

NEIGHBORHOOD PATTERN AND INCIDENCE OF CRIME: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF G.R.A AND KUNTU AREAS OF ILORIN

Mohammed Sanusi Yusuf

Department of Social Work

University of Ilorin

byoriss@gmail.com

AbdussalamAbdulhameed

Department of Social Work

University of Ilorin

abdulhameedabdussalam@yahoo.com

&

MoshoodIssah

Department of Sociology,

University of Ilorin

Abstract

It has been observed that physical deterioration and social disorganization of neighbourhoods have links with the dramatic increase in the incidence of crimes. In view of this, a comparative study of incidence of crime in two neighbourhoods (Kuntu and GRA) in Ilorin, Kwara State was carried out. The target populations are the residents of the two areas. A total of two hundred and forty (n=240) respondents were purposively selected from the two neighbourhoods (one hundred and twenty from each neighbourhood). Questionnaires were administered to the respondents in their respective residential areas. Out of the two hundred and forty questionnaires that were administered, two hundred and twenty-five were completed and returned and good for analysis. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as percentile and mean score methods. The percentile method was used to analyze the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents in the two neighbourhoods; and the mean score method was used to compare the incidence of crime in the two neighbourhoods. The results revealed that the incidence of crime in Kuntu neighbourhood is higher; while the incidence of crime is lower in GRA neighbourhood.. Based on this conclusion, it was recommended that structural planning of deteriorated neighbourhoods and

improving socio-economic conditions of the residents of unplanned neighbourhoods would go a long way in reducing the incidence of crime in Ilorin metropolis.

Keywords: Area; Crime; Incidence; Neighbourhood; Pattern.

Introduction

The world has experienced a high level of urban growth. The global proportion of urban population rose exponential from 13% (220million) in 1950, to 29% (732million) in 1990, to 49% (3.2billion in 2005). In 2014, the global population was put at 7.1 billion (Asl *et.al*, 2014). In addition, United Nation World Urbanization Prospects (2005) cited in (Brantingham and Brantingham, 2005) projected that urban population is likely to increase to 60% (4.9billion) by 2030. According to United Nations Organization (2007), year 2007 witnessed the turning point when more than 50% of the world populations were living in cities for the first time in human history. The highest growth rate today occurred in developing countries. In regard to future trends, it is estimated that 93% of the urban growth will occur in developing nations, with 80% of urban growth occurring in Asia and Africa (UNO, 2007; Annez and Buckly, 2007). Unfortunately, developing countries have limited resources to help new migrants to the cities. This development has resulted into what is termed "urban sprawl". Urban sprawl is the vast expansion of urban centers, with numerous sub-urban areas. These sub-urban areas are technically called "neighbourhoods" (Audit Commission, 2006; and Brantingham and Brantingham, 2005). In Nigeria, industrialization and unplanned urbanization characterized the economic and social growth process (Adigun and Afolabi, 2013). The spontaneous urbanization with uncontrolled growth pattern in most of the urban cities is manifested in the emergence of slum-like neighbourhoods in Nigerian cities (Bello, 2011).

Scholars in Geography and Urban Studies have long struggled with defining the concept of neighbourhood (Park *et.al*, 1967; Hunter, 1979; Olson, 1982; Galster, 2001; Kearns and Parkinson, 2001). However, it seems that there is a general agreement among scholars that neighbourhood contains residences, or at least, are site of social interaction (Forrest and Kearns, 2001; Galster, 2001). In Sociology, studies on neighbourhood can be traced to the work of Tonnies (1955), Durkheim (1964), and Simmel (1971). They examined the effects of urban living on forms of social life and individuals' connections with their communities and society. According to Buck (2001) and Ellaway (2000), there have been increased interests among researchers in defining, applying and investigating the significance of neighbourhood for individual behaviour, particularly criminal behaviour. Precisely, crime and the environmental conditions of committing a crime has become a new focus of the environmental criminologists (Brantingham and Brantingham, 1990).

Various empirical studies have established the relationships between neighbourhood patterns and the incidence of crime (Ellen *et.al*, 2001; Leventhal and Brooks-Gunn, 2000; Riva *et.al* 2007; and Sampson, *et.al*, 2002). Kalantari (2001) concluded that structural and social environments determined a great extent the choice of target and the type of crime committed. The potential criminals select structurally secured and socially conducive neighbourhoods for criminal activities. Aluyor (2005) opined that armed robbery, vandalism, burglary and cultism are common in disadvantaged neighbourhoods. It has been argued that economically disadvantaged neighbourhoods tend to have fewer resources than more privileged neighbourhoods, thereby constraining the ability of residents from socially disadvantaged neighbourhoods to succeed in the modern economy (Ailshire *et.al*, 2010). This may explain high rate of poverty, unemployment and social inequality in slum or slum-like neighbourhoods. There is no gain-saying the fact that poverty, unemployment and social inequality are critical risk factors of criminality in our contemporary societies.

