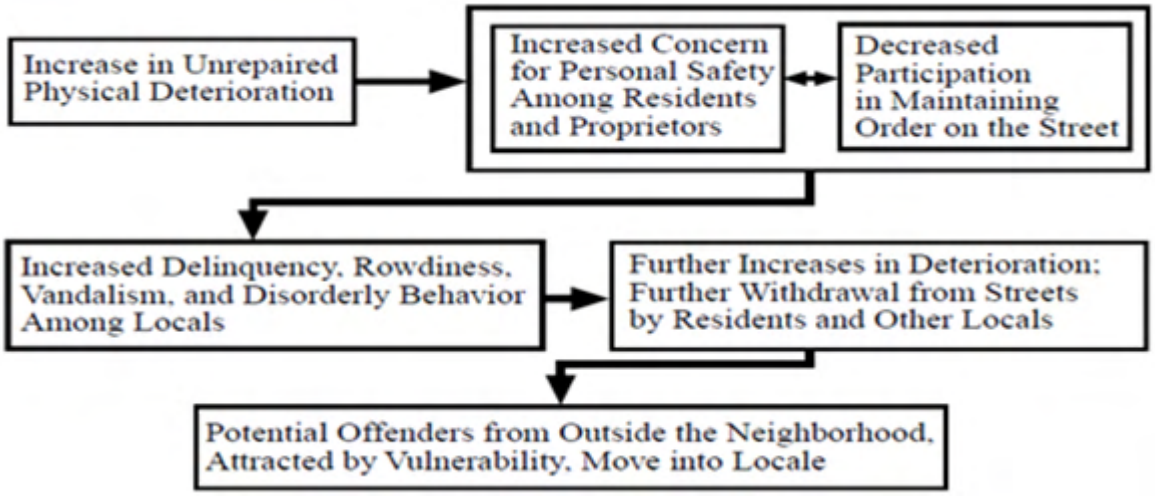


Source: *https://th.bing.com/th/id/OIP.bFvka19IeTpehVTIxEUeygHaF2?pid=ImgDet&rs=1*

Another primary assumption is that the urban fabric and architecture of the city are crucial to the opportunity to commit a crime. Therefore, urban fabric and architecture are relevant as preventive mechanisms for shaping urban norms and controlling social vices (He et al., 2017). For example, burglar bars in residential homes and high fence walls indicate the presence of crime, hence, the fear of crime within society (Zhou et al., 2017). These images in the urban fabric show an increase in negative perceptions of crime *(see figure 4.4 above)*. Also, an attempt to change these social norms to reduce crime

means maintaining the urban fabric and placing stringent penalties on potential offenders (Wang et al., 2019).

Another primary assumption is that the urban fabric and architecture of the city are critical to the rate and opportunity to commit a crime, it is not only relevant as a preventive mechanism but in shaping urban norms and social vices (He et al., 2017). Burglar bars in residential homes and high fencing walls show the level of fear of crime within the society (Zhou et al., 2017). As highlighted, unrepaired broken windows express tolerance to crime in society, thereby making the urban space vulnerable. These images in the urban fabric show an increase in the negative perception of crime. Also, an attempt to change these social norms in the form of reducing crime is by maintaining the urban fabric and placing stringent penalties on potential offenders (Wang et al., 2019).



Source: Wilson and Kelling (1982)

A cross-sectional study from Blom *et al.* (2010) reveals that the percentage of urban land for commercial purposes is a critical indicator of an increase in crime in residential neighbourhoods in the cities of Bangalore and New Delhi. On this note, Ceccato-Vânia (2012), highlighted that the urban environment and its physical features are critical factors usually associated with insecurity. More so, other studies in Ab-Kooh in Iran, Putrajaya in Malaysia, and Cali in Columbia found that in low-crime neighbourhoods internal layouts were less permeable and narrow streets with low traffic volume, and one-way streets are associated with lower crime rates. (Karim and Azmi, 2013; Marvi and Behzadfar,2015; Martínez, Short and Ortíz,2015). In Malaysia, a study conducted by Sreetheran (2017) revealed that residents who are less fearful and better controllers of outdoor spaces were less victimized, and their cities possess defensible

space features. These studies highlighted mixed-use as a triggering factor to crime.

4.2.4 The General Strain theory

The general strain theory evolved from the thoughts and works of the urban sociologists Agnew (1992) and Messe and Rosenfeld (1994). It holds that conflicts between the goals of people and the legal means by which they can obtain them are what result in a crime. Most individuals in cities with economically depressed neighbourhoods cannot attain their life aspirations through conventional means (Agnew, 2001). If these goals aspired for are not within reach, feelings of anger, frustration, and resentment set in, which leads to a strain (Agnew, 2010) *(see Picture 4.5)*. These individuals can either live out their days as socially unrewarded citizens or tend to achieve success through criminal acts such as theft, violence, or other forms of crime (Hay, Meldrum & Mann, 2010). Individuals' effective responses to adverse life experiences determine their level of deviant behaviour, measures of life stress, measures of delinquency (non-violent and violent delinquencies), and the use of drugs (Piquero & Sealock, 2010).

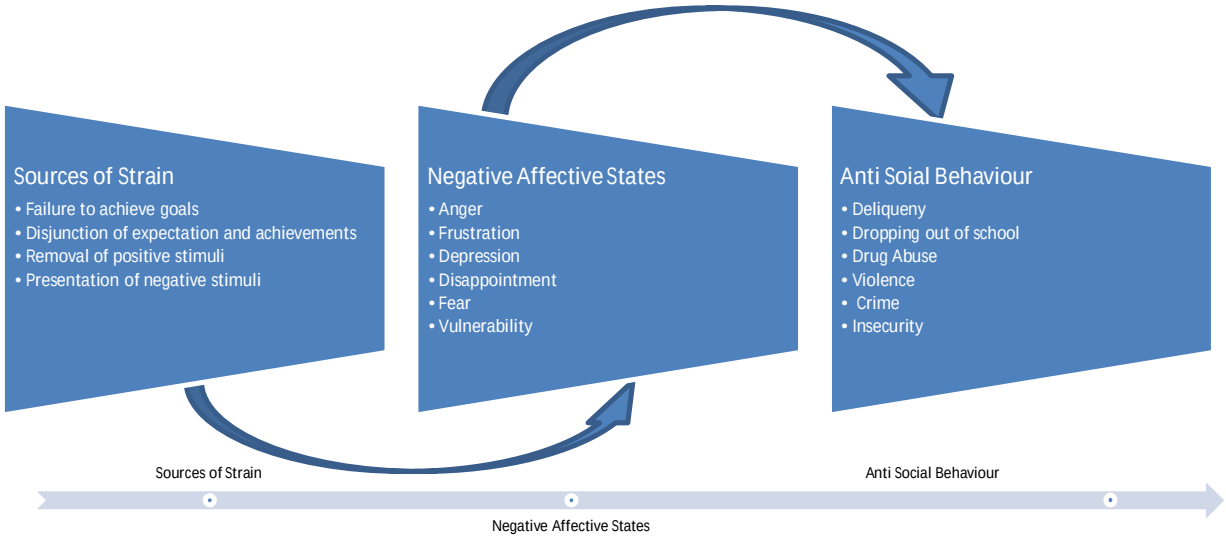
Picture 4.5: Showing response to stress (an indication of frustration)



Source: *https://image.shutterstock.com/image-photo/toned-photo-sad-teenager-sit-600w-534510523.jpg*

As seen in *Figure 4.5* below, the adverse impact of strain on deviant behaviour varies by levels of personal and social resources (Patchin & Hinduja, 2011). Crime evolves most of the time as a result of strain (Densley, 2015). A strain is closely related to opportunities to engage in criminal activities. A strain is frequently viewed as the source of negative emotions, and if it is severe enough, it leads to crime (Barbieri et al., 2019). A strain is usually considered unjust, especially when the individual believes the crime perpetuated was intentional and voluntary.

Figure 4.4: General Strain Theory



Source: *Constructed by the author (2019)*

The figure above shows that, among others, strain in the form of failure is a disjunction of expectation and achievements. Crime-propelling incentives result in feelings of fear and vulnerability, which provides a perfect ground for fear of crime and insecurity. Polizzi (2011) suggests that there are independent effects associated with victimisation (that is, having inability or difficulty achieving a goal) that lead to serious delinquency, especially among youths. This is because, according to the general strain theory, the probability of committing a crime is high (especially among youths) when there is a high rate of inability/difficulty in achieving goals. The crimes committed in this regard are due to frustration. However, his analysis did not consider negative emotions. He assumes a robust positive correlation between victimisation and increased violent delinquency through negative emotions like frustration and anger. Victimisation most likely leads to depression, especially the more violent type and unexpected from a trusted friend than anticipated, and the more frequent types that generate frustration and anger (Jang & Rhodes, 2012).

Based on empirical research conducted by Rebellon et al. (2012), it is evident that vicarious and experienced victimisation leads to violent behaviour. The research did not consider negative emotions, and how these emotions mediate the influence of strain on violence. Anger is more likely to evolve as a reaction to victimisation than depression when negative emotions are examined (Sigfusdottir, Kristjansson, and Agnew, 2012). Reid and Piquero (2016) and Eitle and Eitle (2016) show evidence that

sexual abuse of youth and adolescents before age 18 is positively correlated with their state of depression and anger. This is strongly displayed toward people of both the same and opposite sex. In most cases, it may result in a suicidal attempt or violent crime, especially on property. Negative emotions and deviant behaviours were also examined. The research further explained that people tend to use hard drugs and commit crimes due to severe pressure from the strain of not achieving their desired goals and lifestyles. Negative emotions, according to Agnew (2018a, 2018b, and 2019), mean a negative emotional state, not traits. Negative emotional states can be referred to as non-positive effects experienced at any time (at a particular moment) or at a specific time interval. On the contrary, Posick (2014) suggests that a negative emotional trait is a person's consistent tendency to witness negative emotions.

The assumptions of the general strain theory are based on key concepts such as failure to achieve goals, the disjunction of expectation and achievement, negative emotions, diminishing social ties, the breakdown of social control, and subcultural value as opposed to conventional value. In their research on what motivates white-collar crime, Agnew, Piquero and Cullen (2009) mention failure to achieve goals through the rate of under-employment, the rate of job opportunities for the labour force, and the level of staff support and development. They found that the failure to achieve goals is correlated with crime, especially crimes committed due to frustration. Bjørgo (2011) presumed the concept could be examined through the level of societal influence, willingness to change skills or learn a new thing, and societal pressure. Boyce (2013) supports the above variables on failure to achieve goals and adds that unemployment, household size, and the number of dependents constitute very significant indicators/variables in assessing the influence of failure to achieve goals on crime.

The disjunction of expectation and goal achievement is another critical concept used in literature to describe this theory. According to Reininghaus et al. (2008) and Boggess and Hipp (2010), general economic recession, socioeconomic status, loss of a job, and underemployment are vital variables used to describe this concept related to the general strain theory. In addition, job insecurity, unemployment, and reduced human capacity development programmes were highlighted as significant variables in the disjunction of expectation and achievement (Tongsilp, 2013).

Furthermore, poor mentorship, social control, emotional instability, and lack of definite objectives and targets are critical to the disjunction of expectations and achievements (Sherman et al., 2013). More so, negative emotions result from the failure to achieve goals and the disjunction of expectations and achievements. This concept draws from social-cultural backgrounds, social environments, personal

lifestyles, and peer groups (Jang & Agnew, 2015). May et al. (2015) suggest that other factors responsible for this include family structure, maladjustment, criminal history, and fear of failure *(see picture 4.6)*. Diminishing social ties and breakdown of social control as used in describing this theory are determined by crucial variables such as poverty, desperation, unemployment, deprivation of essential opportunities and education, poor societal structure, and shoddy institutional framework (Wickes et al., 2017). In addition, the literature explores criminal sub-culture opposition to conventional values through the percentage of people who practise deviancy, public perception, and societal acceptance (K. Young, 2016).

Picture 4.6: Showing possible causes of crime



Source:[*https://th.bing.com/th/id/OIP.0X7L2oWHQUyM8V00GMR_uwHaEt?w=278&h=180&c=7&r=0&o=5&dpr=1.5&pid=1.7*](https://th.bing.com/th/id/OIP.0X7L2oWHQUyM8V00GMR_uwHaEt?w=278&h=180&c=7&r=0&o=5&dpr=1.5&pid=1.7)

Consequently, from the review of the General Strain theory, this research suggests that crime is affected by factors including innate factors such as anger, depression, and frustration due to the inability to achieve goals. Also, external factors, including peer pressure, family expectations, and the inability to meet social and personal expectations, affect the probability of crime, especially in gullible individuals.

4.3 Conceptual Framework

From a review of urban socio-structural theories and works of literature on crime and public security, critical concepts were adopted to ground this study. This section explains the key concepts that apply to this research and establishes a framework for analysing crucial factors that motivate crime and the level of influence each component of the environment has on crime.

4.3.1 Deterioration

Deterioration is the depreciation in the value of the architectural fabric of the physical features of the environment (Jargowsky and Park, 2009). The physical features emphasised in this research are housing design or block layout, land use and circulation patterns, resident-generated territorial features, and socioeconomic features (Cullen et al., 2012). There is a constant middle-class population movement to the urban periphery due to the breakdown of social control and poor maintenance of infrastructure and street cleaning, thereby isolating the city centre for the urban poor (Beyer et al., 2016).

Urban sociologists such as Ceccato-Vânia (2012), Karim and Azmi (2013), Marvi and Behzadfar (2015), Martínez, Short and Ortíz (2015), and Jones & Jones (2019) suggest that the concentration of residents with poor socioeconomic status inhibits delinquency, leaving the youthful population in this area no option than to adopt crime as a lifestyle. Moreover, severe deterioration in the economy within the areas occupied by the urban poor reduces the capability and reliability of security agents (Hipp et al., 2018). Thus, this research holds that in societies and cities characterised by remarkable concentrations of underpriviledged populace in certain areas of the city, especially the urban centres, have a high risk of crime. This is in accordance with the claim that crime is correlated with overpopulation (Abu-Lughod, 2006).

4.3.2 Residential Mobility

Residential mobility refers to events that bring about drifts in neighbourhood life and the overall environment. It is most times referred to as the migration of people from one housing facility to another within urban communities, or the adaptation of people with prevalent economic circumstances (Coulter & Scott, 2015). This suggests that residential mobility is related to low-income earners who can no longer meet the standard of the housing type they occupy (Basolo & Yerena, 2017). Moreso, a view from the individual standpoint puts it that residential mobility refers to how often a person has relocated residence over time and the possibility of future relocation, while a societal view puts it that residential mobility is the percentage of housing migration of residents and the tendency of further relocation over time in a particular community or society (Li, 2017).

Additionally, residential mobility is the movement of individuals in and out of residential neighbourhoods. This frequent migration has the propensity to inspire fear of being vulnerable to crime amongst

neighbourhood residents (Merrick et al., 2018). This is because, as old neighbours relocate to other neighbourhoods, new ones move in. Neighbourhood coherence among former neighbours diminishes as mobility sets in, the new neighbours may not be as friendly as the former ones, and this increases the safety consciousness of residents in such a neighbourhood (Paydar et al., 2017). The interaction and neighbourhood relationships that are relevant for prosocial life are hampered, and as such, the fear of crime sets in. This is because people do not know who their neighbours are and what they are capable of, and so they live in intense fear and crime consciousness (Brunton-Smith & Sturgis, 2011).

In addition, research has found that crimes resulting from residential mobility are more likely to happen to children (Xie & Mcdowall, 2014). This suggests that children are more vulnerable to residential or neighbourhood crime. Crimes committed in this regard include kidnapping, child abuse, juvenile rape cases, and assault. Empirical studies have also revealed that the hike in residential mobility is a product of neighbourhood crimes over extended periods (Olajide et al., 2018). Therefore, this research suggests that the intention of neighbourhood occupants to relocate is among several factors including poverty, influenced by the need for safety. This connotes a drift in the security of the neighbourhood – and this is a function of criminal activities evident in such a neighbourhood (Abu-Lughod, 2006).

4.3.3 Diminishing Social Ties

Social ties refer to the connection between individuals in a particular neighbourhood. These relationships exhibited by residents of a particular society are believed to enhance the prosocial life of the society at large (Takagi et al., 2016). In theory, it is believed that the development of informal social control is based on the social ties between neighbours (Wickes et al., 2018). A study in the United States examined the relationship between crime and social ties and found that crime rates in the States have been on the increase. The study suggests that women and children were the most vulnerable targets. It highlighted that the crimes include theft, property crime, trafficking, sexual assault, and murder. Moreover, the study asserted that these crimes were due to diminishing social ties (Wickes et al., 2018).

Moreso, the obvious absence or degradation of social ties between individual economic and social levels results in conflict amongst disproportionate affiliates, with the more privileged receiving the finest benefits and opportunities, while the less privileged are marginalised (Tymoshenko, 2021). This marginalisation due to loss of social ties inclines individuals to criminal propensities. This is because marginalisation

impresses on individuals the perception that they have been disconnected from national and state benefits that they should enjoy, and consequently, they tend to agitate for what they consider their rights and privileges.

Diminishing social ties have significantly affected crime across the globe. In societies where the interaction bonds or social ties are minimal or even absent, there is always the fear of being victimised. This is because social ties and interaction foster harmony and peaceful co-existence among people (Epstein & Hillman, 2021). Certain societies are associated with high crime rates because they lack the coherent social ties that give individuals the feeling of belonging. Rather than enhancing social bonds, they encourage disparity in all aspects of society. People want to be among the upper class so that they can feel among. The urge to be identified and treated fairly has led to a significant increase in violence and crime across cities and societies globally (De Courson & Nettle, 2021).

Hence, the social bond among individuals in the society serves as an opiate to criminogenic indulgence. It is believed that social ties, according to the assertion of Epstein and Hillman (2021) promote neighbourhood friendliness and people friendly environments void of crime. However, according to Wickes et al. (2017) the loss of this bond among individuals in society leads to delinquent and violent events. This is because, those who were friendly due to the presence of social commitment (ties) to one another have turned wild due to the absence of social ties. Moreso, more research is needed to determine and examine possible causative factors that lead to the lack of social ties.

4.3.4 Breakdown of Social Control

Social control is the various methods by which society rules or controls human behaviour, human activities, norms, standards, and human form/pattern. Brown (2004) argues that social control is an essential aspect of social order without which society cannot function properly. Social control is accomplished in different ways, including through social ethics, rules, standards, and social, economic, and institutional modes/ forms. In other words, social control and social structure co-exist because society cannot function without a regulatory framework that enables daily living and a complex division of labour (Groff, 2015). The fundamental basis through which social order is created is through the ongoing lifelong socialisation phases that each individual experiences. Through these phases, people are taught from childhood the ethics, rules, values, behavioural and interactional expectations associated with families,

peer groups, communities, and society in general (Menzel, 2019). Socialisation teaches how to reason and behave with a sense of decorum, thereby efficiently controlling our activities in society (Kaufman, 2015). The physical organisation of society is also an integral part of social control. When these ethics, norms, rules, and standards are neglected, individuals are placed under sanctions by the authorities that remind them of their social benefits and enable them to regulate their actions. These penalties come in various forms, from disapproving looks to conversations with peers, family, authority heads, social ex-communicants, and many others (Cusson, 2015).

There are two forms of social control: informal and formal controls. Informal social control is our compliance with the values, rules and ethics of society, and the acceptance of a particular belief system, which are obtained from the process of socialisation phases (Güllü and Yıldırım, 2016). Informal social control is enforced by family, schools, peers, religious groups, and children and youth associations (Wickes et al., 2017). Formal social control is regulated and enforced by the government and its agencies of public and civil security. In some cases, the mere knowledge of the presence of security operatives restores order and social organisation. In others, police might have to intervene to control a situation that involves illegal or risky behaviour to maintain the sanity of citizens. It is the duty of formal bodies like the judiciary panel authority to issue penalties when a person fails to comply with the standards/laws that determine social control. (Norris et al., 2019). However, in a failed social control system, crime is inevitable. In a situation where there is a breakdown of social control (whether formal or informal), or the measures are weak or not well enforced, crime is motivated.

4.3.5 Negative Emotions

Emotions are natural and psychological dispositions of an individual that happen within the body (Ford et al., 2018). Negative feelings are feelings of intrinsic misery and pity. They are feelings that negate every iota of happiness and consequently, result in bitter hatred and spiteful behaviour towards others as it impedes an individual's confidence and self-esteem. They prevent an individual from engaging in rational and prosocial behaviour and instead promote violence, increasing the likelihood of crime and delinquency (Geng et al., 2020). When negative feelings are allowed over extended periods, they degenerate into gross hatred and violent subcultures within societies. This research investigates some of the negative feelings capable of inspiring crime.

Anger as a negative emotion poses a significant risk of violence and delinquency. Anger is an emotional disposition characterised by an intense feeling of hostility, displeasure, and severe irritation (Yao et al., 2020). Consequently, prolonged negative feelings result in anger, which more probably leads to delinquent and aberrant social conduct characterised by violence (especially domestic violence), assault, and vandalism. Recent studies such as Chen et al. (2021) and Dai et al., (2021) suggest that emotions, especially negative emotions such as anger, correlate with violence and social disorder. These studies assert that anger is grossly linked with civil crimes, including rape, bullying, torture, hostility, homicide, child abuse, and terrorism.

Furthermore, Shi (2021) suggests that jealousy and envy incline gullible individuals to crime perpetration. Jealously constitutes the feeling of panic in people that what they hold dear will be taken from them, while envy is the covetous fancy for someone else's possession. Both the effects of jealousy and envy instigate the feeling of insecurity in individuals. Jealousy and envy are toxic refinable energy capable of instigating delinquent and aberrant conduct. Attridge (2013) in his view of jealousy, suggests that jealousy is a form of fear correlated with the want to protect one's belongings. Also, envy is one viable factor of sadness, and envious individuals not only experience sadness but tend to be mischievous toward other people. Some of the crimes committed by these intrinsic effects include homicide, murder, covetousness, and assault.

Negative feelings are strong elements that tend to incline the gullible individual towards delinquency and crime as a way to make them feel good. However, negative feelings don't make one feel good. Rather, it destroys the construct of society and impedes the overall development of society. Negative feelings ranging from anger to jealousy, grief, anxiety/worry, and impatience/hate have significant propensities to inspire crime in cities.

4.3.6 Vulnerability

Vulnerability refers to an individual's physical capability and aptitude in the case of harassment (Kennedy al., 2011). The basic argument for vulnerability is that individuals and households that require social and physical means to protect themselves against illegality and exploitation experience more fear of crime (Dugato, 2013). In addition, the influence of an individual's financial status, social network, and surrounding physical environment reflect on his level of vulnerability and fear (Kennedy et al., 2016).

In assigning ranks to some physical and socioeconomic characteristics related to vulnerability, one needs to understand through experience and results from research in this field the importance of these variables on anti-social behaviour and inciting crime (Dugato et al., 2017). These criminogenic characteristics are drawn from the socioeconomic and physical environmental features of neighbourhoods that contribute to the risk value, and level of vulnerability that indicate crime tendencies (Drawve et al., 2017). These spatial risk values that impact the level of exposure help predict where more crime is likely to occur and the possible time of occurrence (Thomas & Drawve, 2018).

A critical drawback to this assumption in vulnerability studies and predicting crime events and places is that an area may be susceptible to illicit acts and anti-social behaviour, but crime does not always occur there. Crime occurrences may be low, but the probability is very high due to the socioeconomic and physical characteristics under consideration (Kennedy & Dugato, 2018). Social structural sources of vulnerability could explore two distinct processes (attenuation and amplification) to decrease the false assumption of criminal tendency when considering only the existing social and physical variables. To eliminate this, past criminal experiences and present levels of vulnerability in the area are considered (Dugato et al., 2018).

Some areas are more prone to crime than others because there are particular areas where illicit acts/behaviour are rated very highly (WHO, 2015). This is due to some specific group of people usually present in these areas, which may also be associated with the physical environmental quality. Therefore, if the focus is placed on the behavioural patterns of people, their tendencies to offend unfortunate individuals who are likely to be offended are limited if adequate consideration is given to the physical features of an area (Walker et al., 2018).

4.3.7 Suitable Target

The propensity for crime to happen is dependent upon the availability of a potential victim (Mohammad & Nooraini, 2021). Crime perpetrators tend to be more in an opportunistic position to commit a crime when there is the availability of a suitable target *(see Picture 4.10).* Crime is accomplished when there is a potential criminal, a vulnerable or suitable target, and the absence of a trained crime fighter or guardian (C. Vilalta & Fondevila, 2021). Potential criminals find it more convenient and opportunistic to perpetuate the criminal intent they are inclined to on vulnerable individuals in the absence of security watch groups

or guards. Therefore, a person or property that is inclined or that an inspired crime perpetrator may cause harm or damage to in the simplest means feasible is seen and considered a suitable target for crime (Z. Liu & Lo, 2019). Target suitability and feasibility imply that it is more probable that crime and delinquency will occur when the target is easy to get at than when the target is difficult to get at.

Picture 4.10: Showing lonely night walking – a risk of victimisation



Source: *https://c.pxhere.com/photos/e4/0b/alone_walking_night_people_city_street_lonely_stranger-731127.jpg!d*

This means that, in the presence of well-trained and well-equipped security personnel, the opportunity for crime perpetrators to commit crimes is impeded, and crime victimisation reduced and prevented. Furthermore, there is the belief that some targets are more vulnerable than others. The vulnerability of suitable targets is dependent on characteristics such as accessibility and the vulnerability of the individual as a crime target. The accessibility of the victim or target creates a link between attraction and suitability.

4.3.8 Fear of Crime

Fear of crime is a sense of danger and anxiety resulting from being a victim or being informed of physical harm and property loss (Kort-Butler and Hartshorn, 2011). Fear of crime can be classified or come in the form of vulnerability, victimisation, the environment, and (social-) psychological factors. It also concerns social and everyday physical surroundings as well as sociological and (social) psychological factors (Lorenc et al., 2012). Moreso, fear is a strong, uncontrollable, unpleasant emotion caused by actual

perceived danger or threat, particularly concerning anxiety and trouble incited by physical violence (Hedayati Marzbaliet et al., 2012).

Moreover, for fear of crime to be established, the fear must be drawn from an understood fact present in the environment that relates a person to a crime (Alper & Chappell, 2012). This study draws upon these approaches and combines criminal and personal factors to predict crime, emphasising vulnerability, victimisation, and incivilities as part of the environmental approach (Foster et al.,2013). Two things can be done when correlating fear to potential physical harm. First, it compels humans to perceive action induced by the possible loss of property from the action evoked by physical violence, and this is more intellectually calculative (signs of worry). The second is more demonstrative and sentimental (Sreetheran & van den Bosch, 2014). Admittedly, it appears that an individual who recalls that he has left a valuable property outside without security is distinct from the perspective of an individual who suddenly finds himself in a lonely dark street, late at night (Lane, 2015).

This does not imply that the probable loss of potential property will, under no circumstances, reduce fear. For example, if the property at risk is precious, particularly relating to a person's resources (for instance, low economic status), in that case, the probability of theft can, therefore, reduce fear (Callanan & Rosenberger, 2015). However, in such extreme circumstances, theft eventually poses a threat to physical well-being because it is frequently accompanied by physical abuse. If the property at risk of being stolen is not easily affordable by the victim, such action may lead to depression. The crucial view is that some property crimes involve potential physical and psychological harm (Brands, Schwanen & van Aalst, 2015).

Concerning diverse knowledge, property crimes involve a possible confrontation with an offender, that is, a person who is perceived to be neither a friend nor an acquaintance, whose exploitative act or character towards property theft has branded him a suspect who may be violent when questioned. Hence, burglary ought to induce fear more than the ordinary larceny of an item from someone's yard (Solymosi, Bowers & Fujiyama, 2015). In other words, correlating physical harm to crime aids the study of crime in a more comprehensive scope by placing adequate recognition on living communally within the neighbourhood to tackle the main objective of crime that usually induces fear (Snedker, 2015).

The following graphics represent the conceptual framework of the study: it shows the interrelationship between the key variables from the theories explored and how they lead to crime. The study's conceptual

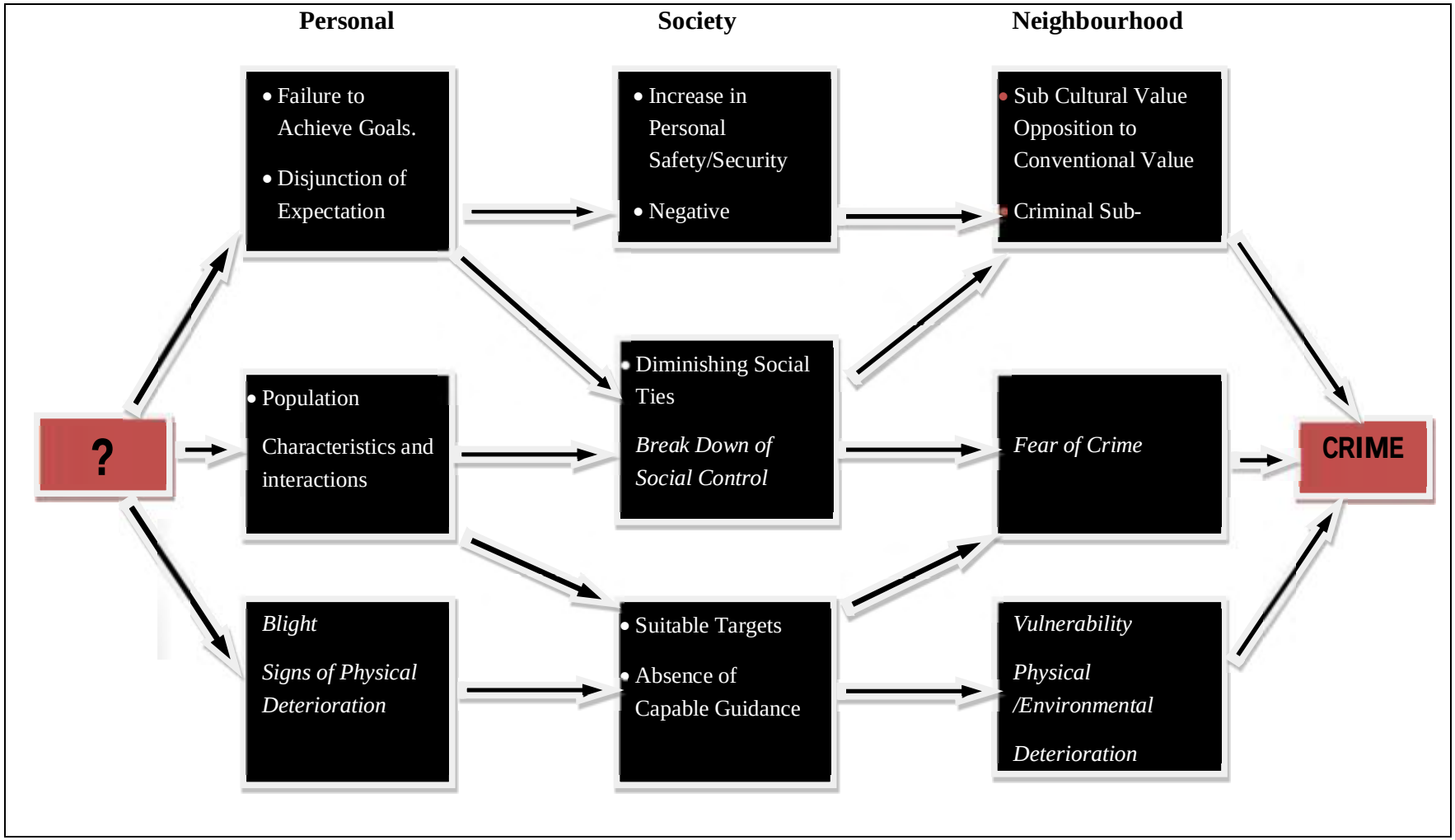
framework shows the links between significant variables from the urban sociological theories of the study. In addition, there are links between the independent, intermediate, and dependent variables. However, there is a missing link at this stage that scholarly research neglects. As a result, these actors trigger the independent variable, especially in cities of the Global South. Therefore, the study will unravel these factors/ variables and their indicators to better understand crime in the Global South.

4.3.9 Criminal Subculture

Subculture refers to a specific way of life within the general culture of a particular group of people in a given geographical area. It is an organisation within a society with a distinct and strict adherence to its views, belief systems, and way of life while retaining the overall values of the society. However, a criminal subculture is a culture that embraces crime and delinquency as a way of life (Azis, 2019). It is characterised by crimes, including human and property crimes. Criminal subcultures develop in areas with found crime patterns, consequently paving the way for juvenile criminal vocations as a means for survival instead of the legal regular job market (Ivanov et al., 2019). Skorchenko (2021) claims that these criminal subcultures are defined primarily by their divergence from social norms and morals, a trait that helps them to obtain popularity and recognition. These new standards have a substantial impact on subculture behaviours, distinguishing them from those found outside of subcultures. They are generally regarded as deviants, if not criminals, by society.

The concept of criminal subculture is founded on the belief that the majority of teenage crime perpetrators are from criminal and delinquent backgrounds. Bierich, (2019) viewed criminal subculture as an antithetical system found in societies with strong and well-built values and ideologies that frequently negate societal prosocial patterns. In the same view, Fatsis (2019) asserted that the fusion of teenagers into delinquent ways of life results from members' adjustment and status-related issues, which are a result of the evident social class disparity in society. Consequently, a teenager of the lower class seeks to adjust to higher social classes but is, however, met with aims and objectives that seem impossible to achieve owing to the societal constructs. So, in order to achieve this, they resort to crime and delinquency as a means of achieving set goals and objectives. As a result, this research builds on the conceptual framework illustrated in *Figure 4.5* below.

Figure 4.5: Conceptual Framework of the Study

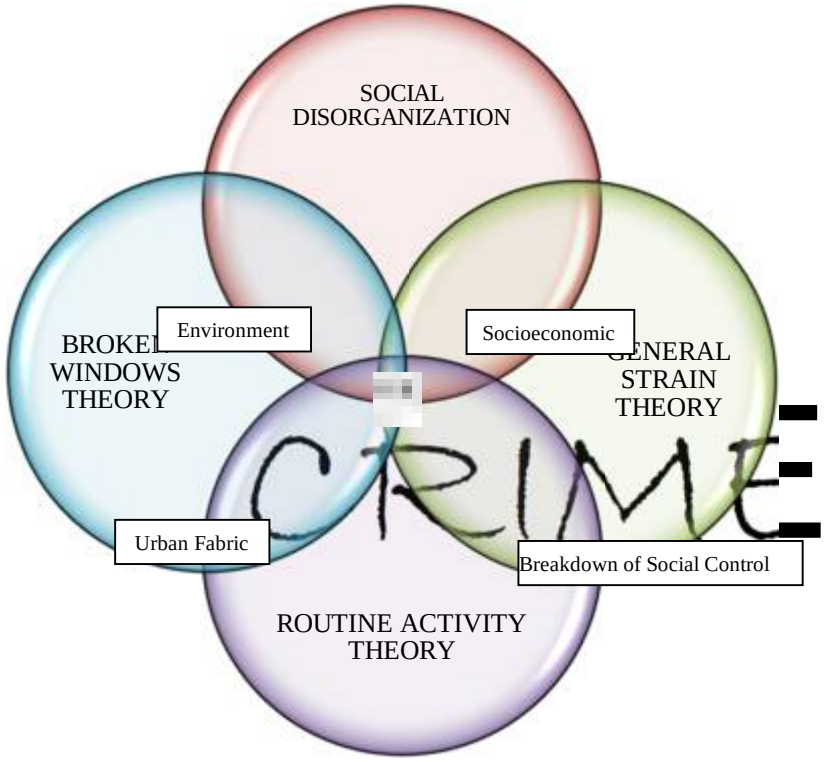


Source: *Author (2019)*

4.4 Summary / Research Gap

This section synthesised the relevant theories associated with the social structure of the built or physical environment on crime. The theories assume that offenders operate rationally, and they prefer to commit a crime in areas with limited opportunities to detect them (Jiang et al., 2018). Also, the area's physical characteristics are essential and play a role in criminogenic events. The literature on urban crime theories including Robert Agnew's (2019) general strain theory suggests socioeconomic factors, breakdown of social control, urban environments, and the urban fabric are responsible for insecurity challenges in urban centres *(see Figure 4.6)*.

Figure 4.6 Venn diagram showing interconnectivity of the theories.



Source: *Constructed by the author (2022)*

This research assumes that human, demographic, physical, and socioeconomic characteristics affect the behaviour (anti-social) of residents in the urban setting and impact the vulnerability of residents to crime in relation to the social disorganisation theory (Jiang et al., 2018). As a result, under-privileged people feel their disadvantaged status raises their likelihood of being victims of crime.

The solutions proffered mostly from the research conducted in the Global North did not take into consideration critical issues of social change such as breakdown of social control, ever-increasing population, unemployment, degenerating forms of poverty, growing socioeconomic inequality, territorial difficulty, increased vulnerability, and exclusion of specific areas of services. This research

aims at filling the gap in the existing literature by empirically examining the contributions of social changes in urban centres to crime, and also finding out the most critical factors that influence opportunities to commit a crime. The research will isolate and compare the level of influence each component of the socioeconomic and cultural environment has on crime. The methodology adopted in this research for the determination of factors of social change and their influence on crime is discussed in the next chapter.

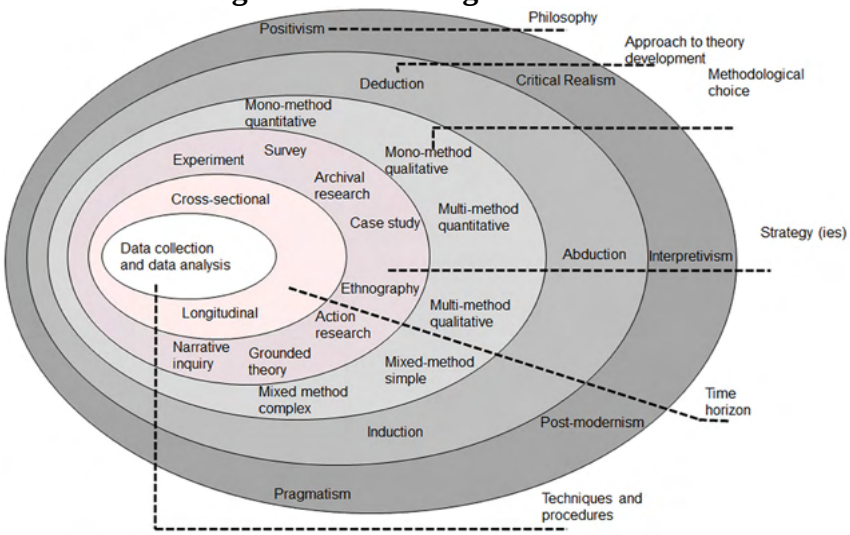
CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY FOR THE STUDY OF FACTORS OF SOCIAL CHANGES AND CRIME

5.1 Introduction

This section of the study will focus on the research methodology adopted, sampling technique, and a description of the data collection method, analysis, and ethical issues. The data needed to address the study's research questions are data from residents' socioeconomic status, demographics, physical environmental characteristics and socio-cultural characteristics of the study area and what role each plays in vulnerability and delinquency. The figure below by Saunders et al. (2019), shows the broad research methods every scientific investigation follows. A research methodology would be formed by picking at least one from each layer of the onion to define the mode and procedure, the research investigation will follow. The philosophical assumption of this research is pragmatism with phenomenological features, which builds towards a scientific inductive reasoning for an approach to theory. The methodological choice is a multi-method qualitative research approach using the research strategy is case study with a phenomenological strand, the time horizon for the study is cross-sectional. Finally, data collected from the study area was through participant observation and in-depth interviews with a semi-structured/in-depth interview guide to satisfy all research questions, aims, and objectives logically. As illustrated in *Figure 5.1,* the following sub-section Research Philosophy, Approach to theory Development, Methodological Choice, Strategies, Time Horizon and Data Collection and Analysis are an attempt towards justifying the choice of selection from each layer of the research onion.

Figure 5.1: Showing the research onion



Source: *The Research Onion* (Saunders et al., 2019)

5.2 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to the assumptions and beliefs concerning the foundation and development of knowledge (Dudovskiy, 2018). This is precisely what has been done in research by improving knowledge in the existing field of study. At every research stage, there are bound to be many assumptions to be made (Khatri, 2020). The assumptions encompass issues of human knowledge (epistemological assumptions), the realities encountered while carrying out the research (ontological assumptions) and the ways the researcher's values affect the process of the conduct of the research (axiological assumptions). All these are put together to determine how the research questions are understood, the research method to adopt, how the questions are answered, how the data collected is interpreted and how the findings are presented (Kirongo & Odoyo, 2020). These form the basis for the choice of a research philosophy. A carefully articulated and verified assumption from a credible research philosophy will set the foundation for the approach to theory development, methodological choice, research strategy, and data collection and analysis techniques.

The three basic research assumptions (ontology, epistemology and axiology) help distinguish the appropriate research philosophy adopted for this research. **Ontological** assumptions revolve around the nature of realities (Mkansi & Acheampong, 2012). Ontology deals with concepts such as existence, being, and becoming. It discusses topics such as how entities are classified into fundamental categories and which of these entities are fundamental (Ash, 2020). Ontologies are ways of classifying all entities. Many categories have been suggested, such as objects, properties, relations, and states of affairs. Within ontology, there are often disagreements regarding the existence of certain things and their relationships to one another. Some entities have a foundational existence and others rely on it, according to hierarchical ontologies (W. Liu et al., 2020). However, another school of thought rejects such privileges to any entity (Smirnov et al., 2021). The way we understand the world of urban and regional planning research is determined by ontology. This aids in the selection of this study, as we are looking at the complex reality of social change and how it affects crime.

Epistemology is concerned with how we perceive knowledge, the attributes of acceptable knowledge, and how knowledge can be transferred from one person to another (Saunders et al., 2016). While ontology initially looks obscure to research, epistemology looks very apparent. The variety of epistemological acceptability provides more insight into the methodological choice. Moreover, it is necessary to understand that adopting the different assumptions of epistemology determines the strength and limitations of the research findings. Despite the diversity of epistemological assumptions (Muhaise et al., 2020), this research carefully selected a methodology that will maximise the research findings and ensure the research results are factual, with the goal of achieving an acceptable result in

the area of research. Epistemological assumptions will govern the research and consider what is legitimate for the research.

Axiology is concerned with the role of ethics and values in the research process. This deals with the researcher's ethics and values and those of their intended research participants. The research ethics deployed in the study are paramount, as they determine the entire outcome of the research. Drawing from Saunders et al. (2016), values and ethics guide all human endeavours. Further emphasis on ethics and values, those axiological skills are demonstrated by researchers when they articulate their findings obtained through ethical means, which will be put forward to the public. Choosing one subject area over another clearly states that one's values and choices favour the selected subject. The choice and method of data collection adopted for the participant observation and in-depth interviews with respondents over other methods such as the administration of anonymous questionnaires and focus group discussion, which shows the researcher's choice of a more detailed response through ethical means towards addressing the research objectives.

After examining these research assumptions towards choosing an appropriate philosophy, the research was also examined through the two opposing extremes, objectivism and subjectivism. This research takes the line of subjectivism. **Subjectivism** is of the view that social realities evolve from the perception and the resultant effect of the actions of social actors. Ontologically, subjectivism embraces nominalism (conventionalism). Nominalism involves the order and structure of the social phenomena we study, which researchers and social actors create through words, conceptual categories, actions, and perceptions. The basic assumption is that there is no underlying reality outside the research and the social actor's experiences and feelings. This is all-embracing because each social actor has their own experience and perceives reality differently. This is the standout where this research draws its strength: the study of crime and the experiences of victims and offenders differs. This perfectly fits the study as it investigates violent crime and victimisation regarding public perception and experiences of crime in the neighbourhood context with a keen consideration of the geographical, historical, and socio-cultural impacts on crime. This makes more sense when multiple realities are examined rather than a single perception or experience. Moreover, the social interaction of actors is a continuous process that gets an influx of ideas and is open to revision. This shows that it is of greater significance that researchers should study situations in detail, to understand the reason for the paradigm shift through realities, perceptions, and experiences (Saunders et al., 2019).

Another dimension to examine the choice of research philosophy is to examine it through the political and ideological orientation of the researchers towards the social world they investigate. Dudovskiy

(2016) stated that these extremes are the sociology of radical change and the sociology of regulation. The researcher's orientation swings towards the **sociology of radical change**. This is a study on crime to investigate the most significant factor that is responsible for the rising rate of crime. This research tries to fundamentally question the way things are done or how they are perceived in society or how it has been put down in theory, this research is to create a paradigm shift to change the way of thinking in the social world.

The above discussed forms the choice for the research philosophy of **Pragmatism,** after careful examination of the various research assumptions, opposing extremes, and ideological orientation**.** Pragmatism is focused on making a difference, and it is only relevant where concepts support actions. Pragmatism was evolved by philosophers Charles Pierce, Williams James and John Dewey in the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century (Saunders, 2019). This philosophy tries to reconcile subjectivism and objectivism, values and facts, rigorous knowledge and accuracy, and different perceptions and experiences. This is done by examining theories, concepts, assumptions, hypotheses, ideas, questions, and research findings. Just as it was done with the Social Disorganisation, Routine activity, Broken windows, and General Strain theories. This forms the basis for the research position in shaping thought, research ideas, practical consequences and informed actions.

Pragmatists deal with reality as it concerns ideas, knowledge, and experiences. Pragmatic research starts with a problem and aims to evolve a practical solution to guide future practices (Almeder, 2019). Just as initially identified, a research problem is drawn from a gap observed in literature as there are limited issues dealing with social changes (socioeconomic, demographic, physical, and socio-cultural) and crime, particularly in the Global South. The drive for this research is born out of a sense that something is wrong, or we do not know the primary cause of a particular phenomenon. That result would be obtained for a different method or approach to research (multi-method). Pragmatics does not always imply using multi-methods but the best approach to enable the research to provide credible, reliable, grounded data to be collected to advance research and knowledge (Kelemen & Rumens, 2012).

Through the research philosophy of pragmatism, a phenomenological strand is sort for as it fits the scope of the research. **Phenomenology** focuses on the shared experiences of a particular group. These approaches have been deployed as a primary objective to describe a phenomenon (Neubauer et al., 2019). Interviews in phenomenology research are carried out on a group of people who have first-hand knowledge of an event, scenario, or experience to gather information (Qutoshi, 2018). Phenomenology is concerned with studying phenomena, which is the reality or circumstance that is recognised to exist or occur, particularly one whose source or explanation is being debated (Rodriguez & Smith, 2018).

In phenomenological research, participants seek to answer two broad questions in the interview, which could be drafted in different forms, but the underlying questions are: to what extent have the residents and key stakeholders been affected by the phenomenon (crime) and why do you think you have had this experience in the way you have had it? (Stolz, 2020). Data from other sources, such as journal papers, observations, and art can also be used in phenomenological research. It enables this research to combine participant observation in line with the in-depth interviews of residents and key stakeholders. Thereafter, the phase of reading and re-reading of the data set is undertaken and then observing of phrases and themes. Subsequently, they are grouped to generate meaning from the clusters (Creswell, 2012). In this way, the researcher might arrive at a more thorough knowledge of the phenomena.

Phenomenology is philosophical, psychological, and educational in origin. Phenomenology aims to obtain the purest, unadulterated data possible. In some interpretations, the researcher uses bracketing to capture personal interactions to separate themselves from the research process. Bracketing is a technique used in qualitative research to reduce the potentially harmful impacts of assumptions that may taint the research process (Tufford & Newman, 2012). Recording research interviews is one method of bracketing, which is applied to this research.

5.2.1 Approach to Theory Development

The approach to theory development is of three basic categories, which are induction, deduction, and abduction. Based on the underlying thought of this research, it aims to develop a critical reasoning approach that is more inclusive, which examines variables with an understanding of the way social actors perceive the world. There has been criticism for using the deductive approach because of its tendency to follow a rigid methodology that does not give room for different or alternative ways of doing things. A study using an inductive approach in reasoning is more concerned with how event occurs and not what factors account for it (Benitez-Correa et al., 2019). Unlike deductive, an inductive approach uses fewer research participants because a greater understanding of the particular phenomenon is sought (Boddy, 2016). With regards to the nature of data needed in this research, an inductive approach which utilises qualitative data through various methods such as in-depth interviews, observation, and focus group discussions is used to present different views of the phenomena (Saunders et al., 2019b). The development of such understanding is the strength of induction (Dudovskiy, 2019).

The choice of approach to theory development is **induction.** The emergence of social sciences in the early twentieth century led to the evolution of the inductive approach to theoretical developments (Beyazli et al., 2017). The purpose of an inductive approach here is feel of the entire process of research for a better understanding of the research problem under investigation (Streefkerk, 2019). The research task is to make maximum use of the data collected through interviews in the analysis section. The result of the process will be the formulation of an underpinning theory which is usually expressed in the form of a conceptual framework (Passey, 2020).

5.2.2 Methodological approach

Qualitative research is usually associated with interpretivism and pragmatic philosophies (Mark, Denzin, Norman, Lincoln & Yvonna, 2018). It follows interpretative and pragmatic philosophy because the researcher needs to draw a sense of the underlining meaning from the responses of the research participants to the phenomena under study. Furthermore, such research needs to operate in natural settings to establish a sense of trust from participants, in order to draw meaning from the understanding of the subject (Maher & Dertadian, 2018). The methodological approach for this research is the qualitative method.

Drawing from Saunders et al., (2019) qualitative research through the inductive process builds theories or develops in-depth theoretical perspectives further from what is existing in the literature. Qualitative research usually involves studying the underlying meaning of participants' responses and the relationship between them by deploying various data collection and analysis techniques to develop a theoretical contribution through a conceptual framework. Aspers and Corte (2019), in their work on what is qualitative in qualitative research, are of the view that methodological differences embody qualitativity. However, qualitative research remains significant irrespective of the methodological choice and analysis procedure adopted.

