

## **Security and Safety Planning in Slum Areas of Jimeta, Adamawa State, Nigeria**

**Ezenwa Ihedigbo Monday, Felix Aromo Ilesanmi and Haruna Ali**

Department of Urban and Regional Planning, School of Environmental Sciences, Federal University of Technology, Yola – Nigeria.

Accepted 01 November 2013, Available online 01 December 2013, (Nov/Dec 2013 issue)

### **Abstract**

*This study highlights the problems of insecurity and safety threats and their environmental implications in Jimeta, Nigeria. The aim is to study the insecurity and safety threats in the slums in Jimeta, Adamawa State of Nigeria, establishing its nature, pattern and scale so that appropriate recommendations could be advanced to address the phenomenon. The study utilized multiple data sourcing method: Personal observation, oral interview, focus group discussion, questionnaires administration, security breach records study as well as Maps study of the study area. A total of 200 questionnaires were administered to residents of the four wards sampled for the study: Rumde, Luggere, Nassarawo and Jambutu. The data were analysed using both inferential and descriptive statistics. Although most of the findings were based on primary data, references were made to the Nigerian Police Force, Adamawa State Fire Service and the Federal Road Safety Corps whose records of security breach cases were utilised. The investigations revealed that there are high rates of crime in slum affected areas of Jimeta compared to non slum affected areas: Slum areas' crime figures are four times that of the non slum areas. The limited available police establishments and personnel were concentrated in non slum affected wards of Jimeta. The problems of the study area include limited vehicular access to many compounds, absence of designated waste collection point, absence of public conveniences, inadequate personnel for security and safety operatives, haphazard and unplanned physical development among many others. The study concludes that a significant relationship exists between slum characteristics and crime rates in Jimeta. It therefore recommends better accessibility, lighting, and better infrastructure facilities in the slums of Jimeta. Physical planning proposals were advanced for even spatial distribution of Police, Fire Service and Federal Road Safety Corps establishments.*

**Key Words:** Security, safety, physical planning, slum, slum characteristics, Jimeta, crime, access, slum upgrading

### **1. Introduction**

Although security has been an age-long issue in the built environment, it is fast becoming a foremost issue in Nigeria today. This stems from the fact that whatever is developed in the built environment without due consideration for security is as good as nothing. It is in this connection that many professionals are now consciously considering whatever input they can put into security issues in the nation, especially in the Northern part of the country, to reduce crime and insecurity. The concern of this paper is the relationships between slum areas and insecurity. The paper worked on the assumptions in Urban Studies parlance that crimes are hatched much more in slums of urban centres; slum dwellers are themselves more prone to commit crimes than non-slum dwellers; and that crimes emanating from urban slums keep the entire urban area at serious security risks [1,2,3,4]. All these suggest the need for adequate attention on slums if efforts to curb insecurity must be meaningfully addressed.

Slum-dwellers worldwide now number more than one billion. This means almost one of three urban dwellers and one of every six people world-wide is already living in slums [2]. Most of these people that can be classified as slum-dwellers live under life and health threatening circumstances. In developing regions, slum dwellers account for 43 percent of the population, in contrast to some 6 percent in more developed regions. The concentration of slum-dweller is highest in African cities, where 61 percent of urban residents were living in slum in 2001 [1,2]. According to UN-Habitat [2], hundreds of millions of urban poor in the developing and transitional world such as Nigeria have few options but to live in squalid, unsafe environment where they face multiple threats to their health and security. Slum settlements are growing at an alarming rate projected to double in 25 years.

UN-Habitat [2] identifies the causes of slum as poverty, inadequate and insufficient housing, income disparity, migration, social exclusion weak and declining economy,

poor urban governance, corruption and land speculation. Also, UN-Habitat (2003) believes that slums are the products of failed policies, bad governance, corruption, inappropriate regulation, dysfunctional land markets, unresponsive financial systems, and a fundamental lack of political will. Hirarskar [3] lists these causes: rapid industrialization, population growth, lack of zoning, decentralization, lack of education, poverty, lack of repair and maintenance of housing, inadequate powers to enforce development control and building regulations. Many of these factors are visible as responsible for the security threat existing in Nigeria today, especially in the north and hence the need to look into the slum areas in the search for lasting solutions to security threats in the nation.

Slum-dwellers are exposed to various forms of insecurities, including poverty, unemployment, health, food, personal and environmental hazards, meaning that efforts to improve their lives must include dealing with these security issues. Slums are areas particularly vulnerable to crime and violence. Given the slums' physical nature, slum dwellers enjoy scant protection and virtually low infrastructure supply and services. Because of poverty, they have little resilience to loss or injury and vulnerable to natural disasters. Also, because of the lack of institutional support and service delivery; there is little option to deal with slum issues through due process [2]. Marginalisation, lack of access to and ownership of the city, inappropriate urban policies, regulations and planning, design and management approaches that hinder integration and participation are among what do increase the exposure of the poor and slum dwellers to insecurity and are largely disenfranchised.

Slum areas in Nigeria are faced with increase in disease infection, discomfort, crime and insecurity due to the absence of planning. Many of the urban environmental problems are also associated with the existence of slums in these urban areas. According to Ikegbunam [5] crime is endemic in slum areas for obvious reasons; it houses the highest pool of urban poor, and inhabited mainly by lower income groups. Majority of the homes have parents who were criminals before or had been in trouble with the law. Thus children become exposed to social vices early in life. Even casual observers do point to our urban slums as the hideouts for urban criminals because they are unplanned, inaccessible, infrastructurally deficient and serve as convenient homes to criminal gangs. Inaccessibility makes these slums difficult for the police to apprehend these hoodlums. The situation is aggravated by increasing deprivation, degradation, want, poverty and inequality with majority surviving below one dollar a day. Ikegbunam [5] maintained that research shows that security and safety planning has always been considered as a general urban phenomenon without the much needed specific attention on the slum areas.

Slums are still visible in Jimeta as previous slum improvement efforts in the town have not succeeded in solving its diverse security and safety problems. For instance, Chinko (Rumde), the historic hideout of the notorious Maitasene Riot perpetrators in Jimeta of the early 80's still exists as one of the dreaded slums in Jimeta. It may be a fertile ground for contemporary insurgency if not for the areas addressed by the World Bank Infrastructure Development Fund (IDF) assisted projects. The typical traditional settlements of Jimeta are mostly clustered and lacking formal physical planning effort thus aggravating the slum conditions in terms of accessibility, sanitation, drainage and socio-economic standard of the residents. Insecurity and safety threats are thus encouraged in these slum areas. Quack patient medicine sellers thrive in illicit sale of stimulants, sedatives, hallucinogens etc. These are homes for black marketers of petroleum products and dotted with collapsed and defected structures, endangering the buildings and their occupants. These visible conditions suggest that it will be necessary to empirically study these areas in order to deflate their insecurity potentials, hence this study.