Much work has been done to determine the effects of neighbourhood patterns and incidence of crime in the developed countries (Brantingham and Brantingham, 1990; Levanthal and Brooks-Gunn, 2000; Kalantari, 2001; Dillman; 2001; Nolan, *et.al*, 2004; Chung, 2005; and Riva, *et.al.*, 2007). However, in Nigeria, few empirical studies have been conducted on the relationships between neighbourhood patterns and the incidence of crime (Omale, 1995; Aluyor, 2005; Yacim, 2010; Bello, 2010; and Adigun and Afolabi, 2013). In Ilorin metropolis, little or no efforts have been made in this direction. Therefore, the present study examines the influence of neighbourhood patterns on the incidence of crime in two selected neighbourhoods in Ilorin metropolis.

Conceptual issues: Conceptualizing Neighbourhood across Divergent Position

According to Galster (2001), neighbourhood is a term that is extremely difficult to define precisely, but everyone knows it when they see it. This is because individuals are parts of one neighbourhood or the other, either strong or anomic one. Keller (1968) stressed that most definitions of neighbourhood involve two general components: the physical and social structures. This was corroborated by Hunter (1979) and Galster (2001) who argued that neighbourhoods contain residences, or at least, are the site of social interaction. Also, Forrest and Kearns (2001: 2134), posited that neighbourhood "is an overlapping social networks with specific and variable time-geographies". This means that neighbourhood is a web of physical structure and social interactions. Similarly, Martin (2003) refers to neighbourhood as small group of houses in the immediate vicinity of one's house or to a larger area with similar housing types and market.

Schwirian (1983) presented a considerably all-inclusive definition of neighbourhood when he viewed the term from its essential elements or components. According to him:

The basic elements of neighbourhood are: people, place, interaction system, shared identification, and public symbols. Putting the elements together, neighbourhood can be viewed as a population residing in an identifiable section of a city whose members are organized into a general interaction network of formal and informal ties and express their common identification with the area in public symbols (Schwirian, 1983: 84)

From the above definitions, it can be inferred that neighbourhood is networks of physical structures and social interactions. It should be noted that neighbourhoods vary in terms of physical structures and social interactions, and this accounted for the emergence of different types of neighbourhoods in our contemporary cities. Onibokun (1972), Onokerhoraye and Omuta (1986) (cited in Ahmed (2012) and Afon (2004)) identified three major categories of neighbourhood which are distinct in social as well as physical attributes. These are: (i) low quality residential area, usually high density zone; (ii) medium residential area, usually medium density residential area and high quality residential area, usually low residential zone. Thus, Kuntu neighbourhood can be categorized as unplanned residential area, with high concentration of low income people; while Government Residential Area (GRA) can be classified as high quality residential area.

Criminality Occasioned by Neighbourhood patterns in the contemporary World

As a social science concept, crime is difficult to define. The act or acts defined as crime or crimes vary in time and space (Dambazau, 2011). Researchers have defined crime in different ways. Researchers such as Peil (1977), (cited in Igbo (1999) Hartjen (1978), Curzon (1979), (cited in Iwarimie-Jaja (2000) and Haramlambos (1980)) viewed crime from legal point of view. According to them, crime usually is defined as acts of omission or commission forbidden by law that can be punished by imprisonment and/or fine. Murder, robbery, burglary, rape, drunken driving are common examples. According to Smith and Hogan (1953) and Devlin (1959) (cited in Dambazau (2011)) crimes are wrongs which the judges have held, or parliament has from time to time laid down, and are sufficiently injurious to the public to warrant the application of criminal procedures to deal with them.

Moreover, Jeffery (1956), Tappan (1960), Sutherland (1982), cited in Iwamie-Jaja (1999) and Reid (1982) presented a more legalistic definition of crime. In their views, crime is any intentional act or omission or commission in

violation of criminal law (statutory and case law), committed without defense or justification, and sanctioned by the state as a felony or misdemeanor or simple offence. They also added that a person should not be punished for his thoughts, because the criminal law required that an act or omission or commission of an act must be committed, and such act or failure to act must be intentional. According to Reid (1982), there is no crime without punishment, no punishment without law, and no crime without a victim.