The data collection process is usually non-standardized in qualitative research. The use of a semi-structured interview guide is preferable to make the research natural and interactive. The semi-structured/in-depth interview is a qualitative data gathering approach in which the researcher poses a sequence of planned but open-ended questions to informants. A semi-structured interview is open, allowing for new ideas to emerge as a result of what the interviewee says (Gugiu & Rodríguez-Campos, 2007). This will help bring in new and emergent ideas to develop a well-grounded theoretical understanding (Anderson, 2010). Qualitative research is more likely to use non-probability sampling techniques like self-selection, quota, or snowball. The role of the researcher in a qualitative study

cannot be overemphasised. The researcher not only needs the ability to gain access to participants, but also develops a rapport through practical communication skills to gain cognitive access to data (Saunders et al., 2015).

A qualitative research design could use multiple qualitative data collection techniques and different analytical procedures (Saunders et al., 2016). This is because multi-method research allows qualitative researchers to explore relatively complex items or events in a holistic and meaningful manner. The goal is to approach the study topic from all methodological angles (Johnson et al., 2017). This research made use of in-depth interviews with stakeholders across the various groups, residents, and experts (see table 5.1) using a semi-structured/in-depth interview guide (further discussed in 5.3.1) research participants were selected using snowballing and the volunteer self-selection sampling techniques (further discussed in 5.5) data were also collected using the participant observation method (further discussed in 5.3.2) and analysed using thematic analysis (further discussed in 5.6).

5.2.3 Research Strategy

The reseach strategy adopted is the case study, the case study is an indepth inquiry into a topic or pheomenon within a realife setting, the case study in this case in the neighbourhood and the different groups to be examined for an indepth investigation. The process of chosing a case and boundary to be studied is a key factor in defining a case study (Saunders et al., 2015). Case study research set out to understand the dynamics of the topic been discussed within its setting or context. The study of a particular case within its realife setting or context helps to distinguish this perculiar research strategy from others(Mark, Denzin, Norman, Lincoln & Yvonna, 2018). The case study reseach is likely to prove to be challenging because of its intensive and indepth nature and the need to be able to identify, define and gain acess to a case study setting. The case study reseach strategy is ususally deployed when the boundaries between the phenomenon being studied and the context within which it is being studied are not always apparent. The case study strategy further has the capacity to generate a fresh insight from indepth and intensive reseach into a particular phenomenon in its real life context, leading to rich, emprical description and the development of a theory, (Mark Saunders et al., 2016), which exactly this reseach tries to do. The case study strategy is mostly used for an exploratory reseach, many pragmatic researchers tends to describe their case study in ample details, allowing reader make their own links to existing theory(Almeder, 2019). The case study reseach is beneficial when there is a combination of achival records and documentations from field, different forms of observations, ethnography, interviews and focus groups, reflections and the use of reseach diaries and other reseach aids(Saunders et al. 2019). This ensure the suitability of the case study research strategy for this study.

5.2.4 Determining the Time Horizon the Research was Conducted

Choosing the length of time and the fieldwork for the research is a relevant question during the design stage of the research. For example, will this research be a snapshot taken at a particular time, or will it be akin to a diary, a collection of snapshots that depict happenings through time? (Saunders et al., 2015) This will, of course, depend on the research question. The snapshot time horizon is called the cross-section, while the diary account, secondary data or researches over a long period of time is called the longitudinal. This research is cross-sectional, involving the study of a particular phenomenon at a particular time. The research undertaken is time-constrained. Moreover, interviews are expected to be done or conducted over a short period of time within months (Denzin, Norman, Lincoln, & Yvonna, 2018).

5.3 Method of data collection

The data for this study will be from primary (the study area) and secondary (works of literature and reports) sources. The types of data used in this research for the analysis are mainly primary data. Interviews, surveys, experiments, and other methods are means by which researchers collect primary data directly from sources. Primary data is generally derived directly from the origin, the location where the data emanated and is regarded as the pre-eminent sort of data for research. (Cliff et al., 2010).

Secondary data are facts from processed primary data made accessible to researchers in their research. Secondary data are type of data that has previously been obtained. Secondary data used in this research to better understand the scope of the study are bureaucratic reports, existing research, population data, online materials, research publications, institutional and financial reports. Government records are an essential and reliable source of secondary data (Cole et al., 2018).

Data gathering is an important stage in every scientific study; in fact, the quality of the data collecting method used affects, to a considerable part, the outcome of the inquiry (Galanis, 2018). A semi-structured in-depth interview with members of the host community and critical stakeholders who are up to 18 years and above whose occupations include, trading, traditional council heads, formal and informal security professionals (see Table 5.1), as well as participant observation, was used to collect data.

5.3.1 Semi-structured / In-depth Interview

The research interview is a structured conversation between two persons or more that necessitates the interviewer to make room for rapport and offer clear questions, void of ambiguity that the interview respondent is willing to pay attention to and react to alternately (Longhurst, 2009). It is vital to ask deliberate questions and listen closely to the responses to further analyse things. Interviews help you acquire reliable and valid data to support your research questions and objectives. They also help to construct concept; there are a variety of situations where acquiring data via a semi-structured/in-depth research interview can be advantageous. (Liao & Xie, 2009). These scenarios are classified into four categories: the objective of the study, the importance of making human contact, the type of the data collecting questions, the amount of time necessary, and the completion of the procedure.

The semi-structured/in-depth research interview was utilized to collect data (See Appendix VII and VIII) in this study based on the criteria listed above. Semi-structured/in-depth research interviews are non-standardized as compared to structured interviews (Nathan et al., 2019). In semi-structured/in-depth research interviews, the researcher prepares a list of themes to cover, as well as possibly some

key questions, nonetheless, their application may differ from one interview to the next. This means that, depending on the structural setting found with respect to the topic under investigation, some questions may be avoided. The sequence of the questions can potentially be changed based on the flow of the conversation (DeJonckheere & Vaughn, 2019). Given the nature of events within the group, additional questions were asked to further explore the topic of study and its aims. Depending on the type of question and the ensuing conversation, facts should be gathered using an audio recorder or note-taking. Aside from the list of subjects and questions to be covered, the interview schedule for this sort of interview will probably begin the discussion with some comments, a possible catalogue of occasions to energise and keep at the argument, and some comments to conclude it (Vaismoradi & Snelgrove, 2019).

5.3.2 Participant Observation

When using the participant observation technique of data collection, the researcher enters the social environment of people being watched and engages in their activities by becoming a member of their community (Shah, 2017). The level of involvement varies depending on the sort of engagement seen, ranging from pure observation to complete participation. The researcher learns by actually experiencing the social circumstance or study environment throughout the immersion phase (Huot, 2019).

The participant observation is used in this research and it has its origins in social anthropology, but it was the Chicago school (at the University of Chicago) that shifted its emphasis by employing ethnographic methods to investigate social and urban problems among ethnic communities in the United States (Pang, 2019). Among the several forms of participation observation (observer-as-participant, total observer, complete participation, and participant-as-observer), observer-as-participant is employed for this study. With an observation sheet (see Appendix IX), the researcher in the role of the observer-as-participant aimed to become a member of the group in which the study was conducted. The identity of the researcher was made known to all concerned, and the actual goal of the research was revealed to all concerned, first from some important members of society (the King of the community and other Chiefs, Police Area Commander, District Police Officer and Head of the Vigilante), and everyone concerned based on the peculiarity of the research topic, “crime” as safety is vital.

The decision to use this approach is based on pure research grounds, the study research questions, and objectives. There was a need to clarify the research objectives to the groups to be examined, as

they would be unlikely to conceal critical information if they were aware of your intentions (Del Giacco et al., 2020). This strategy allowed the researcher to concentrate on his work as a researcher. What was lacking, of course, was emotional involvement and a true understanding of what it was like to be on the receiving end of an event. That will not be essential in maintaining the ethical standard of the research of being a victim of crime.

5.4 Research Ethics

The research ethics approval was given by the Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical) of the University of the Witwatersrand (see appendix XIV), with protocol number H20/04/18, through a rigorous process of attending an ethics course, undergoing the ethics test, being certified, submitting of ethics application, review, issuance of the ethics approval, and progress report annually (see appendix V, VI, XII, XIII, XIV, and XV). In this research, participants' consent was sought using an informed consent form in line with ethical guidelines (see Appendix I and II). Research participants were briefed in detail about what the research was all about and the implications of participation in a participant information sheet (see Appendix III and VI). The anonymity of the individuals involved in the research was acknowledged and ensure the respondents were impersonal in their contributions to the study.

Furthermore, the participants were made to know that they were free to quit the research at any time without being questioned. There were no personal costs to participate in this project, no direct benefits for participation, and no demerits or sanctions for not wanting to be a part of or desist from the study. Participants were free to discontinue the study as well as neglect questions they don't want to answer. These details were captured in the participant information sheet (see appendix III and VI). The data from the interview was private and anonymous and as such, no names or identifying information were collected and the information given was kept secure and not disclosed to anyone else (see interview guide in Appendix VII and VIII). There were no experiences of distress or discomfort at any point in this process; otherwise, the interview would have been stopped to resume another time.

All forms of possible risk or harm due to the research, such as anxiety, embarrassment, and distress, were carefully managed and perhaps avoided. However, if there was a need for assistance or guidance services as it concerned the interview, these were available without cost at Naphtali Physiotherapy and Wellness Clinic (as spelt out in the participant information sheet, Appendix III and VI).

5.5 Sampling techniques, size, and procedure

There is no specific target population for this study; therefore, a sample frame cannot be established. The non-probability sampling technique was used in this research, specifically, the snowballing and the volunteer self-selection sampling technique was chosen. Snowballing relies on identifying a key stakeholder concerned with the phenomenon under study and from there other participant may be selected through identification from the first contact person. While the self-selection technique relies on discretion rather than probability and what the researcher chooses as the sample. In determining the sample size, Marshall et al. (2013) suggest that there are several factors to consider, including the research questions and objectives, the resources that will be helpful, and the phases of the study. Saunders et al. (2015) also suggested that it is possible to continue gathering qualitative data until data saturation, meaning that the interview process has yielded no new information. Creswell (2012) and Mark Saunders et al. (2015) further suggested that the number of interview participants should be a minimum of 30 (thirty) if the population is heterogeneous. This research selected 40 (forty) interview participants, 32 (thirty-two) community members, and 8 (eight) across the rank of officers of the Nigerian Police Force.

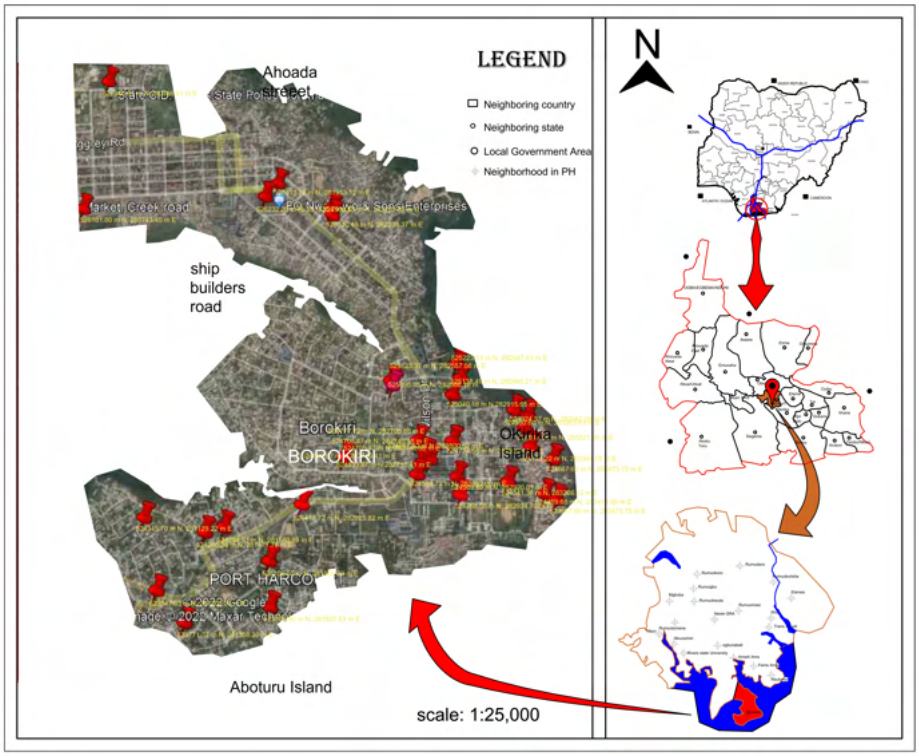
Consent was requested and a permission letter was granted from the Nigerian Police Force (See Appendix X) and the king of the Community (see Appendix XI) before the in-depth interviews were carried out with a semi-structured/in-depth interview guide. Eight (8) in-depth interviews were conducted with security leaders (see Table 5.1) and they were selected after explaining the research topic to them, through the self-selection sampling techniques. The interviews were conducted in an informal conversational manner in a quiet environment at an agreed time at their offices or residences. The first person contacted was the Police Area Commander of the Port-Harcourt Metropolis. From there, other participants were contacted. Because of the current COVID-19 pandemic, the interviews were conducted physically with the required social distancing.

In addition, the first contact person for the police was the Police Area Commander of Port Harcourt who is the Chief Superintendent of Police, he assisted in meeting other research participants in the Nigerian Police Force, such as the Divisional Police Officer in Charge of Borokiri, a deputy Superintendents of police, an assistant superintendent of police, and one Inspector of Police, a sergeant major, a corporal, and a constable, all withing the Police Area Command in Port Harcourt and the police division in Borokiri, Portharcourt. These police officers were contacted, and a meeting was scheduled, the meeting was held at an agreed time, consent was obtained verbally, and the interview was done physically with the required social distance. Thirty-two (32) other randomly selected adult community members across different groups (the traditional council, vigilante groups, youths, market

women associations, religious groups, and principals of schools) of the study district *(see Table 5.1)*. These selections are aimed at effectively assessing the informal social control mechanism of the study area. The first person contacted was the King of the Community. From there, other participants were contacted.

A digital recorder was used in in-depth interview sessions to capture the discussions/information/data and was transcribed verbatim to capture every detail. There were also some jottings to ensure accuracy for a precise transcription of those parts of the interviews conducted in Igbo or pidgin English. A careful translation was done to ensure exactness and content originality. The participants' behaviour was also recorded using observation guidelines. The observation method also accesses the urban fabric, facilities, infrastructure, criminal sub-culture, and crime hotspots identified. Photos were used for the presentation of data for graphical and visual understanding. There was strict protection and respect for personal data provided by participants throughout the research. The data collected was stored on a password-enabled device. This will be saved throughout the research or possibly for five years, after which the data will be destroyed. This research was conducted to ensure quality and integrity and maximise the chance of obtaining valid results.

Figure 5.2: Map showing the different locations the interview with respondents were conducted



Source: *River State Ministry of Urban Development and Physical Planning and Designed by the author*

Table 5.1: Showing the Code, group, date, and location the interview was conducted.

S/N	Code (Identity Number)	Category	Group	Location/ Street Name	Date of Interview	Time of Interview GMT+1 (Nigerian Time)
1.	IDN0001	POLICE	Nigerian Police Force	Moscow Road	9/2/21.	1:15pm - 1:40pm
2.	IDN0002		Nigerian Police Force	Harold Wilson Dr.	10/2/21	11:08 - 11:27am
3	IDN0003		Nigerian Police Force	Moscow Road	9/2/21	2:09pm- 2:31pm
4	IDN0004		Nigerian Police Force	Creek Road Nembe Waterside/Jetty	10/2/21	2:43pm-3:01pm
5	IDN0005		Nigerian Police Force	Hospital Road.	11/2/21	11:23am -11:40am
6	IDN0006		Nigerian Police Force	Aggrey Road	11/2/21	2:21pm – 2:37pm
7	IDN0007		Nigerian Police Force	Harold Wilson Dr.	16/2/21	11:42am- 11:54am
8	IDN0008		Nigerian Police Force	Harold Wilson Dr.	16/2/21	10:43am- 11:00am
9	IDN0009		Borokiri Community	Harold Wilson Dr.	23/2/21	4:37pm -5:05pm
10.	IDN0010		Borokiri Community	Harold Wilson Dr.	23/2/21	5:23pm – 5:50pm
11.	IDN0011		Borokiri Community	Road 1	24/2/21	4:32pm – 5:02pm
12.	IDN0012		Borokiri Community	Harold Wilson Dr.	24/2/21	5:23pm - 6:01pm
13.	IDN0013		Borokiri Community	Kingsley Road	25/2/21	10:37am -11:01am
14	IDN0014		Borokiri Community	Road 6	25/2/21	11:45am – 12:15pm

15.	IDN0015	RESIDENTS	Borokiri Community	Dr Akuro Adoki Avenue	25/2/21	12:59pm – 1:28pm
16.	IDN0016		Borokiri Community	434 Meters off the right from Harold Wilson Dr. at NNSSPH Junction	25/2/21	2:48pm – 3:07pm
17	IDN0017		Borokiri Community	Nembe Street	8/3/21	10:10am – 10:41am
18	IDN0018		Borokiri Community	Goerge Nemi Street	8/3/21	4:23pm – 4:49pm
19	IDN0019		Borokiri Community	Aluu Street	9/3/21	4:34pm -5:04pm
20	IDN0020		Borokiri Community	3RD Avenue	9/3/21	5:32pm – 6:00pm
21	IDN0021		Borokiri Community	Bori Street	27/3/21	4:14pm -4:38pm
22	IDN0022		Borokiri Community	102 meters off Ozuboko Street, water side.	27/3/21	5:21pm -5:55pm
23	IDN0023		Borokiri Community	88.05m of Greater Evangelism Church, Water side borokiri	28/3/21	4:57pm - 5:25pm
24	IDN0024		Borokiri Community	79.65meters off Rex lawson street.	28/3/21	5:30pm – 6:01pm
25	IDN0025	REPRESENTATIVES OF THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA.	PHLGA	Emakalaka Street Phlga Local Government.	12/4/21	11:32am – 12:01pm
26	IDN0026		PHLGA	Emakalaka Street Phlga Local Government.	12/4/21	1:21pm -1:49pm
27	IDN0027	PRIVATE SECURITY	Sewa West Africa Nigeria Limited	Kolokuma Street	15/4/21	1:05pm -1:30pm
28	IDN0028		Dredging International	3rd Avenue	15/4/21	1: 45pm -2:05pm

			Services Nigeria Limited			
29	IDN0029	WOMEN WING	Borokiri Community	Garri Market	22/4/21	10:21am – 10 54am
30	IDN0030		Borokiri Community	New Markey Layout	22/4/21	11:12am – 11:34am
31	IDN0031	MARKET WOMEN	New Market Layout	Garri Market	22/4/21	11: 55am – 12 20pm
32	IDN0032		New Market Layout	New market Layout	22/4/21	12: 48pm -1:04pm
33.	IDN0033	VIGILANTE	Vigilante	111 meters off Rex Lawson Street	30/4/21	2:08pm -2:30pm
34.	IDN0034		Vigilante	Etche Street	30/4/21	2:45pm -3:10pm
35.	IDN0035		Vigilante	Water Side	30/4/21	3:31pm – 4:01pm
36.	IDN0036		Vigilante	100 meters off Etche Street Waterside.	30/4/21	4:10pm -4:41pm
37.	IDN0037	PRINCIPALS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL	Enitonia Secondary School	Egbema Street	10/5/21	11:32am -12:01pm
38	IDN0038		Government Comprehensive Secondary School	Okarki Street	14/5/21	12:01 pm -12:30pm
39.	IDN0039	RELIGIOUS LEADERS	St Marks Anglican Church, Borokiri	Douglas Avenue	23/5/21	1:23pm -1:47pm
40.	IDN0040		St Joseph Catholic Church	Nembe Street	23/5/21	2:30pm – 3:17pm

The preliminary processing of the qualitative data was done one objective at a time, a question was examined across all interview transcripts one after the other, and quotable quotes drawn from the interview transcript were taken into consideration. The data was analysed using thematic analysis (see 5.6.1 for more details). Data on crime hotspots, areas with dilapidated infrastructure and visible signs of deterioration were presented in maps spatially to aid a better virtual understanding of how location and urban fabric affect crime.

5.6 Approach to Data Analysis

The data collected from interviews of the respondents within the study area was analysed using the qualitative research method of data analysis. It will be constructive first to understand what kind of data was collected qualitatively. That is the only way we could analyse the data meaningfully. For better clarity, qualitative data meaning is usually from words and images (GeeksforGeeks, 2018). Therefore, based on the varied nature of words and images concerned with meaning and understanding, it is essential to clarify, examine, and explore the data collected with utmost care. This means the quality of results derived from qualitative research greatly depends on the transmission from data collection to data analysis (McGowan et al., 2020).

Research originates from either an inductive approach or a deductive approach. This research is commenced through an inductive approach (Dudovskiy, 2019). From this approach, the use of the existing theories (General Strain, Routine Activity, and the Broken Window Theories) that form this research's theoretical framework to shape and organise the qualitative research process and the significant aspect of data analysis. As proposed by Hollweck (2016), this research made use of existing theories (Social Disorganisation, General Strain, Routine Activity, and the Broken Window Theories) to formulate the research objectives and questions. These theoretical prepositions will also serve as the framework to organise and analyse the data. Notwithstanding, there have been some debates about using the theoretical framework to guide the data analysis (Collingridge & Gantt, 2019), as it may be too restrictive towards the issues contained in the data collected and may not allow the true meaning expressed by the research respondent to be explored sufficiently. In this research this suggest that the theoretical base is appropriate. This help to link the research to the existing body of knowledge in the field of study and provide the research with an in-depth analytical framework. The foundation of the research is based on inductive reasoning from global theories to real-world experience. This study validated these postulates or reveal their shortcomings, particularly in the Global South. Below are the postulates/assumptions of the theories under consideration.

The Social Disorganisation Theory: Areas characterized by economic deprivation with high population turnover rates and weak social control increase crime and delinquency rates.

The General Strain Theory: Negative emotions, social support, and gender differences mediate the crime-strain correlation.

Routine Activity Theory: Crime is not affected by social factors like inequality, poverty, and unemployment but is highly correlated to social changes in educational qualification, population increase, society's social organisation, and lifestyle. All these contribute to opportunities to commit a crime.

Broken Windows Theory: Obvious crime indicators, anti-social behaviour, and environmental deterioration create urban circumstances that stimulate crime and disorder.

From the above assumptions from the theory under consideration that guides this research, the following variables were drawn out; failure to achieve goals, the disjunction between expectations and achievement, population characteristics and interactions, residential mobility, physical and environmental deterioration, increase in personal safety/security, negative emotions, diminishing social ties, breakdown of social control, suitable targets, absence of capable guidance, criminal culture opposition to conventional values, criminal subculture, fear of crime, vulnerability. Also, this will be categorized with the research questions for better understanding.

5.6.1 Thematic Analysis of Qualitative Data

Thematic analysis was used in this study; it is regarded as the most generic approach to qualitative data analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006) put forward that thematic analysis is the foundational method of data analysis for qualitative research. The significant aspect of this method of data analysis is the exploration of the vital patterns and themes that kept popping up over the data set collected (interviews). The thematic analysis also involves the researcher coding the qualitative data collected to identify key patterns and themes to help his analysis towards answering the study's research questions, leading to in-depth exploration, description, explanation and theorising (Belotto, 2018).

One other primary idea for choosing thematic analysis is that it is not tied to a specific research philosophy. The thematic analysis could be applied to either the subjectivist or objectivist position. The thematic analysis could be used in a realist study concerning human attitudes and actions (Longhurst et al., 2020). Finally, the thematic study is used in an interpretive or pragmatic study to explore different interpretations of a phenomenon. The fundamental reason for choosing the thematic analysis in this research is that it could serve as a standalone analytical technique rather than being part of the theoretically mounted methodological approach irrespective of your position on its development.

Thematic analysis can be used when adopting an inductive approach. For example, an inductive approach would link the themes and patterns identified from the data set collected to existing theory (Lochmiller, 2021). Through this, the research questions and objectives of the study can be strongly established and used to derive the themes and patterns from examining the data set collected. This will help guide the analysis of the data sets to the relevant responses.

5.6.3 Coding

Coding in qualitative data analysis is used to sort data with similar meanings (Kanygin & Koretckaia, 2021). The basic process involved in coding is to label each unit of data within the transcript with a code that represents or concludes the exact meaning. The main reason for coding is to make each piece of data the research is interested in accessible for practical analysis (Elliott, 2018). Qualitative data sets from transcripts are usually complex, so coding eases the complexities for better assimilation, coding help for easy comprehension of these data sets (Skjott Linneberg & Korsgaard, 2019). A code in this research is a single word or phrase. The qualitative data sets collected in this study include actions, beliefs, behaviours, events, ideas, conditions, interactions, and outcomes, which were used as the codes. A coded data extract is referred to as a data unit. A data unit may be several words, a transcript line, several sentences, or complete paragraphs summated by a different code (see Appendix XVI).

5.7 Method of Data Presentation

Qualitative research entails gathering, analysing, and interpreting data that cannot be reduced to numbers. These facts are about the social world, as well as people's concepts and behaviours within it. In all social disciplines and applied sciences, qualitative research is used. They are different types of qualitative data, those used for this study include audio recordings and transcripts from in-depth/ semi-structured interviews, field notes (notes taken by the researcher while in the field being studied, observation notes, images, and photographs. The methods of data presentation adopted from the above sets of data collected are as follows:

Qualitative data are usually presented in text, as the data are translated and transcribed from audio to text, text aids for a better explanation and description of a particular situation by the respondent. They could come in form of direct quotations or a paraphrased statement explaining the details. Tabulation is the next step before that data is used for analysis or interpretation, the simple table format was used for easy understanding. A pictogram was also used to virtually present the data more engagingly. Pictogram method help to convey information from the data set to a broader audience for better understanding. Small pictures were used to present the data, the number of pictures was proportional to the frequency of size. Although pictograms are not very effective for visualizing large sets of data, the message is conveyed and provides room for further explanation in text. Spot maps were also deployed to show the geographical location of crime-prone areas and places identified as hot spots; a

dot may depict a certain number of cases. All these methods were deployed for a better presentation of the data collected for this study.

5.8 Conclusion

The research methodology is a critical stage in any scientific investigation; in fact, the soundness of the method employed determines, to a large extent, the success of the inquiry and research. Based on the foregoing, the data collection methods adopted are semi-structured/in-depth interviews and participant-observation. The methods of analysis adopted include thematic data analysis and coding

(Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick, 2018). The data collected to address the research questions of the study were residents' socioeconomic status, demographics, physical environmental characteristics, and the socio-cultural characteristics of the environment in the study area. In addition, the role each of these factors plays in vulnerability and delinquency was investigated. The data collected from the field logically satisfies all sets of the research questions, aims, and objectives of the study. The research went on to justify the selection of the study area for urban crime research in the succeeding chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATION FOR THE URBAN CRIME RESEARCH

6.1 Introduction

In the selection and determination of a study area for urban crime research, several factors are considered: an area does not just become a crime study area (Lee & Kim, 2018). Factors such as crime rate in the area, socioeconomic status of the population of the area, policing/security method adopted, sociodemographic distribution of the area, neighbourhood characteristics, and sociocultural features of the area are some of the factors that justify an area to become a study area for crime research. Also, the probability of future and inherent crime occurrence justifies the selection of an area for crime research studies (Butt et al., 2020). Moreover, an area becomes a hotspot for crime and related research studies when it is evident that crime seems to be considered a way of life, when inhabitants' and properties' safety is at a serious threat, and when the current situation of the community security measures is no match as regards the rate at which crime is blossoming. The socioeconomic and sociodemographic factors have been discussed in previous chapters. Thus, this chapter aims at determining the crime rates, policing/security methods adopted, neighbourhood characteristics, and related impact on crime in the selected region and area.

6.2 Selecting a Study Area for the Study of Crime in the Global South

Considering the critical concepts of this study, deterioration, social control, vulnerability, and the fear of crime are considerable factors critical to the Global South (South, 2017). The Global South *(see Figure 6.1 below)* is a concept that refers to low- and middle-income nations, especially in Asia, Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean (World Bank and The Global Economy, 2017). The breakdown of social control is more critical in Africa than in other regions of the Global South (Emmett, 2004). Nigeria has the most urban centres in Africa. The nation comprises over two hundred (200) different languages and multicultural and religious diversity (OPEC, 2017). Nigeria is now at the forefront of global crime statistics (Ghani, 2017). In the last decade, Nigeria has recorded high incidents of violent and non-violent crimes. Nigeria ranks as the tenth most dangerous country globally *(as seen in Table 6.1 below),* with two local cities listed among the 20 most dangerous cities (Crime Stats, 2015 ; Oguntunde et al.,2018).

Figure 6.1: Showing the Global South

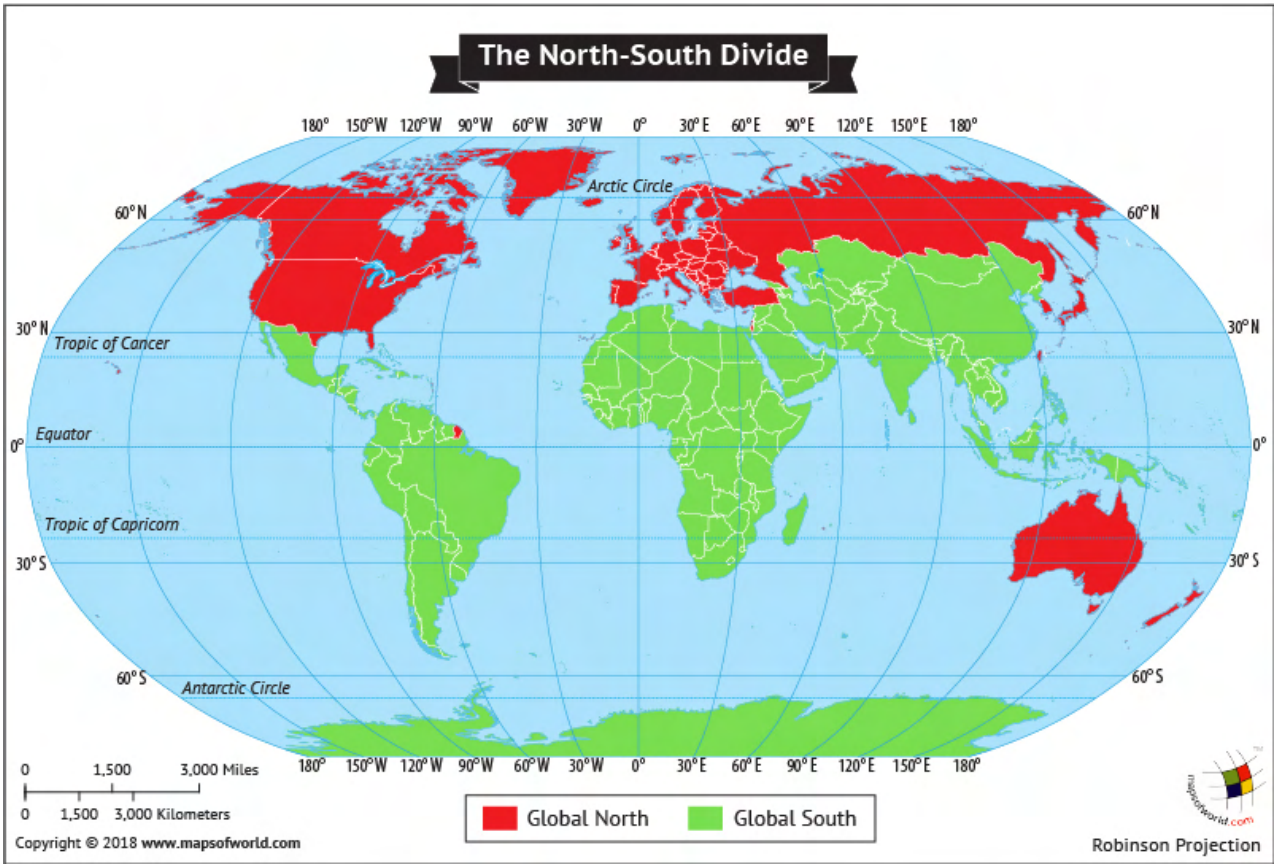
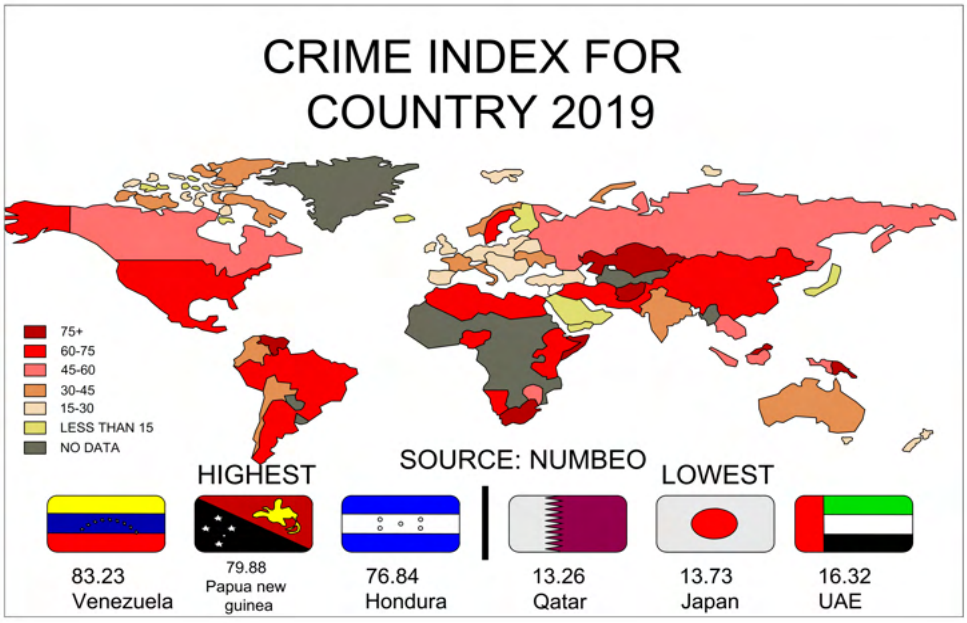


Figure 6.2: Crime Index in the World for 2022



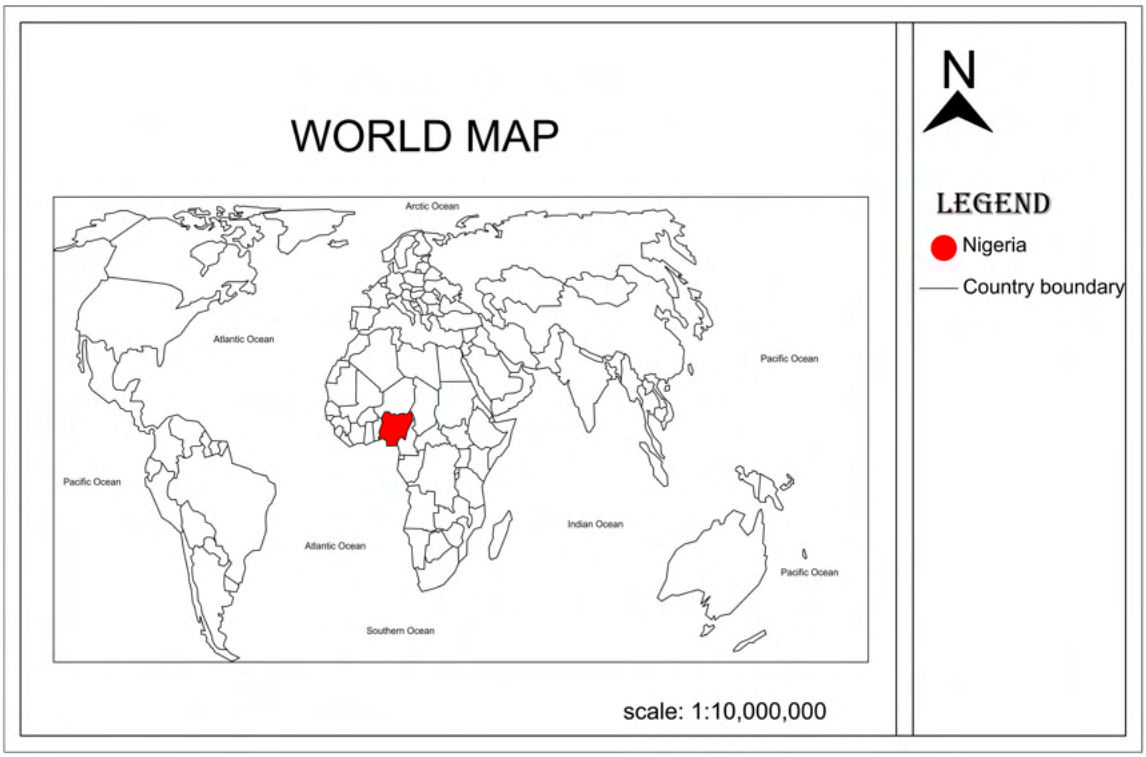
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Table 1. Crime and Safety Index Rankings Countries

	Country	*Crime Index*	*Safety Index*
1	Venezuela	82.38	17.62
2	Papua New Guinea	79.49	20.51
3	Honduras	79.14	20.86
4	South Africa	76.08	23.92
5	Trinidad and Tobago	74.20	25.80
6	Brazil	70.28	29.72
7	El Salvador	68.45	31.55
8	Namibia	68.10	31.90
9	Jamaica	66.47	33.53
10	Nigeria	66.14	33.86
11	Afghanistan	66.03	32.04
12	Iraq	65.23	33.02

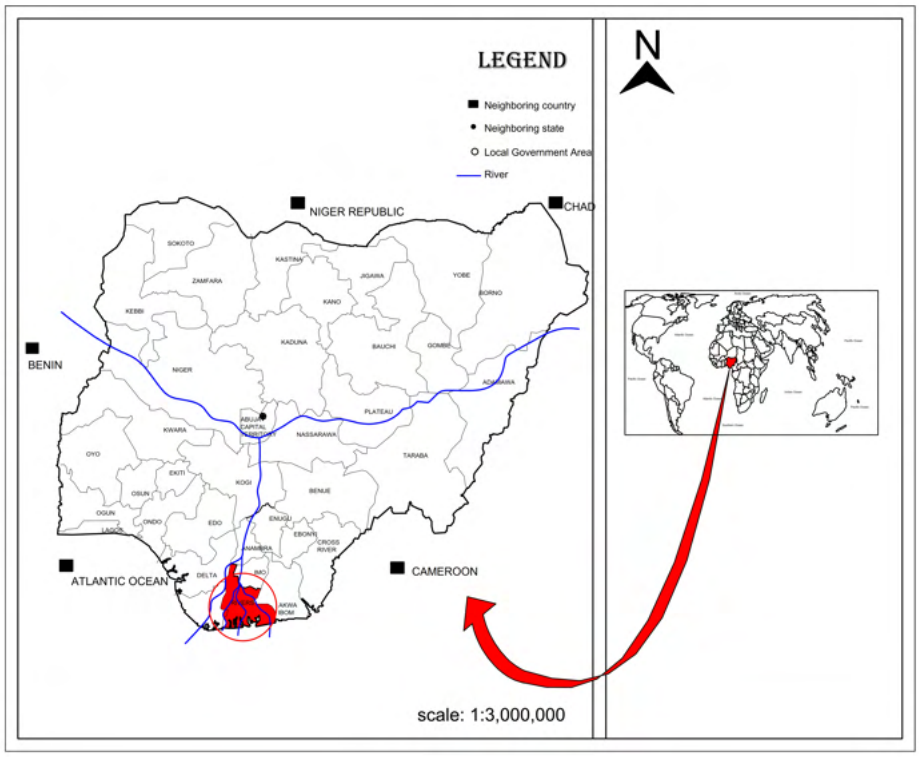
Crime Stats (2015), Numebo (2022)

Figure 6.3: World map showing Nigeria



The nation – Nigeria has been for decades, in the news, a source of periodic episodes of violence such as the Biafra – Nigeria Civil war from 1966 to 1970, the Ife and Modakeke crisis of the 1980s, the Niger Delta crisis from 1999 to 2001, the Southern Kaduna conflict 2016 to 2018, and the Boko Haram Insurgency since 2000 to date (Asiyanbola, 2010). The country has been torn apart by violence, wars, and ethnic conflict, making it unstable (Balogun, Okeke, and Chukwukere, 2014). The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report, published by the World Economic Forum in 2018, examines the travel and tourism sectors in 136 countries.

Figure 6.4: Map of Nigeria showing Rivers State



Source: Rivers State Ministry of Urban Development and Physical Planning.

The ranking of how safe those 136 nations are for tourists is included in the report. The ranking is determined by the occurrence of violence and terrorism, rather than petty crime. Nigeria, Pakistan, El Salvador, Yemen, and Colombia are the five most dangerous countries listed in the report. Consequently, in Nigeria, the fundamentals of community policing, especially in cities including the Port-Harcourt city of Rivers State, can be traced back to traditional Nigerian societies, where community policing was carried out by community members, organisations, groups, vigilantes, and informal traditional institutions such as the traditional ruling council.

Williams and Williams (2012) assert that robbery, rape, ethnic violence, assault, homicide, fraud, gangsters, and cultism (Anti social group that is defined by its unusual religious, spiritual or philosophical beliefs) at tertiary schools can all be avoided with the support of community policing in collaboration with vigilante groups. The goal of community policing is to keep people safe. Therefore, the study's focus includes local community policing and law enforcement. In recent times, armed robberies have been recurring forms of crime in Nigeria, contributing to about 50% of an overall 8,516 crime-related deaths between June 2006 and September 2015, with cities such as Lagos, Port-Harcourt, Ibadan, Makurdi, and Onitsha reported as the most affected (Oguntunde et al., 2018). Crime fatalities are more common in southern

Nigeria than in the north, where terrorism and religious clashes are perhaps more common. However, the government has shown an inability to address most of the sources of crime, which explains why it has become challenging to nip in the bud (Nwankwo and James, 2016).

Table 6.2: Number of recorded physical crimes occurrence in major Nigerian cities

Rank	***City***	***Average number of reported crime cases per year***
1	Lagos	**1554**
2	Port-Harcourt	1376
3	Ibadan	1096
4	Makurdi	1023
5	Onitsha	1002

(Nwankwo and James, 2016).

This research suggests that the engagement of community members in watching and regulating police activities can as well be termed community policing. Lamin & Teboh (2016) argue that the police take legal social actions and become a part of the community in the process of community policing. The police infiltrate the community in all aspects, build personal ties at the local level, and become community members using this strategy. Because communities are dynamic and change over time, police officers must be adaptable. Due to multi-agency involvement, the police assist guild communities (Rus et al., 2012). According to Gill et al. (2014), the police must respond appropriately and consider their job in the communities to re-establish neighbourhood connections and reinforce the institutions that make a community competent and capable of dealing with its problems. The goal of community policing and crime prevention, according to Gill et al. (2014), is to empower residents to oppose crime and hazardous situations, that are fundamental causes of social evils, and to establish a safe community that is well-oriented about public safety-related issues. It also responds adequately to community complaints on the street without compromising the police's ability to appropriately handle crises. It allies with indigenous groups, social service agencies, and schools to solve problems and prevent crimes daily (Peaslee, 2009).

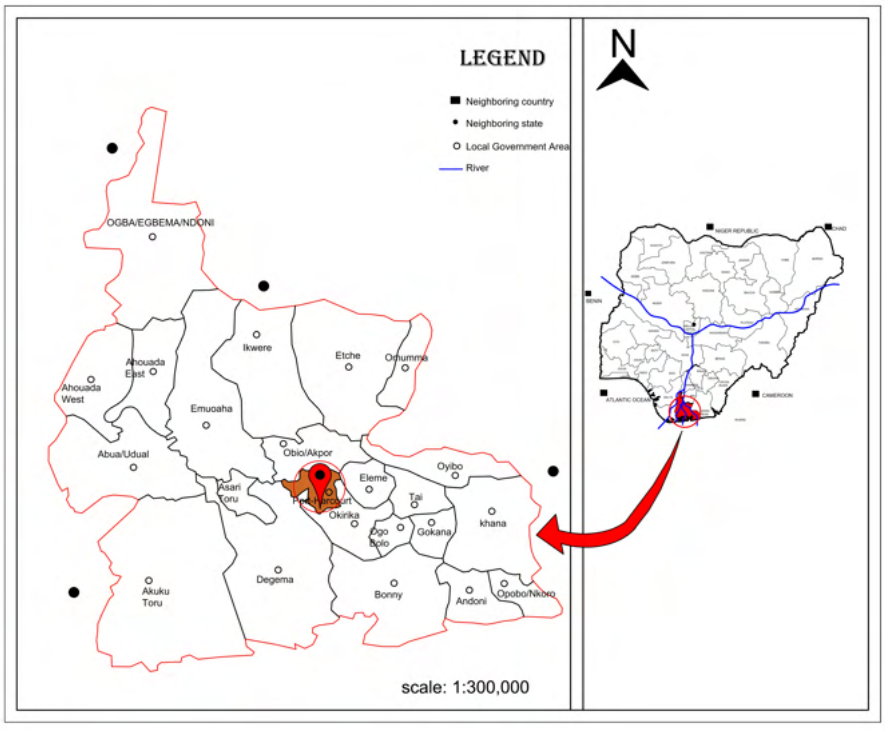
Table 6.3: Crime comparison in Lagos, Port Harcourt, and Kano

Index	*Lagos*	*Port-Harcourt*	*Kano*	*Nigeria*
Crime Index	64.99	73.45	61.23	66.14
Safety Index	35.01	26.55	40.21	33.86

(Index to the Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 2006).

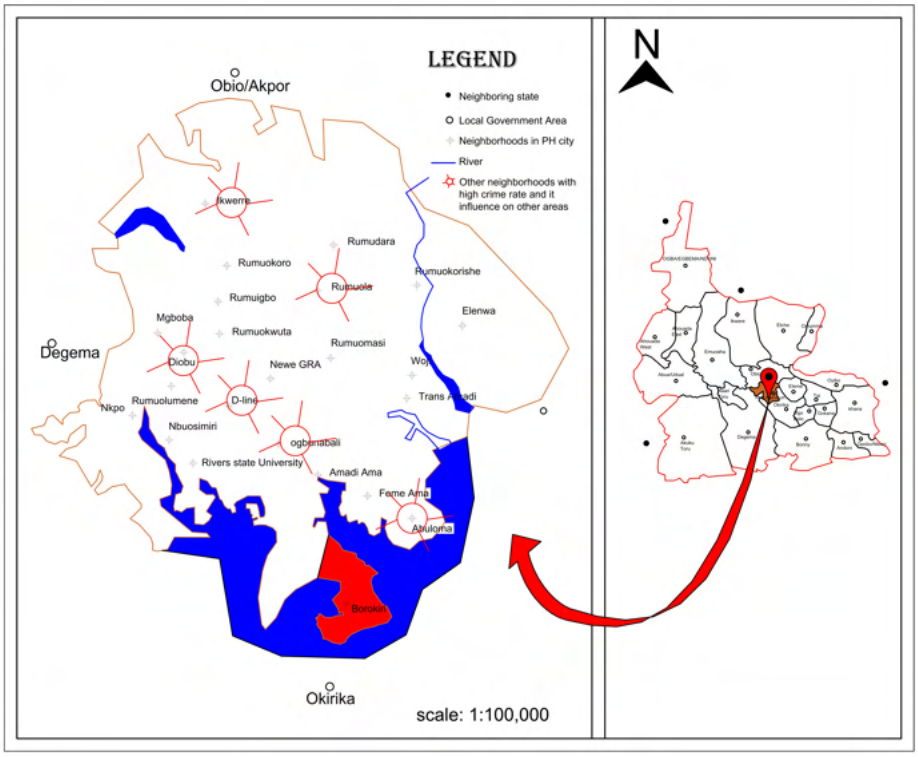
Port-Harcourt is currently the largest city in Rivers State. It lies in the South-South geopolitical zone, and is ranked the 4th largest city in Nigeria. Its geographical location is in the oil-rich coastal region of the Niger delta. Port-Harcourt has an estimated population of 2,876,763 million as of 2019 (World Population Review, 2019). The city has a population density of about 7,796.10 persons per km². The population is spread over a total surface area of 369 square kilometres (National Bureau of Statistics, 2012b). Considering the crime rate and demographic characteristics presented above, Port-Harcourt was chosen for this study. Port-Harcourt city has significant demographic characteristics and relevant crime records and incidents are highly significant compared to other cities within the said region.

Figure 6.5: Location map of the study area



Source: *Ministry of Physical Planning Rivers State (2021)*

Figure 6.6: Study area

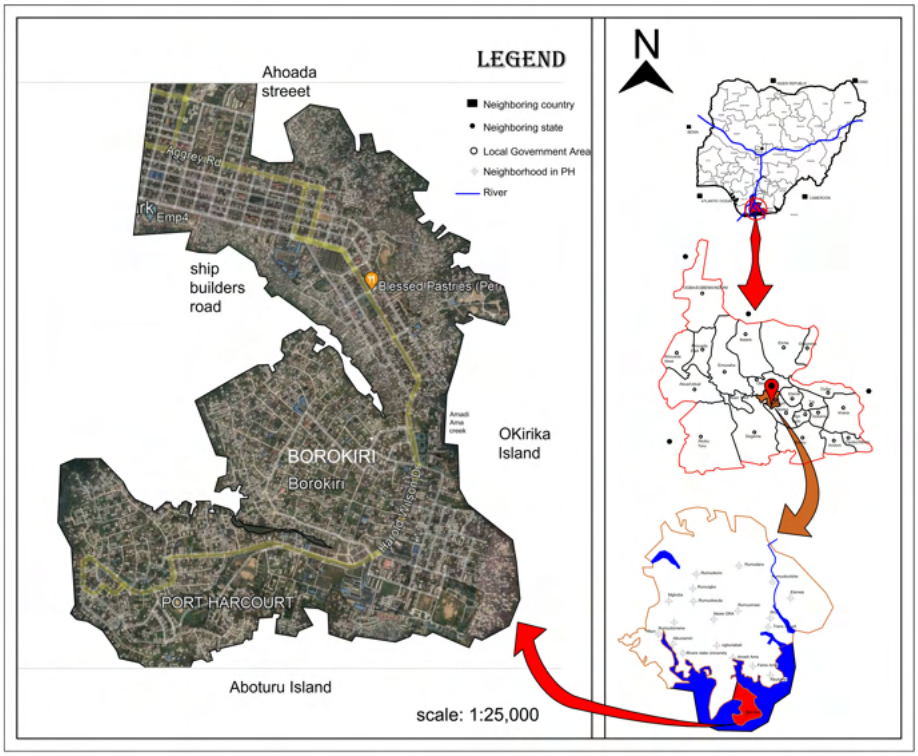


Source: Adapted from google earth imagery (2021) and *Designed by the author*.