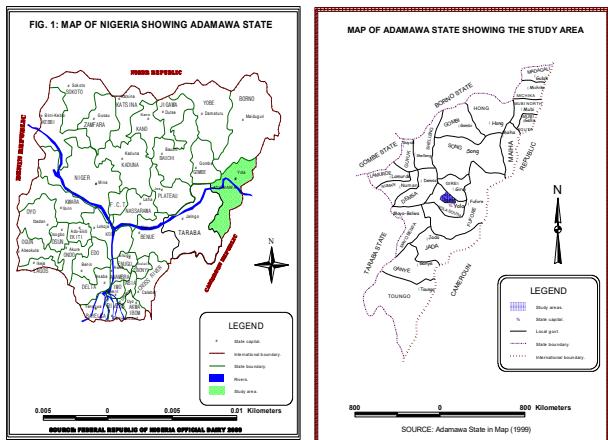
The aim of the study therefore, is to examine the insecurity potentials of the slum areas of Jimeta with a view to advancing appropriate physical planning recommendations that will improve the security situation of the study area. The study objectives are to:

- a. examine the nature and pattern of security and safety challenges in the study area.
- b. identify the aspects of security and safety problems that requires physical planning interventions.
- c. identify the factors responsible for increased security and safety threats in the study area.
- d. identify the peculiar constraints of the study area to security and safety planning; and to
- e. advance planning proposals/ recommendations that will improve security and safety of the study area.

## 2. The Study Area

Jimeta is a part of the twin settlement usually referred to as Jimeta – Yola (or Greater Yola in planning parlance). The old town of Yola where the traditional ruler (*Lamido*) resides is the traditional city, but the new city which is about 5 km north western Yola is Jimeta. It lies between latitudes  $7^{\circ}$  and  $11^{\circ}$ N of the Equator and between longitudes  $11^{\circ}$  and  $14^{\circ}$ E of the Greenwich Meridian. It shares boundary with Girei Local Government Area (LGA) at the North and Yola South LGAs at the East, West and South (Figs. 1&2). It is the administrative and commercial headquarters of Adamawa State, Nigeria. It was established to accommodate immigrants into the older Yola Town. Situated at the bank of River Benue, it eventually subjugated Yola commercially, industrially and administratively. According to the 2006 population census, Jimeta and a few villages constituting the 11 political wards of the LGA had 199,674 with 54.3% male

(108,379) and 46.7% female (91,295). In 2010, the projected population at 3.5% growth rate stood at 229,131 people which is about 254,042 in 2013 [6].



The topography of Yola North (Jimeta) is generally plain, rising from 95m to 190m above sea level, with River Benue, running from East to South of the study area. It has a tropical climate marked by dry and rainy seasons. The rainy season usually starts from April to October while dry season is usually from November to March. The mean annual rainfall for Jimeta is between 700 mm and 1600 mm per annum. Its temperature can be as low as 18°C between December and January while the maximum temperature can be up to 42°C between March and April. The major economic activities within Yola North LGA are trading, farming, fishing, administration and industrial works. Basic infrastructure facilities are available but their condition, distribution and efficiency are far below average in the slums and other locations where the low income earners live.

### 3. Literature Review

#### 3.1 The Concepts of Security, Safety and Slum

Security as defined by UN-Habitat [7] centres on communities and assets being free from crime, violence and related fear. It is the activity involved in protecting a country, building or person against attack, danger, or preventing something bad that might happen in the future. Alobi [8] sees security as a broad concept but with the major interest in national defence, internal security, political, environmental, economic, social, food and spiritual security; and it is sometimes seen from the standpoint of maintaining social order. The primary purpose of security is exemplified by the role of proper policing: "preservation of peace and the protection of life and property against attacks by criminals and injury by careless and inadvertent offenders."

In Nigeria, like most countries of the world, security is seen as a panacea for peace, stability and development [8]. The security of life and property as well as the welfare of the people is the primary responsibility of government

in any responsible society hence most governments through out the world invest heavily on security. It is amplified in the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, Section 14(1) (b) which provides *inter alia* that "security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government." This also underscores why security is a key component of the defunct 7 Point Agenda. A change in perspective from a state-centred security to a people-centred security is now being advocated as necessary for national, regional and global stability. The scope of global security should be expanded to include threats in seven areas: Economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security.

Safety on the other hand is the state of being protected from danger or harm. It has its origin from French (*Sauf*), the condition of being protected against physical, social, spiritual, financial, political, emotional, occupational, psychological, educational or other consequences of failure, damage, error, accidents, harm or any other event which could be considered non desirable. This can take the form of being protected from the event or from exposure to something that causes health or economical losses. It can include protection of people or of possessions. Certainly, safety is a complex and an interrelated problem. It cuts across socio-political systems, institutional arrangements and economic character of the area. Whatever is said about safety, the fundamental concern will be the situation where people are able to be free from fear or hindrance from crime and disorder.

In this paper, a characteristic association has been drawn between security, safety and slums. Slums are usually characterized by urban decay, high poverty rate and unemployment. They are common "breeding grounds" for social problems like crime, drug addiction, alcoholism, mental illness and suicide. In many poor countries, slums exhibit high rate of disease due to unsanitary conditions, malnutrition and lack of basic health care [2]. Indeed, the UN-Habitat [9] sees slum as a rundown area of a city characterized by sub-standard housing and squalor, lacking in tenure security. Slum was originally used mainly in the phrase "back slum" meaning a back room and later "back alley". The origin of these words is thought to be from the Irish phrase 'S lom é (pronounced S' lum ae) meaning exposed vulnerable place [10]. Speaking environmentally, Igwilo [11] sees slum as a group of buildings or an area characterized by overcrowding, deterioration, unsanitary conditions or absence of infrastructure facilities which are conditions endangering the health, safety or morals of its inhabitants and the community. Hiraskar [3] agrees that slums are overcrowded, lacking basic amenities like safe water and good drainage, resulting in diseases in its poverty stricken state. It has high birth rate, infant mortality, illegitimacy, juvenile crime, delinquency and death, thus presenting a state of hell on earth. It is a menace to health, safety, morality and general welfare of the residents.