However, the above definitions of crime are too legalistic, and therefore, they are not appropriate in appreciating the universality of crime in human societies. Consequently, there is the need for the linkages of legalistic conception of crime to social norms and values of different human societies. It is against this backdrop that Dambazau (1994) and Dubey (2009) conceived crime from socio-legalistic perspective. According to Dambazau (1994), crime is an act or omission against public interest and which is prescribed by law enacted by the legislature in the overall interests of the society, and to which prescribed punishment is attached in the event of violation and it involves four major principles which are public wrong, moral wrong, law and punishment for the criminal. Dubey (2009) conceived crime as a deviant behavior that violates prevailing norms and cultural standards prescribing how humans ought to behave normally. Therefore, this study adopted socio-legalistic conception of crime.

Researchers such as Sampson (1985) Leventhal and Brooks-Gunn (2000), Ellen *et.al* (2001), Sampson *et.al* (2002), and Riva *et.al* (2007), have established links between neighbourhood patterns and the incidence of crime. Essentially, crime and the environmental conditions of committing crime has become a new focus of environmental criminologists (Brantingham and Brantingham, 1990). Historically, Shaw and McCay (1942) were among the earliest researchers that established the relationships between neighbourhood patterns and incidence of crimes, which was contained in their study entitled "Juvenile Delinquency and Urban Areas". They opined that differences in crime rates between or among areas were correlated with neighbourhood variables like housing conditions, demographic stability and social status.

Also, Davidson's (1981) research findings supported the study of Shaw and McCay (1942). In his analysis of the relationship between neighbourhood patterns and the incidence of crime, he classified neighbourhood into two categories: physical and social environment. Physical environment referred to the general structure and design of an area. For instance, residential designs, parks, leisure ground, street patterns, commercial complexes and centers are the basic components of the physical environment; while social environment referred to set of contexts which form the basis for social interaction. He argued that when physical and social environments are not properly planned, they may provide the opportunities for crime and criminality.

Clark (1983, 1993), Felson (1994), and Taylor and Harrel (1996) examined how offenders think about a crime situation and how they choose the most suitable neighbourhood and opportunity to operate in or target to select. They argued that environmental features of a place will probably affect a potential offender's perceptions about a possible crime site, their evaluations of the likelihood of success and the availability and visibility of guardians. Similarly, Weatherburn (2001), Adeboyejo and Onyeonuru (2003), Abodunrin (2004), Adeboyejo and Abodunrin (2005), opined that crimes are greatly influenced by neighbourhood residential patterns. Therefore, any meaningful intervention at crime control must first begin with decision on building and environmental features that discourages crime incidence and reduces fear of crime (Adigun and Afolabi, 2013).

Some researchers, such as Mccord *et.al*, (2001), Herren and Kohl (2001), Mivie and Norris (2006), Seddon (2008), Okafor (2011) and Bello (2011), have examined the impact of structural and demographic features of neighbourhood on the incidence of crime. They pointed that disorganized neighbourhoods have weak social control, resulting from isolation among residents and high residential turnover, which allows criminal activities to go unmonitored. Their submissions show that high levels of neighbourhood instability, high youth population and economic deprivation, high rates of unemployment and overcrowding increase the rate of criminal activities. It seems that there is a consensus among environmental criminologists that deteriorating neighbourhoods breed crimes (Adeboyejo and Onyeonuru (2003; Abodunrin 2004).

Jeffrey (1977), Newman (1980), Felson (1994), Weatherburn and Lind (2001), Braga and Bond (2008) looked at the extent at which disadvantaged neighbourhood influenced the incidence of crime. People who live in poor or deteriorating neighbourhoods with higher incidence of crime are more likely to be exposed to and witness robberies, assaults and murders. According to Stark (1987), Rosenbaum (1987) and Ronald, Timothy and Berth (2013), experiencing neighbourhoods as dangerous, inhabitants may become anxious, depressed, defiant, and/or aggressive, and some of them are more likely to partake in criminality such as becoming cult's members and other forms of criminality. The frequency of crimes in disadvantaged or anomic neighbourhood may be responsible for the high incidence of teenage criminality in our contemporary societies.