The high-crime neighbourhoods in the metropolitan city of Port-Harcourt are Diobu, Rumuola, Borokiri, Ikwerre, Ogbunabali, Abuloma, and D-line. The neighbourhood chosen for this study is Borokiri, located south of Old GRA in Port-Harcourt city. The neighbourhood of Borokiri is bounded to the east by Okrika Island (Over the Aboturu Creeks), to the west by Ship Builders Road, Ahoada Street to the north, and Orubiri oilfield to the south. Its land uses comprise commercial, institutional, recreational, and residential land uses.

Borokiri – sometimes called Borikiri *(see Figure 6.7)* is a neighbourhood of Port-Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria, located immediately south of Old GRA. It is situated at latitude 4.749° N and longitude 7.035° E. There is no definite history in the Borokiri area. Rather, it takes its history in the context of the city of Port-Harcourt. Moreso, Port-Harcourt city was founded in 1912 in colonial Nigeria (Brown, 2013). Its population as recorded in 2022 is put at 3,325,000 in 2022, a per cent growth of 4.86 from 2021 (das nações Unidas, 2019).

Figure 6.7: Map of Borokiri, the study area



Source: Adapted from google earth imagery (2021) and *Designed by the author*.

The residential district of Borokiri was selected for this study because of its peculiarity (issues of social change and crime) to the study. According to Inoma-Abbey & Kakulu, (2018) Borokiri, among other areas like Diobu, has an outstanding rate of property crime. This justifies the study of crime in the Borokiri context. The neighbourhood has a mixed population comprising both non-indigenes and indigenes. Among the indigenous population of Borokiri, Port Harcourt city are Ogoni, Ikwere, and Ijaw who share a common social heritage and live with non-indigenous inhabitants of the urban centres (Aprioku et al., 2019). In addition, from physical observation the Borokiri area is economically depressed and has a perceived weak social control set-up, making it more ideal for the study.

6.3 Conclusion

When the cause of an event is unknown, the quest for a solution becomes a daunting and unproductive task (Calvetti & Somersalo, 2018). The discussion above reveals that there is a clear relationship between community type and policing/security measures engaged. The crime rate seems to keep rising

despite the crime counter-measures employed. This is a result of several factors which operate amidst the policing methods adopted. Firstly, the involvement of undercover criminals in the traditional method of policing was found to impede the efficiency and effectiveness of the policing method adopted (Stinson et al., 2018). The traditional method of policing is usually handled by members of the community. Some of these members are probably members of cult groups and may be responsible for most of the violence in the community in the course of discharging their duties. Secondly, the criminal practices of the police evidently disrupted the efficiency of the crime control and prevention measures employed (Hope, 2019). The community that was supposed to be secured and protected against crime and violence, has become prey to the predating and corrupt ways of the police. As a result, trust in the police has been lost on the part of the community as fear and doubt exist as to whether the police can be trusted or not (Anthony, 2019).

Furthermore, the aggregate effect of the security incompetence in the Borokiri context has led to social control ineffectiveness, neighbourhood disorder, and social deviance, which are the bedrock for breeding crime (Giuseppe Mosconi & Dario Padovan, 2019). The chapter also reveals that while policing can help curtail criminal activity, it can as well result in the reverse if the activities of community policing/security groups are left unassessed. The activities of the policing parties should be regulated to avoid further brutality and prevent any opportunities for crime to strive (Simckes et al., 2021). In the next chapter, neighbourhood's security perceptions and the reactions of community members and inhabitants to newer security models and alternative measures to curb crime is diccused.

CONCLUDING CHAPTERS

7. SECURITY PERCEPTION AND NEWER MODELS AND ALTERNATIVES TO CURB CRIME

8. REDEFINING COMMUNITY SAFETY IN CITIES OF THE GLOBAL SOUTH

9. CONSOLIDATING FINDINGS FROM THE RESEARCH, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

CHAPTER SEVEN

SECURITY PERCEPTIONS, NEWER MODELS AND ALTERNATIVES TO CURB CRIME

7.1. Introduction

The element for urban quality of life lies at the core of healthy, safe, and sustainable neighbourhoods. An early study by Massey and Denton (1993) on neighbourhood impacts argues that the changing physical and social environments of cities have an impact on inhabitants' quality of life and undermine their trust-based social bonds. This demonstrates how neighbourhood disorder may impact crime and cultural responses to difficult living situations. As a result of prolonged neighbourhood instability, inhabitants tend to fear their neighbours and see them as dangers rather than sources of support or aid (McCabe, 2014).

Neighbourhood disorder may indirectly diminish people’s trust in two ways. First, people who live in high-crime districts may become more scared of their surroundings, lowering their trust in other residents (Intravia et al., 2016). Second, inhabitants of these unpleasant settings perceive the police to be less responsive, eventually feeling that the police are unwilling to assist them with their issues, consequently weakening their trust in others (Kwak & McNeeley, 2019). Moreover, through the police's power to arrest and investigate, the court’s capacity to adjudicate and sentence, and the prison services' power to deliver punishments, the criminal justice system threatens lawbreakers with punishment (Jason-Lloyd, 2020). Crime is unavoidable in communities if security risks are ignored. Crime does not just happen; it is often the outcome of lingering security threats left unchecked (Craven, 2020).

The security situation as perceived in the Borokiri neighbourhood *(see picture 7.1 below)* is critical and has become a phenomenon of utmost concern to both inhabitants and the government as well as surrounding neighbourhoods: and certain factors, such as high-density population, and low income associated with the Borokiri population have an incredible impact on the motivation to commit a crime (Adeyemi et al., 2021). Thus, using the research questions, this chapter aims to dissect the perception and reaction of the Borokiri inhabitants towards the security situation bedevilling the neighbourhood they inhabit, as well as present and discuss the results in relation to the research questions. This chapter also scrutinises the security threats and the impacts they have on crime amongst inhabitants of the Borokiri neighbourhood following the data collected from the interviews with inhabitants of the area

in question – the Borokiri neighbourhood. Data analysis and presentation of results and answers to research questions are done simultaneously.

7.2. How Have Residents' Physical, Socioeconomic and Demographic Characteristics Played a Critical Role in Influencing the Vulnerability of Cities in the Global South?

The neighbourhood of Borokiri is densely populated. According to the National Population Commission (2006), Port-Harcourt with a population of 2,876,763 million persons is one of the top 5 most populous cities in Nigeria, and the Borokiri area – the Old Port-Harcourt town, the central area of the city, has a very high population 7796.10 persons per square kilometers, occupied by low-income residents (National Bureau of Statistics, 2020). Based on the findings of this research, the residents live in a row of building units of apartments due to their socioeconomic status. Most people living in this area are self-employed, or have no trace of having been previously employed. Very few residents are involved in artisanal and peasant business activities such as those in restaurants, bars, and pubs. This assertion is emphasised by one of the respondents (with identity number IDN0001) stating that "the people who live here are predominantly self-employed, the few who are employed work at restaurants, bars, and beer parlours. And these people try not to engage in illegal activities, but that does not solve the big problem of crime, such as cultism and stealing in the neighbourhood."

This research agrees with the social disorganisation theory of the sociological positivists, Shaw and McKay (1942), in their argument that social forces found in the social construct of urban areas are responsible for the crimes in cities. These social factors including education, economic status, social activities, and peer groups influence the level of vulnerability in the urban environment. These factors are glaringly obvious in the Borokiri neighbourhood of Port-Harcourt city and significantly contribute to the vulnerability of the neighbourhood. Several respondents reacted to this. The respondent (with identity number IDN0002) asserts that "crime has nothing to do with age or gender but has a relationship with income: for family size issues, one cannot tell." Respondent (with identity number IDN0003) asserts that "this is because it depends on the upbringing of each individual, and it is not easy to change people, but the body of Christ is doing a lot. One thing that strikes an imbalance for crime is poverty, and it happens mainly with our teenagers and youth, especially the male gender. Sometimes, income level can make one commit a crime." Respondent (with identity number IDN0004) states that "the youth are the perpetrators of these crimes because of frustration, peer pressure, and bad friends. However, this part of the neighbourhood can be safe compared to others."

In addition, this research argues in agreement with Groff, (2015) and Farbodet al., (2017), that the extent to which the aforementioned social forces in the urban construct affect crime is overwhelming. Moreover, this research also found that the Borokiri area of Port Harcourt has been highly neglected in terms of facilities including social services in contrast to some other parts of the city, and this has a remarkable impact on the rising crime rates in the neighbourhood. This marginalisation in the provision of infrastructure and state facilities supports the argument of Warner and Clubb, (2012) and Lynch and Barrett, (2019) that the city has two distinct areas, the areas of the affluent or wealthy class and those suffering from depressed infrastructural facilities, poverty, and disintegration. In relation to the findings of Muggah (2014), Ewetan and Urhie (2014), and Bakker et al. (2014), this research found that crime affects the everyday life of the residents in Borokiri.

This research, from the findings made, argues that the activities of urban residents (no maintenance, breakdown of social control, and vandalism), the quality of urban space, and socio-economic development are negatively affected by rising crime rates, especially in the Borokiri neighbourhood. Consequently, crime creates social dislocation, increases social tensions, promotes population displacement, and encourages hostility, especially as it is found in the Borokiri area. This has led to an increase in poverty, a halt in business operations, an increase in the cost of doing business, and a fall in property value. Several participants reacted to this. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0005) “this neighbourhood is plagued with severe infrastructural deterioration like poor street lighting, water, sanitation, health care, companies, industries, factories etc., and this has somehow led to the increase in crime. The most common crime within this neighbourhood is assault violent/brutal attacks, fighting, and others.” Respondent (with identity number IDN0006) suggests that “the younger people mostly commit these crimes, and I think one of the major factors that cause crime is poverty, emotional immaturity amongst the youth and peer pressure.” Respondent (with identity number IDN0007) states that “in my understanding crime is committing atrocities, and that occurs everywhere and, in this neighbourhood, also. The most occurring crimes are kidnapping, assassination, and stealing. The people committing these crimes are some frustrated individuals, unemployed young graduates and youths, whose motivating factors are unemployment and poverty.”

Now, who commits the crimes in this neighbourhood? Because only a few are civil servants with verified jobs. The youthful population is the highest as very few elderly people are seen within the neighbourhood. School pupils are seen around all day, as students within the neighbourhood dropout out at an alarming rate. Most of the interview respondents either did not finish secondary school education or are very reluctant about the opportunities that may arise from education. This position was further emphasised by one of the respondents, addressing it from the opportunity individuals can derive from education. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0008), “they are self-

employed but lack educational background with no idea of creating employment." Most of the residents are poorly educated, and either did not finish primary school or secondary school dropout."

From the statement of the respondent above, the adolescents in Borokiri lack quality educational training and as a result do not engage in economic activities. Job creation ideas, particularly in the Borokiri village, require an advanced level of expertise. Sadly, the crime rate in the area keeps rising because local teenagers lack the education requirements for lucrative employment opportunities and are hesitant to pursue legal jobs, preferring to engage in crime as a form of livelihood instead. Moreso, income levels are meagre as residents do not have lucrative employment opportunities. This is in agreement with the suggestion of Young et al. (2014) that lack of funding has placed undue pressure on the local security personnel, as crime is now multi-dimensional and the resources to combat it are inadequate.

According to respondents, there are social organisations in the neighbourhood of Borokiri, but only a few individuals are members: because there is despair among residents as to what the organization could offer if not an empty motivational speech. This has resulted in withdrawal from community participation, thus, increasing the involvement in anti-social activities, and the rise of anti-social groups. Many youths belong to one anti-social group or the other, it is now a way of life. Comments from respondents suggest that: according to the respondent (with identity number IDN0009) "there are social groups within this neighbourhood, but not everybody belongs to at least one of them. Rather many youths belong to anti-social groups such as cultism". Respondent (with identity number IDN0010) states that "in recent times crime has been on the increase, particularly armed robbery, and cultism. Cultism is now mainstay in our society. It can be presumed that the major causes of crime from cultism are peer pressure and unemployment."

In agreement with Sakamoto, et al. (2018) and Walker et al. (2019), this research asserts that residents who are not comfortable with the culture in the neighbourhood become uninterested in community matters because it seems to them another avenue to be victimised. This has led to population turnover (residential mobility) which weakens communication, barricades communal goal actualization, and slows down the overall development of the Borokiri neighbourhood. However, while some residents relocate to other districts with minimal crime rates, some residents do not feel or see the necessity to relocate to the Borokiri neighbourhood as they are getting used to the turn of events, contrary to the assertions of Walker et al. *(*2019). Moreover, this acclimatisation of some of these residents to the outplay of events in the neighbourhood could be worrisome, because they may be part of the crime problems or could be prime targets for further crime perpetration in the neighbourhood.

According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0011) “the waterfront, highways, and residential areas are hotspots for crime. Travellers and those who go out early and come back late at night are the most vulnerable to attacks. Providing massive employment can help in curbing crime in this neighbourhood. I have been living in this area for a long time now as well as most of my neighbours. Nothing the eye will see to cry blood; we are used to the situation. It’s just for you to always be on guard. The few of our neighbours who have left this place have left as a result of their inability to pay rent, so, they look for other places with a lower rent in this same neighbourhood. Or because of the family size, some have moved to bigger apartments but are still in this neighbourhood. We are used to the crimes here. It is the new residents and visitors that are afraid. Even if you were a thief before, this place will humble you.” Drawing from the discussion, intrinsic factors concerned with demographic and socio-economic characteristics play a significant role in influencing the propensities of crime and vulnerabilities of cities in the Global South. This is in consensus with the social disorganisation theory.

In the following subsections, the results from the interviews conducted with several respondents to determine the physical victimisation in residential neighbourhoods, physical attributes of the neighbourhood and crime, experiences of crime among neighbourhood residents, land use planning/environmental design, and crime, vulnerable group and gender perception of crime, spatial perception of crime, residential housing type and crime perception, socioeconomic status and crime, unemployment and crime risks, and the education and crime correlation are analysed and discussed to address the research question above.

7.2.1. Physical Victimisation in Residential Neighbourhoods

Concerning neighbourhood victimisation, there is a high rate of victimisation in the city of Port Harcourt. According to the results from interviews with residents of the city, particularly the Borokiri district, the victimisation of inhabitants of the Port-Harcourt metropolis, especially, the Borokiri area happens mostly during the early hours of the day and late at night. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0012) “the primary targets of criminals are the early risers and those returning late at night. I have been robbed at about 10 pm one night a few months ago when I was returning from a trip. I entered the community late because our bus broke down on the way. Some of the youths – I can’t identify, took my cell phone and the little money I had on me that night and assaulted me alongside other passengers.”

This research, in agreement with the ideas of Adogu et al (2014) and Nlewem & Amodu (2016), found that certain districts of the neighbourhood are plagued with higher crime rates compared to other districts, especially sexual harassment and rape. Based on the findings of this research, the Borokiri neighbourhood, especially the waterside area of the neighbourhood, experienced high sexual crime rates. This is because the waterside area is a coastal settlement and as a result, has no other escape route than the only route that leads in and out of the area. So, victims of sexual crimes seldom have a means of escape, especially as crime perpetrators use rifles to threaten their victims. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0013) "the waterside is the most vulnerable crime point within this neighbourhood because there is no escape route. Women are the most victimised, especially when riffles (guns and daggers) are used. However, it can happen to anyone."

Sadly, despite the collective efforts of both local vigilante groups and the Nigerian Police Force in the locality, victimisation seems to be on the rise daily. This is because there are suspected criminals in uniform. This research, as a result, found that while the police should be fighting and not enhancing the crimes in the area, some policemen are taking part in undercover crimes. These are similar issues found in the study conducted by Esoimeme (2019) and Magaloni et al., (2020). According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0014) "the police are doing their best, but it is not helping at all. This is because they are also part of the crime problem. Just last week, a policeman was caught committing a crime. Early this morning, a tricyclist came out to pick up passengers, and a policeman demanded fifty Naira from him. When the tricyclist refused to pay, he was shot dead by the policeman."

In relation to the study conducted by Prechathamwong & Rujiprak (2019), and from the findings of this research, there is an alarming worry and concern amongst the Borokiri neighbourhood inhabitants about the perceived crime and victimisation, as there is fear and an increase in safety perception. As a result, there is a distressing need amongst these depressed neighbourhood inhabitants for increased security patrols at night and in the nooks and crannies of the area where victimisation is at its peak. Moreso, some respondents commented on the issue of police patrol stating that according to the respondent (with identity number IDN0015) "It is very worrisome that crime is on the increase, particularly in the waterside areas. Those areas are not motorable. Access to those areas is only by foot. So, anything can happen in such areas – even the police are afraid to enter such areas of the neighbourhood." Respondent (with identity number IDN0016) states that "the common crimes committed in this neighbourhood include pickpocketing, kidnapping, vandalism of crude oil pipelines, robbery, and burglary." Respondent (with identity number IDN0017) asserts that "the vigilante has a significant role in terms of security because they live in the same environment as the crime perpetrators. So, they can easily detect when a crime is about to happen. The police patrol is very

useful because a crime can be committed from a far distance. With the aid of the patrol team, the situation can be remedied. The need for police presence cannot be overemphasised, particularly at night and in the early hours of the day."

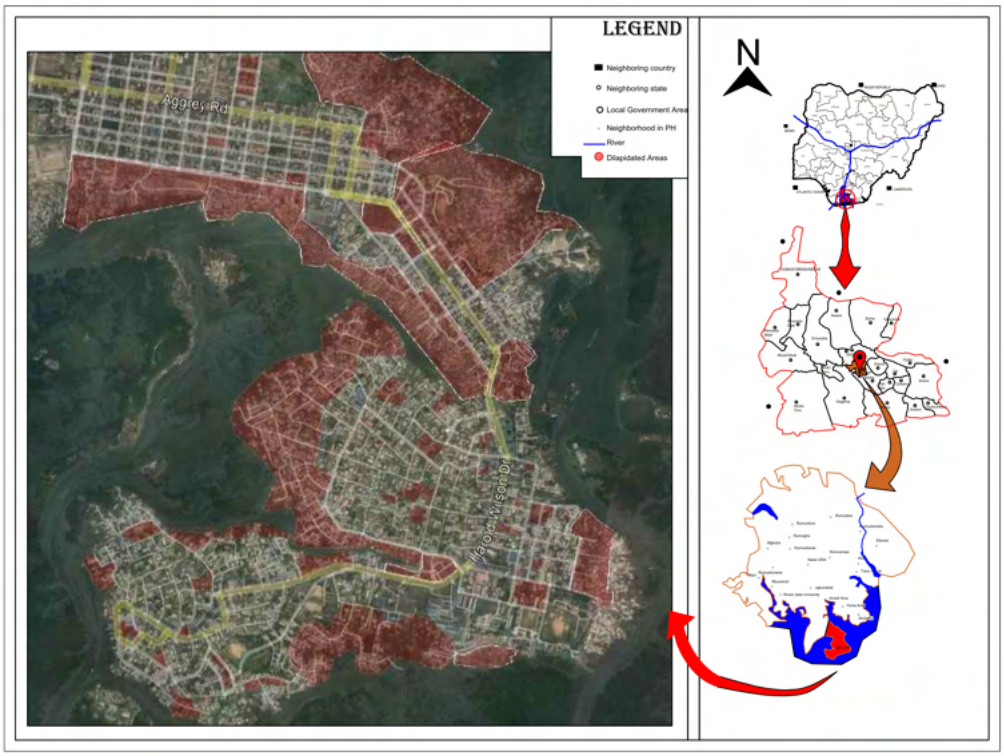
Furthermore, victimisation in the Borokiri area has led to a massive fear of crime amongst neighbourhood residents. People live in fear of what is going to happen if they go out. Security consciousness and safety perception have become part of life in the area. Parents fear leaving their children alone at home, or even sending them to school by public transit – for fear of being kidnapped. The safety of walking in the neighbourhood at night is not guaranteed. People live with more consciousness than normal. Everyone fears being a victim of one crime or another. An interview respondent (with identity number IDN0018) asserts that "going out at night is just to be a target. I do not go out anytime at night. I go out during the day, and I prefer to stay indoors at night because I do not know what may happen because the crime rate is higher at night. I have once been a victim of crime, specifically under the flyover during the day. I was walking along the flyover when I got distracted at a trade fair. Before I could get back to myself, I got a hit on my neck and my gold necklace was cut. I shouted but to no avail, and even the police could not save me. Also, I have experienced a case of burglary in my house. They broke through my protector, broke down the door as well as the glasses on the window."

From the findings of this research, the victimisation of residents in the Borokiri area is a threat to both the physical and socioeconomic growth of the area. The fear of being a potential victim of property crime prevents and militates against property development and growth in the area. If this continues, it will consequently impede the rate of economic development. This is in agreement with the assertion of Bogomolov et al. (2015) that cities and metropolitan areas appear to be associated with slower economic development on local and national levels in the Global South due to misplaced priorities, poor resource allocation and economic and violent crimes. This assertion also agrees with Farrell's argument that the correlation between current victimisation and the regional prevalence of reoccurring crime is evident; criminals have a higher chance of being chronic offenders, and returning victims are more likely to be reoccurring victims. This is more so, in accordance with the Broken Windows theory. Another respondent (with identity number IDN0019) asserts that "I have been attacked several times within this neighbourhood over the last 2 years, the first was an assault while on my way home at night after the day's job. All I had on me was taken away from me. The second was also assaulted by a group of cult boys who were revolting against the death of one of their members. I was severely assaulted. These events have been reoccurring not just to me but to many members of the neighbourhood." Furthermore, the correlation between neighbourhood physical attributes and crime is analysed and discussed in the succeeding subsection.

7.2.2 Physical Attributes of the Neighbourhood and Crime

Following the results from the analysis of victimisation in neighbourhoods, crime perception is influenced to a large extent by the features and characteristics of neighbourhoods *(see Figure 7.1)*. Residents feel the safest when neighbourhoods are properly designed and infrastructure is properly maintained (Zuniga-Teran et al., 2017), while the reverse is the feeling of fear when the infrastructure is not properly maintained, and when the neighbourhood is poorly designed. This research investigated the residents' perception of crime from the perspective of the attributes of the neighbourhood, to determine whether the fear of crime amongst the Borokiri neighbourhood inhabitants is correlated to the physical appearance/characteristics of the neighbourhood. Consequently, from the findings of the investigation, this research suggests that the perception of crime amongst urban residents has a relationship with the characteristics of the neighbourhood, especially in the Borokiri neighbourhood of Port-Harcourt city.

Figure 7.1: Map showing areas with dilapidated structures in Borokiri



Source: *Designed by the author and adapted from google earth Imagery*

Furthermore, this research argues that neighbourhoods characterised by vulgar graffiti paintings and writings on street walls and buildings, deteriorating structures, broken windows and glass doors, high-dense populations, low/no employment opportunities, poor infrastructure, poor or absence of social utilities, poor sanitation, low-income earners, and poor security have a way of influencing and shaping residents' perception of crime. As shown in *(Pictures 7.3a–c and 7.4a–b)* the environmental condition of the Borokiri neighbourhood is degraded, with a decrease in environmental sanitation and an increase in infrastructural degradation. It is often perceived that neighbourhoods with such characteristics as those listed above portray the possibility of potential criminal and delinquent activities.

Pictures 7.3a-c: showing poor infrastructure and poor environmental sanitation



Picture 7.3a



Picture 7.3b



Picture 7.3c

Source: *taken at the site by researcher*

According to a respondent (with identity number IDN0020) "in this part of Port Harcourt city where we live, there are several paintings on street walls and there are some abandoned buildings. Also, there is a lack of social utilities like pipe-borne water to serve the entire area – some people drink from the river which is polluted by poor sanitation. We also have so many low-income earners. They complain the country is unbearable now because of the cost of survival. I believe this is also contributing to crime in this neighbourhood."

Pictures 7.4a–b: showing the polluted environment at the waterside area



Picture 7.4a



Picture 7.4b

Source: Taken by the researcher at the sit

From the findings of this research, it is evident (as testified to) that low income has an influence on crime in the neighbourhood of Borokiri. This is because the income generated from petty means is not enough for the maintenance of families. Hence, this research, in agreement with Kujala et al. (2019) asserts that when individuals don't earn enough to meet demands, they tend to look for alternatives to meet the numerous responsibilities on their shoulders. In so doing, they might resort to criminal means – which include stealing from workplaces, embezzlement of funds, robbery, kidnapping, and even becoming hired assassins.

In addition, this research, from its findings in the Borokiri context, suggests that neighbourhoods characterised by gross unemployment can be a threat to neighbourhood stability *(see Pictures 7.5a-c)*. This is in agreement with the argument of Antunes and Manasse (2022) that neighbourhoods with a high degree of deprivation, like poverty and unemployment, also suffer more violence as fewer services

Pictures 7.5a-c: showing lumbering, canoe production for fishing activities and hawking due to unemployment



Picture 7.5a



Picture 7.5b



Picture 7.5c

Source: *Taken by the researcher*

are available to combat it. This research also asserts that services in geographically deprived communities within cities or regions may be incredibly scarce and, as a result culminate in higher crime rates, particularly violent crime and property crime. The Borokiri area has a socioeconomic setback based on the findings of this research: there are no good jobs, no signs of getting good employment opportunities, and as a result, poverty has penetrated deeply into the livelihood of the neighbourhood. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0021) "the principal

occupation of the residents is buying and selling – petty trade. You only have a few people that have official jobs. The majority are petty traders. If they don't sell, they won't have what to eat. Those that are not involved in trading, and are not official job holders, must be engaged in some dubious act. If the government can provide better jobs for them, I believe the crime rate will reduce. This unfortunate factor of unemployment has made crime evident in this neighbourhood."

This thesis argues that crime thrives where preventive measures are not efficient to counter the causative agents. The neighbourhood of Borokiri is distressed and clamouring to the government for immediate intervention, and from the interviews, the major reproach of the Borokiri area is poverty. This poverty is due to a lack of provision of employment opportunities on the part of the government, and laziness on the part of the youth of the Borokiri area to work and earn honestly, even if the pay is low. Crime in this respect is instigated by the strong and uncontrolled desire to meet their daily needs. This agrees with the Social Disorganisation theory. To this, a respondent (with identity number IDN0022) asserts that "the youths are the foremost crime perpetrators, not because others do not commit a crime, but because they are not employed. If they were, their minds would deviate from crime as the only means of income. Poverty is the leading cause of crime! The level is now on the high side. Hunger as a result makes most of these people commit crimes as they don't involve in crime to get wealthy but for their basic needs like food for the day. However, if the government can provide these restless youths with good jobs, they are assured of the future. They know they have families to look out for, but they are restless and only care about how to feed themselves today and forget about tomorrow – no planning for the future."

The comment above agrees with the theory of General Strain, as argued by Eriksson & Broidy, (2017) that the theory of General Strain concerns the potential impact of the neighbourhood environment on crime, and the role perceived inequality plays in crime propensities. This holds true because according to the comment of the respondent above on the role neighbourhood characteristics play in crime perception, the youths in the Borokiri area do not just commit or get involved in crime – they do so to satisfy their daily needs. For youths to have resorted to criminal activities just so they can feed daily, clearly connotes that there has been some sort of pressure on them: and this has concerns with the General Strain theory. This research goes further to determine the probability of crime perception from previous experiences of crime.

7.2.3 Residents Experience of Crime within the Neighbourhood

In agreement with Ciesla et al., (2018), this research asserts that individual/lived experiences have a remarkable impact on how a person perceives a situation. The fear of crime in persons may be because of previous experiences of crime probably in some places other than the current place of residence. When people relocate from places plagued with incredible crime rates to other places, they tend to be crime perceptive. They look out for anything that exhibits the potential of instigating crime, similar to the belief of Pryce et al., (2018). The extent to which such people feel safe greatly depends on their perception of the neighbourhood they reside in. From the findings of this research in an interview session with one of the respondents, the Borokiri area is not a safe place anymore. This is considering the respondent's perception of the neighbourhood considering the rate at which crime rises in the Borokiri area. The neighbourhood the respondent once was comfortable in, is no longer a place for a comfortable feeling. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0023) "Crime to an extent is now a means of survival. With the high rate of crime, this neighbourhood is not a safe place anymore. One sleeps with one eye open because you don't know what might happen next."

The criminal perception of this respondent has been greatly influenced by the experiences of crime in the neighbourhood. Criminal activities and plagues are not pleasant experiences anyone would wish for. While some are perplexed by their experiences of crime, others are not. Some have learnt to adapt to the flow of things in the neighbourhood. They don't seem to be influenced by their perception of crime despite their experiences. They believe whatever will be will be. Speaking with one of the respondents, the respondent (with identity number IDN0035) states that "everyone plays a vital role in their safety as no one knows what can happen. But one thing is sure: the people who commit crimes are the poor and illiterate. However, that does not mean the neighbourhood is not safe: of course, it is safe. And I can advise someone to live here because I have not experienced being robbed and that is a sign that this area is a medium rating when it comes to crime."

Statements from respondents indicate a high insecurity rate in the neighbourhood. Some of the respondents pointed out the fact that neighbourhood walkability at night is suicide. This is because the probability of being victimised is high at night, which is in accordance with Felson and Cohen's Routine Activity theory. A respondent (with identity number IDN0025) puts that "one is vulnerable to attacks at night, especially in isolated areas. This neighbourhood is a very high crime area. Since we are closer to the water, people easily get robbed by water as a mobility medium around this area. Nowadays, these criminals do not have specific targets. They want to survive. So, they attack anybody. They even kidnap for as low as two hundred-thousand-Naira ransom to make ends meet. The case is now severe."

The respondent above suggests that because the only means of transport around their area is by water, they get robbed easily, especially at sea – where there are no escape routes. However, the rate of crime experienced in Borokiri tarnishes the image of the area. Security and preventive measures are being identified to curb the menace impeding the peace of the once peaceful neighbourhood of Borokiri. There is a call on social groups, vigilante groups, religious parties, local authorities, and the police department as well as the general public to join forces and combat the menace that has befallen the Borokiri area. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0026) "Social Organisations and Religious bodies exist within the neighbourhood. Even the churches assist – they also try to give poor people welfare. From time to time, welfare groups help to assist the masses in providing their daily bread. I belong to a denomination that allows the masses some provision from time to time, even going to the prisons and hospitals to see what is going on there. When members of our association err, such as committing a crime, there are penalties attached to such behaviour. For example, they can be excommunicated or ostracised, or perhaps exiled for some time to realise the gravity of what they have done." The respondent highlighted the role social organisations and religious parties play in preventing crime. And further went on to the role and efforts of local authorities in crime prevention, stating that "the local authorities like the vigilantes are doing their best. They are doing even more than the so-called uniform people (Police department). We have forces – registered forces in the country, but the efforts of the local vigilante groups are very remarkable. We have the Onelga Security Peace and Advisory Committee (OSPAC), a local vigilante group that helps secure the roads: and they are doing an excellent job."

From the findings of this research, the experiences of crime that have led to crime perception based on experiences are a result of the breakdown of social control. In the absence of a strong social order, crime can breed. And when certain crimes are allowed to linger without check, they leave a strong perception – often negative because of chronic experiences. This is in line with the assertion of Buckner-Brown et al., (2014) that the perception of crime and insecurity is not only from issues of environmental factors and relevant crime data, as highlighted by the theories of social disorganisation and broken windows, but also from the breakdown of social control and the social construction of unsafe environments (Buckner-Brown et al., 2014). Furthermore, the correlation between environmental design and crime is examined.

7.2.4 Land use Planning/Environmental Design and Crime

According to Sohn (2016), the design of a neighbourhood have a tremendous impact on the perception of crime. This research investigated the probability of crime resulting from the design of

neighbourhoods. From the findings of the investigation, this research argues that neighbourhoods with a low residential population are safer than neighbourhoods with densely populated residents. The design of streets in neighbourhoods can also influence crime perception, similar to the study conducted by Riggs & Gilderbloom (2017). In neighbourhoods with open and motorable streets, crime rates are less compared to neighbourhoods with narrow streets that only pedestrians can access *(see Picture 7.6)*. As in the context of the Borokiri area, street designs are mostly streets that are only accessible by foot. The streets are dangerous and crime instigating at night and early hours of the morning.

Picture 7.6: showing a non-motorable street only accessible by foot



Source: *Taken by the researcher.*

According to a respondent (with identity number IDN0027) "the streets in this neighbourhood are mostly streets accessible only by pedestrians. This contributes to the crimes in this neighbourhood because the most common crimes committed in this neighbourhood are stealing and assault. This has made this neighbourhood unsafe particularly at night and in the early hours of the morning." From the results of this research, as well as the comments from interview respondents, especially the comment above, stealing and assault are the most common crimes committed in the Borokiri neighbourhood. This research suggests that these crimes are correlated to/with the neighbourhood's street design. Since the streets are so compact and narrow that they are only accessible by foot, criminals infiltrate houses on these streets unnoticed *(see Pictures 7.7a-c)*. This is because the houses of potential victims are situated along the streets.

Pictures 7.7a-c: showing dangerous street patterns in the Borokiri area





Picture 7.7a *Picture 7.7b* *Picture 7.7c*

Source: *taken at the site by the researcher.*

Also, the street design of the waterside area of the Borokiri neighbourhood as reiterated by one of the respondents in previous sections has no escape routes. There is only one way in and out. People get victimised or robbed at night on their way back from work because of the design of these streets. The streets are mostly lonely at night and in some places of the area even at noon *(see pictures 7.8a-c)*. Lonely streets like these have a propensity for influencing crime.

Pictures 7.8a-c: show lonely streets during the day and more dangerous at night



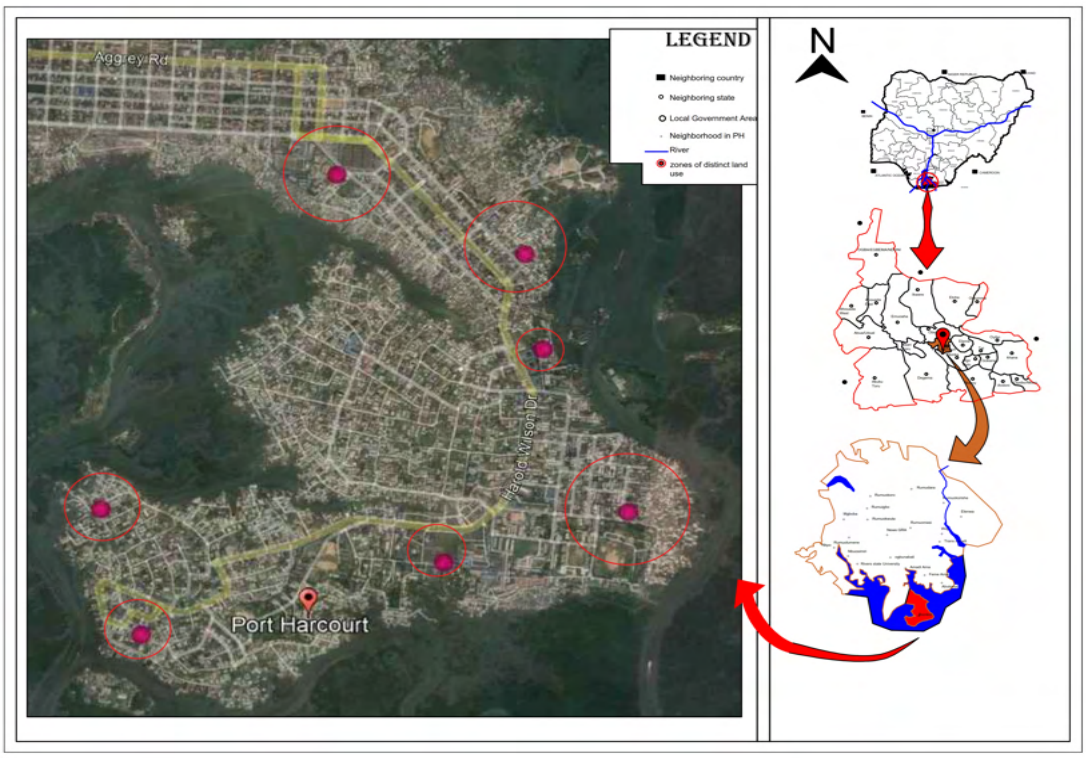


Picture 7.8a *Picture 7.8b* *Picture 7.8c*

Source: *Taken by the researcher*

A respondent (with identity number IDN0028) attests to the fact that the design of these streets and the general design of the Borokiri neighbourhood has an impeccable impact on crime, stating that “on several occasions, I have been robbed in this neighbourhood while walking the lonely street to my house. Truly, the general layout of these neighbourhoods is such that if not properly secured and policed, they can breed crime to some unimaginable rates.” Respondent (with identity number IDN0029) asserts that “the rate of crime in this neighbourhood is high – making everywhere a hot spot for crime due to the design of this environment and most especially, the streets.” In addition, because the neighbourhood is so compact and the streets are hotspots for potential crimes, homes located near

pubs, bars, nightclubs, and uncompleted/abandoned buildings become prone and vulnerable to crime. This suggests that there is mixed land use in some areas of the Borokiri neighbourhood which consequently affects crime negatively *(see Figure 7.2)*.



Source: *Drawn by the author and adapted from google earth imagery 2021.*

As a result, this research, in agreement with Foster et al. (2014b) opines that certain areas of the neighbourhood, particularly for recreation, which provide opportunities for residents' interactions and walkability, are associated with crimes in the Borokiri neighbourhoods. The findings of this research are in agreement with S. D. Johnson & Bowers, (2010) assertions that permanent street designs that make walking easier probably increase crime by increasing access. For instance, hburglary is correlated with/to the street network/pattern in the Borokiri neighbourhood. Furthermore, this research goes on to determine the most susceptible group to crime in the neighbourhood of Borokiri.

7.2.5 Vulnerable Groups and Gender Perceptions of Crime

This research, based on the findings made concerning crime fear, especially in the Borokiri neighbourhood, suggests that the fear of crime is inevitable in neighbourhoods with renowned criminal activities on the increase. Consequently, residents go about their livelihoods with fear of the unknown. Everyone is conscious of what is going to happen next, and of course, they are expectant. So, they are always conscious. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0030) states that “people tend to adjust whenever they hear about crime. Although some particular crimes happen in particular areas of the neighbourhood. Crime is something that happens everywhere in this neighbourhood.”

Results from interview sessions suggest that the inhabitants of the waterside area of the neighbourhood are the most vulnerable in the Borokiri neighbourhood. To further ascertain the certainty of this belief, an interview was conducted with one of the respondent residents in the waterside area. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0031), “the waterside is the hotspot where all manner of crimes are being perpetuated. The rich people, uniform men, and normal/average persons are vulnerable to crime in this neighbourhood, and the Nigerian Police are not doing enough to combat crime.”

In an interview session with another waterside respondent, this research found that due to the nature of the waterside area as regards crime and vulnerability, the fear of crime would not allow the police to patrol the waterside area. This is because even the police are afraid of going to the waterside area because of the crimes committed in the area. Furthermore, women, children, and the aged people among the inhabitants of the Borokiri neighbourhood are found to be vulnerable to crime. This is because, when crime happens, the youths can escape the scene but the aged, as well as the children, become prey to these crime perpetrators. Women are also often vulnerable to rape and sexual harassment. Children of school age are also vulnerable to kidnapping and abduction. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0032), “the neighbourhood is a waterline area. Most of the

crimes committed are kidnapping, robbery, and rape by sea pirates. Waterfront residential areas are hotspots for crime. Most especially, the travellers and those who go out early in the morning and those returning late at night are the most vulnerable to crime."

Moreover, similar to the study conducted by Callanan & Rosenberger, 2(015) this research suggests that, especially in the Borokiri neighbourhood, the male gender are often considered the drivers of the anti-social campaign and the female gender aid and abet in it as well. Moreso, the rate of prostitution and engagement in nightlife is on the rise, and this is a trap for residents and visitors who may want to get involved. This is because there are various anti-social groups that use these means as bait to trap potential victims. They easily identify visitors and strangers who do not belong to any of the anti-social groups and either harass or rob them of their belongings: and in severe cases, they even murder them. Consequently, this research suggests that there is a correlation between uncontrolled nightlife and crime probabilities. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0033), "environmental crimes are now committed by teenagers. Teenagers and youths within 16 -25 years are mostly involved in these crimes. Most of the crimes are committed by the male gender, but the females are involved too because they are used as bait."

Fortunately, the local authorities are doing their best to curb these crimes through vigilante groups set up to assist the police in the combat against crime. Some respondents noted that there was no form of vigilante, while some went further to state that even if there were, they are part of the problem of crime in the neighbourhood because it is the same youths who commit these crimes that are members of these vigilante groups. The respondent asserts that no one can be trusted anymore. From the observation and examination of the comments of the residents, the issue of trust in the Borokiri neighbourhood is a long-foregone phenomenon inasmuch as crime/insecurity is concerned. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0034), "the police patrol is also very important because it helps to instil fear in the perpetrators, thereby creating a crime-free environment. But, on the other hand, I am not satisfied with the judicial system because there are no swift actions to combat crime, nor am I in support of the community vigilante group involved in crime control, knowing that some cultists among the youth can use that as an avenue to witch-hunt their rivals."

In agreement with Canter & Youngs (2016), this research states that crime has eaten deep and cut across all spheres of life, especially in the neighbourhood under study. The neighbourhood of Borokiri is not safe, but some respondents who have acclimatised to the trending activities do not see this location as unssafe but as a normal way of life. This is the perfect position of one of the respondents (with identity number IDN0035) asserting that "I have lived in this area for a long time and do not see a reason to leave. This neighbourhood is only safe for those who understand the terrain. But for

strangers, I cannot say. As an indigene of this community, I go out during the day and at night because we help safeguard the community. I feel the crime rate is reducing when compared to the time past."

There is always one form of crime or the other happening at a particular place. Crime in this neighbourhood is now a way of life, from cultism to prostitution, hard drugs, trafficking of illicit substances, and vandalism. During the daytime, residents go around the neighbourhood, except for certain areas, which are the dens of the cultists, and only their members can access. At night, residents do not go around unless they belong to any of the cult groups, because they are scared of being robbed, raped, or harassed. The rate of vulnerability is very much higher in the aged and younger people than in youths. As a result, the fear of being a potential victim to crime perpetrators is higher in elderly and aged people, as well as in children than in youths. This is in agreement with the argument of Hirschi and Gottfredson (2017) that the connection between age and fear of crime is linear, meaning that young people and elderly people are more scared than people of youthful age because they could easily flee from crime scenes. The next subsection scrutinises the spatial perception of crime in Borokiri.

7.2.6 Spatial Perception of Crime

This research in relation to the study conducted by Ferreira, (2019), agrees that it is necessary to do a spatial perception study of the socioeconomic repercussions of urban street crime on residential neighbourhoods, especially the Borokiri neighbourhood to determine who is committing a crime, who is being victimised, and when and where crimes are being perpetrated. According to previous respondents, certain areas of the neighbourhood have been highlighted to be associated with remarkable crimes – crime hotspots. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0036), "crime happens everywhere in this area. People in this neighbourhood live in fear of crime. I am also afraid of what might happen if I stay out late. Even the places I thought were safe, are now crime-plagued. The rate of crime in this neighbourhood is too high, making everywhere a hotspot."

From the examination of the Borokiri neighbourhood, this research suggests that the determination of who commits these crimes and where and when they are committed will no doubt be a great step towards curbing and probably preventing these crimes from happening. When places of crime are identified, and when these crimes committed are known, it becomes easy to fight crime. One area in the Borokiri area identified with a tremendous crime rate is the waterfront area *(see Picture 7.9)*.

Picture 7.9: showing the waterfront area of Borokiri



Source: *taken at the site by the researcher*

An interview was also conducted with a law enforcement personnel. According to the law enforcement respondent (with identity number IDN0037), "the waterfront areas are mainly the hotspot for crime. The people most responsible for the crimes in this part of the neighbourhood are those between the ages of 18 and 35. The criminals arrested several times in this area for committing crimes were found to be within this age range." From the observation of this thesis, it seems that crime in the Borokiri neighbourhood has no special location where crime happens. That is because crime is experienced everywhere across the neighbourhood. This is of the connotation that there is no area left out in the occurrence of crime. However, according to the lamentations of respondents, while the situation is mild in some areas of the neighbourhood, it is quite unbearable in some other parts of the same neighbourhood. Consequently, this thesis argues that crime, especially in the Borokiri neighbourhood of Port Harcourt city, is not evenly concentrated/distributed throughout the neighbourhood or city. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0038), "crime rate in this neighbourhood is not uniform because some areas experience more crimes than others in this neighbourhood. I may say, from my experience, that the crime rate has increased: and there is no particular hotspot for crime in this neighbourhood because crime happens everywhere."

An examination was carried out to determine if the highways in the neighbourhood affect crime. An interview was conducted with one of the residents of the waterfront areas of the Borokiri neighbourhood. The interview session revealed that there have been several occurrences of crime along the waterfront highways. The crimes highlighted by the interview respondent include robbery and assault which are because of how lonely some roads are during the day, as well as at night *(see Picture 7.10)*.

Picture 7.10: showing a lonely road in the Borokiri area



Source: *Taken by the researcher*

According to respondent (with identity number IDN0039), “the waterfront highways are associated with serious crimes. This is because, since there is an awareness of crime in this part of Borokiri, people don’t go out at night and during the early hours of the morning. So, the highways are usually lonely and quiet at these times of the day. Most victims of crime along the highways are those arriving in the area late at night, those travelling through the highways by night, and those who go to work very early in the morning. However, most of these victims are new to the Borokiri area so with time they learn the way of life here in terms of security.” Among the recurrent crimes in the Borokiri area, the rate of cultism has increased – culminating in violent clashes between several cult groups in the neighbourhood. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0040), “crime in this neighbourhood is of various forms, but cultism is obvious. No week passes without witnessing or having to hear the news of reported cult clashes in the area.”

Another respondent highlighted that while peer pressure persists, young people, especially young males, are being recruited into anti-social organisations – cultism. The respondent suggests the causes of this unending involvement in an anti-social organisation is the lack of proper education and peer pressure. In the words of the respondent (with identity number IDN0025) “in this neighbourhood, young people are mostly involved in crime, especially males. Most of the leading causes of crime in this neighbourhood are lack of proper education and peer pressure.”

A neighbourhood can be perceived as crime-plagued by observing and analysing the number of times certain crimes occur in certain spaces in the neighbourhood and at what time these crimes usually happen. The Borokiri neighbourhood is no exception. Crime in the Borokiri neighbourhood happens to be associated with lonely, quiet, and dark places of the neighbourhood. As a result, any movement around or along these areas at odd hours is often associated with the risk of being a crime victim. Two respondents testified that they had been victims of crime in and around these areas. The first received the action directly: while the second was a relative that received the action. In their statement,

according to the respondent (with identity number IDN0012), “I have been stopped on the road once at around 10 pm on my way back from work by three hefty young men. I had about five thousand Naira in my wallet, a gold chain on my neck, a Rolex wristwatch and a bag containing my foodstuff for dinner. Everything was taken from me, even my shoes.” (with identity number IDN0024) “Severally, most of my friends have been attacked and assaulted in this neighbourhood.”

However, security measures are being reconstructed and patterned to meet the security needs of residents in this crime-plagued area of the neighbourhood of Borokiri. The move will ensure that areas with high crime rates in the neighbourhood are well policed during the day and well patrolled during the night to enhance neighbourhood rest and peace. Local vigilante groups have taken on the responsibility of overseeing that criminal perpetrators in crime-instigating corners of the neighbourhood are arrested and handed over to the police, as well as regulating the activities of their members to ensure honesty and integrity in the discharge of their duties as local vigilante groups.

7.2.7 Residential Housing Types and Perceptions of Crime

Following the analysis of the spatial perception of crime in the Borokiri neighbourhood, this research goes on to determine the influence of housing type on crime. From observation, this thesis found that crime perception can, to an extent, be influenced by the housing type in the neighbourhood. The value of housing in providing residents with a sense of security within their community cannot be overstated. The orientation and design of a property inside a residential complex may impact its vulnerability to crime. It comprises the property type (detached, semi-detached, terraced, or multi-occupancy), the alignment of the property (whether the entrance door is facing the street), and the property’s location in a development situation (whether it is given a distance off the street, overlooked by neighbours, and/or located at a corner). From the interview session with one of the respondents, evidence exists that housing type, design and orientation have propensities for breeding crime. In the words of the respondent (with identity number IDN0035): “the crime situation in this neighbourhood is getting high daily. Many people living in this area, including myself, live in fear of what happens next. I live in a building I am not assured of my safety. The house I live in, merely looking at it inspires fear of being a crime victim. The houses in my area are not security-designed at all. I also walk around this place to see how other buildings were designed. But I tell you, I strongly believe that the housing conditions in this area play significant roles in crime perpetration.”

In addition, this research suggests that people who live in high-rise buildings are less likely to know their neighbours and, as a result, are more afraid of going around their neighbourhoods at night than

those who reside in single-family detached houses. This is because there is fear of the personality of the people residing in the same building as them. They are not associated with next-door residents; they are very security and safety conscious with little or no knowledge of the environment where they reside. They as a result exhibit signs of vulnerability and high crime perception. Possible crimes associated with this type of housing include kidnapping, armed robbery, burglary, and homicide. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0038), “crime seems to be everywhere in this neighbourhood – even in residential buildings. I lived with intentional carefulness in the high-rise apartment I occupied before I relocated from that apartment. The event that led to my relocation put me in intense panic and fear of becoming a victim. It was around 11pm – I can never forget – when I heard gunshots in the apartment adjacent to mine in the same building. Later in the morning, the news of the murder in my neighbourhood got to my ears. I was very afraid. The story according to the wife was that the criminals broke into their homes to rob them. When the husband delayed handing them the money, he was shot twice. Later during the investigation, the culprits were found to be residents of the second floor of the same building.”

Based on the observation of this research about the housing type and crime correlation, this research found that the multi-occupancy housing type affects crime in the neighbourhood. A multi-occupancy house is a residential property that is occupied by more than one family and shares facilities such as bathrooms and kitchen space. They do not form a familial unit. Multi-occupancy buildings have the propensity to instil fear of crime in vulnerable and crime-perceptive individuals. People who live in multi-occupancy buildings, as found in this research, are often not family members. Most of them settle for such occupancy buildings because of their economic status. This type of housing is greatly associated with most low-income. Because resources and utilities are shared between occupants of this housing type, there is an obvious possibility of victimisation and violent crime. Crimes associated with such types of housing include physical assault, rape, theft, vandalism, and burglary.