In order to address the deplorable state of slums, upgrading is a popular renewal approach. UN-Habitat [1] sees it as consisting of physical, social, economic, organizational and environmental improvements undertaken cooperatively and locally among citizens, community groups businesses and local authorities. It includes installing or improving basic infrastructure, e.g. water reticulation, sanitation/water collection, circulation, storm drainage and flood prevention, electricity, security lighting; removal or mitigation of environmental hazards; providing incentives for community management and maintenance; constructing or rehabilitating community health, educational and recreational facilities; regularizing tenure security; home improvement; relocation/ compensation for the small number of residence dislocated by the improvement; improving access to health care and education as well as social support programmes to address issues of security, violence, substance abuse etc.; enhancing income earning opportunities through training and micro-credit, and building social capital and institutional frameworks to sustain improvement. UN-Habitat [2] opines that all over the world, slum fuelling forces are marginalization, deprivation, inappropriate urban policies, regulations and planning, design and management approaches that hinder integration and participation. Slums are therefore vulnerable to crime and violence. The UN-Habitat has highlighted the plurality of interventions, modalities and linkages with slum upgrading initiatives and a number of avenues for more effectively dealing with the urban safety issue.

### 3.2 Urban Security and Physical Development

Chijoke [4] sees the insecurity in the urban centres is far more than just a symptom of poverty. It is a causal factor in its own right, deeply implicated in the ingredients that give shape to our urban designs policies. Planners must ask how it is affecting the ways we plan the cities and live our lives in them. Not asking that question, we underestimate the importance of urban security as a problem on its own, the degree to which it propagates and promotes other urban problems and the ways it affects our urban living.

Human-centred environmental security is the new concept which is a commendable paradigm shift from 'national' to 'human' centred security [12]. European Union developed two strategies for environmental security: integrating environment goals into all sectoral policies; and addressing conflict prevention and management in its international activities [4]. Human centred environmental concept is seen justified on moral and pragmatic grounds because addressing the welfare of the most disadvantaged means addressing the main sources of environmental degradation and enhancing welfare, peace and justice on which legitimate institutions should be built [4]. Human security emphasizes individual well being and freedom from wants, hunger, natural

disasters, attack, torture etc; freedom of the capacity and opportunity that allow each human need of clean water, food, shelter and education, and where the need to overcome 'want' (development) and fear (cooperation, disarmament, human right) as well as reducing impacts of environmental hazard and ensure sustainable development [12]. Urban security must therefore address issues like infrastructural security, job security, housing security, crime security, electoral violence, religions/ethnic conflicts as well as the rising incidence of kidnapping [4].

### 3.3 Urban Planning and the Concept of Security

Governments and other stewards of public welfare including planners have a clear responsibility to provide for safety of those entrusted in their care [4]. He is of the view that much of the current actions on security is inefficient because some people believe that security risk must be minimized regardless of the consequences on the environment – While to others our cities demand functional urban designs with due concern for security. This debate fails to recognize the district difference between the scientific calculation of security and community value judgments that must be incorporated. Policy options that seem cost-effective must be evaluated under plausible future changing conditions.

Physical planning tools are necessary in producing urban security plans and to increase functionality in the future. This becomes very relevant because experience has shown that too often, 'temporary' security measures become *de facto* permanent solutions [4]. Ikegbunam [5] says the Chicago School envisioned the city as having concentric pattern around which diverse populations and behavioural characteristics predominate. It viewed the inner city as an area of social pathology and environmental depravity, marked by deteriorating and rundown housing type with ubiquitous incidence of slum.

### 3.4 Strategies for Enhancing Urban Security and Safety

UN-Habitat [7] (2007) identified 8 strategies for enhancing urban security and safety. Although an exhaustive description of these strategies is beyond the scope of this paper, they are however worth mentioning: Urban policy, Urban design, Urban planning, Reduction of risk factors, Strengthening of social capital, Community based approaches, Strengthening of formal criminal justice and police system, and Non-violent resolution of conflict. These strategies suggest that there is a relationship between the environmental characteristics and its residents. Chijoke [4] opined that protecting neighbourhoods, their buildings and those they shelter from any form of security threat have been handled through various ways. These include limiting access to certain places, security survey, urban patrol policy, security management services, incident investigation and review, event security, VIP and Executive protection

services, and other private security measures. These are strategic measures or options based on decision makers' individual interests. But a comprehensive security strategy can be developed based on realistic estimates of total security need for an urban centre and not just as precautionary measures based on the vulnerability of individual person or building to a certain type of threat. More comprehensive methods such as Crime Prevention Through Environment Design (CPTED) have proved to be more effective. But it is often substituted with the security option of 'good of the commons' as a vital asset shared by all but owned by none and ultimately laid waste because it is in everyone's individual best interest to take much while contributing little or nothing to its stewardship [4].

Physical planning is significant to crime occurrence and prevention because the physical environment is connected with the occurrence of crime; and it also forms the space within which the police operate. Effective change in the physical environment can be a veritable means of reducing crime. The first step in this process is to conduct a strategic analysis of a given urban environment to be able to identify opportunities for criminal behaviour as well as groups and situations exposed to risks [13]. CPTED also known as "Design Out Crime" is concerned with the design of space inside and outside of buildings, the positioning of buildings in relation to one another, the street lighting, entrances and exits and landscaping. According to [13] CPTED is the specific management, design, or manipulation of the immediate environment in which crimes occur in a systematic and permanent way.

The three key assumptions of CPTED theory are that crimes against people and property are less likely to occur if other people are around; it is important that people in adjoining building and spaces are able to see what is happening; and that it is important to give people safe choices about where to be and how to be there. CPTED is a set of practices and procedures that address the design of public spaces in way that reduce the opportunity for Crime. Urban planners are in a position to recommend urban design criteria incorporated into city landscape and part design guides that reduce criminal opportunities. Building codes and standards should also incorporate security issues. CPTED applications are also needed for design and construction of private housing facilities, business, banks, industry and other private structures. Urban planners working with the police and private institutions can advise and offer design guides for ideal physical security devices to prevent/reduce crime [13]. CPTED is based on six principles; Surveillance, Visibility, Territoriality, Access and Escape Routes, Image and Aesthetics, and Target Hardening. Employing CPTED principles in combination can increase crime reduction. Each principle should not be viewed in isolation and the context within which it is to be applied should be taken into account. When applying any one of the principles, the implications it has on the others must always be

considered e.g. when building a high wall around a property (target hardening), the consequences of violating the principles of surveillance and visibility must be considered.