In one of the interview sessions, a comment from a respondent revealed that multi-occupancy housing inspires serious crime perception in the Bororkiri neighbourhood. In the words of respondent (with identity number IDN0023), “I believe crime in this neighbourhood can be curbed and further occurrences prevented. But this can only be done if crime in the residential buildings is checked. Most of us don’t go out at night again. However, even in our houses, we experience crime. The other night, a lady was raped in her house by a next-door neighbour. A month earlier, at about 10 am, a young girl was badly raped in the bathroom while taking her bath. Just last week, my son was brutally assaulted by a neighbour just because he spent too much time in the bathroom we share according to the culprit. This morning before I left the house to work, another case was rumoured that a girl was sexually harassed and seriously assaulted when she protested.”

Furthermore, the orientation and design of buildings in the Borokiri context play notable roles in the advancement of crime in the area. Most of the buildings have their doors facing the notorious crime-plagued streets of Borokiri. In the waterside areas of the neighbourhood, the houses there are mostly makeshift and dilapidated buildings *(see Pictures 7.11a-c).* And these buildings are occupied by people. As a result, the inhabitants of such houses, become crime victims.

Pictures 7.11a-c: showing dilapidated, closely packed makeshift and deteriorating buildings respectively



Picture 7.11a



Picture 7.11b



Picture 7.11c

Source: *Taken from the site by the researcher*

A respondent (with identity number IDN0032) in one of the interview sessions at the waterside area of the Borokiri neighbourhood states that "we happen to settle along the water because of our fishing profession. This place was once peaceful and quiet, and our activities blossomed. I feel so sad to accept the truth of the current situation in the waterside area. Right now, I don't feel safe in my home here. Two months ago, a little girl went missing here, and later we found out she was kidnapped. The fish I stocked here in my shanty tent (see Picture 7.12), were all stolen just three days ago. Every week we have rumours and reports of rape and child abuse cases in this area. No doubt, these crimes are because of the houses we live in – we are poor people and cannot afford security-designed homes."

Picture 7.12: showing shanty structure for fishermen



Source: *Taken by the researcher*

Crime perception can indeed be influenced by housing types. From the interview sessions with inhabitants of the Borokiri neighbourhood, this thesis observed that the arrangement, design, and type of residential houses had a significant impact on the resident's perception of their overall safety and possible propensities for crime occurrence. While some are making moves to relocate to the neighbourhood, some cannot even think of leaving because they are poor and can't afford to relocate. Furthermore, this research attributes the reluctance of some of the residents to relocate from the neighbourhood to socioeconomic factors. In the next subsection, this research investigates the impact of socioeconomic status on crime probabilities.

7.2.8 Socio-economic Status and Crime

This research, in agreement with Pereira et al. (2017), opines that low-income residential areas as seen in Borokiri are plagued with a breakdown of social control in schools (resulting in dropout, vandalism, and insubordination), families (resulting in disobedience, fighting, quarrelling and stealing), and religious bodies (resulting in anti-social behaviour and activities) is the focal point for crime breeding in urban centres. When all this continues unabated, the city gradually becomes socially disorganised and difficult to control and protect residents against crime and criminal behaviour from offenders. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0013), "the rate of crime in this neighbourhood is usually higher than in any other place in Port-Harcourt." According to respondent (with identity number IDN0021), "Crime is a sensitive issue; the common crimes within this neighbourhood are pickpocketing, kidnapping, vandalism of crude oil lines, robbery cases, burglary, rape, drug abuse,

cultism, etc., these are the crimes happening here." According to respondent (with identity number IDN0010), "The criminal justice system of the country is messed up. When we cannot differentiate between the criminals and the justice system, the judge can be bribed to allow a criminal to go scot-free, with no trace of the crime or the criminal."

One of the oldest hypotheses of crime is that crime is motivated by economic deprivation (Rehman & Gill, 2009). According to Luco and Lazo (2006b), residential segregation in the urban area is an essential mechanism in the causes of crime. In line with the ideas of Braun et al., (2018), this research argues that when sections of the cities, where the fabric of social life has been hampered by economic depression such as unemployment as in the case of Borokiri in Port-Harcourt, the city managers are faced with challenges providing essential services for their residents such as decent housing, educational facilities, and quality health care. Looking at a similar study by Luco and Lazo (2006b), on socio-economic segregation indices for large Chilean cities, and the perception of crime within the vicinity of public spaces, this research examined the situation in the Borokiri context and suggests that the main factors affecting crime in the Borokiri neighbourhood include homelessness and deprivation, poverty and unemployment, youth marginalization, the disintegration of culture, substandard urban planning, and the neglect of public space proper management. This in turn gives room for delinquency and crime, which gradually becomes a sub-culture. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0020), "crime occurs regularly in this neighbourhood because it is occupied by low-income earners. The youth and adolescents are the ones involved mostly in these crimes. They are mostly involved in robbery, and petty theft: unemployment and poverty are the top factors of these crimes, but I would say the neighbourhood is safe."

In relation to the foregoing assertion, further suggestion on the position of social disadvantage and economic deprivation was put forward by Schepers (2017). However, Wikström & Treiber, (2016) argue that social disadvantage and economic deprivation are not the causes of crime but critical factors to the causes. Nonetheless, in cities of the Global South, particularly in the Borokiri neighbourhood of Port Harcourt city, social disadvantage and economic deprivation are the root causes of criminogenic exposure and crime propensity among residents (individuals). The study of social disadvantage also reveals that the theoretical assumption of the Situational Analysis Theory holds firm as heterogeneity features are strongly related to crime and delinquency (Schepers, 2017). On the contrary, this study showed that heterogeneity has nothing to do with crime, as crime in the Borokiri neighbourhood is committed by anybody irrespective of whether one is an indigene or not and could even be committed within families. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0015), "crime in this neighbourhood is something anybody can associate with, so age has nothing to do with crime – even indigenes and non-indigenes can commit a crime. Not being satisfied with daily earnings can lead to

crime, and family size can also lead to crime. Committing a crime is a personal decision – language/ethnicity is not a barrier." According to respondent (with identity number IDN0016) "in my opinion, age doesn't relate to crime, anyone and everyone is capable of committing a crime, and indigenes and non-indigenes commit crimes – nobody is exempted. And in terms of family size, it doesn't matter at all, neither does language nor ethnicity relate to crime."

Borokiri has seen a succession of social impacts caused by the socio-economic crisis, which have had a considerable impact on the perception of moral and social values. One social event that has a significant impact on human connections is crime, which exists because of a lack of social comfort and the harsh reality of the Borokiri neighbourhood. In Borokiri, crime, particularly violent crimes such as assault, robbery, and homicide is significantly linked to socioeconomic inequality. As a result, this research asserts that criminal behaviour is linked to socioeconomic position (as assessed by income, wealth, occupational level, and education). Moreover, crime thrives where there is a lack of proper and quality education, low income, little or no employment opportunities, and social segregation. The socioeconomic characteristics that have led to tremendous crime in the Borokiri neighbourhood are mostly joblessness and poverty.

According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0011), "joblessness and poverty have always been the significant causes of crime in this neighbourhood. These people tend to commit the crimes they commit because they don't have any other source of livelihood. They don't have money to buy food to eat, and no employment to make a good life. They resort to crime for their needs to be met." In the words of the respondent (with identity number IDN0002) "in this neighbourhood, the unemployed individuals commit more crimes because of a lack of jobs. Most of these criminals are graduates of different disciplines in tertiary institutions. When they graduate and return home to the sad reality that there are no jobs anywhere for them, they become depressed and pressured becoming involved in crime to make ends meet." Respondent (with identity number IDN0026) states that "circumstances and poverty can lead people to commit crimes. In this neighbourhood, cyber fraud and cultism are on the increase. Some of these criminals are from good families, they were very well raised. But because of the ever-changing circumstances in life, you never know when crime becomes their only way of survival." The Borokiri area is one area in Port Harcourt city plagued with elevated levels of poverty and unemployment. This has done no small impediment to the overall well-being of the residents of the neighbourhood. Nowhere seems to be left unaffected. People live in the Borokiri area with great fear and caution about what happens next.

On the economic characteristics and crime propensities, this research found that economic challenges may strike anybody – at the individual level up to the wider society – instilling a sense of hopelessness,

dread, wrath, and frustration as individuals try to satisfy their needs. Conditions such as poverty – culminating in an inability to afford childcare, a lack of decent housing, a lack of access to nourishment, and a lack of access to healthcare – are products of economic challenges. Consequently, this research asserts that a neighbourhood whose economic status is characterised by aggravated economic challenges will experience increased criminal events. In a neighbourhood where basic facilities such as health care, schools, development centres, and access to employment opportunities are all provided, the propensity to commit a crime will be less, compared to a neighbourhood notorious for extended periods of poverty and a high rate of unemployment.

Contextually, the Borokiri neighbourhood is associated with high rates of extended poverty and unemployment. This has led to a serious crime increase in the area and as a result, higher crime perception among residents of the neighbourhood. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0022), “poverty has been the only motivation to commit a crime in this neighbourhood. Because they don’t have the money to solve their problems, they take to criminal activities to satisfy the needs of their families as well as their personal needs.” Respondent (with identity number IDN0019) states that “Crimes committed in this neighbourhood are robbery, murder, snatching of phones, illegal use of drugs, pickpocketing, and theft. These sorts of crimes can’t be for any other reason but poverty and deprivation.” Respondent (with identity number IDN0004) “This neighbourhood has a great number of people living in frustration and undue pressure on how their needs would be met. They don’t have the necessary qualifications for the jobs they envisage. Since their needs must be met, the one alternative they resort to is crime.” Indeed, there is a relationship between economic characteristics and crime perception in the Borokiri neighbourhood considering the comments of interview respondents. Crime perception and possibility are greatly linked to economic characteristics such as poverty and unemployment. In the following subsection, this research examines the risk of crime associated with unemployment.

7.2.9 Unemployment and Crime Risks

In the Borokiri neighbourhood, unemployment tends to incline people towards crime for them to survive financially: and that unemployment also tends to exacerbate anomie among the jobless, which is linked to criminal activity. Many people become under pressure to exit poverty as they are unable to meet their daily needs. This pressure is enough to lure them into crime. The research traced several crimes in the Borokiri neighbourhood to peer pressure and unemployment. The propensity to commit

a crime in situations of unemployment is high. People admire the luxurious lifestyles of others, but do not consider the effects of being involved in crime to live the lifestyle they admire. This research found crimes such as theft, pickpocketing, and assault to be related, to a great extent, to the issue of unemployment.

In the Borokiri neighbourhood, while crime can be committed by anyone regardless of their employment status, the crime rate among unemployed individuals is incredibly high compared to those who are employed. The difference is that, while the employed commit crimes because they are employed (perhaps to get rid of some sort of challenging threats to their portfolio and reputation), the unemployed commit crimes to satisfy their daily needs. Also, whereas, it is easy for an employed individual to cease committing crimes and will still have some source of livelihood, it is seldom the same with the unemployed. Several interviews were conducted to determine the relationship between employment status and crime in the Borokiri neighbourhood. The outcome and comments from respondents of the interview made clear evidence about the obvious repercussions of extended periods of unemployment – crime. In the words of the respondent (with identity number IDN0006), "anyone can commit a crime – whether poor or rich, employed, or unemployed. Both commit crimes, but poor and unemployed people commit crimes primarily because of frustration and anger. The youths are the most affected in this regard. So, the only way out is to provide employment and empowerment for these youths." Respondent (with identity number IDN0007) asserts that "the youths are the actual crime perpetrators, not because others do not commit a crime but because they are not employed. If they were employed, their minds would deviate from corruption as the only means of income." Respondent (with identity number IDN0008) states that "most of these people do not commit crimes to become wealthy, but to meet their basic needs, like food for the day. However, if the government can provide these youths with quality education and good jobs, their future is assured, and definitely, crime will be reduced."

From the above statements, crime is mainly committed by the unemployed. This research argues that the rate of crime perception is high in neighbourhoods where the rate of unemployment is relatively high. Moreover, in the Borokiri context, crime is most often inspired by poverty and unemployment. However, some of the employed individuals in Borokiri also commit crimes. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0036) "the Politicians and poverty are the leading cause of crime in this neighbourhood. Politicians come during election campaigns and make thugs out of the unemployed youths to achieve their selfish goals and objectives." From the respondent's comment, the politicians (who of course are in the class of the employed) come to Borokiri during electoral campaigns to take advantage of the predicament of the youths who are not employed. They make promises to them of assured and secure jobs waiting for them should they play by their rules. They make thugs out of them

and use them to accomplish their selfish quests. This in turn leaves the neighbourhood in chaos, with crime rising every single day. Yes, the rich also commit crimes, but these crimes are awarded to under-opportuned youths to carry out as a token. And they take these crime contracts from the rich because they need the money to satisfy their needs. This resonates with the assumption of Nordin & Almén (2017) that most criminals are unemployed.

On the income inequality – crime correlation, Pare and Felson (2014) argue – from the premise of a multi-level analysis of the International Crime and Victimisation Survey – that inequality is unrelated to assault when poverty is controlled. This research agrees with the results from the study and analysis conducted by Pare and Felson that crime is controlled and prevented when poverty is properly managed or controlled, as nobody feels any low regarding income status. If poverty (which is the primary drive to crime) is controlled, the rate of crime will decrease. However, should poverty be allowed uncontrolled, and inequality extended over long periods, crime will increase.

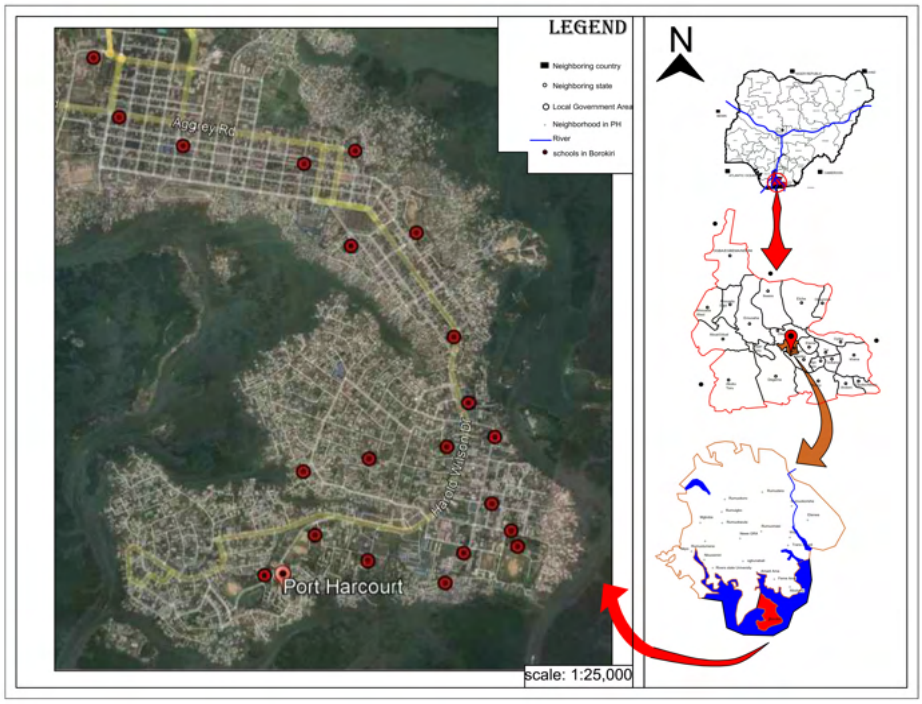
Becker argues that regions with wider disparities between the poor (would-be criminals) and the affluent (potential would-be victims) will have higher crime, with everything else being equal. This is because, in situations where the poor keep growing poorer, the propensity to commit a crime against potential victims (which in this case are the rich) is high thereby, increasing the rate of crime in the neighbourhood. In environments characterised by high rates of income disparity. This is the case with the Borokiri neighbourhood. The majority of the inhabitants in the Borokiri neighbourhood are petty traders, while just a few are civil servants and well-to-do businessmen. What then happens on days when these traders don't sell? Of course, no food to eat! And crime inevitably happens since there is no food for them and their families to eat. As earlier stated by the respondent (with identity number IDN0021), individuals who don't have legal means of earning a living must go into dubious or criminal activities. This implies that they go out to potential victims – the wealthy ones – and perpetrate crimes on them – which may include burglary and robbery. And if perhaps any resistant move is made by these victims, they end up being murdered in the process. It is thus, no doubt that, in the absence of a tenacious poverty alleviation and control initiative, criminal events due to income inequality will be on the rise.

7.2.10 Education and Crime Control

In the previous subsection, the risks of crime because of unemployment were examined. This research assumes that the rate of unemployment may be because of the lack of education. This subsection

determines the effect of education on crime. On the issue of education and crime, this research argues that crime persists when criminals do not consider the social, economic, psychological, political, cultural, and physical implications of crime. Most of the time, it is presumed that people who commit crimes seldom consider social deterrence. This is where education and the role it plays in crime prevention and control comes into play. In agreement with Bennett (2018), this research argues that the education-crime interaction is crucial to the development of effective crime prevention policies. Not only would the ability to reduce crime through improved educational achievement lower social expenses (i.e. violence and huge numbers of working-age individuals in prisons), but it has the potential to be cost-effective because less money would be spent on incarceration. The map below shows schools in Borokiri at the time of this research.

Figure 7.3: Map showing schools in Borokiri



Source: *Designed by the author and adapted from google earth imagery 2021*

From the foregoing, the importance of education in crime control is evident. For the government to make policies on crime prevention and control, and for the effectiveness of these policies, the need to educate people on the consequences of crime is important. Criminals regardless of the policies made will continue to commit crimes provided they are unaware and uneducated on the repercussions of committing these crimes. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0040), “the crimes committed in this neighbourhood are crimes committed because of the lack of education. However,

these crimes can be prevented and controlled. The government should provide these criminals with quality education."

Similar to the assumptions of Bell et al., (2016), this research opines that societies with greater levels of education have reduced crime levels compared to the national average. Individuals with a greater level of education refrain from illegal activities if additional knowledge helps them to grasp the value of delayed gratification. Ruiz et al., (2018) found – in their research – that higher levels of education make the immediate gratification of an individual's preferences and desires through illicit acts less significant. The educational achievement – crime correlation, as observed in this research, appears to be negative: and evidence from the interviews suggests that rising educational achievement reduces ensuing property and violent crime, resulting in massive societal advantages; similar to the assumptions of Brilli & Tonello, (2018). According to respondent (with identity number IDN0039), "they commit crimes because they don't have the educational qualification to secure official jobs. No one with educational attainment will think of committing a crime when he has a good job."

Summary

Drawing from the findings of this research, the physical, socioeconomic, and demographic characteristics of neighbourhood residents significantly affect crime and vulnerability in cities of the Global South, especially in the Borokiri neighbourhood of Port Harcourt city. Neighbourhood physical characteristics such as housing type, street design, and environmental deterioration played a significant role in the crime and vulnerability rates in the Borokiri neighbourhood. The research found that the type of housing that affects crime and vulnerability is the multi-occupancy housing type. This research also found that residents' socioeconomic characteristics including low income, poverty, and unemployment have an impact on crime in the neighbourhood. Demographic characteristics including population, age, gender, and lack of education also affected crime and victimisation. This research found that an increase in population affects the probability of crime. Females are mostly the victims of sexual crimes, also several crimes including assault, vandalism, rape, burglary, robbery, murder, and cultism are associated with the male gender, especially between the ages of 18 and 35. This research argues that residents' physical, socioeconomic, and demographic features have a significant influence on the probability of crime and victimisation in cities of the Global South.

7.3. Why has the Breakdown of Social Control on Human Activities Significantly Influenced the Vulnerability of Urban Residential Neighbourhoods in Cities of the Global South?

As defined in earlier chapters of this paper, crime simply means any indulgence in activities contrary to the laid down rules of the country or community: or indulging in activities such as termed illegal by the predominant rules or laws. The types of crimes in the Borokiri neighbourhood include robbery, kidnapping, drug abuse, and bunker (vandalization of oil pipelines and illegal sale of petroleum products). This research found that crime is not limited to age or gender: nonetheless, while everyone, irrespective of age, is liable to commit a crime, the youth are the major offenders. This research also found that the major causes of crime, especially in the Borokiri neighbourhood, include unemployment and the disjunction between expectation and achievement. Thus, poverty and frustration are the major motivators of crime in Borokiri. When an individual is not able to meet up with his vision, crime due to peer pressure could possibly occur. Age, sex, income, and family size are insignificantly related to crime, rather, poverty, unemployment, and the lack of education are the major factors associated with crime.

7.3.1. Social Interaction and Crime Correlation

In relation to the view of Bernasco et al. (2017), this research opines that the process through which individuals in society behave and react to one another is referred to as social interactions. Moreso, this research, in line with Alessandretti et al. (2018), suggests that an individual's social existence begins with the process of interaction. Social interaction is regarded as the most important aspect of studying a society's social life. But how does this interaction degenerate into crime perception? From the findings of this research, there is a relationship between social interaction and crime perception. Several crimes are interactively induced. Crimes such as assault could stem from an argument with a neighbour or even a friend. Cult clashes which result in neighbourhood unrest do not just happen – they occur due to interaction. These events can affect the perception of residents as regards crime. According to the respondent (with identity number IDN0010), "the crime here happens mostly because of cultism. A few days ago, there was so much chaos and running helter-skelter because of a cult clash between two cult groups in this neighbourhood. People's properties were destroyed, some were stolen in the process, and some other people were brutally assaulted. The night of the incident came with so much calamity. A man was shot dead, mistaken for a target they were after, another young girl was raped badly, and some other persons were injured. I don't feel safe in this neighbourhood anymore."

Moreso, a neighbourhood characterised by well-managed and regulated nightlife can portray a level of crime control in the perception of residents. This research asserts that the degree to which people can walk about their places of residence at late night hours without the fear of being attacked or harassed influences the perception of crime positively. But in a neighbourhood where people dare not step outside their homes, talk more about walking around the neighbourhood at night, poses a sense of insecurity and a negative perception of crime. This happens to be the case in the Borokiri context. The Borokiri neighbourhood is such that nobody dares keep late nights for any reason without being victimised. According to a respondent (with identity number IDN0018) in earlier sections of this chapter, "going out at night is just to be a target. I do not go out anytime at night. I go out during the day, and I prefer to stay indoors at night because I do not know what may happen. Because the crime rate is higher at night."

Furthermore, this research argues that a neighbourhood characterised by increased crime-instigating peer influence no doubt affects crime perception. This research found that peer pressure has significantly added to the enormous crime rates experienced in the Borokiri neighbourhood of Port Harcourt city. Because the young ones in the neighbourhood seldom have a means of survival, they become vulnerable to influence from their friends and peers – who probably are involved in criminogenic practices. Peer influence tends to inspire a negative perception of crime amongst inhabitants. This is because, when young and promising adolescents are spotted associating with notable criminals in the area, fear of future crimes begins to build up. Respondent (with identity number IDN0037) reacted to the issue of peer influence from the standpoint of the family size and background, stating that "family size can play a role in crime, especially when it is polygamous. Because the children don't get satisfied with what they get from their families or parents, they become vulnerable to peer influence from those who earn big from criminal activities. And as a result, they give in to this influence and become crime perpetrators." Peer-inspired crimes committed in the Borokiri context include rape, assault, cultism, theft, and vandalism.

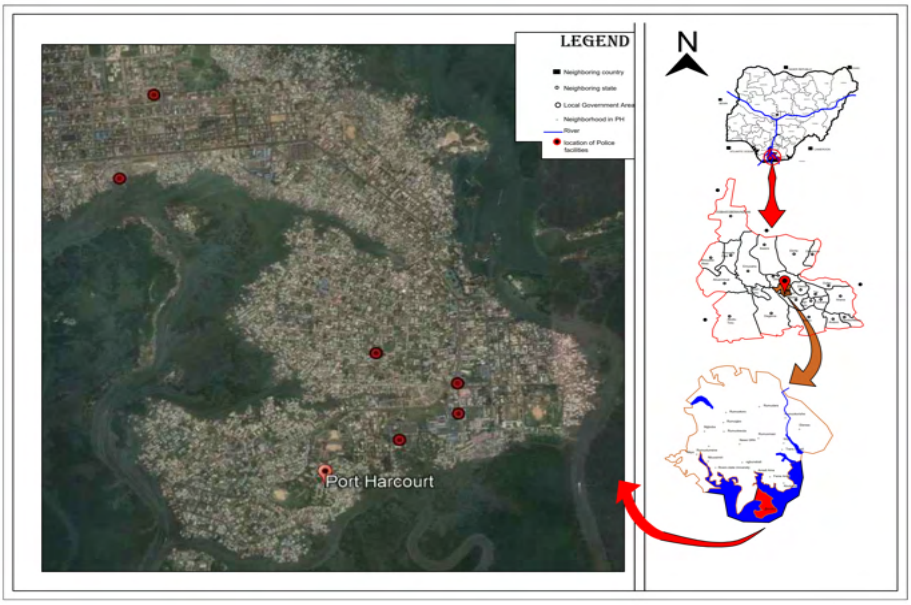
However, this research states that neighbourhoods characterised by high outdoor events such as ceremonies at regular intervals and even at night hours, public gatherings, neighbourhood friendliness and walkability, depict a peaceful and crime-free neighbourhood. This is not the situation in the Borokiri neighbourhood. Life in Borokiri is characterized by fear of crime. This is because, while inhabitants desire a peaceful place of living and productive social interaction, the reality of life in the neighbourhood of Borokiri betrays their expectations.

7.3.2. Hotspot Policing and Crime Control

Hotspot policing is a crime control strategy that means focusing resources and police attention on areas with the highest concentrations of crime. This research asserts that hotspot policing strategies offer moderate crime control advantages and are likely to spread crime control benefits across areas immediately surrounding targeted high-activity criminal locations. The need for policing in the crime-plagued neighbourhood of Borokiri is quite imperative. The inhabitants believe that the presence of the police patrol team has and will continue to help the situation. An interview respondent (with identity number IDN0017) asserted that "the police are doing their best to curb crime within this neighbourhood. The police patrol is very important as it helps curb crime. Each time the patrol team goes around the neighbourhood on their regular patrol, crimes are not reported as was the norm before the engagement of the police."

It is the responsibility of any state security organisation – the police – to protect lives and properties. Hotspot policing is one strategy developed by the police to see to it that crime rates in neighbourhoods with reported high rates of crime are controlled, prevented, and consequently, reduced. Hotspot policing helps to control crime and maintain social order as well as the sanity of inhabitants. The map below shows that the police and other security agencies' facilities are present but scantly distributed across the neighbourhood.

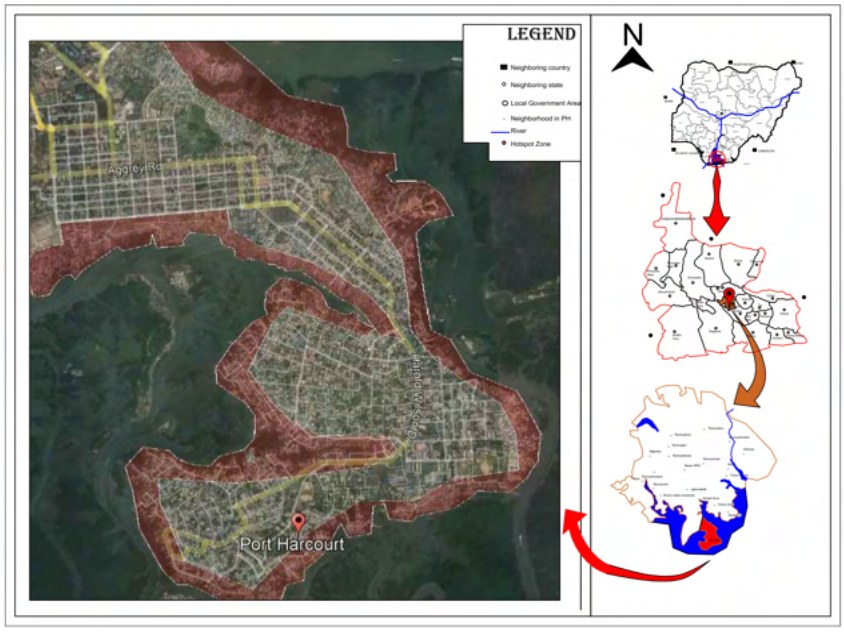
Figure 7.4: Map showing security facilities in Borokiri



Source: *Designed by the author adapted from google earth imagery 2021*

However, from the interview responses, this research has found that there are observed challenges and disadvantages associated with policing in the Borokiri neighbourhood. These perceived problems with policing in the Borokiri area – from the findings of this research – are because of the bad apples in the police department. The primary reason for the engagement of the police has been abandoned and replaced with selfish, greedy, and more crime-instigating desires, which as a result, enhances crime rates. While crime control and prevention should be the aim of the police department, some of the police officers, out of greed and selfishness have turned into big-time crime promoters, hence, contributing the crime rates in the neighbourhood *(see Figure 7.6).* According to respondent (with identity number IDN0026), "in the social group I belong to, defaulters are punished for committing a crime, and this is helping to curb crime since the police are doing nothing, whereas they are meant to help control the crimes committed in this neighbourhood." Respondent (with identity number IDN0036) asserted that "with the recurrence of bad happenings in this area, it is obvious that we are in a crime-prone environment since the police are not doing their job well." Respondent (with identity number IDN0013) "crime in this area happens majorly at the waterside areas and places with no roads, and the police are doing nothing about it but rather support the vices. It might shock you to know that we – the community people – do even better than the police."

Figure 7.5: Map showing crime hotspots



Source: *Designed by the author and adapted from google earth imagery 2021*

Audu (2021) contends in his research that police contribute little to prevent crime in the current situation. From the comments and lamentations of the inhabitants of the Borokiri area, this research has also found that the hotspot policing strategy, which was intended to help curb criminal activities, actually promotes more crime because some of the individuals in the police department indulge in criminal activities. Most of the criminals scared the police. While some other police officers are dedicated to fighting crime, others are promoting crime through indulgence in organised crime and brutality against the very people who should be protected from victimisation.

Summary

From the results of the interviews conducted to determine the probability of crime stemming from social interaction, this research found that several crimes, including cult clashes and assault can result from interactions between people. Arguments and conflicts between people which result in crime happen because of interaction. Also, the corrupt practices of the police, which culminate in the breakdown of social control, significantly influence the probability of crime. To address the question above, this research asserts that the malpractices of the police and the influence of peers affect the proclivity to crime.

7.4 Why has each Component of the Socio-cultural Environment Posed a Significant Impact on Crime in Cities of the Global South?

The Global South is recognised for having higher rates of violent criminal conduct, particularly lethal violence (Lloyd-Sherlock et al., 2016). Achievement, individualism, monetary fetishism, and universalism are four essential cultural principles that are accountable for increased crime rates in the Global South (Tymoshenko, 2021). From the observation of this research, how a culture sees success and how it assesses an individual's worth or position determines achievements. A strong emphasis on personal accomplishment, along with limited viable possibilities for achievement, leads to an alienated lifestyle in which collective ethical boundaries may end up culminating in the favour of personal ambitions (Walters, 2019). Individualism refers to how we are encouraged to compete with others to be successful. People in the Global South must care for themselves since it is their obligation, as opposed to collectivistic societies, which prefer to care for the collective. Universalism refers to the universal acceptance of these values by all members of society, regardless of income or rank (Whitten et al., 2019). Monetary fetishism is simply how society views wealth as the primary measure of one’s achievement, other than wanting to know how this wealth was acquired, whether through legal or illegal means (Dearden et al., 2021). In this section, the responses of the research participants are

analysed in line with their socio-cultural environment, as it concerns crime and criminal behaviour, through achievement individualism, monetary fetishism, and universalism.

7.4.1 Sociocultural/Religious Based Crime Propensities

Examining crime from a cultural standpoint, this research sees crime as a culture or culture as a crime (that is, crime as a product of culture or culture as a product of crime). These are two concepts in cultural criminology involved in the determination of crime. This thesis identifies criminal behaviour as beginning in subcultures, and crime as a group activity induced by the group's identity. There are symbols, meanings, and knowledge within each of the criminal subcultures. Members adopt the group's rules and values, as well as its language and behaviour, and therefore become increasingly involved in the group's life and the crimes that accompany it (Ilan, 2019).

In line with Ilan (2019), this research observed that the culture of cult groups inspire crime: and the social disorder that the Borokiri area is plagued with is the culture of cultism. The culture adopted by cult groups includes violence, assault, drug and substance abuse, involvement in diverse kinds of social vices, and as a result, crime keeps rising daily. Consequently, these crimes committed by cult groups in the neighbourhood have formed and created a criminal subculture. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0016) "this neighbourhood is plagued with many anti-social behaviours such as cultism, and sexual harassment. The most common businesses associated with the cult groups in this neighbourhood include bunkers and vandalism of oil pipeline." Respondent (with identity number IDN0040) states that "there have been cases of reported attack by a cult group against another cult group in this neighbourhood. They attack themselves in the same group as well, particularly on issues concerning cultism." Respondent (with identity number IDN0026) asserted that "many youths rather belong to secret cult groups instead of good social organisation. The issue of cultism has caused more harm and fear among those of us living in this neighbourhood."

From the findings of this research, the issue of cultism in the neighbourhood of Borokiri and the subculture it has created among the youths of the neighbourhood has resulted in immense fear of crime. The inhabitants no longer feel good, and nor do they feel any secure living in the area. Every day of their lives is characterised by fear of the unknown. People are afraid of being victims of crime. They have developed a negative perception of crime in the Borokiri area. Hence, this thesis asserts that the recurrent events of crime in societies lead to an increase in the fear of crime amongst inhabitants.

However, the impact of religion – as a cultural element – has helped in no small way to curb the activities of criminals in the area. Religion in the Borokiri context functions as a social force: and as a

result, higher levels of religious devotion tend to reduce aberrant behaviours. Religious participation fosters social networks and emotional support, which limit criminal conduct. Religious people are often bound to religious institutions, which give informal social control over their conduct. Individuals with greater levels of religiosity are directed by religious sanctions in their actions. Concerning this reasoning, religion acts as a deterrent factor to bad behaviours such as crime and deviance by establishing and sustaining social networks and social relationships. Thus, this thesis argues that religion acts as a social control agent in the prevention and control of crime, especially in the Borokiri neighbourhood. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0005), "the majority of residents in this neighbourhood are Christians. Since the majority are Christians, those who commit crime do so at their decision." Respondent (with identity number IDN0037) stated that "the people here practice Christianity, and the church plays a good role by preaching to those who engage in these crimes, especially, those at 18 years and above." Respondent (with identity number IDN0026) asserted that "as much as Christianity is predominant here, they do not teach people to commit a crime. I feel the religious bodies are trying their best to reduce crimes. Christianity helps to stop these illegal activities even from a tender age to adulthood.

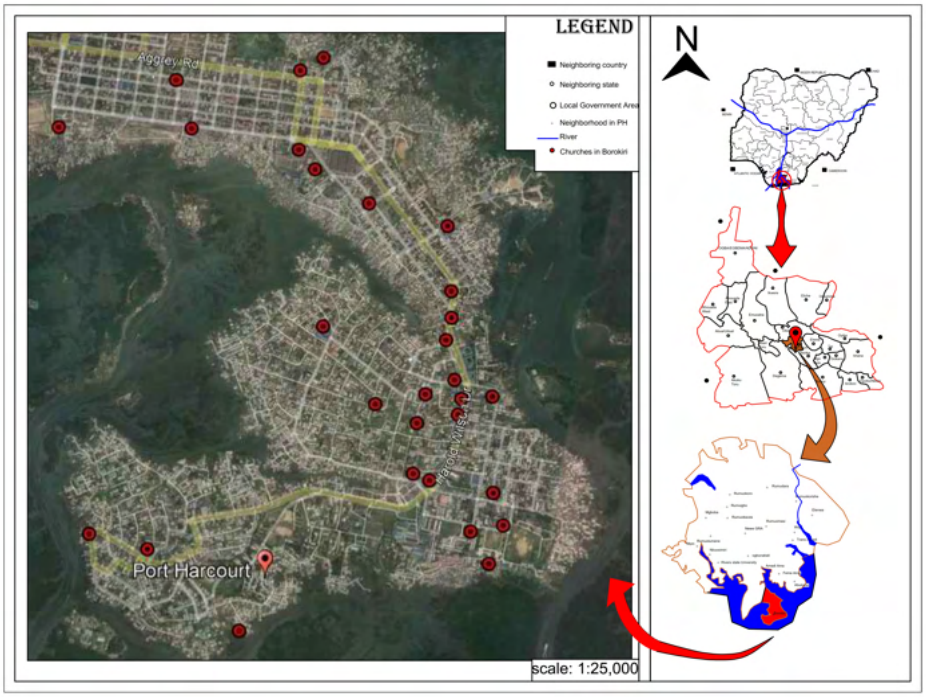
Despite the enormous efforts put into fighting and preventing crime, some people still hold religious organisations responsible for the increasing crime rate. But the truth remains that the crimes committed in the Borokiri neighbourhood are not religiously inspired but rather personal decisions. The religious society in the Borokiri situation plays a vital role in curtailing the likelihood of criminal events. religion is a strong mind control system, that is why Karl Marx recognises it as the "opiate of the people" (Eberhardt, 2019). This research argues that religion seeks to imbibe in an individual the moral values that promote societal peace and harmony. And the fear of sanctions from these religious bodies prevents its members from indulging in crime.

7.4.1 Religion and Crime Perception

There has been a relatively high concern as to whether religion affects crime. While Walfield et al., (2017) argue that religion has a negative relationship with regard to crime, this research reveals a positive correlation between religion and crime. That certain members of religious societies commit or get involved in crime is not a strong premise to conclude that religion has an affiliation with crime. It is quite dangerous to make a stereotype generalisation of a whole religious body simply from a miniature standpoint of an erring member.

As earlier stated, the propulsion to commit a crime is personal. Crime is committed by individuals' personal decisions. No religion orders a crime against another. Although some crimes may seek cover under religion, it is still not enough to associate religion with factors that cause crime. These individuals may not be grounded in the rules or general conduct of the religion they belong to. So, they tend to fall back on crime at the slightest cause. Some studies such as Wuthnow (2016) suggest that the cause of crime among religious fanatics is uncontrolled and excessive religious zeal or fanaticism. The figure below shows the locations of churches in the Borokiri neighbourhood.

Figure 7.6: Map showing churches in the Borokiri area



Source: *Designed by the author and adapted from google earth imagery 2021*

In the Borokiri context, the prime causes of the increase in crime rate are traced to poverty (because of unemployment and lack of education) and cultism (because of peer influence and lack of social control), and not religion. Christianity, which is the predominant religion in the neighbourhood, has engaged in endless efforts to curb and prevent further crimes through charity initiatives (to provide food for the poor) and admonishing the poor (who are more prone to being crime perpetrators) on the need to not be involved in criminal activities. Of course, not everyone will acknowledge the efforts and contributions of the church, but the church has contributed immensely to curbing and curtailing further crimes. An interview was conducted at random to determine the impact of religion on the crime rate in the Borokiri neighbourhood. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0005), "the

predominant religious gathering here is the Christian religious gathering, and there is no doubt about their efforts towards curbing crime, as they keep preaching against it. The Christians in this neighbourhood have individually tried to reduce crime through providing alternatives to the joblessness that inspire crime." Respondent (with identity number IDN0008) stated that "several times, the Christian bodies have rendered helping hands to reduce crime in this neighbourhood. The body of Christ is doing its best, it takes only the grace of God to change somebody, so they keep on preaching against crime. They usually involve law enforcement agencies whenever they observe a committed crime."

From the observations and findings of this research, the significant role religion plays in the fight against crime is evident, especially, in the Borokiri context. Statements from the respondents attest to the goodness of religion in crime control and prevention through religious teachings of self-control and contentment – which are way more than statements that attest against it. This shows a positive correlation between crime and religion, especially in the Borokiri neighbourhood.

7.4.2. Self-control and Crime Perception

Self-control is a component of inhibitory control, which is the ability to regulate one's emotions, thoughts, and actions in the face of temptations and desires (Alba, 2019). It is a cognitive process that is required for managing one's behaviour to reach specified goals which might include not committing a crime due to the desire for gratification (Romer et al., 2010). The self-control ideology of crime is a criminological idea that asserts that a lack of individual self-control is the root of criminal conduct (Gottfredson, 2017). Furthermore, the degree to which an individual gains control over the push to commit a crime irrespective of the reason, is said to be self-control (Hirtenlehner & Leitgöb, 2021). In relation to the theory of self-control, this research argues that the lack of this self-control can lead to crime. Individuals with little or no self-control are mostly associated with recurrent involvement in criminal activities. One of the things that lure people, especially the people in Borokiri into committing a crime is the inability to delay gratification. This research found that crime – especially among the youths in Borokiri – is associated with the failure to delay gratification. This supports the theory of self-control. Individuals with this deficiency are more at risk of being crime perpetrators. However, self-control measures and doctrines are taught in religious societies to their members to cushion the probability of indulging in crime.

7.4.3. Reinforcing Police–Community Partnership

A functional collaboration between law enforcement and community stakeholders is critical to public safety, and that government agencies, community groups, NGOs, corporations, and private people must all see public safety as a shared duty. To generate long-term solutions and promote public trust in the police, law enforcement and community, people must cultivate constructive working partnerships. The crimes committed in most residential communities take more than just the police to tackle. There is the need to, therefore, involve the concerned community to further the investigation, control, and prevention of criminal happenings in the community.

In agreement with Cherney and Hartley (2017), this research found that community collaboration is critical to minimising the hazards posed by crime. As a result, police and security services in Western nations have begun to engage affected communities for better information collection and the threat posed by violent extremism. Community policing has grown in popularity in police departments around the country over the last two decades. Community Oriented Policing (COP) is a method of addressing local crime and disorder by including the community as an equal partner with law enforcement authorities. Officers get training in public relations, community relationships, and problem-solving strategies.

Moreover, the importance of community partnership with the police department can't be overstated (J. Saunders & Kilmer, 2021). It is imperative in communities where crime seems to be unending. From the observation of this research, the police are also human beings with flesh and blood as these criminals. They cannot see everywhere in the neighbourhood at the same time. They need informants – informants from the communities concerned. Most of these police officers are strangers to the communities they police. They do not know their way around the neighbourhood, and as such, they need guidance and direction around areas of the neighbourhood, as well as the full participation of the community in the fight against crime. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0009), "the community vigilante groups have important roles to play in terms of security because they are residents in the same environment as those perpetrating crime. Their alliance with the police patrol teams helps in curbing crimes at night because the police do not know their way around here: and some of them are not from this place." In the context of the study area – the Borokiri neighbourhood, community members have recognised the importance of police–community partnership in combatting crime. Residents have formed a coalition to ally with the police in the battle against crime. The vigilante groups formed by the young men of the area have contributed immensely to the control and prevention of crime in their residential neighbourhoods.

From the comment of the respondent, the community has developed a functional partnership with the police department to combat crime. This will result in the enhancement of a safe nightlife and good safety perception. So, there is no doubt that partnership between the police department and concerned communities in crime control and prevention is an effective measure for the overall wellbeing of the community. Therefore, there is a need to reinforce the relationship between the police and the community, especially considering the rate of crime in the Borokiri neighbourhood of Port Harcourt.

7.4.4. Law Enforcement and Community Eengagement in Crime Control

Concerning crime prevention, the social control of human activities – including crime – can be achieved through informal and formal control measures. In situations where informal social control measures are ineffective, formal social control measures can be engaged to enhance crime prevention. Authorised agents such as police officers, employers, military personnel, and others are in charge of enforcing formal social control. Formal social control is accomplished by the use of legislation in the form of statutes, rules, and regulations prohibiting aberrant social conduct. Certain laws, such as the prohibition of murder, can be addressed by all members of a community. Corporate laws are established to control the behaviour of social institutions. Formal control is exercised by the government and organisations through law enforcement measures. It can also be carried out by official consequences such as fines and imprisonment.

This research found that the Borokiri people had formed neighbourhood watch groups to detect and report crimes beyond community informal control to law enforcement agencies. Crimes that cannot be thoroughly handled by local crime control measures such as murder, robbery, and kidnapping are taken to the police for proper treatment. Criminals caught by local vigilante troops are beaten and taken to the police in cases of serious offences. Interview comments from respondents revealed that the involvement of the police in crime control in the neighbourhood has reduced the crimes committed, especially at night. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0009), “the police patrol rate in this neighbourhood has increased. This has helped to a significant extent in curbing crime. I must confess, the police patrol has a positive impact on crime control.”

7.4.5. Challenges to Formal (law enforcement) Crime Control

The police are the most apparent agents of formal social control in all human civilizations, whether ancient or advanced (Sargeant et al., 2013). Because they all address the basic challenges posed by episodes of criminal behaviour that should not be occurring, social control and reactions to deviance are inextricably linked to police activity (Weisburd, 2021). The crucial functions that the police play

in the maintenance and enforcement of societal mandated values and laws highlight the significance of this law enforcement organisation as the nucleus of social control in society (Ferdik et al., 2016). The distinction between the police and policy is based on the idea that the choice of the officer on the street is as essential as the presence of the criminal justice system (Lastari & Kusriyah, 2021). As a result, the police officer serves as the 'gatekeeper' of the criminal justice system, as the institution selects who enters the system, and its choice has broader implications for the system's other components (Rasmussen, 2020).

However, the country's continuous security difficulties, as well as the Nigeria Police Force's (NPF) incapacity to ensure the security and safety of life and property, are concerning. Nigerians characterise police as lazy, ineffective, corrupt and contributors to the commission of crimes like mass murder, intimidation, rape, extrajudicial killings, and summary executions against the population they are meant to protect (Ajayi & Longe, 2015). It is also typical for authorities to erroneously designate innocent people as armed robbers, while genuine criminals operate freely in society doing what they do best – to commit crimes.

From the observations of this research, in the Borokiri neighbourhood, while the police are doing their best to enhance control and prevention of crime, there seem to be serious challenges affecting the actualization of the aims of formal crime control. The residents seem to have a grief against the activities of the police in the discharge of their duties. Claims have been made by residents of the neighbourhood that while some police officers do their best to curb crime, some others take part in the evils going on in the neighbourhood. An interview was conducted to determine the perception of the inhabitants about the criminal issues of the police in relation to crime. According to respondent (with identity number IDN0017), "the police are also doing their best, but their best is not good enough because they are also part of the crime problem in this neighbourhood. Earlier today, a tricyclist was killed for refusing to give to a police officer who stopped him on the road as he was driving." Respondent (with identity number IDN0013) stated that "the police process is too long and corrupt. When you apprehend a criminal, allow justice to prevail, and others will learn their lesson from there. After investigation and questioning, after hearing and the accused is found guilty, then execution. However, if you take it to the police, they are bailed after it gets to the police." The statements above suggest that there are indeed challenges confronting the aim of formal crime control in the Borokiri neighbourhood. These misconducts have led to doubt in the capability of the police to control and prevent crime in the concerned area: thus, necessitating a need to reform community policing, as well as orient the police on the ethics and codes guiding community policing.

Summary

Drawing from the discussions above, the cultural effect of crime in the neighbourhood of Borokiri is the existence of a criminal subculture, especially among youths and adolescents. This research found that the impact of sociocultural components – especially religion – on crime in the neighbourhood of Borokiri does not increase crime, rather it helps to reduce crime. As highlighted by several respondents, the predominant religious group in Borokiri is Christianity. They highlighted that the churches as religious associations help to reduce crime through their charitable deeds and their teachings against crime. This research found, from interviews, that religious groups tend to imbibe self-control in their members through teaching and sanctions for aberrant conducts. To address the research question above, this research found that religion does not increase crime, rather it reduces crime, especially in Borokiri.

7.5 Conclusion

From the discussions above, this research asserts that crime alleviation is one critical and demanding task for any government seeking to gain control and prevent further occurrences. The safety of citizens is one of the primary goals of any citizen-inclined government. Over time, crime prevention measures have been developed and engaged to ensure social order across the jurisdiction of a government. However, the effectiveness of these measures greatly depends on the perception of the communities affected and the degree to which they are willing to align with the measures engaged.

The Nigerian government has done its best to curb crime in crime-plagued communities of the country including the Borokiri area. But crime is still on the increase due to the ineffectiveness and inefficiency of the crime control measures deployed. The Borokiri area needs quick intervention to further the control and prevention of crime. The current measures are failing in their effectiveness. Thus, newer and more improved models are imperative to curb the menace degrading the safety of the poor Borokiri settlement. Poverty which is the most underlining factor for crimes committed in the area should be addressed and the environmental quality enhanced. The sooner this issue is addressed the more the trust of the residents of Borokiri in the government, and the better the overall situation of the area. The ensuing chapter goes further to redefine community safety and crime prevention, especially as it concerns cities in the Global South.

CHAPTER EIGHT

REDEFINING COMMUNITY SAFETY IN CITIES OF THE GLOBAL SOUTH

8.1 Introduction

In agreement with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2010), this research suggests that community-based strategies, including social development strategies, can have a far bigger influence on criminal behaviour than law enforcement alone. Interventions that combine traditional law enforcement with the provision of support services to crime perpetrators, such as support services by probation officials, health experts, or community activists, have shown beneficial effects, as suggested by Respondent (with identity number IDN0017) “the vigilante has a significant role in terms of security because they live in the same environment as the crime perpetrators, and they know their needs and wants specifically. Moreso, in line with Piper and Guerrero (2019), this research found that, according to respondent (with identity number IDN0034), “The police patrol is also very important because it helps to instill fear in the perpetrators, thereby creating a crime-free environment”. This suggests that problem-oriented policing, such as hot spot policing and community-oriented policing, should be implemented in cities in the Global South to combat crime and enhance collaboration between the police and the population they serve. Also, in agreement with Kailemia (2019), this research opines that local programmes that support target hardening (situational crime prevention focused on possible victims and/or hotspots) in conjunction with community-oriented efforts to raise awareness and promote crime prevention through social development will be beneficial and efficient to the reduction of crime in cities of the Global South.

Consequently, crime is no longer considered a single issue in a particular culture. Rather, it is an essential component of comprehending a nation's sociocultural, political, and economic status. Various social difficulties might arise because of uncoordinated and unsystematic social developments, particularly among people who are unable to adjust to ever-changing – new circumstances. Rapid social change inevitably leads to societal disorder, which includes criminality. As a result, this research suggests that although every culture undergoes varying degrees of social change and, as a result, rises in crime and crime rates, the rates of change vary

from one society to another. And if this is true, then it is possible to comprehend a society by evaluating changes in crime and crime rates, where they are utilised as an index for gauging societal changes and features. Thus, this chapter seeks to determine the critical factors of social changes that dwindle community safety.

8.2 System and Process Underpinning the Current Crime Prevention Plan and its Implications for Social and Economic Development

The global events surrounding crime and delinquency are quite alarming. As found by this thesis, these events impede individual perception of security and safety and as a result, trample on the societal construct. This has led to enormous adverse effects on individuals and society at large. Consequently, this research asserts that at the emergence and spread of these unfortunate events (crime) to property and individual safety, the social construct suffers a big and impetuous risk to its overall wellbeing. If this risk is ignored, crime gradually sinks into the core of society and consequently, a criminal subculture or lifestyle develops.

This research also suggests that individual and family-level factors linked to later criminal activity should be addressed in the course of carrying out crime prevention strategies/programs. This is because while individual characteristics such as school engagement and participation in pro-social activities reduce the likelihood of criminal involvement, individual characteristics such as involvement in anti-social activities increase the risk of crimes. Crime prevention, especially in cities of the Global South, should address personal and family-related elements that lead to criminal subcultures. It should also explore the factors (both intrinsic and extrinsic) that degenerate into delinquency. In cities and neighbourhoods characterised by increasing crime rates, the necessity for crime prevention is imperative. The current crime prevention measures in societies and cities of the Global South have over time proven ineffective as crime keeps rising despite the presence of these crime prevention strategies. Societies and governments seeking control over crime engage in different crime prevention measures to restore sanity to their nations, cities, and neighbourhoods, as well as the society in general.

However, these preventive methods depend on the concerned populace for their effectiveness and efficiency. This is because, for crime prevention to prevail over delinquency rates, underlying

intrinsic and extrinsic variables' potential for crime perpetration must be checked and addressed. Variables such as poverty and unemployment, which are primary motivators of crime, must be checked at the grassroots level for the effectiveness of community-engaged crime control and prevention measures. When these factors are neglected in crime control plans, the coherent forces of poverty and unemployment combined, will frustrate the effectiveness of whatever crime control and prevention measures are employed. This is because people who don't have any means of livelihood, regardless of the intensity of crime control and prevention, will be involved in crime until the social and economic aspects of these prevention strategies become robust enough to match the social and economic realities (problems) in the country. Hence, this research argues that the effectiveness and efficiency of crime prevention are correlated to the society concerned.

From the observations of this research, the crime prevention and control measures in the Global South centre more on law enforcement agencies, paying little or no attention to other social control and crime prevention models, including employment of eligible working-age youths, enhanced system of education, and poverty alleviation initiatives. This neglect has done more harm than good to the overall sanity of cities. This is because, while more attention is given to law enforcement agencies, the risk of crime due to poverty, unemployment, and lack of quality education gets even higher every day, subjecting the average individual to criminal proclivities.

However, this research suggests that if the government's attention and resources are diversified into the various aspects of social and individual life and wellbeing, the reduction in the crime rate will be tremendous. This is because nobody just commits a crime – crime is influenced by innate and external forces exerting pressure and inclining the individual to commit a crime. Urban managers and governments alike of cities and societies in the Global South should not be negligent towards such grassroots motivators of crime as poverty, unemployment, and lack of enhanced education, as they pose tremendous risks to the development of a criminal subculture/lifestyle. The sooner the government responds to these factors and considers making policies that impede crime and promote social stability and sanity, the sooner the prevention of further crime and violence in southern cities and neighbourhoods can be assured.

This research thus, believes that crime can be curbed, and further occurrences prevented. However, it is difficult to ascertain the tenacity of crime control and prevention without the presence of a backing force. Just as laws are made effective because of the backing of the justice

system, so is crime prevention at the mercy of strong and coherent policies for its effectiveness and efficiency. As a result, this thesis asserts that crime prevention strategies must be accompanied by well-funded and coherent crime prevention policies to ensure their success. This is because crime prevention, like every other social control concern, depends on the implementation of policies that aid its effectiveness and success.

From the observation of this research, there is a significant shortcoming in the aspect of crime prevention policy implementation. This is because while several measures including community policing and hotspot policing are engaged, there is a lack of strong crime prevention policies to back up these measures. The absence of such policies makes policing and crime prevention unfruitful and unforthcoming. This is because a police officer who is posted to a crime-plagued community or neighbourhood to fight crime, with little or no knowledge of how to go about fighting crime, will obviously, end up fanning the flames of rising crime rates. This knowledge can only be provided by policies supporting crime prevention measures. Consequently, this research suggests a correlation between crime prevention initiatives and crime prevention policies.

Moreover, policies such as bans on alcohol consumption in open spaces and streets, restrictions on midnight clubbing, eradication of wrecked buildings, and the restriction on school dropout among adolescents, as well as the awareness of individuals about such policies, make crime control and prevention easy and effective. So, any society or government seeking control over crime – with the intent of preventing further occurrences and must engage in several crime control and prevention measures, as well as ensure the provision of corresponding backup policies for these crime control and prevention measures.

8.3 The Physical and Demographic Imperatives of Crime in Cities of the South

This research opines that although crime has ever been a present phenomenon throughout human history, the persistence of crime varies with time between demographic groups, and violent crime (rape, assault, robbery, and murder), as well as property crime (theft and burglary), have a tremendous impact on society. The interplay of environmental and social determinants is also linked to both delinquency and environmental vulnerability and has the potential to incite crime and disorder. This research believes that the impact of several environmental exposures on

neuropsychological functioning is well known. These effects include decreased intelligence quotient, reduced level of attention to education, and an enhanced level of social deviance.

In the opinion of this research, a great deal can be learnt about crime patterns in society by studying demographics, which are characteristics (including education, family status, gender, and age) of a group of people. This also facilitates the understanding of crime patterns. Moreso, this thesis suggests that demographics can be used in the analysis of crime to determine why crime persists in certain places. Moreover, demographics facilitate easy determination of potential criminals. The necessity of investigating demographic variables such as gender, age, and social class, for a better comprehension of crime cannot be overstated. Furthermore, in consensus with the broken windows theory, this thesis asserts that delinquent activities are inevitable in neighbourhoods characterised by deteriorating and dilapidating environments. In another way, physically deteriorating housing in working-class and core areas promotes increase in safety concerns, crime, and vandalism. Consequently, residents inhibit great fear of walking in the neighbourhood at night, promoting crime fear and vulnerability in urban residential neighbourhoods.

The determination of the propensity of crime related to gender and age has been attempted throughout history. Similarly, crime perpetration in cities of the Global South is relatively high within this age range of 14 to 35 years. Moreso, this research suggests that with the upsurge in delinquency levels within the age range as the foregoing, crime and deviance will be at their prime in the mid-twenties of the aforementioned age range, possibly dropping as they approach old age. However, this thesis believes that the most common reasons for the arrest of adult males over the age of 65 include drugs, larceny/theft, and assaults.

This study also finds that other demographic determinants of aberrant and delinquent behaviour, in line with the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), include age, family status, education, and gender, especially in cities in the Global South. It also states that men are more inclined to delinquent and criminal involvement in comparison to their female counterparts. This research, thus, reveals that men are more likely to be involved in violent crimes compared to females. Moreso, from the findings of this research, the family and educational status of individuals inclines them to criminal proclivities. Moreover, the responses from the interviews conducted

show that most of the individuals involved in violent and delinquent activities were either from poor homes or had little or no educational background.

Therefore, this research suggests that there is a great necessity to tackle such environmental problems and situations capable of inducing crime and disorder – if neighbourhood peace and sanity must be restored. Several measures can be taken to address such crime-prone situations. Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) can be used to fight this menace and contain further events. Environmental-based crime prevention is a strategy for reforming the built environment to make communities safer. Blighted areas of the neighbourhood that serve as criminal harbours should be spotted and removed. Areas with poor utilities and infrastructure should be developed to standard to curtail the possibilities of criminal subculture development. Street policing and situational crime control policing can be engaged to intensify crime prevention in crime-plagued neighbourhoods.

8.3.1 Multifunctionality and Diversity: Tackling Crime Using Demographic Factors

The demographic characteristics of a population refer to those characteristics such as age, gender, ethnicity, occupation/employment status, income, educational achievement, and marriage. These characteristics have the probability of promoting or curbing crime. This research investigated the demographic-crime correlation to determine to what extent these demographic features enhance the proclivity of individuals to commit crimes. The results of the investigation show that crime is related to demographic factors, especially population, employment status (especially unemployment), income (income disparity), and education (lack of educational qualifications). Consequently, this thesis asserts that unemployment and the lack of/poor education are strong determinants of criminal and antithetic activities. This study suggests that the more unemployment strives among a population, the greater the risk of criminal subcultures.

Moreover, this research proposes that the income level of individuals in a given population to a remarkable extent affects crime: and that low-income earners are more prone to being crime perpetrators. This is because low-income earners whose responsibilities to their families are greater than what they earn, tend to resort to dubious and corrupt means to make up for their enormous responsibilities. Poverty is a major factor in this regard. Most crimes are committed

primarily because of poverty and the pressure to meet daily needs. However, those individuals who are well-to-do are seldom involved in crime. They do not commit crimes for the sake of providing for their daily needs, as is the case with low-income earners.

Therefore, this research puts forward the understanding that demographic variables facilitate the observation and earmarking of probable persons and groups of people who are more at risk of being involved in delinquent and criminal activities. Crimes resulting from demographic variables can be curbed. Controlling and preventing further criminal and delinquent events using demographic characteristics is not an impossible task. For crime to be contained through this avenue or strategy, crime-fighter organisations, governmental institutions, corporate bodies, and concerned communities must look deeply into the demographic factors that inspire crime and address them. The underlying factor of poverty must be alleviated for further events to be prevented. Income disparity and its relative effects on crime should be checked and controlled. Individuals within the youthful age range should be provided with jobs, and the overall environment of the people should be developed and brought up to standard to avoid further crimes.

8.3.2 Enhancing Safety Concerns Through the Development of Physical Infrastructure

This research views infrastructure as a system of basic facilities that enhances social functionality. Infrastructure is the aggregate of the vital facilities that promote the social construct and the general well-being of the society. Examples of these physical infrastructures include water supply, housing, electricity, sewage, and road network. This research also sees infrastructure as the integration of constituent physical interconnected systems that provide services as well as commodities necessary for the development and sustenance of comfortable conditions for social living and interaction, as well as fostering environmental tranquility. The presence of these physical infrastructures makes urban and social life worthwhile.

However, from the examination of the situation in neighbourhoods in the Global South, this research argues that while the availability of these physical infrastructures promotes prosocial urban interaction, their absence has a high probability of instigating crime and disorder. The presence and prevalence of crime in an area concerning physical infrastructure is a product of dilapidated or deteriorated public infrastructure. Several crimes, including rape, assault,

kidnapping, theft, and vandalism, can, to a remarkable extent, be traceable to poor physical infrastructure. Neighbourhoods characterised by gross darkness and no electricity to lighten up the area at night, stand at high risk of violence and delinquency. Also, areas with non-motorable roads and bad road networks are prone to robbery and assault by hoodlums who block roads to perpetrate crimes against potential victims. Based on the findings of this research, this is particularly one of the problems encountered by late-night travelers arriving in the city and neighbourhood in the late hours of the night.

As earlier mentioned in the preceding section, blighted areas have a propensity for instigating crime and disorder. This thesis argues that areas with a high number of uncompleted and abandoned physical structures (buildings), as well as compact/nucleated settlement patterns, have greater propensities of criminal events. This is because, from the results obtained from interviews, these dilapidated and blighted structures serve as hideouts for most of the criminals and drug users who carry out criminal and delinquent activities at the sight of a vulnerable victim with no opposing force or potential guardian. Moreso, this is the belief of the routine activity theory of crime. Crimes associated with such settlements and neighbourhoods include burglary, vandalism, rape, abduction, theft, human rights abuse, assault, and cultism.

However, the thesis opines that these events are not without a solution. Several measures can be taken to see the extinction of this social menace that has invaded the peace and sanity of man in his social state. Among the various environmental crime control measures as concerned with physical infrastructurally induced crimes, the engagement of the Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) as a crime and social control measure is quite a powerful tool for curbing environmental crimes, especially in cities in the Global South at large. This method involves creating more community-friendly and interactive neighbourhoods with adequate and standard facilities that promote prosocial values. This research argues the necessity of the CPTED, stating that the CPTED engages in the development of blighted areas of the neighbourhood, focuses on neighbourhood sanitation, good road network, and generally, a working system of physical prosocial infrastructure. It also suggests that when environmental quality is enhanced, the proclivity to commit a crime is lessened. After all, nobody would want to get caught in a crime – so it instils in individuals the fear of being caught.

8.4 Socio-cultural Imperatives of Developing a Crime Prevention Strategy

Certain crimes are attributed to the socio-cultural context of an individual. Several crimes committed are believed to be because of the socio-cultural background of the criminal. This research opines those crimes such as gender prejudice, feticide, and religious violence are committed owing to the socio-cultural environment around an individual. The socio-cultural environment of an individual refers to those systems, including ideologies, beliefs, culture, race, customs, and patterns that altogether affect and inform the decision to either or not indulge in criminal and anti-social activities.

Furthermore, this thesis suggests that it is imperative to comprehend the sociocultural perspectives of a particular group of people in the quest to determine the crime patterns, crime propensities, and who are likely to be criminals. Having this knowledge at the tip of the fingers facilitates easy recognition of possible criminals and communities/neighbourhoods prone to criminal subculture development and makes community policing as well as hot spot policing a productive and successful task. The success of any crime control and prevention strategy greatly depends on the knowledge gathered about the ideological and philosophical belief systems operating in the sociocultural environment of the neighbourhood or community where prevention and control of crime is to be initiated.

This is because ideas and beliefs are psychologically imbibed in individuals from a tender age, and as such, they grow to hold tenaciously on to these ideas regardless of their social implications. This research suggests that the phenomena of extremism and fundamentalism are functions of the ideas and beliefs imbibed in individuals from a tender age through growing up. However, it is possible to control crimes related to such sociocultural belief systems. Nonetheless, an in-depth knowledge and mastery of the operations of these systems imperatively facilitates the promulgation of coherent policies and crime control/prevention measures to impede the antithetical proceeds of these belief systems. Policies including the prohibition of gender prejudice, coherent policies against feticide, and other examples of such policies can mitigate the impact of sociocultural belief systems on crime.

8.5 Availability of Financial Resources and Contingency Funds

Like every other unwanted, unpleasant, and unexpected occurrence, crime happens when it is least expected. Criminal events carry along with them, social and human misfortunes. So many evils and mischiefs befall innocent and vulnerable people as a result of the crimes committed against them. Many homes have been disorganised due to domestic violence and child abuse. The safety of citizens is under threat; people now walk and move in fear of what is going to happen, and everyone is extremely careful. Consequently, this research suggests that when crime has gotten into the core of neighbourhoods, communities, and cities to the extent where fear of crime is at its prime, it is then imperative to devise measures of containing these crimes to restore peace and sanity to the affected areas.

However, crime control and prevention do not just become successful and effective, several measures must be put in place to ensure the efficiency of control and preventive measures. Fighting crime takes more than just identifying the root and underlining factors instigating criminal and delinquent subculture development in an area, but connotes focusing and concentrating resources, both manpower, intellectual, physical, and financial resources on the combat against crime. Consequently, this research argues that crime will continue to blossom if all there is to fighting crime is just identifying the underpinning variables that incline individuals towards crime. The effectiveness and efficiency of crime control and prevention policies rely on the amount and adequacy of the concentrated resources towards containing crime in any neighbourhood or city.

Resources, including financial resources are imperative for crime control and prevention because the primary motivator of crime, especially financial crime, is poverty. Most people commit crimes for what they derive from them. Because they have needs to meet, and there is little or no ability to meet these needs, crime becomes an inevitable option. So, while policies are made and preventive measures are engaged, the provision of financial resources, for the implementation of such engagements should not be neglected. Community policing as well as local vigilante groups are all at the mercy of the provision of resources (especially financial resources) for effectiveness and efficiency in the discharge of their duties.

Moreover, the place of contingency plans and funding should also not be neglected. While governmental institutions, private corporations, law enforcement agencies, and all concerned

organisations in the crime combat initiative join forces to curb crime, the negligence of future crime probabilities can be very detrimental and risky. This is because crime cannot be predicted, it cannot be precisely known when it is likely to surface – it could happen anytime, anywhere. Contingency plans refer to control measures and initiatives implemented to impede the possibility of future crimes, as well as equip crime fighters, and keep them prepared for future crimes.

8.6 Alternative Options and Implications for Sustainable Development

Prosocial living conditions and sustainable development are hampered when safety concerns have arisen. Crime control strategies are engaged when the safety and prosocial life of any society are threatened by the continuous occurrence of crimes. This is a way of ensuring that urban safety, as well as community or neighbourhood rest, is enhanced and maintained over extended periods. Sustainability, which is defined as the maintenance of development at a particular level over an extended period while maintaining the overall wellbeing of the neighbourhood, is the major priority in the postulation of crime prevention and control policies.

In agreement with the UNODC (2012), this research suggests that crime control measures geared towards sustainable development should encompass areas including poverty alleviation, inequality, provision of quality education, provision of infrastructure, enhancement of peace and justice, and the creation of an environment that promotes honesty and economic growth, which paves the way for sustainable communities and neighbourhoods. This is imperative because, if crime control and prevention strategies neglect the aforementioned aspects of social and communal life, the quest for safer and more sustainable neighbourhoods and communities will be a daunting and unfruitful task. This reiterates the necessity for proper planning.

Moreover, there is a great need to better our view of planning and the environment. Instead of seeing urban and non-urban areas as needing separate policies, we now see both as one environmental issue, to be tackled anew. Planning for sustainable development implies a further widening of scope; while greater equality means basic changes in patterns of consumption, the allocation of resources, and, consequently, lifestyles. Contemporary patterns of living in developing countries based on individualism, competition and conspicuous consumption are simply not sustainable. A shift towards sustainable development will involve a revival of notions

of community, collective provision, and intervention. A sustainable environment cannot be achieved without the political commitment to make the necessary changes. The changes envisaged in the way we live our lives are radical in their scope and implications. Creating green objectives must become a component of all decision-making, not simply tacked onto maps or tested as part of five-year plans, especially with the way plans tend to be marginalised.

The effects of urbanisation on the local and global environment are immense. Planning should encourage ecologically friendly forms of sustainable construction and the preservation of natural resources. The local and global environments are both impacted by urbanisation. Environmentally friendly kinds of sustainable buildings should be supported by planning, as should the conservation of natural resources. The growth of cities is directly proportional to economic opportunities and growth. Planning should identify and address urban poverty as the primary reason for urban crime, which can be addressed by tackling livelihoods.

Urban planning can also be used to deter crime, and it is essential for disaster and post-conflict recovery. Social and civic capital will be nurtured through planned reconstruction and a governance model that prioritise inclusivity and partnership. Plans offer a framework for collaboration among diverse interests as well as an open forum for problem-solving related to development between the private and public sectors. In cities, individuals are encouraged to explore new ideas and create new ways to live as a community with strangers of all origins and cultures. As a result, city citizens must be adequately protected against crime.

Another concern is altering for a better view of planning and the environment. Instead of seeing regional and national crimes as needing separate policies, we now see both as one environmental issue to be tackled anew, as earlier stated. Planning for sustainable development implies the widening scope of land-use planning, which has undoubtedly sought to protect the natural environment from the impact of criminal development. Urban planning needs to be considered and extended to resource management to effectively plan and implement crime control and prevention strategies. It is now necessary to envisage environmental planning as an integrated process that ensures that sustainability is achieved as a primary objective at all levels across the range of policies, economies, industrialization, urbanisation, globalisation and so on, that affect human settlement and how humans interrelate within its entity *(see Figure 8.1)*.

Figure 8.1: showing critical sustainable development goals aimed by this research



Source: *Designed by Author (2022)*

Moreso, the impacts or implications of the crime control and prevention measures engaged should not be left out, they should be properly assessed and examined to guarantee their effectiveness and efficiency towards the overall aim of the crime control and prevention initiative. This is because, while crime control and prevention are imperative for any society that seeks to restore peace and sanity as well as safety to her neighbourhoods, the negligence/lack of assessment of the impact of such alternative crime control and prevention measures could make the process unproductive. For instance, while community policing and hot spot policing may be helpful in crime prevention, the impact arising from the perception of the residents of such areas might instigate more fear due to the gunshots and regular sounds of police sirens.

8.7 Barriers and Critical Factors Affecting Safety Through Principles of Sustainable Development

As earlier mentioned, sustainable development is a benchmark for every liveable settlement. If the processes employed in the act of curbing and containing crime are not in line with the goals of sustainability, then such preventive measures are questionable. Every government strives to prevent future criminal and delinquent events, but at some point, the results are unavoidable. This

inconsistency and fluctuations in results are products of barriers and constraints that are not compliant with the measures of crime control and prevention initiated by crime-fighting organizations, both governmental and non-governmental. While policies are made to enhance the overall well-being of the neighbourhood and community, as well as foster the prosocial live of the residents of the area, these barriers and constraints to sustainable development tend to impede the effectiveness and efficiency of the engagement strategies.

Also, the more these hindrances persist, the more prolonged the frustrations encountered in the implementation of crime control and prevention strategies. As long as these threats remain unidentified, the effectiveness and efficiency of the measures employed are at the risk of failing the original intents for which they were engaged. That is to say that the success of crime control and prevention initiatives is at the mercy of the identification and tackling of the constraining and limiting factors present in the social construct. Until such restrictive factors are taken care of, crime control and prevention will remain adamant about yielding the anticipated results.

However, it should be noted that whatever is bedevilling a society is in the society. Crime is a societal problem, and the effects of crime are felt in society. Also, crime control and prevention are a societal approach to proffering solutions to the adverse effect of crime on the society, so, whatever is a limitation or standing as a barrier to the overall effectiveness and efficiency of crime control and prevention strategies, must be in the society. Determining what these factors are will do great good to promote crime control and prevention measures over crime persistence in a given society. Moreover, some of these limitations could be institutional barriers as barriers and limitations surfacing from social norms of the society.

8.7.1 Institutional Barriers

Crime strives in societies characterised by remarkable institutional failure. Cities of the Global South have been found to have enormous institutional failures, and this is not a good situation – as it has the potential to inspire criminal and delinquent outcomes. Industrialization, which is considered to create employment and consequently reduce crime and disorder, has been marginalised in southern cities. This marginalisation has put some areas of the city in a more disadvantageous position, which is prone to criminal and delinquent subculture development. For

instance, infrastructure, including electricity, road network, water supply, and markets are marginalised, to favour a part of the entire city, neglecting the rest of the areas in the city. Consequently, this neglect/marginalisation instigates violence among sentimental neighbourhoods against those neighbourhoods they feel are more valued than they are.

Again, the perplexing situation of insecurity in the cities of the south scares the thought of local and foreign establishments that would have brought tremendous growth to the economy of the city and the state at large. The security challenges dominant in the metropolis stem from political power tussles, communal traditional leadership problems, violence and restiveness among youths, and difficulties arising from oil and gas policies. These situations are not healthy for a city seeking sustainable development. This is because the mere thought of these challenges posed by institutional failure impedes every thought of potential investors and developers to establish in such cities affected by high levels of insecurity. This issue makes worthless and functionless every crime control and prevention policy, or measure engaged.

Moreover, the institutional framework of cities in the South as it concerns industrialisation is weak and has been characterised by gross failure over the last decade. For example, the 2010 Land Use (Extortion Prohibition) Law No. 5 in Nigeria has long been implemented, but even with the implementation, no criminal or suspect has been arrested or prosecuted, whereas investors are regularly faced with youth harassment and illegitimate tariffs are imposed on them. However, this institutional failure can be addressed to ensure the effectiveness and efficiency of the various crime control and prevention measures engaged in the fight against crime. To achieve this, human resource development must be enhanced, and financial aid and support provided to prospective youths and individuals who seek financial support to start business enterprises. Until this is done, crime control and prevention will ever remain a dream without a reality.

8.7.2 Social Norms as a Barrier

Social norms, sometimes referred to as social values, are standards, beliefs, rules, regulations, and codes that bind individuals, or a group of people, and that inform and guide the way things are done in the society. Social norms could also be documented or verbal rules varying from society to society that determine what is considered respectable and acceptable in any given society.

However, whereas some societies develop prosocial norms, others rather, develop social norms that are detrimental to the overall state of the society. While the former promotes prosocial life, the latter rather allows for the prevalence of aberrance including crime and delinquency in society.

Moreover, several societies including the Nigerian society have been observed to be plagued with aberrant norms detrimental to the overall social life of the society. Debilitating social norms like bribery and corruption, late-night clubbing, sexual harassment, discrimination, political rivalry, cultural violence, gender marginalisation, oppression and exploitation, gratification, and the dishonesty of law enforcement agencies pose tremendous harm to the prosocial life of the society generally. Crime prevention and control cannot be effective, and neither can it be efficient when these negative social norms persist. They are social norms in that they are widely accepted and embraced across society, most especially by the youths.

In addition, the aforementioned social norms have an impeccable impact on crime. This is because, while crime prevention and control measures are on ground, it negates the effectiveness of such control and preventive measures, and as a result, slows down the economic growth of the society, and makes room for the prevalence of crime in the society. Moreso, societies characterised by violence and conflicts regardless of on-ground control and prevention measures suffer severe setbacks in both their economic, political, and social environments. This is because, in the onset of conflicts and disorder, the level of community coherence is reduced, everywhere in the society becomes chaotic, and as a result, community participation and partnership with potential development agencies are disabled. This leads the community to economic retrogression and increases the propensity for crime and delinquency throughout the society. So, for any society that seeks to effect tenable crime control and prevention initiatives, the necessity of addressing these social norms that are deterrents to crime prevention and control is imperative. Until this is done, again, crime control and prevention will remain a dream with no light of reality.

8.8 Conclusion

Crime has always been and will always remain a social problem. Societies plagued with high crime rates suffer tremendous setbacks ranging from economic regression to elimination of prosocial life, restricted social interaction, limited freedom of movement, impeccable fear,

breakdown of lucrative establishments, increased insecurity rates, damage of infrastructure due to vandalism, and loss of environments conducive for community peace and tranquillity which are requirements for achieving sustainability of developments and the overall society.

Furthermore, the need to tackle this societal menace has led to the quest for crime control and prevention measures and policies amongst communities, neighbourhoods, nations, states, and societies generally plagued with impeccable crime rates. Control and prevention measures range from poverty alleviation programmes to enhanced quality of education, improved social infrastructure, improved housing, improved law enforcement strategies, community policing, hotspot policing, ban on street drinking, and setting up of a committee to watch the excesses of politicians and the rich. These are a few of the crime control and prevention strategies engaged by several Nigerian societies and the globe at large.

However, the tenacity of these crime control and prevention measures greatly relies on the attitude of the concerned societies, and as such, the policies and the strategies engaged in the fight against crime should be backed up by every resource needed for its effectiveness and efficiency. Care should be taken as it concerns factors that restrict or constrain the success of crime control and prevention strategies engaged including institutional, demographic, socioeconomic, and social norms antithetical to the wellbeing of the society.

CHAPTER NINE

CONSOLIDATING FINDINGS FROM THE RESEARCH, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

Several studies have been carried out to explore crime and what its determinants are. Each of these studies approaches the concept of crime from different standpoints. Research has been undertaken to determine crime rates, crime perpetrators, and the underlining factors of crime, as well as the determination of what approach or method best suits the control and prevention of these crimes. Societies plagued with significant crime rates have made some effort to curb the menace that has eaten deep into the core of social life amongst their inhabitants. There is great concern about individual safety and the overall growth of the community, neighbourhood, nation, state, and region.

Moreover, research attributes crimes committed in societies to several factors including physical environmental factors, sociocultural factors, sociodemographic factors, socioeconomic factors, and psychological factors. No doubt, there are many underlying factors responsible for the impedance caused by society owing to the increase in the rate of crime and delinquency across the globe. However, this research focused on the influence of social change on crime, as well as the demographic, sociocultural, and socioeconomic characteristics of an individual and their propensity to commit a crime. The findings from the investigation, in cities around the globe, as well as the relationship of these findings with other research on crime and recommendations are summarised in this chapter.

9.2 Summary of Findings and Relationship to Previous Works

This research, in relation to the assertion of Takagi et al., (2016) that neighbourhood disorder erodes individuals' trust in one another, suggest that the crimes in neighbourhoods in cities of the south have resulted in a significant drop in the social ties and trust amongst the inhabitants of the area. Moreover, people who live in high-crime districts may become more scared of their surroundings, lowering their trust in other residents. Several risks abound because the increase in

crime and crime is unavoidable in communities if security risks are ignored. Crime does not just happen; it is often the outcome of lingering security threats left unchecked (Bint-e-Waheed & Nadeem, 2019). This research asserts that the security situation in cities of the south is in dilemma and is a phenomenon of utmost concern to both inhabitants and the government as well as surrounding neighbourhoods. Certain factors such as the high-density population, and low income associated with the majority of the population have an significant impact on the motivation to commit a crime. Thus, this section dissects the major findings of this research through the perception and reaction of the residents and stakeholders towards the security situations, security threats, the impacts they have on crime amongst inhabitants of the neighbourhood, and suggests ways of restoring peace and rest in the neighbourhood.

9.2.1 Findings from Influences of Physical, Demographic, and Socioeconomic Factors on Crime

The research, from data collected via interviews with residents and a review of related literature, found that, indeed, crime is influenced by neighbourhood housing type. People who occupy spaces in high-rise buildings seldom relate with nor do they know their neighbours: and consequently, they develop the fear of the unknown what happens to them if they move around the neighbourhood at night. However, this is not the same as the occupants of single-family detached houses. Assault and abuse of human rights stem from the shared use of infrastructure and facilities, including bathrooms and toilets, as is the case with multi-occupancy housing facilities. Crimes including rape and child abuse are some of the crimes experienced by families occupying multi-occupancy housing facilities.

Furthermore, as reviewed in the literature, this research is in consensus with the assertion of Sohn (2016), who suggests that the design of a neighbourhood can also have a tremendous impact on the probability of crime. The streets are mostly accessible only to pedestrians; that is to say, crime propensities are affected by the environmental design of the neighbourhood under study. The research found crimes including theft, burglary, rape, assault, homicide, murder, and kidnapping to be associated with the layout and design of the neighbourhood.

Moreso, the neighbourhood is so compact, making the streets hotspots for potential criminals. Thus, this research suggests that the crimes are also affected by the design of the streets in the neighbourhood. This makes homes located on streets near pubs, bars, nightclubs, and incomplete and abandoned buildings vulnerable to crime. This is in resonance with the assertion of Foster et al. (2014b), in their study on walkability in residential neighbourhoods and crime, that certain areas of the neighbourhood are vulnerable to crime, especially areas near recreational/fun-fair facilities; and the assertion of Johnson & Bowers, (2010) that household burgling is connected to street patterns or networks.

The crimes in the cities of the Global South in these depressed neighbourhoods usually happen in the early hours of the day and late at night. This, if allowed to thrive uncontrolled, will consequently impede the rate of economic development. This agrees with the assertion of Bogomolov et al. (2015) that cities in the Global South experience slower economic development due to several factors, including violent crimes. Crime in this regard is influenced by the features and characteristics of neighbourhoods such as lack of street lighting infrastructure to give light to streets all through the night, and the ineffectiveness of community policing in patrolling the neighbourhood.

Furthermore, the lack of provision of employment opportunities on the side of the government and laziness on the side of the youth to work and earn honestly even if the pay is low consequently impacts crime. Thus, the rate of poverty-related crimes increases daily. As individuals in the neighbourhood find it difficult to cater to their needs due to poverty, they resort to criminal means. Crime in this regard is instigated by the frustration from the inability to meet personal and family needs. This is in support of the General Strain theory of Eriksson and Broidy (2017) that crime stems from frustration and the inability to achieve goals.

Furthermore, this research suggests that the perception of safety and security is to an extent a function of one's experiences of crime and victimisation. This is because, from the data collected during interviews, this research found that residents have several experiences of various crimes, ranging from theft to assault, rape, vandalism of property, and kidnapping. Ciesla et al. (2018), pointout that experiences have a remarkable impact on how a person perceives a situation. According to an interview session with one of the respondents: "this area is not a safe place anymore considering the rate at which crime rises in the neighbourhood". This is in line with the

assertion of Buckner-Brown et al. (2014) that the perception of crime and insecurity is based on issues of environmental factors and relevant crime data, as highlighted by the theories of Social Disorganisation and Broken Windows and on the breakdown of social control and the social construction of the unsafe environment.

9.2.2 Findings from Issues of the Breakdown of Social Control and Crime

The fear of crime is inevitable in neighbourhoods with renowned criminal activities on the increase. This research found that the breakdown of social control in the neighbourhood contributes significantly to the crime rates in the area, hence, the fear of crime amongst residents. Women, children, and elderly people among the inhabitants of the neighbourhood are more vulnerable to crime in the neighbourhood. This is because, in the advent of crime and violence, the youths escape the scene, leaving the elderly and children vulnerable to crime perpetrators. The fear of being a potential victim of crime perpetrators is higher in elderly and aged people as well as in children than in youths. This agrees with the argument of Hirschi & Gottfredson (2017) that the connection between age and fear of crime is linear, meaning that young people and elderly people are more scared than people of youthful age because they cannot protect themselves against criminal events. There is always one form of crime or the other happening in some places in the neighbourhood. This research has also found that the breakdown of social control has resulted in crime in the neighbourhood becoming a lifestyle, from cultist activities to prostitution, hard drugs, trafficking of illicit substances, and vandalism of oil pipelines.

In the neighbourhood, no week passes without news of reported cult clashes in the area. A respondent highlighted that while peer pressure persists, young people, especially males, are being recruited into anti-social organisations and cultism. Security measures are being reconstructed and patterned to meet the security needs of residents in the crime-plagued areas of the neighbourhood. The move will make sure that areas with high crime rates in the neighbourhood are well policed during the day and well patrolled during the night to enhance neighbourhood rest and peace. Local vigilante groups have taken on the responsibility of overseeing those perpetrators of crime in crime-instigating corners of the neighbourhood are arrested and handed over to the police.

According to Pereira et al. (2017), low-income residential areas are plagued with the breakdown of social control in schools, families (maladjustment, fighting, quarrelling and stealing), and religious and social groups (anti-social behaviour and activities) are the focal points for crime breeding in urban centres. As all these continue unabated, the city gradually becomes socially disorganised and it becomes difficult to control and protect residents against crime and criminal behaviour from offenders. The foregoing holds true in neighbourhoods and cities in the South, where families, schools, and religious and social groups are unable to exert social control over their subjects, contributing immensely to rising crime rates in the neighbourhood. Moreover, joblessness and poverty are found to be the significant causes of crime in this neighbourhood. These people tend to commit crimes because they do not have any other source of livelihood. Such areas are plagued with elevated levels of poverty and unemployment, and this has caused no small impediment to the overall well-being of residents in the neighbourhood.

Consequently, this has led to a serious crime increase in the area and, as a result, a higher crime perception among residents of the neighbourhood. Crimes committed in this neighbourhood include robbery, murder, snatching of phones, illegal use of drugs, pickpocketing, and theft. These sorts of crimes cannot be for any other reason but poverty and deprivation. This neighbourhood has a great number of people living in frustration and undue pressure on how their needs will be met. They don't have the necessary qualifications for the jobs they envisage. Crime perception and possibility are greatly linked to economic characteristics such as poverty and unemployment. It has been noticed that unemployment tends to force people towards crime for them to survive monetarily, and that unemployment tends to exacerbate anomie among the jobless, which is linked to criminal activity. This assertion holds for accounts of crimes due to unemployment. This is because while a crime can be committed by anyone regardless of their employment status, the crime rate among unemployed individuals is incredibly high compared to those who are employed. From the respondent's comment, it appears that politicians visit the neighbourhoods only during electoral campaigns to take advantage of the predicament of the youths who are not employed. They make promises to them of assured and secure jobs waiting for them should they play by their rules. This resonates with the assumption of Nordin and Almén (2017) that most criminals are unemployed.

The premise of the multi-level analysis of the International Crime Victimisation Survey by Pare and Felson (2014) is that inequality is unrelated to assault when poverty is controlled. Becker

(2007) argues that regions with wider disparities between the poor and the affluent will have higher crime, with everything else being equal. This means, should the circumstances of poverty and wealth remain constant, the rich will keep growing richer and the poor poorer. Consequently, this disparity between the rich and the poor significantly affects crime. Most of the population in the cities of the South are low-income earners who engage in petty trading. When they do not sell, they may not be able to feed themselves. Thus, it is no doubt that, in the absence of a tenacious poverty alleviation and control initiative, crime perception due to income inequality will be on the rise.

Furthermore, crime persists when criminals are unaware of its social, economic, psychological, political, cultural, and physical implications. The majority of the people that commit crimes are observed to not have quality awareness of social debilitation and possible acts that can lead society into debilitation. This is where education and the role it plays in crime prevention and control cannot be overstated. The mere thought of losing a well-paying job alone restrains individuals from committing crimes – knowing it will cost them their jobs and reputation. This reveals that there is a relationship between educational qualification and attainment and the propensity of committing a crime (Nordin, 2018). Consequently, those who can't get civil service jobs, and don't want to get involved in petty trade, resort to criminal means for their survival. This is because they don't have the educational qualification to secure civil service/official jobs, as higher level of education negatively corelates with crime.

Also, the process through which individuals in society behave and react to one another is referred to as social interactions (Bernasco et al, 2017). Cult clashes which result in neighbourhood unrest don't just happen – they occur due to interaction. These events affect the propensity for crime and violence in the neighbourhood. In a neighbourhood where people dare not come outside their homes, talk more of walking around the neighbourhood at night, poses a sense of insecurity and a negative perception of crime. Peer influence tends to inspire a negative perception of crime amongst inhabitants, this is because, when young and promising adolescents are spotted associating with notable criminals in the area, fear of future crimes begins to build up. Life in depressed neighbourhoods is characterised by fear of crime, this is because, while inhabitants desire a peaceful place of living and productive social interaction, the reality of life in the neighbourhood betrays their expectations.

However, the quest to control and prevent further crimes in the neighbourhood led to the engagement of community/hotspot policing. Hotspot policing is a crime control strategy that means focusing resources and police attention on areas with the highest concentrations of crime in the neighbourhood. Hotspot policing strategies offer moderate crime control advantages and are likely to spread crime control benefits into areas immediately surrounding targeted high-activity criminal locations. In the neighbourhood, each time the police patrol team goes around the neighbourhood on their regular neighbourhood surveillance, crimes are not reported as was the norm before the engagement of the police. Hotspot policing has helped in no small measure to control crime and maintain social order, as well as the sanity of the inhabitants. However, hotspot policing is faced with enormous challenges, hence shortfalls in the appropriate performance of policing functions. This is evident from the comments and lamentations of the inhabitants that the hotspot policing strategy which was intended to help curb criminal activities rather promotes more crime. This resonates with the assertion of Audu (2021 pg.14) that "Police do not prevent crime."

9.2.3 Findings from Issues of the Influence of Socio-cultural Environment and Crime

This research, in consensus with the concept of cultural criminology – that is, crime as culture or culture as crime, determined crimes resulting from sociocultural backgrounds, from the activities of criminal subcultures found in the neighbourhood. As a result, this research found that the way of life adopted in such neighbourhoods are criminal subcultures in the form of violence, assault, drug and substance abuse, involvement in diverse kinds of social vices, and as a result, increasing the crime rates daily. These crimes committed by cult groups in the neighbourhood have formed and created a criminal subculture. However, while criminal subcultures exist, individuals with religious cultural backgrounds are cushioned and guided by religious sanctions in their actions, to prevent them from indulging in criminogenic practices. With reference to this reasoning, religion acts as a deterrent to anti-social behaviours such as crime and deviance by establishing and sustaining social networks and social relationships. The fear of sanctions from these religious bodies prevents its members from indulging in crime.

However, the level of religiosity varies from one individual to the next. As a result, there has been a relatively high concern as to whether or not there is any relationship between religion and crime.

This is because individuals, especially those with low levels of religiosity, may not be grounded in the rules and general conduct of the religion they belong to. Consequently, they tend to fall back to crime at the slightest opportunity. Christianity, which is the predominant religion in the neighbourhood, has engaged in endless efforts to curb and prevent further crimes through charity initiatives and admonishing the poor on the need to refrain from criminal activities. Statements from the respondents that attest to the goodness of religion in crime control and prevention through religious teachings of self-control and contentment are way more than statements that attest against it, and show a positive correlation between crime and religion.

Moreso, the Christian religious society, teaches self-control as a virtue against the urge to engage in criminal practices. Self-control is a component of inhibitory control – which is the ability to regulate one's emotions, thoughts, and actions in the face of temptations and lustful desires. The self-control ideology of crime is a criminological idea that argues that the lack of individual self-control is the root of criminal conduct. The degree to which an individual gains control over the push to commit a crime, irrespective of the reason, is said to be self-control. As opined in the theory of self-control, the lack of this element – self-control can lead to crime. One of the things that lures people into committing a crime is their inability to delay gratification. Several crimes amongst the youth are associated with the failure to delay gratification. Individuals with this deficiency are more at risk of being crime perpetrators. Self-control measures and doctrines are taught in religious societies to their members to help mitigate the likelihood of further crime occurrences.

Furthermore, this research examines the ethnicity and crime correlation to determine if crime is instigated by ethnicity. An ethnic group is defined as a group that considers itself or is seen by others as a unique community due to particular traits. People of various ethnic groups immigrate and relocate to new regions or nations, which frequently leads to an outbreak of violence. These dynamics refer to the interactions that occur among ethnic group members. However, this research found that ethnicity has no relationship with crime. The youth have adopted this social menace as a subculture. As a result, they develop a language and belief system, distinct from the overall cultural system in the area. This subcultural language spoken in words and gestures differs from the one generally spoken by the rest of the community members. These youth mostly communicate violence with slang. The crimes committed in this neighbourhood are a result of this criminal subculture. Consequently, when they find a potential victim, they speak the criminal

subcultural language to them: and when the victim doesn't respond, they perpetrate crimes against the victim. This is because the potential victim is not part of the subcultural group, and as such, neither knows nor can speak the language.

Nonetheless, to salvage crime-plagued neighbourhoods and restore public safety, functional collaboration between law enforcement and community stakeholders is critical; government agencies, community groups, NGOs, corporations, and private organisations must all see public safety as a shared responsibility. The importance of community partnership with the police department cannot be overstated. It is imperative in communities where crime seems to be unending. This research found that community vigilante groups have important roles to play in terms of security, because they share the same environment as those perpetrating crime. Their alliance with police patrol teams has helped in curbing crimes, especially those committed at night. It is evident – a good development that the community has developed a functional partnership with the police department to combat crime. This has resulted in a safe nightlife and a good safety perception. There is a need to reinforce the relationship between the police and the community.

Moreover, crime prevention and control have a long history in all regions of the world. Most governments today realise that preventing crime and treating criminals are unavoidable to safeguard society and create a safe environment for its residents. Hence, there are two crime control measures that can be employed in the control and prevention of crime; they include formal and informal crime control. These phenomena have been discussed in earlier sections of this thesis. However, this research has found that both formal and informal crime control measures are ineffective, especially formal crime control measures. This is because, whilst these control measures are deployed to control and prevent crimes in the neighbourhood, the rates are still on the increase. Moreover, due to the poor condition, there is gross disorganisation in both families and society. Thus, this research argues that irrespective of the crime prevention measure employed – formal or informal, the disorganisation in families (which subsequently breeds a society) will wear down every effort to control and prevent crime.

9.3 Limitations of the Study

The research focuses on exploring the influence of social change through residents' physical, socioeconomic status, demographics, and socio-cultural characteristics of the environment on crime in vulnerable areas of the study and the role each component plays in vulnerability and delinquency. This study is not an attempt to address all crime-related issues in cities of the Global South but to know the most critical factors that motivate it. This investigation was done by isolating and comparing the level of influence each environmental component has on crime: consequently, conscripting urban planning as an effective preventive mechanism in reducing the fear of crime, especially in the cities of the Global South.

The research limitation/implication is the broad study area related to limited sample size, language barrier, and wrong interpretation of direct translation. Several limitations were uncovered in this study. There is no quantitative component added to aid the qualitative survey findings. Secondly, due to a lack of time and research assistants, data from other organisations involved with offenders (e.g. Department of Justice and Department of Statistics reports) were not included. Finally, while social desirability may have been an obstacle to the success of this study, efforts were made to regulate and limit it (for instance, enlisting indigenous personnel to administer the instrument and collect data instead of the researchers themselves). Though there are some drawbacks to this study, it is still of great practical value and can be helpful to both the Borokiri society and the global community at large.

9.4 Summary of Contributions to Knowledge

This study contributed to the existing body of knowledge in theories, policies, and practice in several ways, specifically in cities of the Global South. It contributes to a more in-depth understanding of the most critical factors affecting crime in the cities of the Global South. From the theories reviewed, crime is multifaceted but has common ground in the physical environment and family/social dysfunctionalities. Furthermore, the study contributed to planning theory and practice as it pertains to the control of criminal behaviour and rethinking ways to improve the social-economic wellbeing of citizens. Urban sociological variables were synthesised to help

shape urban policies and dynamics, crime prevention and control, public spaces, and social-economic imbalances. There is a significant induction to the theoretical development proposed by this research. In the social disorganisation theory, the issue of population turnover is not a significant factor in the rise in crime. However, as shown in the research, many residents feel very comfortable within the neighbourhood. Many have stayed over a period and do not see a reason for relocating. Based on their response, population turnover is not significant, as residents have now adapted to the situation. It is more of caution than fear of crime because crime is ever-present.

From the General strain theory, issues of negative emotions were evident, resulting from failure to achieve goals. The disjunction of expectation and achievement mediate the relationship between strain and crime. The issue of social support is not very clear; the situation is contradictory. The residents live with family and friends who have grown up aiding and abetting criminal activities. It is worthy to note that the rise of anti-social groups in the form of cultism and self-saddled vigilante has made the situation more complex and challenging to understand through the hypothesis from the theory. From the results, crime has no affiliation or connection to gender. All genders engage in one form of crime or the other.

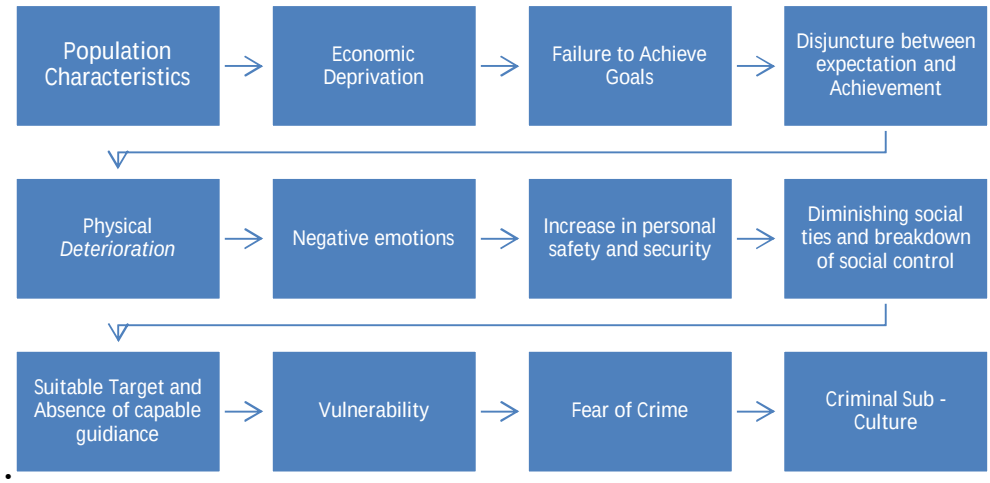
In the routine activity theory, the notion that crime is not affected by social factors such as inequality, poverty, and unemployment is not significant. Based on the responses from the inhabitants, poverty and unemployment are the leading causes of crime. Socio-demographic characteristics such as age, sex, income, and family size have no relationship with crime. From the broken windows theory, the theoretical assumptions of visible signs of crime, anti-social behaviour and environmental deterioration create an urban environment that encourages crime and disorder. However, the three factors are not the only significant causes of crime. The weak social control, the poor socio-economic status of residents related to employment and income, and the rising inequality in the country are as significant as the variables mentioned earlier, resulting in crime.

The outcome of this research will be helpful in the overall planning endeavors (planning process, project implementation, management and evaluation,) for the development of cities in the Global South, especially African cities. Based on the findings of this research, demographic characteristics (such as population growth, gender, age, and education), neighbourhood physical characteristics (such as housing type, street design/pattern, and overall environmental

appearance), and socioeconomic characteristics (such as low income, poverty, and unemployment) are correlated to criminal propensities. This research also found that the misconduct of law enforcement agencies (which contributes to the breakdown of society) and crime-instigating interactions that happen in neighbourhoods have significant roles to play in crime and victimisation. On the question of culture and crime, this research found that crime in the Global South has degenerated into criminal subcultures because the conventional norms and values of the society have been abandoned for aberrant, delinquent cultures, and the uprise of anti-social lifestyles; and that religion – which is a cultural component – is not related to increase in crime, rather it reduces crime, especially through their teachings and charitable deeds.

This research argues that community policing alone cannot prevent crime in the Global South: rather, police-community partnership will aid in curbing crime. Crime consciousness and management must be imbibed as a part of urban management to attain sustainability, through inclusive and participatory planning, particularly in social-economic development and stability. Therefore, the outcome of this study will be of great importance to the urban managers and administrators of the Port-Harcourt city metropolis in Rivers State, Nigeria.

Thematic Map



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9.5 Recommendations to Reduce Crime in Violent Cities and Implications for Further Research

Some emerging countries, notably in cities of the south, have a long history of violent crime, and as such, in line with Mejia et al. (2016) and Leite (2017), crime must be treated as a public health issue. There is a need to reach out to households and children in such nations through campaigns and technology. There is a need to create these tools through parental and family arbitration, wellness initiatives, and juvenile education to ensure everyone is valued and cared for. There is a need for the initiation of local programs, the homicide rate is now at epidemic proportions in the Global South, particularly in Nigeria. There is a need for a costly but comprehensive initiative to tie together the variables that constitute the causes of crime and delinquency in the country, develop municipal constructs, and promote a civic way of life to contain crime.