### 3.5 Implication of the Review for the Study Area

These views suggest a significant relationship between slum and security and safety threats, thus the need for measures to check and control the adverse effect of security threats on slum area in Jimeta. The assurance of adequate security and safety in an area makes it more habitable; facilitating speedy development of such area. The area will also have the potential of attracting investors from other locations. The review also implies that marginalization and lack of opportunity of the urban poor who are basically slum dwellers, pushes them to the extent of doing anything to survive, including crime. These are observable in the study area and the physical conditions of the study area constitute security and safety threats to all. It consequently undermines any developmental effort targeted at the study area. It will also result to the traditional practice of using resources that can be channelled into the physical development of Yola North LGA to fighting insecurity and crime.

## 4.0 Methodology

The types of data required for this study includes spatial, demographic, crime nature, environmental quality and legality of activities. *Spatial Characteristics* include the geographical extent of the study area and sampled wards, spatial distribution of facilities, crime hot spots, spatial constraints and opportunities to security planning, spatial distribution of crime in the study area and hierarchy of crime occurrence. The LGA maps available with the Upper Benue River Basin Authority were used for this purpose. The base maps were updated with crime and infrastructure related data as obtained in the study area by observation and key respondents' input like Police and Fire Service. *Demographic data* covering the population and its characteristics such as gender, age distribution, occupation, residential status, duration of stay in the study area and status were obtained from the National Population Commission in Yola. *Data on level and nature of crime* including types of crime prevalent in the study area, their hierarchy in terms of posing security threat and their frequency; crime inducing factors, crime mitigating measures such as effective policing, number of police posts and stations available, police citizen ratio etc were collected mostly from the Police.

*Environmental Quality data* include vehicular access to houses in the study area, housing quality e.g. houses that are affected by age or not habitable, poorly constructed, illegal and hazardous tempering with electricity lines, sanitary conditions; public convenience and waste management, flooding etc. These were collected by observation and interviews. These enabled the study to

generate non-human directly associated security and safety threat in the study area. *Other Illegal Activities data* include, incidence of drug use, abuse and addiction, distribution of proprietary drugs, prostitution, unlicensed brothel, unlicensed night club, unlicensed bars, gambling etc. These data were collected through personal/field observation, oral interview, focused group discussion and the administration of questionnaires on the data required highlighted earlier. Oral interview was used mostly among residents who could not complete questionnaires due to physical incapacitating, illiteracy or any other personal reasons, the elderly and the ward heads. Focused Group Discussion targeted the specialized group of the population i.e. members of Nigerian Police Force and other security agents with considerable knowledge of the study area (either currently serving or retired) and staff of the Federal Office of Statistics (FOS). Other secondary data for the study were sourced from the Nigerian Police, Federal Office of Statistics, National Population Commission and Yola North Local Area Council among others

Jimeta had a total population of 199,674 persons with a growth rate of 3% by the 2006 Census (224,734 in 2010 by projection). Jimeta is made up of eleven political wards four of which have notable slum on the basis of their advanced physical appearance of slum characteristics. Reconnaissance field observation also shows that violence and crime is common in these wards. These wards (Rumde, Luggere, Jambutu and Nassarawo) were purposively selected for the study. Two hundred (200) respondents were selected by systematic random sampling from these four wards on the basis of 50 respondents per ward. The questionnaires were administered in a regular interval of two household along a street. This was necessary in order to reduce the possibility of uniform and biased responses, which might result from simple random sampling. The sampling was not gender biased, but it was age biased as it involves only those that have attained the eligible voting age (18 years). The questionnaire was validated in the Planning Department before use. It had three sections, A, B and C. Section A sourced personal data from the respondents such as sex, age, occupation, residential status etc.; Section B answered the research questions and Section C addressed the hypothesis of the relationship between slum and insecurity/crime. The chi square statistical tool was used to test the hypothesis of the study while other data obtained in the study were analysed using Descriptive Statistics such as percentages.

## 5.0 Result and Discussion

### 5.1 Characteristics of Respondents

The characteristics of the study respondents are presented in Table 1, covering their gender, residential status, age, occupation, employment, duration of stay in the ward, settlement status as well as household size.

Respondents were 54% male and 46% female. More males participated in the study because in most cases, men were the family heads and spokespersons. Only 19% of the respondents were landlords and 43% were tenants. The remaining 38% were those accommodated by their parents.

**Table 1:** Characteristics of the Respondents (n = 200)

S/No	Characteristic	Variable/Measure	Frequency	%age
1	Gender	Male	128	64%
		Female	92	46%
2	Residential Status	Landlord	38	19
		Tenant	86	43
3	Age Distribution	Accommodated by Parents	76	38
		18 – 27	112	56
		28 – 37	50	25
		38 – 47	22	11
		48 – 57	10	5
		50 & above	6	3
4	Occupation Distribution	Civil Servant	42	21
		Student	66	33
		Teachers	15	7.5
		Others	47	23.5
5	Employment status	Public	51	25.5
		Private	26	13
		Self employ	39	18.5
6	Duration of stay	Unemployed	86	43
		2 – 7 years	44	22
		8 – 13 years	58	29
		14 – 19 years	52	26
		20 years & above	36	18
7	Settlement status	Nil	10	5
		Indigene	120	60
		Migrant	73	36.5
8	Household size	Diplomat	7	3.5
		1 – 10	64	32
		11 – 20	85	42.5
		21 – 30	31	15.5
		31 – 40	15	7.5
		41 & above	5	2.5

Source: Field survey, Jimeta (2010)

The table also reveals that 81% of the respondents were youths between 18-37 years. These fall within the crime prone age. The remaining 19% were those above 37 years old. By occupation 33% of those who volunteered to be respondents were mostly students, followed by others who were neither students nor civil servants (23.5%). In actual sense, about 43% of the respondents were unemployed. About 73% of the respondents have stayed in the study area for over 7 years. Only 60% of the respondents claimed to be indigenes of the area while 36% were migrants. The household sizes of 11–20 persons constitute about 41% while those between 1 and 10 in their houses were 32% of the respondents. Some respondents claimed they were over 20 persons in their houses (compound-like residences).

## 5.2 Building and Environmental Characteristics of the Study Area

The building and environmental characteristics of the study area were surveyed and the results presented in Table 2. Most buildings in the area were between 11 and 20 years old (50%) followed by those between 21 and 30 years (28%). Clinics were the predominant health facility in the study area as confirmed by 63% of the respondents.