Targeted expenditures in wealth redistribution, education, family aid, and other programme can reduce crime, however, they fail if they are implemented in a blindfolded manner(Camilleri & Azzopardi, 2020). If a tangible impact on preventing and reducing violence must be attained, there is a need for prudence in resource allocation. Development programme are often dispersed throughout a large geographic area, and success is measured in terms of developmental results rather than crime reduction. Thus, programme and policies should be more inclusive and participatory to be able to meet the need of the target population. Addressing economic inequality is critical to lowering crime and violent behaviour in the long run. Universal access to good healthcare is required, as is affordable childcare, as well as a narrowing of the wage gap and a re-establishing of the relationship between economic prosperity and salaries.

As in early interventions, more in-depth knowledge of the causes of crime is vital (De Boer, 2015). Criminal activities in specific places or populations make it more difficult for individuals to cohabit, and the focus on poverty may not be very accurate. According to studies by Leite (2017) poverty and violence are strongly correlated. As the country continues in extreme poverty, it is becoming more violent: it is now part of our responsibility to go beyond the remedies to determine what other elements may be driving those rates. Also, with the adverse effect of drug and substance use on crime and violence, there is a necessity for anti-violence development projects across the globe.

Scientific data from Enrique Roig et al., (2015) and Muggah, (2017) also suggest that focusing on hotspots and potential offenders can help prevent or reduce crime. However, we must also implement other measures, such as urban environmental enhancement, improved urban development planning, and situational prevention, particularly early juvenile intervention. If the goal is to reduce crime, programme should be located in high-crime regions and targeted at the populace with high crime propensities, typically male youths aged 14 to 39. In addition, the risk factors that lead to these male youths' involvement in criminal activity must also be identified and accompanied by a containment strategy that includes communities and households.

There are numerous interventions aimed at promoting female rights, which are admirable qualities. However, most of the violent crimes – and as suggested by interview respondents have been amongst the male gender. Urgent attention needs to be drawn to this. The impact of crime against women is a significant concern for worldwide society. When the male drivers of crime are taken care of, the female victims of crimes are reduced. The male and female aspects of violence are intertwined. Rather than dividing and conquering, it is important to look at these issues holistically. According to Mejia et al., (2016) crime is determined by accumulating risk variables rather than solo risk variables (for example, being a man constitutes a risk variable).

Furthermore, most local experiences and initiatives focus on interpersonal components of violence. People lose trust in their security forces and government when illegal or national crime co-opts state security forces. As a result, they focus on individual and self-security, withdrawing from using public spaces. Thus, the goal is to equate and integrate rehabilitation policies and funds into security plans, rather than creating a system focused solely on repression or prevention. Without a doubt, the ultimate success of community-inclined policing in Nigeria is determined by the effective implementation of the following program: weeding out corrupt elements in the police force; and implementing a comprehensive strategy to overcome the challenges that may prevent community policing from being executed by addressing issues such as community – police partnership in neighbourhood security, and community policing in general. It also entails reorganising police forces and calculating the actual cost of carrying out community policing activities in Nigeria. Other aspects of the programme must include comprehensive work-orientation programme and retraining of the entire police force in the philosophy and culture of community policing, as well as citizen education, counselling, and sensitization in the practice of

community policing, including their roles as participants in the society's fight against crime and delinquency.

Prison populations are overburdened leading to a prison break, there are high crime rates and so is violence ingrained in society. Crime control and prevention concentration should be on containing the causative elements of delinquency and violence. There is a need for a methodical, comprehensive, and coordinated approach that brings together the duties of a widespread variety of both state and non-state players to accomplish this. Many countries have handled violence from the perspective of crime and security, concentrating their efforts solely on law enforcement. Pinto et al., (2011) opine that the police and justice have a significant role to play. Crime suppression is ineffective unless accompanied by developmental policies that address the underlying determinants of crime, such as youth skills and education, socioeconomic inequality, and access to communal resources. There must be investments in preventive factors regularly including supporting aggressive community associations and schools' engagement in community activities.

Due to certain circumstances the nation went through, that is outside the core of the study, that was never adequately implement the healing process. Simultaneously, security agencies rely on irrational systems that encourage rivalry and corruption. There must be a recognition that there is a connection between organised crime and terrorism. The lines that traditionally divide terrorism and organized crime, are increasingly fading, but this is not a suggestion that these are the same people or that they are motivated by the same factors. Though, in terms of tactics, some gangs and terrorist groups are becoming increasingly similar. Another very related factor is the use of guns, there are no gun deaths where there are no guns. Therefore, stopping the flow of illegal firearms is a straightforward and practical method to reduce armed violence. Countries can take a more active role in controlling conventional weapons stockpiles, while states and international organisations can help prevent the proliferation of Improvised Explosive Devices (IED). They can increase information sharing about IED incidents to inspire decision-making both nationally and internationally.

There must be a deliberate attempt to teach nonviolent communication/behaviour in a country with a long history of violence. Teaching nonviolent interactions, dispute dissolution, and fundamental communication techniques to young folks would be highly beneficial. The nation, in line with the global peace talks of the United Nations, should improve its preparation of

peacekeeping, philanthropic, and development players to guarantee that their interferences will decrease delinquency and crime over time by implementing essential reforms and structural improvements. One significant advancement would include a measurable and effective aim to reduce violence in the SDG process. This should be a top priority for the entire world.

9.6 Future Research

In the course of this research, several areas were sparsely discussed due to the limitations of the study and time constraints. This research could not go deeply into these areas to determine their relative effect on crime but suggests that there could probably be a correlation between these areas and crime. These are areas the research suggests should not be overlooked but rather investigated properly and thoroughly. This will add to already existing knowledge as well as redirect societies seeking control over crime rates and ways to curb crime. This research investigated the influence of social change on crime through physical variables and how they impact crime. An in-depth investigation of this aspect wasn't achieved due to the limitations of the study and the timeframe for the study. So, more research is needed to scrutinise the broken windows theory further, involving a potential longitudinal study of crime at a place.

Moreso, this study identified factors including the social, political, and economic fabrics that could be responsible for the rise in crime and disorder in society. However, there was not much investigation into these areas to ascertain the extent to which they impact crime and delinquency in vulnerable societies. Consequently, this study calls for more research to fully comprehend the social, political, and economic frameworks that allow these high levels of crime to persist, and to determine and make recommendations on how best to impose control over crimes from this perspective. In the discussions made in this study, this research suggested that crime was more prevalent in communities, neighbourhoods, and societies with gross low-income earners. One of the findings in this study connotes that crime prevails in societies where there is gross poverty, unemployment, and a greater number of low-income individuals. However, a study found that lower-income communities have higher levels of community attachment. This contradicts the foregoing, implying that more research is needed to investigate the relationship between socio-economic features and the probability of crime and delinquency.

Moreso, this study highlighted that housing type has a role to play in the perpetration of crime as well as the perception of insecurity amongst neighbourhood inhabitants. Not much was said in this regard, and as a result, further research is imperative to determine the relationship exhibited between housing type and crime. This is because, while some people feel safe in certain types of housing conditions, others do not. It is believed in this study that housing, especially poor housing, has a significant role to play as it concerns crime and social disorder.

The relationship between race/ethnicity and fear was sparsely researched throughout this study. However, research attributes criminal vulnerability to race. These studies argue that racial/ethnic minorities are more likely to be victims of crime and as a result, express more fear than the locals. More research is imperative to determine which racial/ethnic minorities, explore the characteristics of these minorities that expose them to being potential crime victims, and the extent to which they feel vulnerable to crime amongst natives. This is an area that shouldn't be neglected in the study of crime and delinquency rates in cities and societies. From the literature review, there is a need to investigate more on the effect of religious practice on the propensity to commit crime. Is religion more influential on youth who have had a longer experience than those who have had a shorter adventure? Would there be varying results for youths who voluntarily attended because they enjoyed it compared to those who didn't? It is necessary to explore religion's many characteristics to comprehend their correlative importance. Is it true that religious knowledge is more important than religious participation? Testing various religiosity measurements will aid in the development of an enhanced conceptual comprehension of the crime-religion correlation.

Lastly, several studies have investigated the proclivity of green spaces or greenery to impact delinquency in urban areas. There is a controversy regarding the relationship between greenery and crime, especially urban crime. It is the idea of this research that this area should be thoroughly studied to ascertain the greenery – crime correlation.

9.7 Conclusion

The impact of crime on the various endeavours of society is quite enormous. The crimes in cities will continue to rise until society is prepared to adequately and effectively understand the background of the crimes committed amongst inhabitants of the society. Therefore, exploring the determinants of social change and its relative impact on crime have a significant benefit in the quest for crime control and prevention. Crimes are associated, from the findings of this research, with uncontrolled population growth and demographic consequences emanating from such a hike in population. A significant percentage of this rapid population growth, as earlier noted, will most likely happen in cities of the Global South, where policies that impede the tendency of population growth are either not promulgated or are poorly enforced.

The social life of every society deeply invaded by persistent criminal and delinquent occurrences is at risk. The well-being of the economic endeavours of both private and public organisations is also not guaranteed. Consequently, society continuously experiences enormous and tremendous regression and setbacks in its totality. Therefore, it is imperative that for every aspect of society to flourish, crime must be jointly fought and controlled. It must be eradicated for any development in society to be sustainable. This is because evidence has proven that crime is a negating factor in social proliferation.

Moreso, this research found that certain factors including the demographic, sociocultural, socioeconomic, physical, psychological, and political factors of society contribute impeccably to crime perpetration. Demographic variables such as poverty, age, gender, family background, and education are potential crime motivators. Also, socioeconomic variables including income disparity and unemployment as well as, sociocultural variables including religion, norms, belief systems, and values have a propensity to instigate crime and delinquency. Moreover, physical variables (including environmental quality, infrastructural quality, and environmental sanitation), psychological elements (such as stress and strain), and political factors (including systemic failure, corruption amongst political stakeholders, and institutional failure) pose significant threats to the overall wellbeing of the society in relation to crime.

The need to address these societal threats prompts societies to seek out crime control and prevention measures and policies. Scholarly research has over time undertaken the study of crime in cities with a view to finding measures that work best for crime control and prevention. This

research thoroughly investigated the crime situation and has significantly impacted on the issue, proffering newer models effective and efficient enough for the control and prevention of crime in both the study area and the society at large. The models proposed in this research are effectiveness-tested and proven to curb crime and prevent further crimes. It is therefore imperative that societies plagued with high crime rates engage these models to properly manage and contain crime.

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Authored by:

Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke; Aly H. Karam

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An Exploratory Study of Crime: Examining Lived Experiences of Crime through Socioeconomic, Demographic, and Physical Characteristics

Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke * and Aly H. Karam *

School of Architecture and Planning, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg 2000, South Africa

* Correspondence: christopher.onyeneke1@students.wits.ac.za (C.C.O.); aly.karam@wits.ac.za (A.H.K.)

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Abstract: Debates in urban social research indicate that one of the most significant problems facing cities of the global south is the dilemma of crime. This study explores the research question: what is the level of influence of economic deprivation and residential mobility weights on criminal activities within vulnerable neighborhoods in urban centres? This research focuses on the urban social structural theory of social disorganization, to investigate how socioeconomic, demographic, and physical characteristics affect criminal behaviour. The study adopted a qualitative research approach that is cross-sectional. With the use of volunteer self-selection sampling techniques, in-depth interviews were conducted with heads of households via a semi-structured interview guide. The data were analyzed using thematic analysis. The study found that sociological factors such as economic deprivation and socioeconomic inequality lead to the gradual integration of delinquency in cities. The findings of this research build on the existing theory of social disorganization. To ensure safety, residents' economic status must be standardized by supporting the provision of more regulated informal sector opportunities and activities for active engagement in supervising and controlling youth behaviour.

Keywords: social disorganization; socioeconomic inequality; vulnerability; unemployment

1. Introduction

The word 'crime' originates from the Latin word 'crimen' meaning 'charge' or 'offence.' Crime is a social fact, a dangerous phenomenon in any city, region, or nation [1]. According to [2], violence is defined as "The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either result in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation" [3]. Violent or personal crimes within cities and urban centres include abduction, affray, burglary, hooliganism,

kidnapping, riot, robbery, looting, lynching, manslaughter, pickpocketing, mugging, hit and run, murder, rape, shoplifting, homicide, smuggling, theft, assassination, assault, trespassing, hijacking, and vandalism. Under the United States Bureau of Justice Statistics, Perkins reported that people aged 14–25 are at the peak age for criminal activity [4]. Most of these crimes occur among youths and juveniles. When these crimes are committed, people ask what is wrong with society and who is to blame? Minor issues in the community or society, such as hooliganism, vandalism, and pickpocketing, gradually evolve into something more serious and substantial such as mugging, robbery, theft, abduction, and even murder. As financial stakes rise, the link between drug abuse and violence gradually becomes part of a subculture within the community [5].

Recent developments in urban social research such as [6–8] have led to a renewed interest in safety and security. These are indeed the core components in creating safe residential complexes and cities. In the past two decades, people have built fortresses to make their residences safe and secure. Researchers such as [9–(Malik, 2016)11] have shown that, despite significant changes in urban morphology and growth, the issue of creating a secure and safe living environment for inhabitants has been at the forefront of discussions on urbanization and urban management. One of the hypotheses of crime is that it is motivated by economic deprivation [12]. Residential segregation in urban areas is an essential mechanism for the causes of crime [13]. Moreover, it is a central part of the socio-physical recovery of the excluded urban sectors. The main factors of crime in urban centers are homelessness and deprivation, poverty and unemployment, youth marginalization, the disintegration of culture, poor urban planning, and neglect of public spaces [14]. Crime results from the perception–choice process and the criminogenic condition of the residents' living environment. Social disadvantages are not the causes of crime but are critical factors which lead to criminogenic exposure and crime propensity in residents [15,16].

In support of the debate on economic deprivation and crime, a recent study [17], to fill the gap in the existing literature, focused on medium-size Latin American cities to examine the influences of the built environment on street walkability and the perception of crime. The result reveals that security within residential neighborhoods is highly correlated with neighborhood quality, and this situation of insecurity has the most significant impact on walkability and the perception of crime within the city. In the past three decades, many researchers have sought to determine the root causes of crime from a long list in order to devise means to tackle it. A study of American cities highlighted that since the 1980s inner-city crimes have become a national issue and a public concern [18]. These rates tend to be higher at the city core and have shown a high rise, particularly in cities with an estimated population of more than two hundred and fifty thousand people. Youths have been the major victims of these crimes and even in severe situations this has led to deaths. The violent crime statistics show that the number of young people between the ages of 10 and 16 years, whose annual household income is below $10,000 and have ever been assaulted, is higher in major cities, especially in the global south [19]. This clearly shows that crime is related to socio-economic class, geographical location, and population density.

The streets of our towns and cities have been places where danger is rife, and death is commonplace since the birth of urban civilization some centuries ago [20]. Natural, human-induced disasters and mass migration of rural dwellers to urban centres have significantly increased the factors involved in crime [21]. A considerable amount of literature has been published on the perception of crime in cities. Several studies have argued about the different issues surrounding the causes of crime in cities. Moreover, this question has continued to gain attention, and this research has tended to fill the gap in the existing literature on the influence of economic deprivation and residential mobility on criminal activities within vulnerable neighborhoods in the urban center, with more citizens' involvement, and while examining the socio-economic, demographic and built environmental characteristics on lived experiences of residents.

This research investigates the determining factors of crime in cities of the global south using economic deprivation and residential mobility data, particularly in the Borokiri neighborhood of Port Harcourt city. It seeks to investigate the extent to which economic deprivation and residential mobility influence crime in this neighborhood. Port Harcourt city is ranked number one in violent crime among cities in Nigeria, with high crime rates including vandalism and property crime [22]. Crime is a significant phenomenon across the cities of the world, including Borokiri, and has the propensity to affect the general well-being of urban residents' quality of life. Most residents in urban areas, especially those in Borokiri and Port Harcourt, live in constant fear and apprehension because of the fear of crime. Intending residents who are aware of such high crime rates choose to decline the offer in favor of safer neighborhoods they can afford.

Furthermore, in carrying out this research, the data collected for this study include socioeconomic, demographic, and environmental characteristics of urban residents, particularly in the Borokiri area, and the role each play in vulnerability and crime. This study adopts a qualitative research approach that is cross-sectional, using in-depth interview and observation techniques. The volunteer self-selection was adopted to select respondents across the different groups of stakeholders including the king of the community, clan heads, public security agencies (police), religious groups, principals of secondary schools, local government representatives, youths, and market women. 62 interviews were conducted with those who have lived for more than ten years in the neighborhood to obtain a holistic account of the lived experiences of residents.

In addition, from interviews with selected respondents, the findings of this study show that socioeconomic forces at work in the Borokiri neighborhood are factors significantly contributing to the area's high crime rate. The level of susceptibility in the neighborhood is influenced by social characteristics such as education, economic position, social activities, and peer groups. This research finds that social disadvantage and economic deprivation/marginalization are the root causes of crime, especially in the Borokiri context, and that heterogeneity has no relationship with crime. Moreover, it is often stated that crime is correlated with age and gender, in the Borokiri neighborhood, crime has no relationship with age, and neither does it with gender. More so, this research finds that poor infrastructure puts the neighborhood in a disadvantageous position. The economic depression

which manifests in physical characteristics in the case of Borokiri in Port-Harcourt poses challenges in managing criminal tendencies which in turn makes room for delinquency and crime, which gradually becomes a sub-culture.

There are several arguments in the social sciences about issues of economic deprivation and how they affect crime but have failed to look at the fact that the social structure of society is experiencing a shift from the norm (social). This change is influenced by unemployment, economic deprivation, inequality, and the concept of the value of education. In order to tackle the challenges of crime in our society, the impact of unemployment, economic deprivation, and inequality must earnestly be placed as a top priority to achieve the goal of national development. As a result, in the subsequent sections, this paper goes on to review relevant literature and works regarding crime in cities, analyze the data collected through in-depth semi-structured interviews with the residents of the Borokiri neighborhood of Port Harcourt city, and suggest possible measures and strategies through which crime can be controlled and further occurrences prevented.

2. Literature Review

Crime—as a social phenomenon—is inspired by several forces which can be traced to societal constructs. It is often a function of unaddressed social determinants present in society. When these factors are not identified or not properly treated, they result in significant increases in societal crime rates. This leaves the society in disorder and chaos and unsafe for residents. Moreover, social forces operating in urban areas are critical factors responsible for crime in cities. The social disorganization theory which suggests that crime is a function of the disintegration of social control in metropolitan areas evolves from the work of Chicago urban sociologists in 1942, led by Shaw and Mckay. These social forces include economic status, education, religion, belief system, social media, and peer groups. Overwhelming scientific evidence has proven that these intrinsic urban factors motivate crime [23]. However, [24] argues that social forces can most efficiently fight against crime if they are properly harnessed, i.e., if resources are concentrated on preventing chaos, social nuisance, and insignificant offences such as vandalism, drinking in public, loitering, rowdiness, and disorderly behaviour, as well as improving dilapidated physical structures in urban areas [25].

The city has three distinct areas: areas for the affluent or wealthy class, the middle or transition zone, and areas suffering from depressed infrastructural facilities, poverty, and disintegration [26]. This distinction is regardless of religion, race, and ethnicity [27]. Social forces influence the behaviour and actions of people living in these areas within an urban setting, which leads to the evolution of regions dominated by crime [28]. The theory of social disorganization holds that low-income residential neighborhoods plagued with the breakdown of social control in families, schools, and religious bodies are the focal point for crime in urban centres [29]. As seen in Figure 1, the theory emphasizes that the urban social environment (sociological factors) significantly influences crime. A disorganized urban setting is one in which institutions of social control is weakened and broken and its ability to carry out its normal functions is hampered [30]. Thus,

gradually the city becomes socially chaotic, hence difficult to control and to protect residents against crime and the criminal behaviour of offenders.

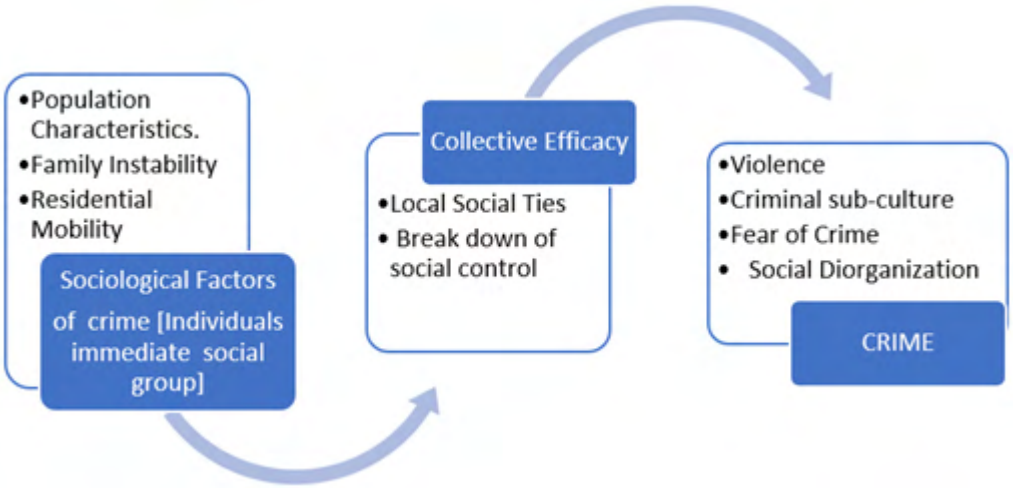


Figure 1. Social Disorganization Theory.

There is a retrogression in the social life of residents in sections of cities facing challenges in the provision of essential services such as decent housing, educational facilities, and quality health care for residents. Consequently, a delinquent/criminogenic sub-culture gradually develops [31]. Residents in these crime-ridden areas of the city tend to flee when they no longer feel comfortable with the turn of events in the neighborhood and new residents with no knowledge of crime in the neighborhood replace them [32]. Gradually residents become uninterested in community matters. The neighborhood they occupy becomes destabilized as inequality continues to grow in the city, and more sections of the city fall into the fray [33]. Crime leads to constant population turnover, which weakens communications, blocks the actualization of goals, and slows down development. The residents' nonchalant attitudes lead to streets being littered and untidy, and the urban fabric deteriorate. These neighborhoods are gradually rezoned out of necessity to mixed-use (residential and commercial properties next to each other) and are difficult to control by the usual social agencies [26].

The issue of mixed land uses makes the urban space difficult to manage and crime-prone, and crime affects the everyday life of urban residents, the quality of urban space, and its socio-economic and cultural prospects. The consensus report from studies [34–36] shows that the overall impact of insecurity limits socio-economic development in various ways. Crime and insecurity in an urban setting create social dislocation, promote population displacement, increase social tensions, and encourage hostility. This, in turn, deepens poverty, discourages local and foreign investment, halts business operations, increases the cost of doing business, and reduces property value. Members of society become vulnerable and create an atmosphere of mistrust, fear, anxiety, and frenzy, etc. [37].

The rise in crime affects the economic situation. Economically, urbanization is positive as it facilitates development and thus promotes urban growth and the provision of services [38]. However, according to

urbanization indices, crime is promoted in urban centres where the population is heterogeneous and where there is limited security for citizens due to the high population [39]. As shown in several observational reports, crime levels are higher in larger metropolises and cities. While several crimes are relative to urbanization, however, many other determinants directly affect the increasing crime trend in urban areas. These determinants include unemployment, inequality and income discrepancy disparity. However, these relative determinants are often linked to urbanization or its consequences, showing that the root causes remain in the urbanization process [9]. Before now, many empirical studies [9–11] have shown an urbanization–crime nexus, and suggest that both terms are correlated The universality of that correlation has, however, not been established.

In the same vein, Heinemann [40] argues that the severity of crime issues varies significantly by region. In the Andean region across South American countries, the violent crime rate seems to be 51.9 per 100,000 against 6.2 in the southern part of these countries. Since the 1970s, overall crime rates have been on a steady increase. Urban areas, especially major cities such as Rio de Janeiro, Lima, Mexico City, and Caracas, seem to be the most vulnerable to violent crime. Crime is discussed from three perspectives: social effects, root causes of conflicts, and empirical crime determinants. There is a general agreement that injustice is the major cause of the high crime rate in Latin America. Apart from income disparity, major risk factors include low rates of schooling, low social capital, homelessness, urbanization, and an inadequate criminal justice system. Therefore, prevention initiatives are essential to combat the rising issues of crime.

A longitudinal study [41] investigated the relationship between official crime rates in census tracts and resident perceptions of crime. Drawing from the data set of the Housing Survey samples in America for over 25 years (1976–1999) along with the census tract data on crime rate from the selected cities, the study reveals that the perception of crime among residents is strongly correlated to violent crime. The study also reveals that robbery and assault are the most significant violent crimes that substantially affect residents' perceptions. Burglary had a more substantial effect during the 1970s on the perception of crime, but as the years have gone this has declined, weakening its impact. Racial and ethnic composition shows very little significance regarding the perception of crime. Research has consistently shown that crime stems from social, economic, political, psychological, physical, and geographical factors. Just as crime is committed in certain geographical locations, it is worth discussing the relationship between crime and neighborhood socioeconomic and demographic characteristics. A very significant study [10] found that cities' growth and rising development attract people struggling to survive off the land, especially in the movement from rural areas to urban centres, thus causing overpopulation leading to poverty, hunger, violence, and criminality. This is inevitably associated with cities where inhabitants are victimized on urban streets [42].

On the contrary, a qualitative study engaging the chain referral (snowballing) method, conducted on Mexican migrants to the United States, investigated the perception of crime and the extent of crime incorporated as a way of life, according to their experiences. The perception that migrants

are responsible for crimes such as theft is explored in comparison to other crime-related issues including risks, vulnerabilities, offending, and victimization. The result shows a low-level relationship between migrants and crime-related activities [43].

As a result, based on the assumptions of the broken windows theory, and from the foregoing, this thesis argues that forces can most efficiently combat crime by focusing their efforts on targeting disorder, social nuisance, and minor crimes such as drinking in public, loitering, rowdiness, disorderly behaviour, and vandalism, as well as combating dilapidated physical structures in urban areas. Disorderly attitudes have been shown to raise crime apprehension, reduce social resilience and contribute to crime. However, the perception of crime was not (as expected) substantially linked to a particular group/class (e.g., youth) in the society. The direct impact of perceived societal dysfunction on expectations of crime was the most decisive influence in any model [44].

Further research on public safety shows that there has been an increase in concern for public security among politicians and public opinion experts, seen in citizen's safety requests from field surveys and datasets from the police consisting of filed reports from citizens in Lombardy, Italy. This method of investigation is unique, and peculiar to the region, aiming to arrive at more insight into how citizens view urban security issues and seek counsel/assistance within their neighborhood. The result shows a need to broaden the concept of urban security towards newer frontiers, particularly regarding quality of life, economic, and social dimensions. The perception of insecurity and crime in Lombardy is connected to a paradigm shift in the city's urbanistic, architectural, and social morphology, upholding the broken window theory of what causes crime [45].

The causes of crime have been the subject of intense debate, yet this issue has not been studied rigorously and thoroughly in the literature. The causes of crime are yet to be resolved, and this is a legitimate subject of debate [46]. Above, we have shown varied contradictory ideas on the root causes of crime, spanning across the four major urban social structural theories. Suburbanization highlights many issues, indirectly causing social and economic dislocation and isolating inner-city neighborhoods [47]. The argument is that poverty is not the root cause of property crime, though an opportunity is presented [48].

Recent research emphasizes property crime rates in cities that focus on intentional and deliberate attempts to cause property loss [49]. The location and hotspots for crime stress social and environmental roles in establishing causative theory, particularly regarding the interaction between people and public spaces, creating a link between offences, offence inducement and offence tendency [37]. The specific reason for looking at crime causes from this point of view is that it is assumed that the major cause of crime is external. After all, social forces have been argued to affect an individual's engagement and opportunity for committing a crime.

Major concepts used to examine the social disorganization theory include population characteristics, residential mobility, diminishing social ties, breakdown of social control, and criminal sub-culture. These concepts could be examined through family background, employment status, and occupation [50]. Socioeconomic inequality, school dropout rate, and

educational qualification are key variables in examining population characteristics concerning crime in cities [51]. In addition, age and gender are very significant indicators/variables in assessing the influence of population characteristics on crime [52].

The population in affected areas tends to exhibit frequent mobility. Residential mobility is another fundamental concept used in the literature to describe the theory of social disorganization. Moreover, racial and ethnic composition and socioeconomic inequality are vital variables used to describe this concept in social disorganization theory [53]. The residential mobility rate in an area and poor interpersonal relationships are significant variables in crime [54]. Proximity to facilities, availability of infrastructure and services, and physical environmental deterioration are critical [55]. The criminal sub-culture explored in the literature is examined through the number or percentage of people who practice deviancy, societal acceptance, and public compliance with illicit acts [56,57].

Crime in Nigeria

Crime rates across the globe are on the increase, with most events occurring in the global south. Moreover, crime in the global north cannot be compared to crime in the global south, where the problem is more exacerbated, and crime control strategies seem ineffective. The increase in criminal events happening in the global south have resulted in several cities being plagued with significant rises in crime rates. Amongst the nations significantly affected by rising crime rates is Nigeria, where several violent crimes including religious violence, insurgency, youth restiveness, communal clashes, and several other social vices have torn apart the peace of Nigeria's inhabitants, hence the insecurity in the country. Nigeria is now at the forefront of global statistics on crime [58]. In the last decade, Nigeria has recorded high incidents of violent and non-violent crimes. Nigeria ranks as the tenth most dangerous country globally (as seen in Table 1 below) with two local cities listed among the 20 most dangerous [59,60]. Globally, Nigeria is one of three African nations ranked in the top 20 most dangerous countries, behind South Africa and Namibia, and ranks ahead of war zone nations like Afghanistan and Syria [61].

Table 1. Crime and Safety Index Ranking of Countries, (Data source: [63]) and authors own calculation.

#	Country	Crime Index	Safety Index
1	Venezuela	82.38	17.62
2	Papua New Guinea	79.49	20.51
3	Honduras	79.14	20.86
4	South Africa	76.08	23.92
5	Trinidad and Tobago	74.20	25.80
6	Brazil	70.28	29.72
7	El Salvador	68.45	31.55

8	Namibia	68.10	31.90
9	Jamaica	66.47	33.53
10	Nigeria	66.14	33.86
11	Afghanistan	66.03	32.04
12	Iraq	65.23	33.02

This result emanated from a perception index of the fear of crime, using a critical variable for assessing violent and property crime within cities. However, this is a perception index, and the actual crime statistics are not considered, but rather the level of safety and security which citizens feel in their cities. The safety index emphasizes how safe citizens feel walking alone during the day and at night within the city or specific areas of the city.

In recent times armed robberies are recurring forms of crime in Nigeria, contributing to about 50% of an overall 8516 crime-related deaths between June 2006 and September 2015. As shown in Table 2, cities such as Lagos, Port-Harcourt, Ibadan, Makurdi, and Onitsha were reported as the most affected [59]. Crime fatalities are more common in the Southern part of Nigeria than in the North, terrorism and religious clashes being perhaps more common. However, the government has shown an inability to address most of the sources of crime, which explains why it has become challenging to nip crime in the bud [62].

Table 2. Crime rates comparison between major cities in Nigeria. (Data source: [63]) and authors own calculation.

#	Country	Crime Index	Safety Index
1	Port-Harcourt	75.59	24.41
2	Jos	73.45	26.55
3	Benin	71.51	28.49
4	Lagos	64.99	35.01
5	Abuja	63.45	36.55
6	Kano	61.23	40.21
7	Ibadan	44.50	55.50

Port-Harcourt is currently the largest city in Rivers State. It lies in the South geopolitical zone and is ranked the fourth largest city in Nigeria. Its geographical location is in the oil-rich coastal region of the Niger delta. Port-Harcourt has an estimated population of 2,876,763 million as of 2019 [64]. The city has a population density of about 7796.10 persons per km^2. The population is spread over a total surface area of 369 square kilometers [65].

In light of the crime rate and demographic characteristics presented above, and because not many studies have been carried out in Port-Harcourt, this is the reason why it was chosen for this study. Port-Harcourt city has

significant demographic characteristics such as significant age disparity, ethnic and religious diversity, a significant level of education and income disparity, deteriorating urban fabric and a significant crime rate compared to other cities within the region. The high-crime neighborhoods in the metropolitan city of Port Harcourt are Diobu, Rumuola, Borokiri, Ikwerre, Ogbunabali, Abuloma, and D-line. The neighborhood chosen for this study is Borokiri because it is accessible to the researchers, accessible by transport and research assistants are available. Borokiri is located south of Old GRA in Port-Harcourt city. The neighborhood of Borokiri is located in Old Port-Harcourt, bounded to the east by Okrika Island (the Aboturu creeks), to the west by Ship Builders Road, by Ahoada Street to the north, and by Orubiri oilfield to the south. Its land uses include residential, institutional, commercial, and recreation. The residential district of Borokiri (as shown in Figure 2 above) is selected for this study because of its peculiarity (issues of social change and crime) relevant to the study. Borokiri has a high indigenous population sharing a common social heritage and living with other inhabitants in the urban centres. In addition, the Borokiri area is economically depressed and has a perceived weak social control set-up, making it ideal for the study.

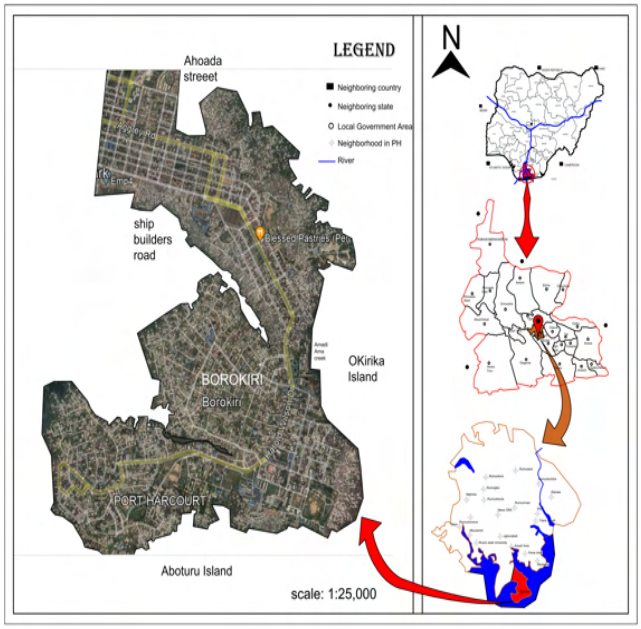


Figure 2. Map of Borokiri, the study area.

3. Methodology and Data

The purpose of this research is to examine from the experiences of residents the significance of economic deprivation and issues related to neighborhood characteristics on crime. This study explored these impacts

from the perspective of the social disorganization theory, and the impact on opportunities to commit crime. The basic data obtained for this study were data from residents' experiences relating to socioeconomic status, economic deprivation, and issues around neighborhood characteristics of the study area. The research adopted the methodological choice of the multi-method qualitative research approach. The method of data collection chosen is an in-depth interview with the use of a semi-structured interview guide.

This research used non-probability sampling techniques of volunteer self-selection sampling. The reason for this selection was that access to respondents was difficult, and the research purpose is exploratory. This approach enabled an in-depth insight into the phenomenon under investigation from the experiences of the local dwellers within the region. Using volunteer self-selection sampling techniques, interviews were conducted with a semi-structured interview guide with 62 adults from the various sectors. The following are some of the organizations also selected for interviewing: the police, vigilantes, traditional heads of the community, heads of Youth Associations, heads of the market women association, principals of secondary schools, heads of religious organizations, representatives of local government, heads of Trade Union Associations, and captains of industries. The 62 interviews constitute an ideal size for a semi-structured interview program whose target population is heterogeneous [66]. The respondents were all above the age of 30 years and could provide details of lived experience within the community over a long time.

A semi-structured instrument was developed to enable the research respondents to feel free to participate in the research. A checklist was prepared for the observation. The in-depth interview was conducted with 40 adults in the community and was conducted in an informal conversational manner in a quiet environment at an agreed, at their residence or places convenient to the interviewee. A digital recorder was used to capture the discussions/information/data which was then transcribed verbatim to capture every detail. There were also notes taken to ensure accuracy and a precise transcription. For those parts of the interviews that were conducted in Igbo language or pidgin English, a careful translation was made so as not to lose the exact content and original source. Participants' behaviour was recorded using observation guidelines. The study used Scopus and Web of Science search engines for reviews of relevant literature from journal articles and proceedings. Thematic analysis was adopted to analyze the data collected from the qualitative research method using the in-depth interviews conducted. Qualitative data was processed vertically and horizontally at the preliminary stage. The variations and commonalities of the respondent were taken into consideration. Appropriate codes were drawn out of the transcribed interviews, which were later categorized into themes.

This research obtained its ethical approval from the University of the Witwatersrand, Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical) with protocol number H20/04/18, via a rigorous process of attending an ethics course, undergoing the ethics test, being certified, submitting of ethics application, review, issuance of the ethics approval and progress report. The research participants' consent was sought by informed consent form. Research participants were briefed in detail about what the research was about and the implication of participation via a participant information

sheet. The anonymity of the individuals involved in the research, who made impersonal contributions to the study, was acknowledged. Moreso, the participants were made to know that they were free to quit the research at any time, without being questioned. Participants were free to discontinue the study, as well as to neglect questions they did not want to answer. These details were captured in the participant information sheet. There were no experiences of distress or discomfort at any point in this process, otherwise the interview would have been stopped, to resume another time.

4. Results and Discussions

Port-Harcourt is one of the top five most populous cities in Nigeria with a population of 1,133,019 persons covering a land area of 178 km sq and population density of 6365 persons/sq km. Borokiri in the Old Port-Harcourt town has a very high population of low-income residents of about 95,182 persons according to the National Population Commission of 2021, covering a land mass of 4.8 km sq, i.e., 19,829 persons/sq km. From the findings of this research, the residents live in row buildings of apartment unit. Moreover, this research reveals that most people living in this area are self-employed or have not been previously employed, and very few residents work in artisan and peasant business activities such as restaurants, bars, and pubs. This is emphasized by one of the respondents (ID-00031): "the people who live here are predominantly self-employed, and they try not to engage in illegal activities, but that does not solve the big problem of crime such as cultism and stealing in the neighborhood".

Who commits the crimes in this neighborhood? Only a few residents are civil servants with verified jobs. The youthful population are the largest, as very few elderly people are seen within the neighborhood. Moreover, school pupils are seen around the neighborhood all day, as school dropout is at an alarming rate. Most of the interview respondents either do not finish secondary school education or are very reluctant about the opportunities that may arise from education. This position was further emphasized by one of the respondents (ID-00021), addressing the opportunity individuals can derived from education: "However, they are self-employed but lack educational background with no idea of creating employment". This suggests that the inability and the reluctance of the youths of Borokiri to engage in productive activities is a function of the lack of educational qualification. The ideas needed for the creation of employment for youths, especially in the Borokiri context, demand quality education. Unfortunately, crime rates in the area continue to rise because the youths do not possess the educational qualifications to provide themselves with lucrative job opportunities, and are reluctant to engage in legal work, but rather resort to crime for their livelihood.

This research found that social forces operating in the Borokiri neighborhood are factors responsible for making the neighborhood crime-ridden. These social factors such as education, economic status, social activities, and peer groups influence the level of vulnerability in the neighborhood. These factors are highly significant in Borokiri, Port-Harcourt, and significantly contribute to the vulnerability of the neighborhood. Several respondents further reacted to this; from one of the vigilantes (ID-00045): "Crime has nothing to do with age nor gender but has

a relationship with income; for family size issues, one cannot tell". Another participant (ID-00023) suggests that "It depends on the upbringing of each individual, and it is not easy to change people, but the body of Christ is doing a lot. One thing that strikes an imbalance for crime is poverty, and it happens mainly with our teenagers and youth, especially the male gender. Sometimes, income level can make one commit a crime". According to a member of the law enforcement personnel (ID-00050): "The youth are the perpetrators of this crime because of frustration, peer pressure, and bad friends. However, this area can be safe compared to other areas".

This implies that, while it is stated in most research that crime correlates with age and gender, in the Borokiri neighborhood, crime has no relationship with age, nor does it with gender. This contradicts the social disorganization theory (age) and the general strain theory (gender) as both do not relate to crime but rather, socioeconomic factors (such as income, social support, and community safety) and sociodemographic factors (level of education, employment, and living arrangements) significantly affect the opportunities to commit a crime. In agreement with [23,28] urban social forces motivate crime in cities, especially in urban neighborhoods characterized by gross demographic and socioeconomic challenges and setbacks. As earlier stated, the Borokiri area of Port Harcourt has been highly neglected in terms of facilities and social services compared to some other areas of the city. This supports the ideas of [26,27] that the city has two distinct areas, the areas of the affluent or wealthy class, and that of those suffering from depressed infrastructural facilities, poverty, and disintegration. From the findings of this research, and in agreement with the results of [34–36], in the Borokiri context crime affects the everyday life of residents, neighborhood space quality, and limits the socio-economic development of the neighborhood in various ways.

Several participants residing in the Borokiri neighborhood made contributions, with one of the school principals (ID-00030) stating that "this neighborhood is plagued with poor infrastructure like poor street lighting, water, sanitation, and health care. Companies, industries, and factories are not available, and this has somehow led to the increase in crime. The most common crime within this neighborhood is assault, fighting, and others". Another respondent, a head of the market women association (ID-00025), asserts that "the younger people mostly commit these crimes, and I think one of the major factors that cause crime is poor and inadequate social infrastructure". In the words of another respondent, a leader of a youth organization (ID-00015), "In my understanding crime is committing atrocities, and that occurs everywhere and in this neighborhood. The most occurring crimes are kidnapping, assassination, and stealing. These crimes are due to economic and social marginalization. This neighborhood has been neglected by the government for a long time now".

Examining crime motivators in the Borokiri neighborhood via the comments of the respondents above, this research finds that poor infrastructure, especially lighting (electricity) puts the neighborhood at a disadvantageous position, inclined to criminogenic probabilities. This supports the theoretical assumptions of the broken windows theory. In the global south, the situation is more complicated as there is visually no access to this kind of physical infrastructure in most crime-ridden neighborhoods.

Not that they have been vandalized or show signs of no maintenance, but that they are completely absent. This is because neighborhoods characterized by gross darkness and no access to electricity to light up the dark corners of the area increases the risks of crime perpetration. Crimes including rape, assault, theft, burglary, and even kidnapping could be perpetrated without the knowledge of other residents. Furthermore, in agreement with [29], this research suggests that low-income residential areas including Borokiri are plagued with the breakdown of social control in schools (dropout, vandalism, and insubordination), families (disobedience, fighting, quarrelling and stealing), and religious bodies (anti-social behaviour and activities), the focal point for crime breeding in urban neighborhoods, especially in the Borokiri neighborhood.

In addition, in the global south, the situation is exacerbated as school authorities no longer have control over their pupils. The value of education has been downplayed as the economic situation in the country becomes worse. Pupils in secondary school and now in primary school indulge in anti-social behaviour such as cultism whose foremost aim is rebellion against constituted authority, and vandalism. Moreover, due to the multiple forms of poverty, families have been ravaged with many forms of maladjustment. Parents no longer have control over their children, children no longer respect parents and elders as they do not provide for their daily needs, and wives no longer respect their husbands and vice versa. These children who are uncared for commit all manner of atrocities within their society such as quarrelling, fighting, stealing, and vandalism. Religious and social organizations have compounded the issue as residents now see them as a means of exploitation and swindling than informal institutions of social control. When all these issues continues unabated, the neighborhood gradually becomes socially disorganized and difficult to control and it is difficult to protect residents against crime and criminal behaviour from offenders.

According to a respondent, a member of the law enforcement personnel (ID-00053): “The rate of crime in this neighborhood is usually higher than in any other place in Port-Harcourt”. Another participant, also a law enforcement agent (ID-00056), suggests that “crime is a sensitive issue; the common crimes within this neighborhood include pickpocketing, kidnapping, vandalism of crude oil lines, robbery cases, burglary, rape, drug abuse, cultism, etc.; these are happening here”. Speaking with another respondent, a community leader (ID-00033), the respondent asserts that “the criminal justice system of the country is messed up. When we cannot differentiate between the criminals and the justice, the judge can be bribed and allow a criminal to go scot-free, with no trace of the crime or criminal”. Crime in the Borokiri area (and this may apply to some other neighborhoods in the global south) is affected by the gross misconduct and the institutional failure of the criminal justice system. Crimes are committed with no trace of evidence because those who commit these crimes are covered up by the same criminal justice system that should fight against crime and protect the rights of residents. This assertion is contrary to the assumption of the routine activity theory that the presence of capable guardians shields against crime; in this situation, it exacerbates crime. Consequently, crimes including

kidnapping, robbery, drug trafficking, and rape continue to rise because the system has not used its full weight to clamp down on it.

Furthermore, in agreement with [31], this research argues that in sections of the cities where the fabric of social life has been hampered by economic depression such as unemployment as in the case of Borokiri in Port-Harcourt, the city managers are faced with challenges in the provision of essential services such as decent housing, educational facilities, and quality health care for their residents. Moreover, this research argues that crime vulnerability, especially in the Borokiri context, is correlated with services such as the aforementioned. In agreement with the social disorganization theory, neighborhoods and societies facing a challenge in the provision of decent housing and quality educational facilities are at risk of crime. The situation is exacerbated in the global south as housing is not seen as a social service—even those which are seen as social services, including water and education, are not efficiently provided, and residents now live in dehumanizing houses which have made the situation more complex to manage. This study shows that the main factors in crime in urban centres are homelessness and deprivation, poverty and unemployment, youth marginalization, the disintegration of culture, lack of urban planning, and neglect of public space. This in turn makes room for delinquency and crime, which gradually becomes a sub-culture. According to a clan head (ID-00018) in the Borokiri area, "crime occurs regularly in this neighborhood occupied by low-income earners. The youth and young people are the ones involved mostly in these crimes. They are mostly involved in the robbery, and petty theft and unemployment are the top factors of these crimes, I would say the neighborhood is security-threatened".

Several arguments abound as to whether social disadvantage is the main cause of crime. While research argues that social disadvantages or economic deprivation are not the causes of crime but critical factors, and that heterogeneity is correlated with crime propensity, this research argues that social disadvantage and economic deprivation/marginalization are the root causes of crime, especially in the Borokiri context, and that heterogeneity has no relationship with crime because both natives and non-natives commit crime. Being an indigene or a non-indigene has nothing to do with the propensity to commit a crime, since as far as Borokiri is concerned, both commit crimes. According to a respondent, a resident (ID-00035), "crime in this neighborhood is something anybody can associate with, so heterogeneity has nothing to do with crime, both indigenes and non-indigenes can commit a crime. Not being satisfied with daily earnings can lead to crime. Committing of crime is a personal decision where language and ethnicity cannot be a barrier". Another participant, a resident (ID-00039) stated that "in my opinion, heterogeneity doesn't relate to crime, anyone and everyone are capable of committing a crime, and indigenes and non-indigenes commit a crime—no one is an exception, same way neither being rich, or poor relates to crime: even language and ethnicity doesn't relate to crime".

Furthermore, this research suggests that residents who are not comfortable with the lifestyle set up in the neighborhood withdraw from community matters as they feel that this is an avenue via which they might be victimized. This has led to population turnover in the form of residential

mobility, which weakens communication, hinders communal goal actualization, and slows down overall development. In the Borokiri area, several residents have withdrawn and relocated from their former places of residence to other places where they can live in peace. However, some residents do not feel or see the necessity for mobility as they are becoming acclimatized to the turns of events, and this is very worrisome with an increased risk of higher offenders, contrary to the assertion of the social disorganization theory, which holds the assumption that residential flight is as a result of a high level of vulnerability. In the words of a respondent, resident (ID-00032): "I have lived here for close to fifteen years. I would say the crime rate now is increasing because of the hardship, but I have learnt to live with the events", and from resident (ID-00036): "I have been living in this area for a long time now with most of my neighbors. Nothing the eye has not seen to cry blood; we are used to the situation it is just for you to always be on guard".

Drawing from the discussion above, we can see clearly how these intrinsic factors concerned with demographic and socio-economic characteristics play significant roles in influencing the probabilities of crime and the vulnerability of cities in the global south. From this research, the issue of population turnover is not a significant factor in the rise in crime. As shown in the research, many residents feel very comfortable within the neighborhood. Many have stayed over a long period and do not see a reason for relocating. From their response, population turnover is not significant, as residents have now adapted to the situation. It is more a matter of caution than fear of crime because crime is ever-present. Moreover, the existence of a link between crime and unemployment is ambiguous, both in terms of its nature and the strength of the association. The exclusion of a significant variable like unemployment in the sociological analysis of crime is a huge omission. It is widely assumed in research that most criminals are unemployed, despite various studies showing otherwise. However, most people who choose to engage in illegal activities are employed. As a result, we concentrate on these aspects to provide a more comprehensive picture of the relationship between crime and unemployment.

One of the critical causes of crime is income disparity. As previously stated, criminal acts are driven by economic motivators. Wage disparities have widened significantly in the last 30 years, and crime rates have risen dramatically at the same time. This research suggests that there is a link between crime and inequality, but care must be taken to separate inequality from poverty's effects. Growth in inequality has a criminal-inducing effect by lowering an individual's moral threshold, a phenomenon known as the envy effect. As a result, rising inequality will positively affect (at least some) people's propensity to commit a crime. The next natural step is to figure out what produces inequality in the first place. Young men are more likely to engage in criminal activities than the general population. There is an increase in participation of disadvantaged young men, particularly the less educated, and more recently the educated too, due to the rise in unemployment. Crime has long-term adverse effects on the opportunity to be employed and committing a crime is only economically rational in the short term.

5. Recommendations

Further emphasis should be placed on the significance of education in the fight against crime. The level of education gained, and an individual's economic and social background appear to be inextricably linked to crime. The idea that criminals are less educated and are from lower socioeconomic origins than non-criminals no longer hold. With a high number of graduates, the unemployment rate is running extremely highly. As a result, low education as a factor in criminal behaviour is no longer valid. This idea will enable us to redirect our focus to develop effective and appropriate policies to sustain education, improve its quality and create employment opportunities. This factor is intertwined with other factors that influence and decide crime rates, such as age, unemployment, and inequity.