**Table 2: Building and Environmental Characteristics of the Study Area (n = 200)**

S/No	Characteristics	Variable/Measure	Frequency	Percentage
1	Age of Building years	1 – 10	26	13
		11 – 20	99	49.5
		21 – 30	56	28
		31 – 40	13	6.5
		41 and above	6	3
2	Health Facilities Available	Primary health care	27	13.5
		Dispensary	13	6.5
		Clinic	126	63
		Maternity	7	3.5
		Others (Patient Medicine Store)	27	13.5
3	Public Toilet Available	Yes	88	44
		No	112	56
4	Existence of compounds lacking toilets in their area	Yes	142	71
		No	58	29
5	Availability of formal waste collection points	Yes	33	16.5
		No	167	83.5
6	Poor sanitary condition constitutes health threat	Yes	293	96.5
		No	7	3.5
7	Motorable access available to all compounds of the ward of respondent	Yes	35	17.5
		No	165	82.5
8	Motorable access available to the compounds of respondents	Yes	144	72
		No	56	28
9	Availability of Security Personnel (Police) in the ward	Yes	107	53.5
		No	93	46.5
10	Availability of Fire service personnel in the ward	Yes	41	20.5
		No	159	79.5
11	Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC) Available	Yes	24	12
		No	176	88

Source: Field survey, Jimeta (2010)

These were followed by primary health care centres (14%) and patient medicine stores (14%). Public toilets were not generally available in the area as 56% confirmed and there were no formal waste disposal points as 84% of the respondents affirmed. It was not strange therefore to see 97% affirming that poor sanitation is a threat to health in the area while 71% reported they had no toilets in their compounds. Although motor-able access roads were available to the compounds of 72% of the respondents, 83% claimed that such motorable roads were not available to the compounds in the ward. Apprehending criminals is difficult in such an area. About 54% of the respondents agreed that there were police establishments in their area just as 79% and 88% of the respondents claimed that there were neither Fire Service nor Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC) in their areas.

## 5.3 Security Issues in the Study Area

Data on insecurity and crimes on the study area are presented in Table 3. Respondents who reported that security personnel were inadequate in the area were 63%, 94% and 90% for Police, Fire Service and FRSC respectively. The near-absence of security personnel in these slums makes them breeding grounds for criminals.

Among the crimes reported for the areas are petty theft (41%), prostitution (25%) and armed robbery (18%). Burglary (5%) followed by murder (7%) occupies the lowest in the hierarchy of crime in the slums studied. The absence of vehicular access in the areas and the limited number of security personnel make them more prone to crimes. The factors motivating crime in study area are unemployment (31%), poverty (23%), poor physical condition and environmental influence (21%) and ineffective policing (5%). About 73% of the respondents are of the opinion that government is the major body responsible for the provision of security and safety in the area followed by CBO's (14%). Only 4% of the respondents see the private participating in security issues.

On the crime spots, 95% of the respondent reported that most crimes take place where unemployed youth assemble and idle out their days unproductively, a position 5% disagreed with. Indeed, 79% of the respondents confirmed that gambling spots exist in their areas as well as illicit drug selling spots (89%). Another 76% response was obtained in affirmation of the existence of gangsters and thugs in these slums.

The Nigerian Police crime statistics reported in Table 4 and Figures 3 & 4 include three of the four wards sampled in this study as slums. These include Jambutu (34%), Luggere (32%) and Nassarawo. The Karewa Ward is not considered as a slum. The table shows that crime rate in each of the slum areas is about 4 times compared to crime rate in Kerewa (7.4%). According to the Police the three most prevalent crime in Jimeta is motorcycle snatching, burglary/theft. The leading crime is burglary/theft. The Nigerian Police Command (2010) has

listed the serious crimes to include: Armed robbery, Threat to life and assault, Illegal Possession of locally made guns, 419 (fraud), Motor cycle/car, theft, Kidnapping, Religious unrest and Rape. The minor crimes are: Prostitution, Trespass, Cheating, cruelty to animal, Belonging to gangs of thief, Gratification i.e. bribery, Unlawful gathering, Criminal breach of trust and contract.

#### 5.4 Possible solutions to insecurity and crime issues in Jimeta

Appropriate policing has been considered as one of the ways to address crime and insecurity in the study area. To this end, the location of the various police stations and other security outfits has been studied (Table 5 and Fig. 5). The location and the number of police personnel in Jimeta as at research time were shown. The 1511 police personnel for the 224734 population at 1:394 is slightly above the 1:400 recommended by the United Nations. The assertion by Kimani [14] that Nigeria is over-policed but under secured is true in Jimeta. What may be required therefore include appropriate training, technology and the right attitude to work.

**Table 3: Security Issues in the Study Area**

S/No.	Security Issue	Variable/Measure	Frequency	Percentage
1	Adequacy of Security Personnel			
	Police	Adequate	73	36.5
		Inadequate	127	63.5
	Fire Service	Adequate	12	6
		Inadequate	188	94
	FRSC	Adequate	20	10
		Inadequate	180	90
2	Perception on Crime Occurrence			
		Murder	12	6
		Burglary	10	5
A	Type of Crime	Petty theft	83	41.5
		Prostitution	51	25.5
		Armed robbery	35	17.5
		Others	9	4.5
B	Factors responsible	Poverty	46	23
		Unemployment	61	30.5
		Poor Physical Condition and Environmental Influence	41	20.5
		Ineffective policing	10	5
		Others	20	10
		No response	2	1
C	Bodies responsible for maintaining security in the ward	Government	146	73
		Community Based Organisation (CBO)	27	13.5
		Private	8	4
		Others	13	6.5
		No Response	6	3
3	Spot where criminals gather			
A	Where unemployed youths assemble	Yes	190	95
		No	10	5
B	Gambling	Yes	158	79
		No	29	14.5
		Nil	13	6.5
C	Vices Selling of proprietary drugs	Yes	177	88.5
		No	23	11.5
	Gangsters and thugs	Yes	152	76
		No	48	24

Source: Fieldwork, 2010.

**Table 4: Police extract of the most prevalent crimes committed in some wards in Jimeta from 2005 – 2010**

S/No	Ward	Crime	Year	Frequency	%
				2005	
1	Jambutu	Robbery	–	220	78
			2010	“	
		Murder	“	55	1.9
		Burglary/ theft	“	1050	374
		Kidnapping	“	5	0.18
		Rape	“	65	2.3
		Criminal breach of trust	“	450	16.04
		Others	“	960	34.5
		Total		2805	34.2
			2005		
2	Luggere	Robbery	–	440	17.1
			2010	“	
		Murder	“	70	2.7
		Burglary/ theft	“	1150	44.7
		Kidnapping	“	7	0.3
		Rape	“	98	3.8
		Criminal breach of trust	“	560	21.7
		Belonging	“	1250	48.5
		Total		2575	31.5
			2005		
3	Karewa	Robbery	–	--	
			2010	“	
		Murder	“	350	57.6
		Burglary/ theft	“	65	10.7
		Kidnapping	“	4	0.7
		Rape	“	2	0.3
		Criminal breach of trust	“	100	16.5
		Belonging	“	85	14.02
		Total		606	7.4
			2005		
4	Nassara wo	Robbery	–	449	20.5
			2010	“	
		Murder	“	85	3.9
		Burglary/ theft	“	350	16
		Kidnapping	“	2	0.09
		Rape	“	92	4.2
		Criminal breach of trust	“	1110	50.8
		Belonging	“	98	4.5
		Total		2186	26.7
		GRAND TOTAL		8178	100%

Source: The Nigerian Police Command, Jimeta (2010)

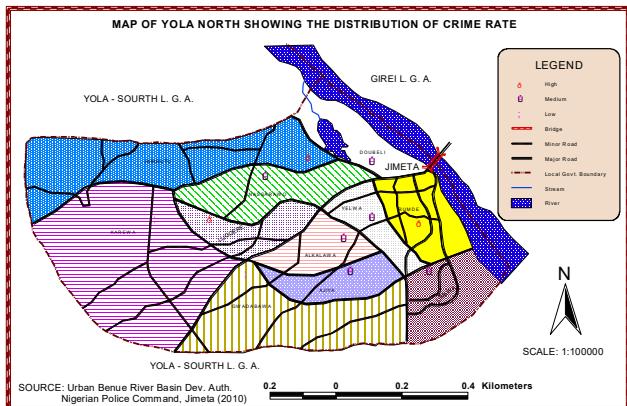


Fig. 3: Crime Spots in Jimeta.

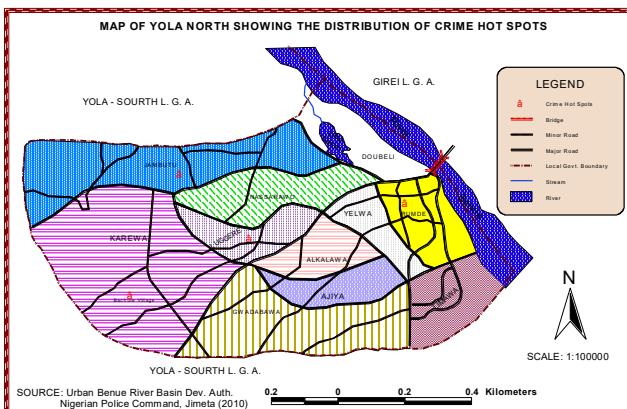


Fig. 4: Crime Spots in Jimeta.

Table 5: Location of Police division and man power distribution in Jimeta

S/N	Special divisions	Location	Division	Out Post	No of Personnel
1	Headquarters	Gwadabawa	--	--	400 26.50%
			New Market	245	16.2
			Kofare	104	6.8
		Jimeta	Dougeri	220	14.6
			--	--	8.6
2	Traffic Division (MD)	Alkalaawa	--	--	412 27.3
			--	--	1511 100%

Source: Nigeria Police Command, Jimeta (2010)

There are only three fire service stations in Jimeta, one serves the government house with twelve personnel, another one is located in Jimeta shopping complex to serve the complex alone, it has only two staff, the state headquarters is located in Luggere with 42 staff (Table 6). There is only one Federal road Safety Corps (FRSC) establishment in the entire Jimeta, with 24 officers and 54 Marshals (Table 6 and Fig. 6).

Table 6: Locations of Fire Service, Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC) and number of their personnel

S/N	Establishment	Stations	Locations	Categories of personnel	No. of Personnel
1	Fire service	State Headquarters	Luggere	--	42

1	Fire service	State Headquarters	Luggere	--	42
		Government House	Gwadabawa	--	12
		Jimeta	Alkalawa	--	2
2	FRSC	Head quarters	Jambatu	Officers	24
				Marshals	54
				Total	78

Source: Adamawa State Fire Service, Headquarters Jimeta, (2010)  
Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC) Jimeta, (2010)

Table 7 presents a five years record of human and material loses cost by fire disaster as well as the worth of properties recovered during the incidence. The Fire Service personnel blamed lack of access to some of these slums as a principal reason for the magnitude of avoidable loss to fire in the study area.

Table 7: Fire out break reported to the fire department from 2006 to November 15th 2010

S/N	Year	No. of Fire calls	No. of lives saved	No. of live lost	No. of property lost (N)	Cost of property saved (N)
1	2006	66	7	--	406,341,104	804,106,311
2	2007	104	15	6	956,778,936	692,898,486
3	2008	50	6	--	744,303,124	946,547,231
4	2009	63	8	--	764,764,993	151,763,561
5	2010	56	10	--	280,565,007	718,400,101
	Total	339	46	6	3,152,753,164	3,313,715,690

Source: Adamawa State Fire Service Headquarters, Jimeta (2010)

On the way forward, the respondents in Table 8 were of the view that proper access to slums (82%), proper illumination of the wards (68%) and legalising the possession of fire arms (82%) are possible solutions to crime and insecurity problems in the study area. They however did not agree that any individual should pay additional fee for security (61%) in the area. Most respondents (91%) support giving more attention to human security than property security, especially those which hinder rescue operations in times of emergency.