The majority of the contributions on the effects of education on crime emphasize how education improves people's skills and talents, increasing the number of people who return to a legitimate job and boosting the opportunity costs of illicit behaviour, but there is a failure to emphasize the quality of education in terms of staffing, facilities, and a decent learning environment to produce school leavers who are employable and can take up employment opportunities. However, there are benefits to education that are not considered by individuals, implying that the societal return on education is greater than the private return. Individual preferences are influenced by the indirect effects of education.

The assumption that education reduces crime is fast becoming ambiguous, as being educated may have significant social benefits that individuals do not consider and have gradually been downplayed, so educational centres are gradually becoming breeding grounds for multiple forms of crime such as cultism, vandalism, drug abuse, prostitution, political uproar, and most recently cybercrime. The result of this research has explicitly established that crime is highly correlated with a weak educational system, particularly in the global south. To develop effective approaches for reducing crime, the reward from education (employment opportunities) must be explicit; if not, it may be counterproductive. Given the high social costs of crime, even slight reductions in crime connected with improved opportunities after education could be economically significant.

Furthermore, this research investigated the influence of socio-economic, demographic, and physical characteristics on crime and how they impact crime. However, there is a need to specifically investigate the influence of the condition of the urban fabric; investigation on this aspect wasn't achieved, which is one of the limitations of this study, and more research is needed to scrutinize the broken windows theory further, involving a potential longitudinal study of crime in a given place.

6. Conclusions

Despite the limited sample size, and the narrow scope adopted in this research which focused on lived experiences and concerns socio-economic and demographic characteristics, the study gives an insight into the significance of socioeconomic and demographic characteristics that are exacerbating the level of criminal activities and behaviour. Economic deprivation can lead to stress, strain, family maladjustment, neglect of the importance of education, social vices and association with bad company [40].

All of the above-mentioned factors could lead to delinquency, particularly among youth. These factors are highlighted by the responses from the lived experiences of the respondents in the neighborhood. These factors that exacerbate crime show that residents may easily join anti-social groups whose agenda is only to make society restive and fragile and create an atmosphere of social tension. The respondents are residents of the community who have lived within the area for quite a long time and have either been offenders or victims and so clearly understand the situation.

As crime continues, it raises questions among the residents: what is happening? What factors cause this? Where do we go from here? How can we manage this? There have been constant debates in the social sciences about issues of economic deprivation and how they affect crime, but these have failed to look at the fact that the social structure of the society is experiencing a shift from the norm (social changes). This change is exacerbated by unemployment, economic deprivation, inequality and changes in the concept of the value of education. In other to tackle the challenges of crime in our society, the impact of unemployment, economic deprivation, and inequality must earnestly be placed as a top priority in the goal of national development.

This study can enable the government, city and urban managers, and policymakers to evaluate the current economic situation of Nigerians. Nigeria's poverty rate is about 71%, using the world bank income poverty threshold of $3.20 per day, which means that over a 150 million Nigerians are poor as of the year 2021 [67]. There is an imperative need to develop a well thought out and thorough strategy to alleviate poverty, especially in urban centres. Since unemployment, economic deprivation, and inequality are the main challenges, there should be proper investment and industrial development schemes, informal sector activities and skill acquisition for the youth. The local authorities still have a role to play by running a more inclusive and participatory process of development and decision making, also developing more social activities to shield young people from the influence of bad company.

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TRANSFORMING ROLE OF STATE IN ADDRESSING INCLUSIVE URBAN DEVELOPMENT

27.10.2022 - 29.10.2022

The role of the state in addressing urban development in the Global South remains relevant for academics and practitioners. Since the middle of the last century, the main ideological shift was from post-war Keynesian re-development politics to voluntarily and involuntarily neoliberal political changes and operations in late 1970s and 1980s, which had their ideological roots in late 1940s (Harvey, 2005). These experiences globally impacted cities, urban infrastructure and services. As Brenner and Theodore (2005: 101) indicate that "… deconstruction and attempted reconstitution of urban social space" since 1980s were conceptualised by categories, such as "deindustrialisation, reindustrialisation, post-Fordism, internationalisation, global city formation, urban entrepreneurialism, informalisation, gentrification and socio-spatial polarisation". At the beginning of 2000s these concepts were "complemented by references to 'neoliberalism', which is increasingly seen as an essential descriptor of the contemporary urban condition" (Ibid.). In early 2010s, after three decades of neoliberal politics, "the form and consequences [have] continue[d] to evolve through an eclectic blend of failure and crisis, regulatory experimentation, and policy transfer across places, territories and scales" as Peck et al. argue (2013: 1091).

This ideological shift manifests itself in deregulation in general and privatisation of urban public services and space in particular. Determined by the transforming role of the state from a provider and regulator to an enabler, new actors both in the private as well as the civil society sector in urban development arose worldwide. In many cases, the neoliberal turn restructured the relation between local and national state, forcing the former to abdicate its regulatory power in favour of emerging private

actors. However, the state has continued to play an ambiguous role in urban development. On the one hand state acts to create and safeguard institutional framework and conditions for "private property rights, free markets and free trade" (Harvey, 2005). On the other hand, it has been argued that the state stays silent in steering urbanisation and development in many cases and has even often actively produced and managed informality itself by using planning and the legal apparatus to define what forms of informal development are accepted or not (Roy, 2005).

Under these circumstances, Marcelo Lopes de Souza (2006) suggests, we must understand the role of the state vis-a-vis the civil society, which as de facto agents of urban planning and management, may act together with, despite and against the state. Diana Mitlin (2008) also highlights that the state has a role in co-producing public services that can ensure inclusive urban development. However, in such co-production the role of state has been portrayed as a passive attributor rather than being considered as an actor to pledge for inclusive urban development.

A great body of research already addresses the relationship between the state and civil society, focusing on marginalised urban communities. We draw on four of these approaches. The first approach showcases the success stories of state-led urban development activities where the urban poor communities are actively involved and the interventions are co-designed and produced both by the state and the urban poor communities. The second approach highlights the self-help activism of marginalised communities and how it eventually enables individuals or communities to develop a strategic relationship with different state institutions in accessing different urban public services. Here the role of state is often portrayed as a response to politically address a civil society movement. The third approach expands forms of neo-liberal urban development, in which the state abdicates and enables the market to address urban development which eventually supposed to cater to the urban poor. Such a notion has been critically analysed worldwide. Lastly, research investigates different state- led programmes which are often top-down in nature, being designed and implemented without the participation of the community.

Already in 2003, NEARUS organised a seminar in Paris called "Beyond the neoliberal consensus on urban development: other voices from Europe and the South". A selection of ten over 40 contributions was published in the Trialog Journal in early 2004. The editors (Cripps et al., 2004) brought up a variety of cases addressing neoliberal urban and infrastructure development policies as well as alternatives, including those addressing gender perspective and right to the city and housing. Cripps and others asked: "is urbanity possible under neo-liberal premises?" After 19 years of experiences with neoliberal forces and counter-movements in cities we are attempting to explore a similar question. How far neo-liberal urban policies are rooted and influenced the relations between the actors shaping urban development in global South? While contextualising the New Urban Agenda in Global South cities, we

see an urgent need to revisit how the state engages with private sector and the civil society, especially with marginalised urban communities in regards to urban development. The purpose of the conference is to reach out for a variety of cases witnessing transforming role of the state and the relation among various actors in the society. We are looking for examples of production and appropriation of space in neighbourhoods, cities and metropolitan areas. Furthermore, in this context, the overarching question arises if these particular cases can lead to a commonality and conceptual abstraction for urban South?

Therefore, in the 21st N-AERUS conference, we invite contributions including following thematic areas but not limited to:

- **Theme 1: Beyond neoliberal urbanisms in the Global South:** What are the current urban development discourses and contemporary multi-level governance models? How do national governments and global cities compete and reclaim their positions in a global context?
- **Theme 2: The role of the state in urban rehabilitation and transformation:** What are the current cases of urban redevelopment interventions on a scale from authoritarian to participatory and inclusive approaches, including the state vis-à-vis self-help activism;
- **Theme 3: Counter-movements to neoliberal urbanism:** What are the scope and impact of alternative urban movements including the rights discourse and culture? What are the viable examples of partnerships among actors?
- **Theme 4: Neo-Keynesian response to the pandemic:** What are the recent experiences of national and local government recovery interventions in cities in post-COVID phase?

Submission of Abstracts

Please send your abstract (max. 300 words in .rtf or .docx format) in English to naerus2022@gmail.com no later than April 30th 2022, 1pm CET, indicating: a) session, b) names of the authors, c) title of the paper and d) mode of participation. Please also find a form for abstracts here.

Papers will be selected by an independent scientific committee composed of the Urban and Rural Planning Discipline of Khulna University, Bangladesh; University of Kassel, Germany and N-AERUS representatives through a blind refereeing process. After the conference a selection of articles will be published in an edited book format.

Important Dates

Abstract submission deadline: 30th of April 2022, 1pm CET
Abstract review and selection for full paper by: 15th of July 2022

Full paper submission: 10th of October 2022, 1pm CET

Conference in Khulna, Bangladesh and in Kassel, Germany: 27-29th of October 2022

Location and Format of the Conference

Conference will be a hybrid format and will primarily take place in person in Khulna, Bangladesh at the Khulna University. A satellite session is planned in Europe. Institute for urban development at the University of Kassel will host the satellite session in Kassel, Germany. Participants who will be not able to join in-person either in Khulna, Bangladesh or in Kassel, Germany will be allowed to join online sessions. All the sessions will be live streamed and zoom platform will be used for interactive sessions.

Costs

No registration fee accompanies attendance of the conference. Coffee/tea breaks and lunches will be provided for by the organisers. Dinners as well as accommodation and travel have to be covered by the participant.

Accommodation

Some low-cost accommodation will be available for participants in Khulna, Bangladesh. Relevant details to apply for low-cost accommodation will be provided on the conference website at www.n- aerus.net along with supplementary information on additional accommodation at special negotiated rates.

About N-AERUS

N-AERUS (Network-Association of European Researchers on Urbanisation in the South) is a pluridisciplinary network of researchers and experts working on urban issues in developing countries and emerging economies. It was created in March 1996 by a group of European researchers. Its objective is to mobilise and develop the European institutional and individual research and training capacities. Further information on the network can be found at www.n-aerus.net.

The Host Institute

The Urban and Rural Planning Discipline of Khulna University (https://discipline.ku.ac.bd/urp) will be the organising and hosting institution of the 21st N-AERUS Conference. Located in a global south city and in the coastal zone of Bangladesh, Urban and Rural Planning Discipline of Khulna University is the pioneer academic institution in offering planning education in Bangladesh. Department of Sustainable

Cities and Communities of University of Kassel, Germany (http://www.uni- kassel.de/go/sustainable-cities-and-communities) will be the satellite European host of this conference.

The Organising Team of 21st N-AERUS Conference

Prof. Dr. Md. Ashiq Ur Rahman, Urban and Rural Planning Discipline of Khulna University, Bangladesh; G.-Prof. Dr.-Ing. Umut Kienast-Duyar, Department of Sustainable Cities and Communities of University of Kassel, Germany & Dr. Lorena Melgaço, Lund University, Lund, Sweden, on behalf of Network-Association of European Researchers on Urbanisation in the South.

Further information

For more information please contact naerus2022@gmail.com or visit the website www.n-aerus.net.

21st N-AERUS Conference
Hosted by the Urban and Rural Planning Discipline of Khulna University, Bangladesh
& Department of Sustainable Cities and Communities, University of Kassel, Germany

Investigating the Contributions of Socio-demographic Characteristics on Crime in Vulnerable Residential Neighbourhoods of Port Harcourt City, Rivers State, Nigeria.

Christopher. C. Onyeneke,

School of Architecture and Planning, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg,

Christopher.onyeneke1@wits.ac.za,

+2348063834100

Abstract.

Cities particularly in the global south have become more vulnerable. Recent research has found that one of the most difficult aspects of combating crime in cities is the susceptibility of our socio-cultural environment. Studies on national and city impact reports have shown that urban residents are more vulnerable since city insecurity variables are greater than the national average. Socio-demographic factors in urban communities in the global south such as gender, age, education, living environment, and employment, have been presumed to have an impact on crime according to the general strain theory. In urban communities and neighbourhoods in the global south, the situation is even more complicated as urban fabrics are now more vulnerable and are growing into potential crime hotspots. Through the perspective of the general strain theory, this paper investigates the association between socio-demographic factors and crime in cities of the global south (particularly Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria), using a qualitative research method. This paper deployed a phenomenological research strategy, as well as a scientific inductive reasoning and pragmatism as the main philosophical premise for this research. With the aid of a semi-structured interview guide and a Volunteer Self-selection sampling technique, in-depth interviews were conducted with various stakeholders/groups concerned with the juvenile population. The data analysis was done using thematic analysis. The observation method was used in order to gain access to the living situations of the residents of the study area. Because it is qualitative research, and to enhance visual comprehension, some of the data were presented using photographs and maps. This research intends to fill the gap in the existing literature by examining poverty and unemployment as major variables and determinants of the rise in crime, as well as the fact that victimisation and being an offender are not absolutely related to age and gender. The limitations of this paper include small sample size, a broad study area, language barrier, and wrong interpretation of direct translation.

Key Words: Crime, Socio-demographic, (Un)employment, and Vulnerability.

Introduction

Throughout history, the world has been confronted with several civil and social issues, as a result of these issues, changes and evolution have occurred in the world, particularly in the global south (1). Due to social difficulties and the search to contain and prevent the recurrence of social threats, communities and societies experience changes in the overall shape and structure of their social surroundings, as well as morals, rules, values, regulations, laws, and standards over time (2). These societal issues may be the result of either inherent or external forces. Social issues such as social insecurity, violence, human rights violations, community unrest, animosity, and other criminogenic behaviours increase the crime rates experienced in several nations. Crime can be defined as any behaviour that violates a society's established laws, regulations, beliefs, norms, values, standards, and rules (3). Crime can occur at any time and in any location. Its occurrence, however, is dependent on an opportunity devoid of capable factors to prevent it. This suggests that crime is likely to occur in situations where security is ineffective. Also, when individual internal and external control is loosened, crime is more likely to occur (4).

Furthermore, the causes of crime can be traced to several reasons. These elements, as previously stated, could be inherent or external influences that motivate a person to engage in criminal behaviour. This study looks into an underrepresented facet in the study of the causes of in communities and societies. In criminal research, sociodemographic characteristics (as possible crime motivators) are rarely captured. As a result, this study explores the contributions of sociodemographic factors such as employment status, education level, marital status, age, gender, occupancy ratio, and settlement type/pattern to determine whether they directly or indirectly affect crime. The goal of this paper is to ascertain the relationship between sociodemographic characteristics and the extent to which they affect crime, particularly in urban communities of the global south. This is because the rate of crimes committed in the global south continues to increase, consequently impeding the growth and development of urban communities. These crimes may be linked to political, economic, and social disadvantages (5). A recent research suggests that unemployment, low levels of education, age and gender (which are sociodemographic variables) are linked to criminal activity in several cultures, increasing the regression in the economic growth and development of urban communities (Umair,

2019; Mayombe, 2018; Allen, 1993). This paper explores the impact impact of these factors on the rise in crime rates in the city of Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria.

The city of Port Harcourt has demographic elememts that makes it vulnerable to crime. In the year 2019, the city's population was 2,876,763 million (9). The majority of this figure live in poverty-plagued and economically depressed communities and neighbourhoods such as Diobu, Ikewere, Ogbunabali, Borokiri, and D-line. The crime rates in these areas continues to increase due to population congestion. Urbanization and overcrowding inevitably stems from the concentration of people in one location, which leads to increased risks of crime. Among the neighbourhoods aforementioned, the Borokiri neighbourhood was chosen because of its vulnerability to crime. Criminal activities such as cultism, burglary, property crimes, vandalism, and armed robbery (10), are common in the Borokiri neighbourhood of Port Harcourt. According to the findings of this study and the opinions of residents, these crimes stem from people's sociodemographic characteristics which incline them to criminal activities. In contrast with other crime-ridden areas, the crime rates in the Borokiri area justify the study of the determinants of crime in the neighbourhood because of the population and other demographic characteristics. Family structure, unemployment, and the lack of quality education are factors that affect most of the crimes perpetrated in the area.

Literature review

The issues of crime in cities of the global south are alarming, with several cities plagued with increased crime rates which results in regressions in community growth and development (5). The crimes in the global south stem from issues of structural dysfunction in families, schools, and other social control institutions (11). The crimes resulting from sociodemographic factors such as employment status, level of education, age/gender, and family structure contribute significantly o the rise in the crime rates in cities of the global south. The nature and extent of the relationship between unemployment and crime are both difficult to establish (12). Since the early contributions to crime economics, researchers have continuously attempted to ascertain whether there is a correlation between crime and unemployment (13). A recent research suggests that most people who engage in illegal activity do so because they are

employed (14). Despite several contradictory evidence, it is often considered that most criminals are unemployed (15). As a result, this paper concentrates on these aspects to proffer a clearer picture of the unemployment–crime correlation.

Since the late 1970s, Freeman's scepticism has been supported by the findings of social scientists (16) and (17) that the association between unemployment and crime, when analysed at the aggregate level, is inconsistent and inconsequential (18). A detailed and illuminating assessment of the various empirical and theoretical approaches to the relationship between unemployment and crime was recently published (19). They emphasised that the majority of criminals are employed, and that unemployment is not a reliable indicator of criminal activity. The impact of the labour market on criminal conduct must also be examined. The general unemployment rate should be differentiated from the youth unemployment rate. Understanding the distinction between job opportunities and employment is also critical. Previous research on the link between labour markets and crime mostly concentrated on the labour market–crime relationship, yielding inconclusive results (20).

Furthermore, the educational level gained, and the social and economic background of an individual seem inextricably linked to crime. Criminals are under-educated and come from lower socioeconomic origins compared to non-criminals (21). As a result, recognizing low education as a factor of delinquent behaviour will aid the development of productive and appropriate policies to raise educational and schooling levels to lower the crime rates (22). This topic is intertwined with other factors that influence and decide crime rates, such as age and socioeconomic inequality. Most contributions on the effect of education on crime emphasize that the improvement of talents and skills increases the number of people returning to the workforce and raises the opportunity costs of criminal behaviour (23). There are educational benefits that people do not consider (24).

From the findings of several studies, crime causes massive societal costs – including slow or stagnated community growth and development – as a negative externality (25); 26; (27). If crime is reduced by education, there may be significant social returns from education that individuals fail to consider. This way, the societal benefit of education may outweigh the personal benefit (28). This paper attempts to determine whether crime and delinquency are correlated to education (as a demographic variable). Given the high social implications of crime including slow socioeconomic growth in communities, even a slight

fall in crime connected with education could be economically significant (29). Economists suggest that the education combats crime in several ways: first, education reduces the probability of delinquent behaviour by raising the rewards from legal work (30). Second, education may have a direct influence on the financial and psychological motivation to commit a crime (31).

A recent research examined the relationship between education and criminal behaviour and suggests that education has a civilization effect on individuals implying that it reduces criminal behaviour (32). The value of education to the society and individuals – as far as earning potential is concerned – is a civic externality. Not only are people taught to follow the law and practise patriotism, but they are also taught to be productive. Education encourages good citizenship and does more than build skills that improve one's ability to earn money, it also emphasizes the ideals of hard work and honesty while upholding community standards (33). As a result, education has multiple applications in crime prevention. Education can increase skills and capacities, resulting in higher income, more work alternatives, and a civilization effect. In general, and especially among the youths, adequate and proper education plans may be highly advantageous in combatting and lowering crime.

On the issue of vulnerability, the vulnerability concept indicates that some people believe their physical or social disadvantage makes them more vulnerable to future victimization, regardless of their actual risk of victimization (34). There are two types of vulnerability examined in literature: demographic and social vulnerability (35); (36). Demographic vulnerability involves demographic characteristics that increase the vulnerability of a person to victimization. Gender and age are two of the most significant characteristics listed in this body of literature. Most women and aged people express intensified fear of crime, especially violent crime. They believe being a woman or aged makes them incapable to defend themselves during a physical assault. This suggests that those crimes committed are mostly, in this regard, committed by youths and the victims in most cases are the aged, children, and women. Social vulnerability generally involves social features that can make a person more vulnerable including demographic elements. The most influential features in the literature are race and employment status at the individual level (37). Minorities and citizens of the lower class feel their disadvantaged status raises their likelihood to become victims of crime. However, the literature on this area is limited (38).

Both demographic and social vulnerability should be investigated within a framework that considers the link between neighbourhood disorganization and fear of crime. In other words, neighbourhood

characteristics may increase the feeling of social vulnerability, which in turn may increase the fear of crime (39). Similarly, existing social vulnerabilities are likely to be influenced by neighbourhood disorder (36). Frimpong (40) support the assertion that there is a significant effect and as well a level of variation in the physical state of the neighbourhood on collective efficacy and the fear of crime, this was observed relevant across the different socio-economic zones. This shows that ensuring collective efficacy – which relies on local initiatives – is a step towards safer communities because it addresses criminogenic problems.

The focal point of re-examination of fear at the criminal level is thus, the emphasis on individual vulnerability within a background of community disorders. Instability, a lack of support in urban places, social disorganization and disorder might increase the vulnerability of urban inhabitants to possible victimization (41). Several works of literature extensively address both social and demographic vulnerability but have seldom evaluated these concepts as opposing perspectives, rather they concentrate and consider the fear of crime as the most important (42; 43; 44). Are these demographic vulnerabilities, social vulnerabilities, or a combination of both? Gender is undeniably important in determining criminal fear. The strongest indicator of fear is one's gender. It has been widely discussed in the literature that there are reasons why women dread crime more than men (34).

The idea of demographic vulnerability is one of the critical explanations concerning the gender – fear of crime relationship. In other words, women are more sensitive to physiological disorders because they fear they would be unable to protect themselves against an assault (45). This is to say that crime is – more often than not – probable to be perpetrated by males than females. Recent literature confirmed two similar hypotheses concerning women and fear of crime. The sexual assault theory is the first of them, suggesting that women are terrified of sexual crime and that this fear influences their fear of crime (46);47; 48). The second hypothesis is the concept of socialization, which assumes that women are afraid of criminal behaviour because they believe it is socialization that leads to victimization in public spaces.

Furthermore, although recent research show that older people are more fearful of crime than the youth, studies reflect a more intricate interaction between these variables (49;50;51). The connection between fear of crime and age is linear. That is to say that the fear of crime increases depending on the age of the individual. Implying that elderly people are more scared than people of youthful age because the

youth could easily flee from crime scenes (52). This also assumes that crimes are mostly committed by the young folks other than the aged. Sweeten (53) asserted that in later years, this decline is more prominent in women, which contributes to growing perceptions of criminality. As for the younger generation, Michalski (54) found that much younger children are more inclined to see themselves as possible victims and so, fearful of crime.

Recent research reinforced the "shadow" of powerlessness, that the physical size of young children is a critical determinant of fear, thus raising the fear of crime among minors (55). Another study found that younger adolescents have become more vulnerable to victimization even amongst other adolescents (56). The relationship between race and fear has seldom been explicitly researched. Researchers found that racial minorities happen to be more prone to being crime victims and express fear more than natives (57). However, more recently, the relationship between race and fear was found to rely on a varied range of other factors including age and gender (58;(59). People of the lower class, that is, those of the lower-income population are more inclined to criminal victimization because they are more vulnerable and cannot afford crime control and prevention devices such as security keyguards (60). Evidence has it that the fear of crime may be more significant in homeless communities and neighbourhoods with high disorders (61).

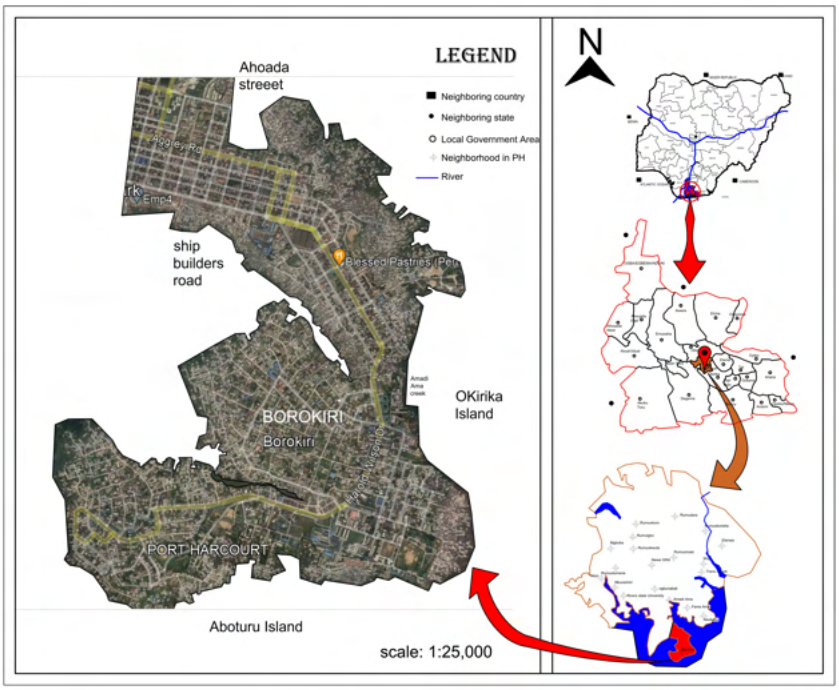
One of the key findings of a study on housing and crime reveals that burglary rates vary by residence, irrespective of housing type (62). A study was recently carried out, argues – based on the data drawn from several lower-income neighbourhoods – that the danger of burglary in semi-detached and detached houses is more significant than in terraced houses and flats (63). Similarly, another research highlighted that housing type is an essential element contributing to burglary risk: and that living in a detached house is more prone to burglary than living in a unit of apartments (64). In line with this evidence, there is the assertion that flats exhibit a lesser crime rate than other residential structures (63).

From further literature evidence, a study found that semi-detached buildings were less crime targets because adjourning units could sense and detect when intruders make attempts to or even enter neighbouring apartments (65). On the contrary, a study conducted in Iran suggests that burglary and other criminal tendencies are higher in the suburbs occupied by low densities than in structures of unit apartments and flats (66). A previous study found that semi-detached and detached housing units exhibit lower risk levels of criminal activities, particularly burglary (67). Nearly a decade later, another

research finding across Brazilian cities, showed a lower percentage rate of burglary victims among residents who occupy detached houses in contrast with those who occupy terrace housing, indicating a higher crime rate from burglary (68). This contradictory results from different works of literature may result from household characteristics, location, and socioeconomic characteristics. This presents that the relationship exhibited between housing type and crime is not explicitly conclusive in literature. Nonetheless, this research aims to investigate this variable – housing, as a sociodemographic determinant of crime – in the context of the Borokiri neighbourhood, to determine whether there is a correlation.

Methodology and data

The correlation between sociodemographic characteristics and crime in Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria, is investigated in this study. Several crimes, ranging from rape to assault, sexual harassment, physical victimisation, and property crimes have been committed in the city of Port Harcourt over the last two decades. Age, gender, employment, and socioeconomic disadvantages have all been identified as correlative factors to these crimes, culminating in feelings of anger and desolation. This study investigates these elements and how they affect crime rates in Port Harcourt, with a particular focus on the Borokiri neighbourhood of the city, which is particularly affected. This paper also investigates the influence of sociodemographic distributions on crime and the perception of vulnerability among the residents of Borokiri. In this study, the qualitative approach is employed to analyse data gathered from interviews based on the residents' experiences and perception of sociodemographic-caused crimes and victimizations. In-depth interviews were conducted using a semi-structured interview guide to collect data for this study.



Sixty-two (62) participants between the ages of 15 and 40 selected by the self-selection method promoted this research's success in obtaining in-depth ideas as it concerns the phenomenon under study. Also, the sampling technique this research adopted is the non-probability sampling method because this paper is qualitative research and due to difficulties getting respondents for this investigation. The stakeholders selected for the interviews include school heads, local vigilante leaders, leaders of youth associations, the police, religious instructors, officials from the local government, and heads of market women organizations. It is ethical that a semi-structured interview guide should include heterogeneous interview participants (69).

The observation checklist/guidelines were used to assess the participants' mode of conduct during the interviews. The interviews were conducted in an informal conversation tone and in a conducive environment. A digital recorder aided the capturing of the data obtained from interview sessions. Thereafter, the data was transcribed and translated carefully to ensure accuracy, especially in the parts that are in languages other than English. Related research from records and journals was gotten through the Web of Science and Scopus search engines.

This research was given ethical approval by the Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), University of the Witwatersrand, with protocol number H20/04/18, after undergoing an ethics course, participating in ethics tests, securing certification in ethics, submitting/rendering of ethics application form, review, ethics approval and progress report issuance. The respondents consented to participate in this research through an informed consent form. The ethical implications of this research were made known to the participants through a participants' data sheet. The contributions of the participants were acknowledged, and their identity classified. The respondents were free to quit participating in the research or neglect giving information they do not wish to. These were all included in the participants' information sheet. Fortunately, there were no casualties during the period of the interview, otherwise, the interviews would have been put on hold to continue later.

Dataset from the interviews were analysed using the thematic data analysis method. The process of the thematic analysis was to first familiarize with the data, by performing the transcription. This was done by going through the entire dataset from the interviews and as well taking notes. All information in the interview were transcribed as this is an exploratory study. In the preliminary stage, information was not limited as codes were thought out to better describe the contents of the interview. Codes were assigned based on the relationship between datasets. Because it is an exploratory analysis, the themes to be generated were dependent on the dataset available. After the coding process was completed, the next step was organizing the datasets into suitable categories. To give a broader interpretation and explanation of the datasets, the codes were grouped into themes that capture the overall meaning and implication of the datasets. The next step taken was to review themes, this is to ensure that data within a certain theme are coherent and there are clear and identifiable distinction between themes.

In addition, this step was critically addressed as it forms the foundation for further analysis, as there were challenges deciding which codes form themes. In the theme definition stage, some of the themes identified include disjuncture between expectation and achievement, negative emotions, and Vulnerability. The themes identified must be descriptive and engaging, these themes must be able to give a perfect description of the issue it revolves around (70). At this stage, this paper was able to perfectly describe the issues from the various themes highlighted in the dataset without ambiguity. Following the datasets from the interviews, the results and discussions of the findings of this research

are presented in the section below. The presentation and the discussion of the result was done to ensure clear description of the themes and direct quotations of the respondents.

Results and Discussions

The population of Port Harcourt, particularly the Borokiri suburb, is quite large, resulting to overcrowding. In the 2006 national population census, Port Harcourt ranked among the Nigeria's top five most populous cities, with a large population of low-income citizens living in row housing units of flats, especially in the Borokiri region, Old Port-Harcourt town, and the city's core area (71). Most residents in this area are self-employed and do not show signs of been officially employed. There are extremely few residents who work in artisan and peasant businesses like restaurants, taverns, and pubs. This implies that the high crime rates in Borokiri's neighbourhood may be partly attributed to the area's high unemployment rate. People/individuals whose earnings from peasant and minor businesses do not cover their daily needs, as well as those who have no employment at all, are more inclined to engaging in criminal activities to support their needs. According to a respondent, "the people who live here are predominantly self-employed, the few who are employed work at restaurants, bars, and beer parlours. And these people try not to engage in illegal activities but that does not solve the big problem of crime such as cultism and stealing in the neighbourhood."

Examining the comment of the respondent, it is possible crime could stem from the jobs the Borokiri residents do. For instance, crimes including illegal use of substance/drugs, drug trafficking, sexual harassment, assault, theft, murder, and rape are related to places such as drinking bars, pubs, restaurants, and clubs, and these are places where some of the Borokiri residents work. So, what happens in the advent of violent clashes between individuals at these places? What do individuals who work at such places do in such situations? The answer to these questions inevitably implies that crime is correlated to issues of employment. The vulnerability rate to criminal events is high in such crime-prone environments as those aforementioned.

In agreement with Gilchrist (72), socio-demographic forces operating in the social construct of urban settlements are factors affecting the crime rates in cities. Socio-demographic variables such as education, employment status, and peer groups significantly influence the level of crime and vulnerability in urban communities. These are evident factors in residential neighbourhoods of cities of the global south that

contribute to the vulnerability of urban centers to crime. According to an interview respondent, “the motivation to commit crime depends on the upbringing of an individual and it is not easy to change people, but the body of Christ is doing a lot to help prevent crime. One thing that instigates crime in this neighbourhood is poverty: sometimes, income level can make one commit a crime, especially among the youths.” Another respondent stated that “the youth are the major perpetrators of crime in this neighbourhood because of frustration, peer pressure, and bad friends.”

The crime rates in cities of the global south, particularly in Port Harcourt city, among the various sociodemographic elements, are influenced by poverty. Crime rates are effectively reduced when poverty is alleviated. While other demographic determinants of crime (including education and family background) are addressed, the neglect of poverty, as a factor of crime, will inevitably increase the crime rates. According to the general strain theory, the inability to achieve goals and the feeling of frustration incline an individual to criminal propensities. Residential neighbourhoods of cities of the global south experience extended periods of high crime rates because of poverty, as seen in the case of Port Harcourt city.

As crime continues to prevail in urban centres, residents begin to express fear of being victims. The fear of crime is inevitable in neighbourhoods with renowned criminal activities on the increase. Residents go about their livelihoods with fear of the unknown. Everyone is conscious of what is going to happen next. There is fear among residents that crime may happen at the slightest chance it gets. And as a result, residents of the neighbourhood suffer tremendous mental and psychological turbulence because of the fear of crime (73). Most of these residents are old and aged persons who might probably have health challenges coupled with the fear of crime: this enough to worsen their health problems. An interview respondent suggests that “people tend to adjust whenever they hear about crime. Although particular crimes happen in particular areas of the neighbourhood, crime is something that happens everywhere in this neighbourhood.”

Furthermore, from the comment above, although crime happens everywhere in the neighbourhood, some areas are heavily plagued with a particular crime. The respondent above suggests that crime is experienced everywhere in the neighbourhood. However, the inhabitants of the waterside area of the neighbourhood seem to be the most vulnerable in the whole of the neighbourhood. An interview session with a respondent in the waterside area showed that the most vulnerable are the waterside

residents. According to the respondent, the nature of the waterside area, as regards crime and vulnerability, the incompetence of the police would not allow them to patrol the waterside area. According to the waterside respondent, "the waterside is the hotspot where all manner of crimes is being perpetuated. The rich people, uniform men and normal average persons are always vulnerable to crime in this neighbourhood, and the Nigerian Police are not doing enough to combat crime." this supports the assertion of (74) that there is a disconnect between the police and the communities which have heightened the level of mistrust.

With regards to the respondent's comment above, the residents in the waterside area experience more crimes, hence the fear of crime. This is because, the waterside area of the neighbourhood has only one way in, and as a result, there is no escape route in the occurrence of crime. Residents in this area are associated with high rates of fear of crime than the actual crime. this paper suggests that vulnerability to crime may be correlated to coastal settlements. As a result, further research should be conducted to determine whether there is a correlation between coastal settlements and crime, especially as it concerns vulnerability and victimization studies in the global south.

Furthermore, women, children, and the aged people in residential neighbourhoods of cities of the global south are more vulnerable to crime in the neighbourhood. While youths can protect themselves upon the occurrence of crime, the aged persons and children become victims of crime. In the global south, adolescent girls are often vulnerable to rape and sexual harassment. This research also found that school-age children are as well vulnerable to kidnapping and abduction. According to a respondent, "this place is a waterline area, and most of the crimes committed are kidnapping and raping of school children, especially female students."

This implies that crime vulnerability, especially in the neighbourhood is linked to settlement pattern/type. As highlighted by the respondent above, the crimes committed in the waterside area of the Borokiri neighbourhood kidnapping and rape. In agreement with Callanan (75), the male gender are often the promoters of social vices, especially in the global south. This point is highlighted by one of the respondents that "environmental crime is done by teenagers and youth between the ages of 16 – 40 years, especially the male gender."

This research also found that prostitution and a surge in nightlife increases the risk of crime and vulnerability cities of the global south. The crime rate during nightlife increases because it is a trap for

residents and visitors (especially those who do not belong to any anti-social groups) who would want to involve in it. Visitors or strangers who do not belong to any of the anti-social groups are easily identified, harassed, and robbed of their belongings, in severe cases harmed or even murdered. The issue is more aggravated as the security measures (vigilante groups) taken to control crime related to nightlife rather promote more crimes. Several respondents stated that there are no functional vigilante groups, and even if there were, they are part of the problem of crime in the neighbourhood as they abet in these crimes too. According to one of the respondents, "I am not in support of the community vigilante group for crime control, knowing that some belong to cult groups and may use that as an avenue to witch-hunt their rivals."

In agreement with Canter (27), crime, especially in the global south, has eaten deep into all spheres of life. Residential neighbourhoods of cities of the global south, particularly Port Harcourt city are not safe, but some residents who have acclimatized to the flow of events in the neighbourhood do not see it as unsafe but as a normal way of life. According to the respondent, "I have lived in this area for a long time and do not see a reason to leave. This neighbourhood is only safe for those who understand the terrain." However, the comfortable feeling of some residents in crime-plagued neighbourhoods is quite concerning. There is a high probability that they abet in these crimes as well, and this will continue to increase the risk of crime and vulnerability in the neighbourhood.

This research also found that crime in neighbourhoods of the global south is now a way of life, from cultism activities to prostitution, hard drugs, illicit substances, and vandalism of oil pipelines. As a result, crime continues to increase, leaving the neighbourhood in restiveness, chaos, disorganization, and fear. During the daytime, residents go around the neighbourhood except for certain areas which are dens of cultism and bunkery sites, except you are one of them. At night, residents do not move around unless they belong to any of the cult groups, because the victimization and vulnerability rate are high at night. This shows a relationship between neighbourhood characteristics and vulnerability to criminogenic events.

Moreso, the rate of vulnerability is very much high in aged and young people than in youths. As a result, the fear of being a potential victim to crime perpetrators is high in old and aged people as well as in young children than in youths. This is in agreement with the argument of Hirschi (52) that the connection between age and fear of crime is linear, meaning that young people and elderly people are

more scared than people of youthful age because they could easily flee from crime scenes.

Crime may be influenced by the type of housing occupied by individuals in a neighbourhood. The importance of housing in providing residents with a sense of security in residential neighbourhoods cannot be overstated. The orientation and design of a property in a residential neighbourhood might impact its vulnerability to crime. This comprises the property type (detached, semi-detached, terraced, or multi-occupancy), the alignment of the property (whether the entrance door is facing the street), and the property's location in a development situation (whether it is given a distance off the street, overlooked by neighbours, and/or located at a corner plot). Interviews with respondents show that housing type, design and orientation affect crime and vulnerability crime. The respondent asserts that "I live in a building I am not assured of my safety. Looking at the house I live in alone inspires fear of being a crime victim. The houses in my area expose us to crime, especially assault."

People who live in high-rise buildings are less likely to know their neighbours and, as a result, are more afraid of going around their neighbourhoods at night than those who reside in single-family detached houses (76). This is because there is fear of the personality of the people residing in the same building as them. They don't associate with next-door residents; they are very security and safety conscious with little or no knowledge about the environment where they reside. They, as a result, exhibit signs of vulnerability and high crime perception. This agrees with the assertion of the general strain theory that perceived threats in the neighbourhood influence the probability of crime, hence the fear of crime. However, the situation is more grievous in the Borokiri neighbourhood of Port Harcourt city. Possible crimes associated with this housing type include kidnapping, armed robbery, burglary, and homicide. According to an interview respondent, "I lived with intentional carefulness in the high-rise apartment I occupied before I relocated. The event that led to my relocation was a case where a man was murdered in the same building I occupied. During the investigation, it was found that the culprit was a next-door-neighbour. It put me in intense panic and fear of becoming a victim."

This research also found that neighbourhood crimes are linked to housing types such as multi-occupancy housing. A multi-occupancy house is a residential property that is occupied by more than one family. They share facilities such as a bathroom and a kitchen. Multi-occupancy buildings have the propensity of instilling fear of crime in vulnerable and crime-perceptive individuals. People settle for multi-occupancy buildings because of their economic status, especially people living in poverty. Because

resources and utilities are shared between occupants of this housing type, there may be a possibility of victimization and crime, especially violent crime. Crimes associated with such housing types include physical assault, rape, theft, vandalism, and burglary. According to a respondent, "I believe crime in this neighbourhood can be curbed and further occurrences prevented. But this can only be realized if crimes in the residential buildings are checked. Most of us don't go out at night again. However, even in our houses, we experience crime. The other night, a lady was raped in her house by a next-door neighbour. Just last week, my son was brutally assaulted by a neighbour just because he spent too much time in the bathroom we share according to the culprit."

From the comments of the respondent above, residential neighbourhoods of cities of the global south, especially Port Harcourt city are faced with remarkable in-neighbourhood crimes. That is to say that crimes are committed in residential buildings of urban centres. Consequently, the fear of crime constantly increases, raising the rate of security consciousness amongst residents. The orientation and design of neighbourhood buildings in the global south crime in the area. Particularly in the study area, most of the buildings have their doors facing the streets. In the waterside areas of the neighbourhood, the houses there are mostly makeshifts and dilapidated buildings. And these buildings are occupied by people. As a result, the inhabitants of such houses become vulnerable to crime.

Figure 2: Depicting residential houses vulnerable to crime



Map of Borokiri



Closely packed makeshift buildings



Dilapidated building



Dilapidated structure

This research suggests that there is a link between residential housing type and crime. This is because an in-depth observation and examination of the housing type and orientation of the buildings in figure 4.1 above, about the analysis and prediction of safety/security, inspire (instinctively) the fear of crime

in any individual who is security conscious/perceptive. Lonley neighbourhoods like this during the day, could be fear-instigating at night. This thought alone is capable of instigating greater fear of crime in security-sensitive persons.

Conclusion and recommendations

This study looked into the contributions and effects of sociodemographic factors on crime, particularly in residential neighbourhoods of cities of the global south. Based on the assumptions of the general strain theory, it investigated the extent to which socio-demographic elements influence the decision and propensity of an individual to engage in delinquent and aberrant social behaviours. More specifically, the city of Port Harcourt has been linked with high crime rates for decades, with devastating consequences spread across its residential neighbourhoods, especially the Borokiri neighbourhood. Furthermore, crime is a global issue that is relative to several communities and societies. However, crime is unevenly distributed, meaning that certain areas may have higher rates of crime than others. The situation in the global south is rather aggravated: crime rates are rising daily, with little or no effective means of curbing and containing it.

Following the assertion of the general strain theory, this research found that the crimes in residential neighbourhoods of cities of the global south, particularly Port Harcourt city are related to the neighbourhood characteristics, especially neighbourhood sociodemographic characteristics. However, the crimes in the neighbourhood under study, have gone beyond the assumptions of the general strain theory. The situation, currently in the global south is grievous. This is because, whereas the general strain theory suggests that crime is inspired by factors including the inability to achieve a goal, the disjunction of relationships (perhaps due to the death of a parent), and the presence of negative factors (perhaps educational problems), the situation of crime exceeds these assumptions. This is because, even the well-to-do individuals in the neighbourhood commit crimes too, thus contradicting the general strain theory.

However, these crimes can be curbed and contained. Scientific data from studies (77; (78) suggest that focusing on hotspots and potential offenders can help prevent and contain crimes. However, other measures must also be implemented such as urban renewal and upgrading, better urban planning, and

situational prevention, particularly early juvenile intervention. If the goal is to reduce crime and promote growth and development, programs should be located in high-crime regions and targeted at the population/group most likely to commit violent crimes, typically young males aged 14 to 39. In addition, the risk factors (especially poverty and unemployment) that lead these young men to involve in criminal activity must also be identified and accompanied by a treatment strategy that includes the family and the community. There are numerous interventions aimed at promoting women's rights, these are admirable qualities. However, the vast majority of the violent crimes and as suggested by respondents have been between men. Urgent attention needs to be drawn to addressing this. The impact of crime against women is a significant concern for worldwide society.

In addition, when the male drivers of crime are taken care of, the female victims of crimes are reduced. The male and female aspects of violence are intertwined. Rather than concentrating on one aspect, we need to look at these issues holistically. According to Mejia (79) crime is determined by accumulating risk variables rather than single risk factor. Most local experiences and initiatives focus on interpersonal components of violence. People lose trust in their security forces and governments when illicit or transnational crime co-opts state forces. As a result, they focus on private and personal security, stopping them from using public spaces. So, the goal is to strike a balance and incorporate rehabilitation and reintegration policies and funds into security plans, rather than creating a system focused solely on repression or prevention.

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EXAMINERS REPORT AND COMMENDATION.

CHRIS ONYENEKE (Ph D): INTERNAL EXAMINER REPORT

The candidate has shown that he/she understands the nature and purpose of the investigations. The methods section is quite well tackled. On p. 11, it is stated that: The first contact person was the Police Area Commander of the Port- Harcourt Metropolis. From that point, other participants were contacted. It appears that there was also some snowball sampling, besides self-selection. If this is the case, this should be mentioned at this stage. The Research Philosophy section is well tackled. There is a good discussion and integration of the literature, the material from the respondents, and the author's own insights. p.222: The outcome of this research will be helpful in the planning process for the development of cities in the Global South, especially African cities. Agreed, but a) it is not only about the planning process, but b) the overall planning endeavour. (Obviously this is not the place for an extended discussion of a) and b) above, but some planning- specific thoughts and insights would be useful moving beyond the theoretical notions posited here. p.2 Nigeria has risen to the top of world crime statistics (Ghani, 2017). This implies the very/actual top, but all the stats. subsequently provided indicate that Nigeria is amongst the top, not actually at the top.

This is a thorough, and generally well – argued piece of work, completed under difficult circumstances

Well done!

1ST EXTERNAL EXAMINERS REPORT

Student Name: Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke

Thesis title: Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighbourhoods in Cities of the Global South-Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria.

Date 29/08/2022

Christopher Onyeneke's doctoral thesis covers the varied histories and contemporary challenges of crime in the southern hemisphere using a Nigerian residential neighbourhood as its case study. It attempts to strike a balance between academic rigour and an evidence-based narrative approach that may appeal to practitioners and a non-academic audience. Dates, facts, and analysis are combined with the students experience to convey this important account in a manner that few doctoral projects typically achieve.

The thesis is unique in that it examines the nexus between crime and three interconnected topics (social change, social control and the socio-economic environment) in cities of the Global South. The majority of empirical research studies on urban crime agree that crime tends to be spatially concentrated. Furthermore, empirical research reveals that elements of the social and built environments often correspond with the distribution of crimes. Previous studies aimed to comprehend how the local environment affects crime and to offer theoretical justifications for the processes that result in it. This student's research is distinctive in that the student examines various social developments in urban centres that have contributed to crime and identifies the most important elements that affect chances to commit crime. The degree of each component's impact on crime seems to have been examined separately and compared.

Cities in developing countries contribute to economic progress, which is frequently supported by better access to employment, products, and services, particularly for the poor in emerging nations. Nigeria is situated at the top of the escalator of nations that are quickly urbanising, therefore the majority of Nigerian cities are hubs of social, political, and economic power. Cities are often seen as the final bastion of consistency in emerging nations like Nigeria, a kind of enclave where residents try to avoid giving in; a location where there is still a guarantee of diversity and where tradition is fostered.

The student's thesis correctly acknowledges that Nigerian cities are hotspots for crime and violence because of the attention they attract. In addition, the fact that a lot of Nigerian cities have both unchecked rapid expansion and deteriorating public infrastructure means that risk factors can build up

and heighten the likelihood of urban crime. However, the crucial fact that chaotic expansion alters power dynamics in Nigerian urban centres was not addressed in this thesis. This point needs to be emphasised given that power dynamics within urban residential neighbourhoods opens up new social and economic avenues which have the potential to lead to conflict and criminality.

In general, the student provides a strong conceptual foundation for this work deftly handling important notions. Given the constraints imposed by the COVID-19 pandemic, the methodology could have been stronger drawing on a range of mixed-method research practices. For instance, the constraints imposed by the pandemic offered the student the opportunity to experiment new ways to adapt and combine critical analysis of secondary sources, archival materials, time series analyses, comparative methods across periods and space, and counterfactual analysis alongside the methodological approach deployed by the student.

After comprehensively reading through the thesis, there is no assumption that I strongly disagree with. In terms of creativity, relevance and rigour, this thesis has the potential to rank among the more comprehensive and most balanced accounts about the role played by social change on crime in vulnerable residential neighbourhoods in Africa. The student pays close attention to the smallest details. The overall quality of the work is improved by the diversity of topics covered. Furthermore, the student appears to recognise that new information and understanding might arrive in a number of forms and through different channels, which demonstrates that he is an imaginative and cautious writer.

2ND EXTERNAL EXAMINER REPORTS AND COMMENTS

I have read Christopher Onyeneke' dissertation. Onyenke demonstrated a knowledge and proficiency in his methods of research, primarily semi-structured interviews with key informants, participant observation, and on-site visits. This study that focuses on an informal settlement in Port Harcourt represents original research. Onyeneke has conducted original research and contributed to the advancement of knowledge.There are places where the author might consider eliminating clumsy sentences and perhaps dealing with redundant sections in Chapter Six and Seven. But this is not a requirement for successful completion and submission of the thesis. I have had no contact with Christopher Onyeneke.

Christopher Onyeneke has tackled a huge problem in understanding cities. In general, I would say that he has cast his net a little too widely for my liking. But he does demonstrate that he is not afraid to think big thoughts. The candidate begins the abstract with a question regarding the "eradication" of crime. We all know that is impossible. Why not just say: "reduce" crime? The triangular focus – deviance social control [social bonds], conformity – frames the dissertation (p. 1). This formula owes a great deal to Emile Durkheim. The reference to "social disorganization theory" (p. 7) is also drawn from conventional literatures from a long time ago. There is much more to say on "broken windows" (p. 8).

In Chapter Three, I am not convinced where religious- based violence fits into the focus on crime (p. 70). I understand why Onyeneke goes into the question of self-control prompted by religious commitment as a means of preventing crime (pp. 76ff). To conclude the Chapter – "Consequently, this leads to the conclusion that crime is a complicated phenomenon influenced by several socioeconomic factors, and that to establish and execute constructive and intensive crime-reduction initiatives, the linkages between them and crime must be comprehended" (p. 89) – is not particularly profound This claim is the result of abroad review of the literature, and not of the research per se.