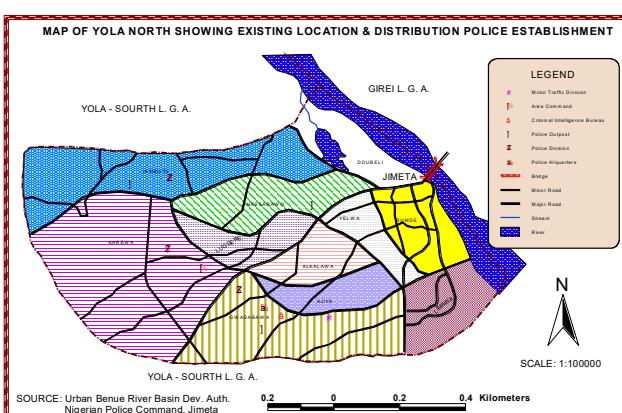
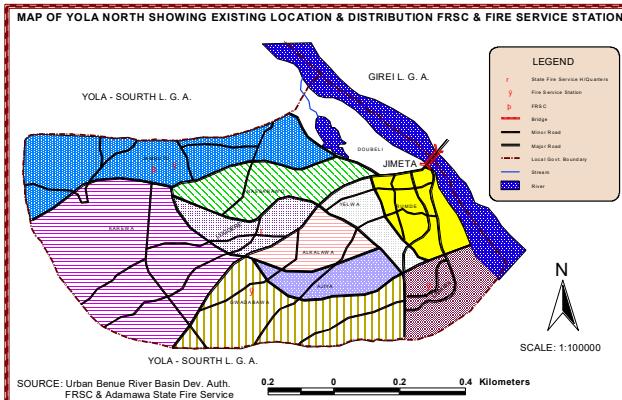


Fig. 5: Distribution of Police Establishments in Jimeta.



**Fig. 6:** Distribution of FRSC and Fire Service Stations in Jimeta.

**Table 8:** Perception of Respondents on possible solutions to insecurity in Jimeta Slums

S/N	Issue	Measure	Frequency	%age
1	Individuals should pay additional fee for security	Agree	79	39.5
		Disagree	121	60.5
2	opening up of their areas will reduce crime and improve safety	Agree	164	82
		Disagree	36	18
3	proper illumination of their areas at night will reduce criminal activities at night	Agree	135	67.5
		Disagree	65	32.5
4	Legalize the possession of fire arms	Agree	164	82
		Disagree	36	18
5	De-emphasize property security like high walls and burglar proof to emphasize human security at emergency times.	Agree	182	91
		Disagree	18	9

Source: Field Survey, Jimeta (2010)

The hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) which states that "There is no significant difference between the views of male and female respondents on the link between physical conditions of slum and crime" was tested with responses from male and female respondents in which 97 out of 108 males agreed as 83 out of 92 women also agreed (11 males and 9 females disagreed). The Chi square test result showed that the calculated value of  $\chi^2$  (0.00893) was less than the critical value at 5% level of significance and hence, men and women agreed that physical environmental condition of slums and crime are related.

### 5.8 Summary of Major Findings

The major findings of this study are as follows:

- Rumde, Nassarawo, Luggere and Jambutu Wards of Jimeta Yola manifest slums characteristics substantially. They are deficient in access, drainage, safe water, toilet, formal waste collection points and other infrastructure facilities.
- Many crime hot spots were identified in these slums especially at gambling centres, illegal patient

medicine stores, hemp sales points and places where unemployed youth assemble thus linking slums and crime.

- Government has been reported as the key security provider in the study area but the number of security personnel in the area has been reported as inadequate. Although the police-citizen ratio in Jimeta is 1:394 which is a little higher than the 1:400 recommended, the fire-fighter per population and the FRSC members per population is 1:4013 and 1:2881 respectively, the places are still under secured.
- The crime rate in slum affected areas of Jimeta is four times the crime rate in non-slum affected areas of the capital city but the police establishments were concentrated in wards outside the slums (Gwadabawa and Karewa).
- Residents were not prepared to pay additional fee for security but suggested physical planning measures like opening up access to the area for better security and proper street lighting to reduce crime at night.

### 5.7 Discussion

This study has linked city crimes with slums. This is in agreement with documented observation that given the slums physical conditions their inhabitant enjoys scant protection [1] and are characterized by overcrowding, deterioration, unsanitary conditions or absence of facilities which provide breeding grounds for crime [11].

The crime rate is very high in Jimeta slums compared to other parts of Jimeta. The extract from police report revealed that crime rate in each of the three selected slum areas is about four times the crime rate in one of the non-slum area selected which. This conforms with the view of Ikegbunam [5] who believed that slum is characterized by rampant cases of crime and vices because slums house the highest pool of urban poor as well as criminals and out laws. The UN-Habitat [1] buttressed this belief by stating that slums suffer from higher levels of crime and violence than those connected to main stream network and power structure.

The most prevalent crime in the study area according to respondent's perception is petty theft, followed by prostitution and armed robbery. This corresponds with the record from the police as shown in this study except that in the general society, the police record shows theft as leading but followed by criminal breach of trust. This identification of theft as the highest crime in the study area indicates high level of property insecurity which has a significant negative implication on human security and safety. This situation notwithstanding, security establishments and personnel were reported as inadequate. This suggests better innovative approaches to security in the area. The CPTED advocated in the literature has become a useful consideration here [13]. Accessibility, lighting and appropriate safety infrastructure are implied here if these slums must be

kept safe. The Upgrading concept discussed in Un-Habitat (2003) and the human centred environmental security concept [13] are worth considering in addressing crime and insecurity in these slums. Whereas the respondents recommend fire-arm liberalisation, this is not sustainable as the experience all over the world now is the reduction of fire arms in circulation. They are likely not very keen in paying any additional fee for security because they are generally poor. Other urban dwellers would have accepted that approach if it will guarantee better security.

## 6.0 Proposal

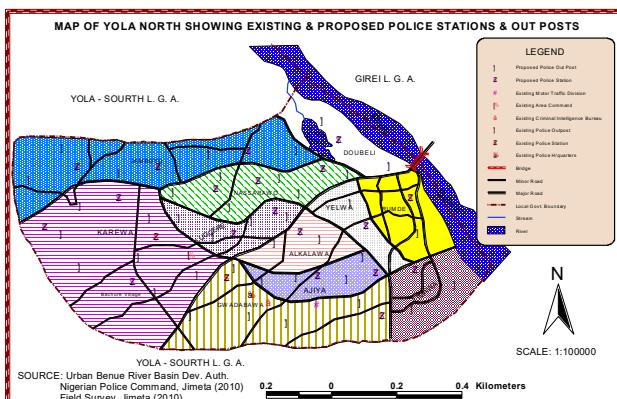
In the light of the study findings, and utilising the planning standards in Table 9 as specified by Obateru [15] and Oluko and Agbonage [16], appropriate distribution of security establishments within the study area has been proposed (Figures 7 and 8). Obateru [15] recommended service radius of police stations and posts as 1.6 km and 800 m respectively and Oluko and Agbonage [16] specified that the services radius of fire service establishment should be 2 km for residential, 1.6 km for commercial and public landuses respectively. The 2 km radius was adopted for the study area given the nature of the area as basically residential.

**Table 9: Proposed Police, Fire Service and Federal Road Safety Corps (FRSC) Establishments**

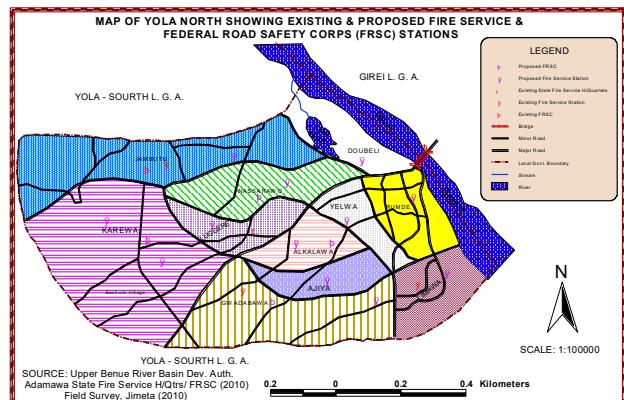
Source of Standard	Service Radius	Establishment	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Total No. required	No. existing	No. proposed
Obateru [18]	1.6km	Police station	169.77	21	3	18
	800m	Police post	169.77	42	3	39
Oluko & Agbonage [19]	2km	Fire service station	169.77	14	3	11
	3.2km	FRSC Station	169.77	5	1	4

Source: Obateru [15], Oluko & Agbonage [16] and Field Survey, Jimeta, (2010)

## 7.0 Conclusion



**Fig. 7: Existing and Proposed Police Stations and Outpost in Jimeta.**



**Fig. 8: Existing and Proposed Fire Service and FRSC Stations in Jimeta.**

Physical planning has become a principal profession that must contribute to the search for safer cities in our generation. This study has used the situation in Jimeta to elucidate the fact that slums and crimes are highly related. If we must address insecurity and crime therefore, slums must be considered. The insurgencies reported in different parts of Nigeria are being linked with slums [17].

The poverty level, unemployment, environmental uncleanliness, infrastructure and facilities deficiency, drug influence, gambling, gangsters living, general idleness and discontent with life provide fertile grounds for criminal tendencies. Since these describe the typical life in the slums, our slums need be addressed before they adversely affect us. Whereas security experts would recommend more policing or even the use of the Army, and psychologists recommend appropriate schooling for the drug prone slum dwellers, physical planning solutions of urban renewal and slum upgrading still remains an indispensable old faithful.

## 8.0 Recommendations

The following recommendations have been advanced to further prevent crime and insecurity in Jimeta:

- An accessibility oriented urban renewal should be carried out in the study area if these slums are to be opened up to enable security and safety operatives to function efficiently in the area.
- Subsequent land use planning and building development in the area should aim at meeting the minimum required safety standards. This implies that planning agencies should be more effective in their duties.
- Skills acquisition centres should be established and made to function more efficiently so as to provide youths with jobs on self sustaining basis. This will reduce idleness and check the criminal tendencies in the area.

d. When protecting a residential or commercial area by residents, more priority should be given to human security than property security. Therefore the use of burglar proof at the windows, doors as well as ceiling will be limited as these will affect escape during emergency.

## References

[1] UN-HABITAT (2003), The Challenge of Slums: Global Report on Human Settlements. United Nations Publication.

[2] UN-HABITAT (2009), Urban Safety and Slum Grading; International Tripartite Conference on Urbanization Challenges and Poverty Reduction in African, Caribbean and Pacific Countries.

[3] G. K. Hirashar (1992), Fundamentals of Town Planning. Dhanpat Rai and Sons. Delhi – India

[4] O. K. Chijioke (2009), Towards a Holistic Approach to Urban Security Problem in Nigeria; Unveiling the other Dimensions. Paper Presented at the 40<sup>th</sup> Annual Conference of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITP) on Planning Nigerian Cities for Increased Communication and Security. Awka, Anambra, Nigeria

[5] F. I. Ikegbunam (2008), "Urban Crimes and Conflict Resolution." In Valerie C. N. Chinedu O. O. and Shalom U. O (Ed) Urban Environmental Problems in Nigeria. Rex Charles and Patrick Limited Anambra – Nigeria

[6] F. A. Ilesanmi (2013), "An Overview of Environmental Challenges of Adamawa State, Nigeria: The Way Forward." Inauguration paper delivered on the occasion of the Inauguration of the Adamawa State Chapter of the Nigeria Environmental Society on June 5, 2013 at the Adamawa State University, Mubi.

[7] UN – HABITAT (2007), Enhancing Urban Safety and Security: Global Report on Human Settlement 2007. United Nations Publication

[8] E. L. Alobi (2009), Security Surveillance; Preparing Cities to Face Security Challenges. Paper Presented at the 40<sup>th</sup> Annual Conference of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITP) on Planning Nigerian Cities for Increased Communication and Security. Awka, Anambra, Nigeria

[9] UN-HABITAT (2003), Slums of the World: the Face of Urban Poverty in the New Millennium. United nations Publication.

[10] <http://www.googleadvancedsearch/> security andsafety inslums.com

[11] I. I. Igwiilo (2004), Environmental Studies Terminologies and Other Issues: A Comprehensive Guide to the Study of Environmental Professional in Tertiary Institutions. Christon International Co. Ltd. Awka, Nigeria

[12] H. G. Brauch (2005), Threats, Challenges, Vulnerability and Risk in Environmental and Human Society. Source 1/2005 Bonn UNU-EHS.

[13] T.O Lawanson and T. I. Salau (2009), Security Consciousness in Planning: The case of Lagos Mega-city. Paper Presented at the 40<sup>th</sup> Annual Conference of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITP) on Planning Nigerian Cities for Increased Communication and Security. Awka, Anambra, Nigeria.

[14] M. Kimani, (2009), "Security for the highest bidder: Shoddy policing for the many, costly private protection for the few." Africa Renewal, Oct. 2009, pp10-18. United Nations Publication

[15] O. I. Obateru (2003), Space Standards for Urban Development. Penthouse Publications. Ibadan, Nigeria.

[16] C. E. Uloko and J. E. Agbonoga (2004), An Essential Handbook for Physical Planners. Alex Publications, Kaduna, Nigeria.

[17] A. Okpaga, U. S. Chijioke, and Eme, O. I. (2012), Activities of Boko Haram and Insecurity Question in Nigeria. Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (OMAN Chapter) Vol. 1, No. 9; pp.77-99.