In Chapter Four, Onyeneke claims: "this study concentrates on the sociological aspect of crime" (p. 91). Perhaps something, but this observation is a bit abstract. Onyeneke seems to have taken every broad concept related to crime and written something on it. His command of the literature is impressive. In Chapter Five, Onyeneke goes over research design and research techniques. The section on semi-structured interviews and participant observation is good. This is important. But section on research ethics can be eliminated. What is clear in the last part of this chapter is that Onyeneke is really taking his study seriously, telling us coding and so on. This demonstrates a degree of commitment and attention to detail.

Chapter Six provides a useful panoramic view of different cities in Nigeria. Chapter Seven is the strongest chapter in the dissertation. Onyeneke takes us on a

tour of Borokiri neighborhood in Port Harcourt. One gets a real sense of social life in this area. He uses evidence (the responses of those he interviewed) more as anecdotes than anything else. This is actually fine. Bringing in an assessment of the physical attributes (pp. 155ff) is very important to understanding crime and its victims. Taking a phenomenological approach allows Onyeneke to provide a finely grained picture of how residents feel. Looking at vigilantes offers a useful window in understanding the lack of public policing and how extra-legal violence part-and-parcel of everyday life in informal settlements like Borokiri is. The last part of Chapter Seven is somewhat clunky: a summary on page 185, followed by short sections that seem more as "reports" than dissertation analysis.

Chapter Eight returns to the big picture. This Chapter reads more like a planning policy document than a social science dissertation. That is fine, really. The Conclusion (pp. 210-211) is cast at such a high level of abstraction, the chapter Nine seems to cover ground already covered in previous chapters.Christopher Onyeneke has surveyed a great mass of literature (over 50 pages of citations). In the literature review chapter [chapter Two], Onyeneke goes out of the way to bring in all sorts of literatures. He does a masterful job reviewing the literature with regard to various theories of crime, managing risk, and social control. In Chapter Seven, the focus on security measure to prevent crime is good. "Crime prevention through environmental design" is a theme in the literature and Onyeneke picks up this thread. Statements like: "no wonder Karl Marx recognises [religion] as the 'opiate of the people'" (p. 187) is not necessary.

Onyeneke has a grasp of what he has to do with semi-structured interviews and participant observation. This work is a sort of "traveling ethnography" where the author moves through the spaces of the informal settlement, teasing out differences in physical attributes This is good. Onyeneke relies upon semi-structured interviews and participant observation for the empirical part of his study. The empirical findings in this study are certainly what one would expect. Onyeneke does as well as anyone in assessing the significance of these findings. Again, what he finds is pretty much what one would expect to find. This is a respected and respectable approach.

The Chapters are well organized. This project covers a tremendous amount of ground. Conceptually, Onyeneke roams far and wide over very different and sometimes difficult literatures. His critical assessment of the literature provides a framework to conduct the empirical part of the study. The area covered by the research is two-fold: first, a general review and critical examination of the relevant literature on crime-social control, covering all relevant theoretical approaches; and, a concrete investigation of crime in Port Harcourt. The strength of the dissertation is it vast review of the literature.

EXAMINERS REPORT QUESTIONS AND RESPONSE

CHRISTOPHER CHIMAOBI ONYENEKE Ph.D THESIS

1. Internal Examiner

SN	Comments	Response
1.	The main research question could be rephrased, it is a bit unclear (section 1.7 is much clearer)	The main research question has been rephrased for more clarity considering section 1.7 see page.5
2	The main research question seems to deal with the global south in general, there is no mention of the actual case study here	The research takes a broad view of issues of crime in cities of the south and Port Harcourt city Nigeria was only an example of the global problem in the southern hemisphere.
3.	Is Why really the correct phrasing in the sub question	According the Whetten (1989) and Saunder et al. (2016) "what" and "how" are descriptive, it is "why" that explain the relationship.
4.	There is little to nothing regarding the authors positionality	The author positionality has been added to the work as seen in section 1.6, page 11 last paragraph.
5.	Be careful of generalization, in page 21, 22 and 92.	The issues raise on most, major cities, good are all address and better clarification given, see page 21, 22, and 92 for changes.
6.	Many figures are constructed by the author but base on which source.	This issue has been clarified in all maps and figure on the text.
7.	What is a cult?	Anti-social group that is defined by its unusual religious, spiritual, or philosophical believes. See page 140
8.	Quite a few statements are unclear and ambiguous.	These were pointed at in the annotated copy, and they are all addresses, see the final copy for clarification.
9.	A discussion of case study is missing from the method section	It has been added, see pg 123 section 5.2.3
10.	Phenomenology is more of a research philosophy than a research strategy.	This has been validated, the research philosophy is pragmaticism with a strand of phenomenology and the research strategy is case study. See page 119, 120, 121 and 123.
11.	It appears there was some snow-balling beside the use of self-selection.	This has been incorporated see page 10, 122, and 127.
12	p.132, however this is not evident in this research…. This sentence needs to be rephrased	The sentence has been rephrased see page 132.

13.	Reduce generalism, spellings, vague statements and elaborate were necessary page 2, 150,159 122, 145, 217 and 222	This has been taken care of, as they were all highlighted on the annotated copy.
14.	Contradictory Statements in page 223	See changes on Pg 223.
15	The abstract is rather method intensive.	This has been clarified and the first two sentences corrected.
16.	Some editing issues	This has been taken care of, as they were all highlighted on the annotated copy.
17	Map and figures should be legible, clearer copy attached.	More legible copy of picture and figure has been added, in conversion from word to pdf some of the maps became blurred, the best version of the map and figure has been attached.
18	The referencing needs to be looked at again, few elementary errors in date, author names, page no, and place of publication should be reformatted.	All referencing issues has been taken care of in the final document.

1st External Examiner Report

s/n	Comments	Response
1.	There are places where the author might consider eliminating clumsy sentences and perhaps dealing with redundant sections in Chapter Six and Seven.	All clumsy and redundant sentences have been removed in chapter 6 and 7.
2.	The candidate begins the abstract with a question regarding the "eradication" of crime. We all know that is impossible. Why not just say: "reduce" crime?	This has been corrected to reduce crime, in the abstract and the body of the thesis.
3.	The Conclusion to Chapter Two is fairly routine (p. 57). Onyeneke does not lay out his argument sufficiently here.	This has been addressed see pg 57
4.	In Chapter Four, Onyeneke claims: "this study concentrates on the sociological aspect of crime" (p. 91). This is not particularly profound. What do "negative emotions" have to do with crime (p. 107). Perhaps something, but this observation is a bit abstract	Emotions are natural and psychological dispositions of an individual that happen within the body (Ford et al., 2018). They are feelings that negate every iota of happiness and consequently, result in bitter hatred and spiteful behaviour towards others as it impedes an individual's confidence and self-esteem. They prevent an individual from engaging in rational and prosocial behaviour and instead promote violence, increasing the likelihood of crime and delinquency (Geng et al., 2020). Anger as a negative emotion poses a significant risk of violence and delinquency. See pg 107
5.	In Chapter Five, Onyeneke goes over research design and research techniques. The section on research philosophy (pp. 116ff) is irrelevant. It is not necessary here. In fact, much of this chapter is unnecessary. We do not need to know in detail, for example, that his choice of theory development is induction	This section help to critically explain the reason behind the study, reader interested in this line of research will understand cleared the philosophy behind the study and know the reason why the basic steps were taken.
6.	That is fine, really. Sentences like "[crime] has never brought good to any society it plagues" (p.	These have been addressed, see page 210 and 227

	210), and "The impact of crime on the various endeavours of society is quite enormous" (p. 227) are not helpful.	
7.	In Chapter Six, it is way too broad to write about "selecting a typical study area for the study of crime in the global South."	This has been adjusted to "Contextual consideration for urban crim research".
8.	Statements like: "no wonder Karl Marx recognises [religion] as the 'opiate of the people'" (p. 187) is not necessary.	The sentence has been rephrased see pg.188.

2nd External Examiners comments

s/n	Comments	Response
1.	There is a suggestion in the abstract that higher levels of insecurity implies that urban residents are more vulnerable. Insecurity and vulnerability are two different concepts and higher levels of insecurity does not automatically translate into greater vulnerability. The student could revisit the abstract to clarify this point.	This has been addressed, see the first 2 sentences in the abstract pg.iii
2.	The statement of the research problem and the rationale for the study is very generic and somewhat disconnected from the study area. The student needs to demonstrate that the problem studied exists in the study area. No literature is cited in this section of the thesis highlighting the scale of the problem in the study area.	This has been addressed, see statement of the research problem/rationale for the study pg. 3 and 4, paragraph 4 captured the situation in the study area and relevant citation added.
3.	I have significant concerns about the title of chapter two. It is described as a systematic review. However, I am not convinced that the chapter presented satisfies the requirements and minimum expectations of a systematic review. For instance, there is no indication that a review protocol has been produced. What was the search strategy? How were studies selected? What are the inclusion and exclusion criteria? What was the data extraction procedure? What was the data synthesis procedure? The student needs to address all these questions and present the chapter as a proper systematic review if indeed it is.	This caption has been corrected, it was an over statement, the new caption is "Review of Selected Literatures on physical, socio-demographic and socio-economic factors that influences crime in cities". See page 18.
4.	The student introduces the concept of social crime in Chapter 2 but does not really define or	Social crime is a conscious challenge to a prevailing social order and its values. See pg 26

	describe it. Could the student explain what they mean by social crime?	
5.	In Section 2.3.2, the student writes as follows: "Research suggests that about 25% of the population in Western countries have been crime victims – at least once (H. Goudriaan et al., 2006)". Can more recent evidence be used here. Furthermore, the student needs to cite the work appropriately without the initials of the author.	This has been addressed in 2.3.1, more references brough to back up the assertion, and further statistics to elaborate on the sentence. Citations corrected.
6.	Picture 2.6 – A clearer image is required here. Currently, it is impossible to judge if the image used reflects the caption described.	Better picture attached; image quality dropped when converted to pdf.
7.	The student makes the point that there is the notion that green places protect criminals, this point requires further critical elaboration.	This is one of the issues raised, for future research studies in chapter 9. 9.6 see pg 226.
8.	Some within-text citations need to be corrected – they include author initials. The student should comb through the thesis to make necessary corrections.	All citations have been corrected. Author initials removed from those that it appeared.
9	The discussion around race and crime seems to have been lumped with ethnicity and the criminal justice system in the United States. I'd like the student to separately clarify the nexus between race and crime and the links between ethnicity and crime.	This has been clarified, the issue of race is very minimal in the study area, so it was replaced with ethnicity.
10	I disagree with the claim that there is no empirical data about the numerical strength and geographical dispersion of Nigeria's religious population. Reliable estimates and geographical patterns can be derived from surveys like the DHS and GHS-Panel Surveys	See page 67, last paragraph the panel survey contributions have been added, I recognised the DHS and GHS are the best estimates available and are taken, and the statement rephrased to meet the current realities.

11.	Picture 3.3 – I don't think a picture is really required to illustrate a quote. It can be expunged.	Picture expunged and added to the succeeding paragraph. See pg 68 and 69.
12.	Theoretical interrogation is robust. However, the student should critically discuss the extent to which these theories are relevant to contexts outside where they were developed. Given that these are more or less Euro-American theories, to what extent are they applicable or adaptable to African cities?	This has been addressed as more issues added to ensure more reality with the existing situation in cities of the south. See pg 94, 97, and 99.
13	Disorderly growth transforms power relationships within Nigerian urban centres. This in turn activates new social and economic pathways which can trigger crime and violence. This thesis does not capture the influence of power relations on crime within urban residential neighbourhoods. The student should shed a little more light on this.	The issue of the power structure and transformation in urban centres was discussed across the thesis, see page 26, 71, and 208, this issue could also be considered for future studies for a more in-depth investigation.

APPENDIX I

Informed Consent Form (Residents)



Title of Project

Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighbourhood of Cities of the Global South-Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria.

Name of Researcher

Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke

Email: 2244740@students.wits.ac.za Tel: +2348063834100, +27745854873

Name of Supervisor

Prof. Aly H. Karam

Email: aly.karam@wits.ac.za Tel: +27117177707, +27722880092

I, ……..., agree to participate in this research project. The research has been explained to me, and I understand what my participation will involve. I agree to the following:

(Please circle the relevant options below).

I agree that my participation will remain anonymous	YES	NO
I agree that the researcher may use anonymous quotes in his research thesis	YES	NO
I agree that the interview may be audio recorded	YES	NO

I agree that the information I provide may be used anonymously after this project has ended, for academic purposes by other researchers, subject to their own ethics clearance being obtained.	YES	NO

…… (signature)

…… (date)

…… (signature)

…… (name of the person seeking consent)

…… (date)

The form should be in duplicate.

Appendix II

Informed Consent Form (Experts)

Title of Project

Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighbourhood of Cities of the Global South-Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria.

Name of Researcher

Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke

Email: 2244740@students.wits.ac.za Tel: +2348063834100, +27745854873

Name of Supervisor

Prof. Aly H. Karam

Email: aly.karam@wits.ac.za Tel: +27117177707, +27722880092

I, ……..., agree to participate in this research project. The research has been explained to me, and I understand what my participation will involve. I agree to the following:

(Please circle the relevant options below).

I agree that my participation will remain anonymous	YES	NO
I agree that the researcher may use anonymous quotes in his research thesis	YES	NO
I agree that the interview may be audio recorded	YES	NO

I agree that the information I provide may be used anonymously after this project has ended, for academic purposes by other researchers, subject to their own ethics clearance being obtained.	YES	NO

…… (signature)

…… (date)

…… (signature)

…… (name of the person seeking consent)

…… (date)

The form should be in duplicate.

Appendix III

Participant Information Sheet (Expert)

Dear Sir/Madam. 15th June 2020

My name is Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke, and I am a Ph.D. student in Urban and Regional Planning, School of Architecture and Planning, at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa. As part of my studies, I have to undertake a research project, and I am investigating on **Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighbourhood of Global South-Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria** under the supervision of Professor Aly H.Karam. This research project aims to find out the influence of social change through residents' socio-economic status, demographics, and socio-cultural characteristics of the environment on crime in vulnerable areas of the study and the role each component plays on crime.

As part of this project, I would like to invite you to take part in an interview with a semi-structured interview guide. This activity will take around 30- 45 minutes. With your permission, I would also like to record the Interview using a digital device for easy and accurate transcription of data. There will be no personal costs to you if you participate in this project, You will not receive any direct benefits from participation, but there are no disadvantages or penalties if you do not choose to participate or if you withdraw from the study. You may withdraw at any time or not answer any question if you do not want to. The Interview will be completely confidential and anonymous as I will not be asking for your name or any identifying information, and the information you give to me will be held securely and not disclosed to anyone else. The Interview will be audio-recorded and stored carefully in a password protected device for a maximum of 4 years after then will be delete/destroyed. If you experience any distress or discomfort at any point in this process, we will stop the Interview or resume another time. If you need some support or counseling services following the Interview, these are available free of charge at Naphtali Physiotherapy and wellness clinic, N0. 10B Isaac Borough Street, Old G.R.A Port-Harcourt. The name of the counselor is Dr. Apollos Akomaka, and the contact details for the counseling service are +2348034037377

If you have any questions during or afterward about this research, feel free to contact me on the details listed below. This study will be written up as a research thesis which will be available online through the university library website. If you wish to receive a summary of this thesis, I will be happy to send it to you. The data collected from this research project will be stored in a password-protected digital electronic device and backed up in the cloud and will be kept for four years. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0)11 717 1408, email hrec-medical.researchoffice@wits.ac.za

Yours sincerely,

Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke

Researcher: Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke, 2244740@students.wits.ac.za, +2348063834100, +27745854873, Supervisor: Prof. Aly.H.Karam, aly.karam@wits.ac.za Tel: +27117177707, +27722880092

Appendix IV

Participant Information Sheet (Residents)

Dear Sir/Madam. 15th June 2020

My name is Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke, and I am a Ph.D. student in Urban and Regional Planning, School of Architecture and Planning, at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa. As part of my studies, I have to undertake a research project, and I am investigating on **Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighbourhood of Cities of the Global South-Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria.** under the supervision of Professor Aly H.Karam. This research project aims to find out the influence of social change through residents' socio-economic status, demographics, and socio-cultural characteristics of the environment on crime in vulnerable areas of the study and the role each component plays on crime.

As part of this project, I would like to invite you to take part in an interview with a semi-structured interview guide. This activity will take around 30- 45 minutes. With your permission, I would also like to record the Interview using a digital device for easy and accurate transcription of data. There will be no personal costs to you if you participate in this project, You will not receive any direct benefits from participation, but there are no disadvantages or penalties if you do not choose to participate or if you withdraw from the study. You may withdraw at any time or not answer any question if you do not want to. The Interview will be completely confidential and anonymous as I will not be asking for your name or any identifying information, and the information you give to me will be held securely and not disclosed to anyone else. The Interview will be audio-recorded and stored carefully in a password protected device for a maximum of 4 years after then will be delete/destroyed. If you experience any distress or discomfort at any point in this process, we will stop the Interview or resume another time. If you need some support or counseling services following the Interview, these are available free of charge at Naphtali Physiotherapy and wellness clinic, N0. 10B Isaac Borough Street, Old G.R.A Port-Harcourt. The name of the counselor is Dr. Apollos Akomaka, and the contact details for the counseling service are +2348034037377

If you have any questions during or afterward about this research, feel free to contact me on the details listed below. This study will be written up as a research thesis which will be available online through the university library website. If you wish to receive a summary of this thesis, I will be happy to send it to you. The data collected from this research project will be stored in a password-protected digital electronic device and backed up in the cloud and will be kept for four years. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0)11 717 1408, email hrec-medical.researchoffice@wits.ac.za

Yours sincerely,

Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke

Researcher: Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke 2244740@students.wits.ac.za, +2348063834100, +27745854873Supervisor: Prof. Aly.H.Karam, aly.karam@wits.ac.za Tel: +27117177707, +27722880092

Appendix V

Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke
School of Architecture and Planning
The University of the Witwatersrand,
Johannesburg, South Africa.
1st May 2020

The Chair,
Human Research Ethics Committee
Non-Medical,
University of the Witwatersrand,
Johannesburg, South Africa.

Dear Sir/Ma,

Response to the Reviewers Comments on Point-by-Point Basis to my Ethics Application

I Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke with student number 2244740, submitted my Research Ethics application on 18th March 2020 for the April 24th, 2020, meeting with application number HRECNM20-02-086

The application was reviewed by 3 reviewers and comments made, which are meant to be addressed. The comments centred on corrections to the Participant Information Sheet, Consent Form, and the online application form. I have addressed all comments of the Reviewers in a point by point basis, and the corrections has been verified by my supervisor Professor Aly.H.Karam.

I have corrected and resubmitted the online application and forwarded all corrected documents to Shaun.schoman@wits.a.za. Attached to this letter are the reviewer's comments and areas addressed in a table in point-by-point basis.

I look forward to a response from you.

Regards,

Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke
PhD Candidate, 2244740
School of Architecture and Planning
University of the Witwatersrand,
Johannesburg, South Africa.
2244740@students.wits.ac.za

	REVIEWERS COMMENTS	ADDRESS TO COMMENTS
1	**FIRST REVIEWER COMMENTS**	
A	**Comments for the applicant to address on the Ethics Application Form:**	
a (i).	5 – tick audio recording	Audio has been ticked on the online application.
a (ii).	8 – since interviews are to be conducted, anonymity cannot be guaranteed in data collection.	No has been clicked in section 8, as anonymity cannot be guaranteed in the data collected stage. But explained in the section below how it will be managed, as name of participants are not needed in the research.
a (iii).	Interview guide is structured like a questionnaire. They are not the same thing.	The interview guide has been restructured and two separate interview guides provided for the residents and experts.
B	**Comments for the applicant to address on the Participant Information Sheet (PIS):**	
b(i)	PIS: specify audio recording, plus storage and safeguarding of audio recordings.	Addressed in the Participant Information Sheet: The Interview will be audio recorded and stored carefully in a password protected device for a maximum of 4 years after then will be delete/destroyed.
C	**Reviewer's overall comments:**	
C(i).	Need to consider alternative options for data collection during COVID-19 that respect social distancing and limit contagion; Nigeria is currently in lockdown; not sure if it is feasible to conduct interviews online; methodology may have to be overhauled for this study; consider health and safety of participants and researcher.	Due to the Current COVID-19 pandemic, the first contact for Residents and experts (The King of the Community and the Police Area Commander) will be interviewed physically with a mask on, the required social distancing and interview recorded with a digital device. Base on the cultural setting the King cannot be shake or approached closely for a chat/ interview, same as the Police Area Commander for security reasons. The first contact person will identify the next person(s), their phone numbers collected, consent obtained verbally, and interview done on the telephone and recorded.

2	**SECOND REVIEWER'S COMMENTS:**	
A	**Comments for the applicant to address on the Ethics Application Form:**	
a(i)	In Section 3.6: change the word *implications* to *limitations* since this appears to be what is being referred to.	On the online form 3.6 Implications has been changed to limitations.
a(ii)	In Section 7.3, clarify why *if intending participants refuse to sign the informed consent,* they would be prepared to give *informal informed consent*?	If intending participants refuse to sign the informed consent. In Nigeria people usually are reluctant to sign anything for fear of implication and as well not so literate. The informal informed consent will be obtained verbally, and it will be recorded.
a(iii)	In Section 8, can anonymity be guaranteed throughout the data collection process?	No has been clicked in section 8, as anonymity cannot be guaranteed in the data collection stage. But explained in the section below how it will be managed as name of participants are not needed in the research.
a(iv)	In Section 9.2, indicate in the checkbox how data will be stored.	Stored in a password protected device has been clicked in the online form. Section 9.2
B	**Comments for the applicant to address on the Participant Information Sheet:**	
b(i)	Insert the date.	Date has inserted in the participant Information Sheet. 15th June 2020. Pending travel restriction lifted, if not the date could be adjusted for the proposed interview. **ADDRESS TO COMMENTS**
3.	**THIRD REVIEWER'S COMMENTS:**	
A	**Comments for the applicant to address on the Ethics Application Form:**	
a(i)	Section 1.3: you put no yet on Section 6.1 you say there will be experts. Please correct this.	Edited in the Online form to Yes, as experts will be interviewed.

a(ii)	Section 5: Please select audio recording.	Audio has been ticked on the online application.
a(iii)	Section 8: Please note that it may not be possible to anonymize expert, as they may be well known in the area	Yes, it will be difficult for experts. The name of the proposed participants (experts) is not needed in this research and will not be asked.
B	**Comments for the applicant to address on the Participant Information Sheet (PIS):**	
b(i)	Please create a separate PIS for each group of participants, labelled for both.	Two separate Participant Information sheet has been Produced, for all sets of proposed members of residents/Community members and for Experts.
C	**Comments for the applicant to address on the Consent Form:**	
c(i)	Please create a separate consent for each group of participants, labelled for both.	Two separate Informed Consent forms has been Produced, for all sets of proposed members of residents/Community members and for Experts.
D	**Methodological comments for the applicant to consider:**	
d(i)	How will you deal with the language barrier issue? Please translate your documents to suit the participants you might encounter.	The residents of Borokiri, Port-Harcourt City Nigeria speaks three main languages, English the only official language in Nigeria, Pidgin English and Ikwere. The researcher speaks all three languages fluently. A careful translation and explanation will be done for all questions to the proposed participants **ADDRESS TO COMMENTS**
4	**REVIEWER'S OVERALL COMMENTS:**	
(a)	Please adhere to research standard of Nigeria	The research standards in Nigeria will be strictly adhered to in this research.

		As the researcher has started on the right note in collecting permission letters from the authorities
(b)	The second permission letter's research topic is slightly different, is it just summarised?	Yes, it was summarised to the specific area of research interest.
(c)	Will both the experts and community member respond to the same Questions?	The interview guide has been restructured and two separate interview guides provided for the residents and experts.
5	**Does the reviewer believe that the applicant has adequately dealt with all the potential risks of this project?**	
	Applicant must ensure that he is safe at all times and not do research during risky times.	Yes, this research will be conducted in a very safe manner and data will not be collected during risky times, also in strict complains with the directives of the Government regarding the pandemic and security matters.

Appendix VI



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SECTION A

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☑ *Consent forms* □□□r eac□ di□□ere□t □a□ □□e □r□u□ a□d□□r i□□tru□e□t u□ed□.

☑ *Relevant permission letters* i□ re□uired □r□□ □e.□. c□□ □a□□□□ □R de□art□e□t□ □ati□□a□ aut□□ritie□ □uc□ a□ □□□er□□ e□t de□art□e□t□□etc.□□c□□□u□t t□e *Guidance on the Use of Permission Letters* d□cu□e□t.

SECTION B

1. Summary of risk categories of this research project

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Risk Category	Tick the appropriate box
□□ Ri□□	
Mi□i□a□ Ri□□	

□□□ Ri□□	✓
Mediu□ Ri□□	
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Applicants must have read the table of risk level category definitions on the final page of this document

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NB: The term 'vulnerable categories' includes, among others, children under 18, orphans, prisoners, persons with cognitive or communication disorders, people who are traumatised or currently in traumatic situations. Where necessary, include details of steps to be taken to facilitate data collection across language barriers (e.g. interpretation or translation). Vulnerable categories do not necessarily include poor or marginalised communities, older people, women, or people with disabilities (unless the nature of these participants results in diminished capacity to give informed consent).Please refer to the notes on vulnerability at the end of the risk table document.

2. Researcher's personal data

□□ur □a□i□□ □a□e□**ONYENEKE** □□ur □ir□t □a□e□**CHRISTOPHER**

Tit□e□**Mr**

□c□□□□**ARCHITECTURE AND PLANNING**

□acu□t□□**ENGINEERING AND THE BUILT ENVIRONMENT**

□□ur □tude□t□□ta□□□u□ber□**2244740**

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3. Research project

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Deconstructing the City: Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighbourhood of Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria.

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This research aims to explore the influence of social change through residents' socio-economic status, demographics, and socio-cultural characteristics of the environment on crime in vulnerable areas of the study and the role each component plays on crime.

Objectives

To determine the influence of resident's socio-economic and demographical characteristics on the vulnerability of urban residential neighbourhoods of Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria.

To ascertain the nature of social control on human activities and its influence on the vulnerability of residential neighbourhoods of Port-Harcourt city, Nigeria.

To examine the level of influence of each component of the socio-cultural environment weighs on crime in Port-Harcourt city, Nigeria..□ □u□ □ar□ □r ab□tract □□t□e re□earc□□

Recent research indicates that the most significant problems relating to crime in cities is the vulnerability of our socio- cultural environment. This study is on the determinants of social change on crime through urban social structural theories. The philosophical assumption behind this study is pragmatism, with scientific abductive reasoning for the approach to theory. The study will be a cross-sectional and the research strategy will be survey and ethnography. With the use of snowball sampling techniques, in-depth interviews will be held with selected representatives and also an ethnographical observation of the study area. The data analysis method is the thematic content analysis. Hence it is multi-method qualitative research. The research limitations are broad study area, limited sample size, and wrong interpretation of direct translation. This research will fill the existing gaps in the literature and demonstrate the most critical factor that influences crime.

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4. Formal permission

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Borokiri, Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria.

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	Hard copy questionnaires or diagnostic tests, etc.
	Online instruments (e.g. questionnaires, surveys)
✓	Individual interviews (e.g. structured, semi-structured, etc.)
	Personal communication (e.g. email or informal conversation with experts)
	Group interviews (e.g. seminar/discussion groups, focus groups, etc.)
✓	Ethnographic observation, participant observation, other informal descriptive, and/or interactive methods
	Community-based methods or techniques such as drama workshops, community theatre, training workshops, participant rural appraisal, rapid rural appraisal, etc. (you must specify in the box below)
	Research on/in therapeutic or counselling contexts
	Observation of public performance, and/or public behaviour observation
✓	Photography
	Video
✓	Audio recording (e.g. of interviews)
	Other research methods or techniques (you must specify in the box below)

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Humans will not be captured in the photographs if captured, the faces will be blurred to prevent recognition.. Who will the research participants be:

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Community Members and Experts

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Heads of households who must be 18 years and above. The sample size of the study is forty (40), Community members thirty-two (32) and experts eight (8).

7. How will informed consent be obtained?

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For Members of the Community, the Paramount ruler(King) will be the first contact person, from there I will be directed to other members of the community.

For expert, the Police Area Commander of the Port-Harcourt Metropolis will be the first contact person, from there I will be directed to other security experts within the study area.

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8. Protecting participant identities

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Definitions □ ***Confidentiality***□ t□at a□□ i□□r□ati□□ c□□□idered c□□ide□tia□ b□ t□e □artici□a□t □r re□earc□er □i□□□t be di□c□□ed t□ □t□er□. ***Anonymity throughout the data collection process****:* t□at □□u a□t□e re□earc□er □i□□□t be ab□ t□ ide□ti□□ t□e □artici□a□t. ***Anonymity in the resulting reports***□ t□at t□e □artici□a□t□ □a□ e□ide□ti□i□□ data □i□□□t be di□c□□ed a□d t□at a□□□□e readi□□ □□ur re□u□t□

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9. Protection of data during and after the research

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NB□ Ra□□□r u□□r□ce□□ed data□e□□eci□□ **where the identity or personal data of research participants is included, must be safeguarded** a□d □re□er□ed r□□ u□aut□□ri□ed acce□□. Data □a□ be de□tr□□ed a□ter u□e□ but **preservation in an archive or personal collection** □a□ a□□□ be a□□r□□riate□de□irab□e □r e□e□ e□□e□tia□. □□r i□□ta□ce□data□et□t□at c□□tai□ **historically important information** □r i□□r□ati□□ t□at re□ate□ t□ **national heritage** □u□t be □re□er□ed a□d □□□u□d be □□ced i□a □ub□ic arc□i□e □□ere □□□□ib□e a□d a□□r□□riate. □□data □□□u□d be □re□er□ed i□a □a□t□at **respects the nature of the original participants' consent**. I□□□u are u□□ure ab□ut t□e □r□cedure □□data □a□a□e□e□t a□d □t□ra□e□□□ea□e c□□tact t□e Data □er□ice□ □ibraria□.

10. Summary CV of applicant

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Bachelor's degree with Honours in Urban and Regional Planning (BURP) 2012.

Master of Science in Urban and Regional Planning 2018

Doctor of Philosophy in Urban and Regional Planning 2019 till date.

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Ethics Content Training at the School of Architecture and Planning, University of the Witwatersrand. 10th May 2019. Ethics Content Training by the Chair of Human (Non-medical) research, University of the Witwatersrand. 24th July 2019. Ethics Content Training by the Chair of Human (Non-medical) research, University of the Witwatersrand. 18th February 2020.

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- [ ] Hard copy questionnaires or diagnostic tests, etc.
- [ ] Online instruments (e.g. questionnaires, surveys)
- [x] Individual interviews (e.g. structured, semi-structured, etc.)
- [ ] Personal communication (e.g. email or informal conversation with experts)
- [ ] Group interviews (e.g. seminar/discussion groups, focus groups, etc.)
- [x] Ethnographic observation, participant observation, other informal descriptive, and/or interactive methods Community-based methods or techniques such as drama workshops, community theatre, raining workshops, participant rural appraisal, rapid rural appraisal, etc. (you must specify in the box below)
- [ ] Research on/in therapeutic or counselling contexts
- [ ] Observation of public performance, and/or public behaviour observation
- [x] Photography
- [ ] Video
- [ ] Audio recording (e.g. of interviews)
- [ ] Other research methods or techniques (you must specify in the box below)

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As a research field coordinator, in a TETfund attracted research project, for Obafemi Awolowo University, Nigeria.

Appendix VII

Interview Guide (Resident)

Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighbourhood of Cities of the Global South-Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria.

Aim of this research

The aim of this research project is to find out influence of social change through residents' socio-economic status, demographics, and socio-cultural characteristics of the environment on crime in vulnerable areas of the study and the role each component plays on crime.

A. Socio-economic characteristics of the respondent.

1. The minimum age for an adult according to the National Population Census 2006 is 18 years. Hope you are above this age limit?
2. What is the nature of the socioeconomic characteristics of residents of this community?

B. Perceptions of the causes of the crime that are in the area.

1. When we talk about crime what do you think about first?
2. Do you think there is crime in your neighbourhood?
3. If yes, what type of crime?
4. Who do you think is the most likely group to commit a crime?
5. What do you think is the leading cause of crimes?
6. In your opinion what motivates people to commit crime?

C. Perception of the crime in the area and the hotspots.

1. Do you think this neighbourhood is a safe place?
2. Do you go out at any time of the day or night?
3. Have you ever been mugged or robbed before in the area of your residence?

4. Do you think the crime rate of this neighbourhood has increased over time?
5. What are the potential crime hotspots?
6. Do you consider your area a high, medium, or low crime area?
7. Which group of individuals do you think are most vulnerable to crime?

D. Perceptions about deterrents to crime

1. Do you know any Social O rganization/ Non-Governmental Organization/Community Based Organization in the neighbourhood?

2. If yes, do you or any member of your household belong to a social group, which ones?
3. How does the group deal with people who disagree or act contrary to their opinion?
4. Do you think local authorities are doing enough to prevent crime?
5. What do you think should be done by the local authorities to manage the situation?

E. Perceptions on the role of police in curbing crime.

1. What do you think of the job the police in controlling crime?
2. What is the relevance of police patrol on crime?
3. How satisfied are you with the way the criminal justice system handles crime?
4. In general do you think crime are best dealt with by the police or the community residents?
5. Do you think that community organizations can deal with crime?

F. Perceptions on the role of religious and other organizations in curbing crime.

1. Which religious group is mostly dominant in this neighbourhood?
2. What are your views on attitude and religious belief and its relationship to crime?
3. What is your opinion on the efforts of religious bodies and other institutions in curbing crime?

G. Perceptions on the role of socio-cultural environment in curbing crime.

1. In your opinion what are things that influence people to committee crime?
2. In your opinion which age group is the most responsible for crime?
3. Do think age, sex, income, family size, have any significant relationship to crime?
4. In your opinion do the language and ethnic differences have a significant relationship on being a victim of a crime or create an opportunity to commit a crime?
5. Describe your perception of crime rate in Port-Harcourt City?

Appendix VIII

Interview Guide (Expert)

Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighbourhood of Cities of the Global South-Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria.

Aim of this research

The aim of this research project is to find out influence of social change through residents' socio-economic status, demographics, and socio-cultural characteristics of the environment on crime in vulnerable areas of the study and the role each component plays on crime.

A. Perceptions of the causes of the crime that are in the area.

1. When we talk about crime what do you think about first?
2. Do you think there is crime in your neighbourhood?
3. If yes, what type of crime?
4. Who do you think is the most likely group to commit a crime?
5. What do you think is the leading cause of crimes?
6. In your opinion what motivates people to commit crime?

B. Perception of the crime in the area and the hotspots.

1. Do you think the crime rate of this neighbourhood has increased over time?
2. What are the potential crime hotspots?
3. Which group of individuals do you think are most vulnerable to crime?
4. Do you think local authorities are doing enough to prevent crime?
5. What do you think should be done by the local authorities to manage the situation?

C. Perceptions on the role of police in curbing crime.

1. What do you think of the job the police in controlling crime?
2. What is the relevance of police patrol on crime?
3. What are the current challenges in controlling crime?

D. Perceptions on the role of socio-cultural environment in curbing crime.

1. In your opinion what are things that influence people to committee crime?
2. In your opinion which age group is the most responsible for crime?
3. Do think age, sex, income, family size, have any significant relationship to crime?
4. Describe your perception of crime rate in Port-Harcourt City?

Appendix IX

Observation Sheet

Candidates Name: Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke

School: University of the Witwatersrand.

Degree: PhD

Date: 24th May 2021

Research Title:

Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighbourhood of Cities of the Global South-Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria.

Aim of this research:

The aim of this research project is to find out influence of social change through residents' socio-economic status, demographics, and socio-cultural characteristics of the environment on crime in vulnerable areas of the study and the role each component plays on crime.

Behaviour	**Was the behaviour observed?**	**Comment**
Smile and make eye contact with the respondent		
Greet the proposed respondent in a friendly manner.		
Give the respondent undivided attention throughout the interview.		
Inform the respondent the aim of the research and the title.		
Seek his permission with the inform contect form and determine his research as regards the topic on crime.		

Ensure he is aware of the crime situation inn borokiri and has been an active member of the community.		
Determine his reaction as a result of the people around eye dropping, is facial expression and attitude towards to topic in question.		
Double explain or make clear grey areas in the research if they appear ambiguous to the research participant.		
Determine their reaction towards crime as a result of physical and environmental characteristics, while also put into consideration land use mix and deterioration of physical structures and infrastructure.		
Determine the research participant reaction towards issues of socioeconomic and demographic factors on crime.		
Determine the research participant reaction on the issue of breakdown of social control and social cultural activities on crime.		
Determine the reaction of respondent as it concern illegal business refining crude (Kpo fire) and illegal sales and use of hard drugs.		
Determine the reaction of the research participants on youth restiveness and cultism.		
Determine the reaction of the participant on ways to resolve the issues of crime within the community.		

Participant is finally thanks for their time spent on the research interview.		
Observe the current situation and understand the life style exhibited by the residents.		

Appendix X

Permission Letter 1

TELEGRAPHIC ADDRESS
ACPOL PORT HARCOURT

PHONE:

THE NIGERIA POLICE
METRO AREA COMMAND H/QTRS
BARRACKS ROAD
PORT HARCOURT
RIVERS STATE

Ref No:- CB:3380/RSAAH/AC/VOL.2/64

DATE:- 24TH January, 2020

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Grateful be informed that Mr. Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke is with University of the Witswatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa, he is currently carrying out research on Deconstructing the city Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighborhood of Port Harcourt city, Nigeria.

2. He should please be accorded all necessary cooperation to enable him research activities pass off smoothly.

3. Accept the highest esteem of the Port Harcourt Area Command.

SP. THOMAS. KORIPAMO,
ADMIN. OFFICER,
For: AREA COMMANDER,
PORT HARCOURT.

Appendix XI

Permission Letter 2

PALACE OF THE AMANYANABO OF OBUMUTON-CHIRI
PORT HARCOURT

29th January, 2020

Prof Nnamdi Elleh,
Head of School,
Architecture and Planning,
Faculty of Engineering and the Built Environment,
University of the Witwatersrand,
Johannesburg.

Sir,

LETTER OF PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON EFFECTIVE URBAN SAFETY AND ENVIRONMENTAL DEVELOPMENT POLICIES

In view of the strategic location of Obumuton-Chiri which is variously adjourned to the mangrove forests that stretches round Rivers State, one will be interested to partner with research finds on urban safety development to ensure safe life of our people, primarily, on areas affecting the economy and human health.

For this reason, Mr. Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke has His Royal Majesty's approval to carry out the Ph.D research studies leading to the formulation of better and effective urban Safety and Environmental Development Policies that will be beneficiary to the kingdom (Obumuton-Chiri).

Therefore should there be need for clarification on the extent of boundaries of the kingdom, and labour assistance the Obumuton-Chiri Research and planning Committee shall avail Mr. Christopher C.O. with necessary documentation, and personnel to carry on the said field survey.

You are by this letter of permission, authorized by the Amanyanabo of Obumuton-Chiri, HRM (King) Darick Acheseomie (Obumuton IX) to engage the people of the kingdom on the intended data survey.

Sign:

Elder, Tonye James Fuayefika
For: Obumuton- Chiri Research and Planning Committee

All Correspondence to the Palace Secretary,
#82 Harold Wilson Drive, Bie-Ama, Borikiri, Port Harcourt, Rivers State.
Email: darico2003@yahoo.co.uk

Appendix XII

Ethics Declaration Page

SIGNATURES (REQUIRED)

Declaration: We, the signatories, declare that all information on this form is correct and that we will strive to maintain the highest ethical standards in this research at all times, according to disciplinary and university expectations, recognising that ethical practice in research is always a continuing process.

I recognise that it is my responsibility to conduct my research in an ethical manner according to Guidelines of the University of the Witwatersrand, according to any laws and/or legal frameworks that may apply, and according to the norms and expectations of my discipline. In preparing this Application for Ethics Clearance form, I have consulted the ***Guidelines for Human Research Ethics Clearance Application / Non-Medical*** (available on this website https://www.wits.ac.za/research/researcher-support/research-ethics/ethics-committees/) and have familiarised myself with the ethical guidelines specific to my discipline.	☑ Yes	☐ No

By signing this form, the researcher and supervisor of this project undertake to ensure that any amendments to this project that are required by the Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical) are made before the project commences.

	Date	Name	Signature
Applicant	27th Feb.2020	Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke	
Supervisor	27th Feb.2020	Prof.Aly H.Karam	

Appendix XII

Ethics Training Certificate



CERTIFICATE OF COMPETENCE IN RESEARCH ETHICS

Name: Christopher C Onyeneke
Student/Staff No: 2244740

Date of Certification: 18 February 2020- 17 February 2023

TRAINED BY:
Professor Jasper Knight (Research Ethics)
Signature:

ISSUED BY:
Dr Robin Drennan
(Director: Research Development)
Signature:

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND JOHANNESBURG

This certificate is confirmation of successful completion of a training course in Research Ethics for Non-Medical human research, based upon achieving a minimum level of competence in different assessment tasks.
This certificate is valid for a period of three years from the date stated above.

Appendix XIV

Ethics Clearance Certificate

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND JOHANNESBURG

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Onyeneke

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H20/04/18**
PROJECT TITLE	Deconstructing the City: Exploring the Determinants of Social Change on Crime in the Vulnerable Residential Neighborhood of Port-Harcourt City, Nigeria
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Mr C Onyeneke
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Architecture and Planning/
DATE CONSIDERED	24 April 2020
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved Risk Level: Low
EXPIRY DATE	04 May 2023
DATE 05 May 2020	**CHAIRPERSON** _____ (Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Professor A Karam

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

_____ 10 / 06 / 20
Signature **Date**

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix XV

Annual Progress Report

University of the Witwatersrand

Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), annual progress report

A condition of receiving a protocol number from the HREC is that an annual progress report is supplied. Please complete this table and email to Shaun Schoeman (Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za) as soon as possible.

Project protocol number	H20/04/18
Project applicant name	Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke
Project title	Exploring the determinants of social changes on crime in the vulnerable residential neighbourhood of Port-Harcourt city, Nigeria.
Brief description of your progress in the above project over this past year.	Currently writing up awaiting correction on my draft thesis submitted .
Brief description of any problems you have encountered	Finance as the research is self-funded. As extra expenses were incurred during Covid 19 Pandemic
Did you encounter any ethical issues during this past year?	NO

If YES, how were these issues managed or resolved?	
Estimated date of completion of the project*	July 2022. This depends largely on my supervisor.

**Reminder: the expiry date of the protocol certificate is given on the certificate itself. If you need an extension of up to one year after this date, please email Shaun Schoeman (Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za) giving a full and complete explanation for why you need an extension and what you will be doing on the project in this extension period.*

Appendix *XVI*

Well-grounded Conclusion from the Data sets

	Subject Area	***Interview Questions***	***Summary of Response***
1.	***Socio-economic Characteristics of respondent***	*The minimum age for an adult according to the National Population Census 2006 is 18 years. I hope you are above this age limit?*	***The respondents are all above the age of 18 as prescribed by the ethical considerations of the research.***
		What is the nature of the socioeconomic characteristics of residents of this community?	***According to the respondent, most people living in this area are self-employed. Only a very few are civil servants.***
2.	***Perceptions of the causes of the crime that are in the area.***	*When we talk about crime, what do you think about it first?*	***Crime simply carrying out any activities contrary to the lay down rules of the country or community by indulging in illegal activities.***
		Do you think there is a crime in your neighbourhood?	***There is a sure presence of crime within this community because I have lived here for many years.***
		If yes, what type of crime?	***The types of crimes in this neighbourhood are robbery, kidnapping, drug abuse, and bunker (Vandalization of oil pipeline and illegal sale of petroleum products). We have gotten used to the situation, so there is little fear and more caution***
		Who do you think is the most likely group to commit a crime?	***Crime has to peculiarity to age or gender, but the youth are the major offenders.***
		What do you think is the leading cause of crimes?	***The major causes of crime are unemployment, failure to achieve goals and expectations, the disjunction between goals and aspiration.***
		In your opinion, what motivates people to commit a crime?	***What motivates crimes are poverty and frustration. When an individual can meet***

			up with his vision due to peer pressure, crime is certain.
3.	***Perception of the crime in the area and the hotspots.***	*Do you think this neighbourhood is a safe place?*	***This neighbourhood of Borokiri is not safe, and there is always one form of crime or the other happening at a particular place. However, unfortunately, crime in this neighbourhood is now a way of life, from cultism activities to prostitution, to the use of hard drugs and illicit substances, to vandalization of oil pipelines.***
		you go out at any time of the day or night?	***During the daytime, we go around the neighbourhood but expect certain areas which are dens of cultism and bunker site expect you are one of them. At Night we do not go around because anything can happen. You could be robbed, raped or harassed.***
		Have you ever been mugged or robbed before in the area of your residence?	***Most of the respondent has experienced one form of crime or the other.***
		Do you think the crime rate of this neighbourhood has increased over time?	***The rate of crime cannot be said to have increased. There is always a presence of crime. However, we could say crime has now been modified in the form of cybercrime, online fraud and criminal subculture.***
		What are the potential crime hotspots?	***The waterside areas, downs (areas without access), Abuja areas(cult dens) are places where bunker activities are happening.***
		Do you consider your area a high, medium, or low crime area?	***This area could be considered a medium crime zone as most individuals no longer see these as a crime rather a way of life to survive.***
		Which group of individuals do you think are most vulnerable to crime?	***The wealthy class are the target because these are the people whom the potential offenders know they could get something***

			from, in the other way, the youth are the targets of harassment from cult activities.
4.	***Perceptions about deterrents to crime***	*Do you know of any Social Organization/ Non-Governmental Organization/Community Based Organization in the neighbourhood?*	***Yes, there are social organizations in the neighbourhoods, but only a handful of people are members of these organizations.***
		If yes, do you or any member of your household belong to a social group, Which ones?	***As earlier stated, most people do not belong to any social group. However, a few community members belong to them, the anti-social groups are where many youths belong, and the female gender is close friends.***
		How does the group deal with people who disagree or act contrary to their opinion?	***The constitution usually guides these groups, and any defaulter must face the consequences.***
		Do you think local authorities are doing enough to prevent crime?	***The Local authorities are doing their best to stop crime through vigilantes set up, but the truth remains that crime has eaten deep and cut across all spheres of life.***
		What do you think should be done by the local authorities to manage the situation?	***The local authorities should improve on the security as they are the only hope of safety. The police can no longer control crime because they are sacred to go to specific areas within this neighbourhood.***
5.	***Perceptions on the role of police in curbing crime.***	*What do you think of the job of the police in controlling crime?*	***The police are doing their best, but their best is never good enough concerning crime control.***
		What is the relevance of police patrol on crime?	***The police carry out patrol regularly to control potential offenders, through parol arrest could be made, investigation before judgement. Therefore, the police patrol is very relevant in controlling crime.***
		How satisfied are you with the way the criminal justice system	***The Criminal justice system cannot be relied on. Crime and criminals have only***

		handles crime?	***been recycled, and some cases may take forever to investigate and pass judgement, while others are entirely ignored base on influence from the political class. However, these criminals do have long chains of a gang that help process their release.***
		In general, do you think the police or the community residents best deal with crimes?	***Based on the situation, we cannot rely on any of these groups as things stand. Both have been infiltrated with rotten eggs. However, we cannot discard it because safety and security are essential. Both are doing their best base on available resources made to them.***
		Do you think that community organizations can deal with crime?	***Yes, they need to be integrated into the law enforcement agency and fully equipped. These vigilantes know potential threats to residents, which shows they can handle the issue better.***
6.	***Perceptions on the role of religious and other organizations in curbing crime.***	*Which religious group is most dominant in this neighbourhood?*	***The dominant religious group within these neighbourhoods is Christian.***
		What are your views on attitude and religious belief and their relationship to crime?	***Christians try to curb crime through her preaching and teaching in the church and educating individuals about the dangers of crime and its effect on community development.***
		What is your opinion on the efforts of religious bodies and other institutions in curbing crime?	***They are trying their best to convert offenders into better persons to mould society. Nevertheless, not all preachers aim to teach the residents and followers the right way of life, and some are concerned with what they could get out of the people and aid crime.***
7.	***Perceptions on the role of socio-cultural***	*In your opinion, what are things that influence people to commit a crime?*	***The major causes of crime are unemployment, bad governance, peer pressure and poverty.***

	environment in curbing crime.	*In your opinion, which age group is the most responsible for the crime?*	***The age group most associated with crime is between 18 to 35years***
		Do you think age, sex, income, family size, have any significant relationship to crime?	***These variables have no significant relationship to crime, but lack of insight, poverty, and laziness leads to crime.***
		In your opinion, do the language and ethnic differences have a significant relationship with being a victim of a crime or create an opportunity to commit a crime?	***Language and ethical differences do not affect crime or have any significant relationship to crime***
		Describe your perception of the crime rate in Port-Harcourt City?	***Crime is constantly increasing in Port Harcourt simply because the government has not found it necessary to provide job opportunities for the willing youthful population.***

APPENDIX XVII

Faculty of Engineering and the Built Environment

Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa • Telephone (011) 717 – 7007 • Fax: (011) 717 7008 • Email: febe.registrar@wits.ac.za

PLAGIARISM DECLARATION TO BE SIGNED BY ALL HIGHER DEGREE STUDENTS

SENATE PLAGIARISM POLICY: APPENDIX ONE

I Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke (Student number: 2244740) am a student registered for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the academic year 2022.

I hereby declare the following:

- I am aware that plagiarism (the use of someone else's work without their permission and/or without acknowledging the original source) is wrong.
- I confirm that the work submitted for assessment for the above degree is my own unaided work except where I have explicitly indicated otherwise.
- I have followed the required conventions in referencing the thoughts and ideas of others.
- I understand that the University of the Witwatersrand may take disciplinary action against me if there is a belief that this in not my own unaided work or that I have failed to acknowledge the source of the ideas or words in my writing.

Signature: _____ Date: 8th July 2022