Chung (2005) cited in Salehi (2009) argued that there should be four fundamental factors for a crime to be committed: (i) law; (ii) offender; (iii) target; and (iv) place. Out of these four factors, Asl *et.al* (2014) asserted that place is, perhaps, the most fundamental factor determining the incident of crime in urban areas. Kalantari (2009) corroborated that due to the specific structural construction and social, economic and cultural features of residents of neighbourhoods, the potential for crime and opportunity for crime is greater in some places of the city. He further stated that the rate of crime is low in some

neighbourhoods due to the existence of preventive factors. This means that crime is not evenly distributed in the city

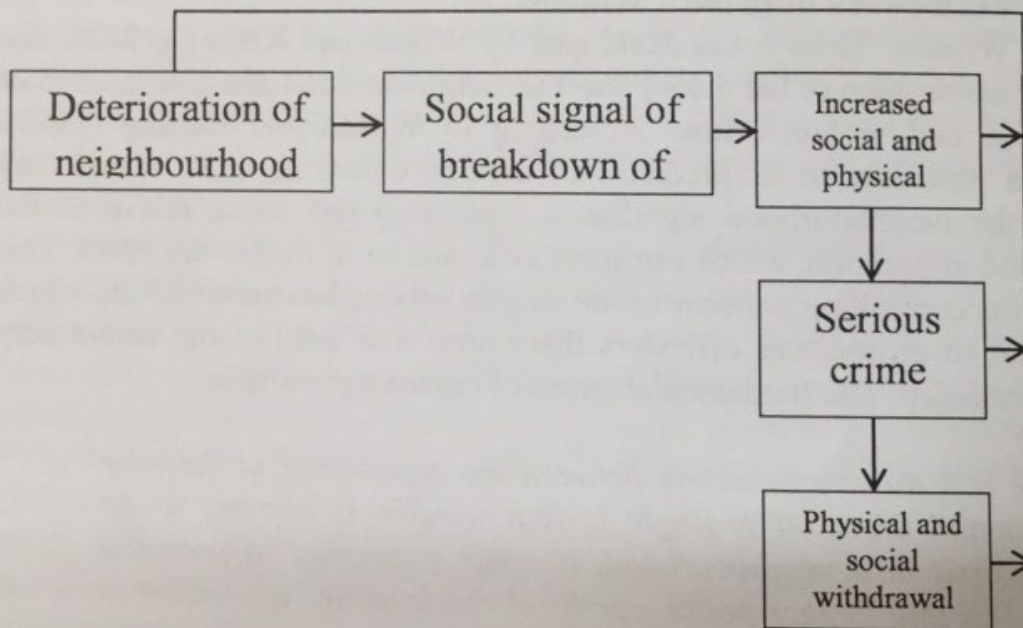
The neighbourhood with highest incidence of crime has been described as "crime spot" (Nasar and Fisher, 1993; Lupton, 1999). According to Asl *et.al* (2014), crime spot refers to a place or neighbourhood where the crime rate is very high. The term "crime spot" was first used by Sherma, Guartain, and Burger (1969). They used the term to analyze incidence of crime based on the features of neighbourhoods. Sherma (1989) opined that the residents of a particular neighbourhood are crucial factor in determining the formation of "crime spot". In addition to this, Wisbird and Eck (2007) submitted that there are four essential factors that trigger the formation of crime spots: (a) the presence of the facilities needed for an offence to happen; (b) neighbourhood features such as easy access, unavailability of guards and patrols, lack of appropriate management of neighbourhoods, and the presence of some facilities that encourages the criminals to commit crime in certain places; (c) crime targets or the existence of properties and assets that are the offender's favourites; and (d) the presence of a higher number of offenders and sufficient incentive and ability to commit crime.

Theoretical Framework of Broken Window

The Broken Window Theory was developed by Wilson and Kelling (1982). The fundamental assumption of the theory was that neighbourhood disorder leads to or causes serious and violent crime. According to Wilson and Kelling (1982), disorder is a precursor to or predictor of serious crime. In other words, any disorder in the neighbourhood signifies a rupture in the social fabric of the neighbourhood in question, which can serve as a catalyst of further disorders. This implies that the controlling window of the neighbourhood has been broken, which sends a signal to prospective offenders that norms and laws of the community have been weakened. The fundamental tenets of the theory intimate:

There is a direct connection between the appearance of disorder and actual crime. If a single broken window is allowed to go unrepaired in a neighbourhood, it sends a message to potential offenders that neither police nor local residents are committed to the upkeep of the community. In time, the broken window will be joined by further signs of disorder, litter, vandalism and abandoned vehicles. The area will begin a gradual process of decay in which respectable residents will seek to leave and will be replaced by deviant newcomers such as drug dealers, the homeless people and ex-convicts (Iwarie-Jaja, 2000:180).

There are two types of disorder in the neighbourhood: Physical and social disorder. Physical disorder includes the presence of abandoned cars, uncompleted buildings, unplanned residential buildings, disjointed streets, presence of many inaccessible places to law enforcement agencies, among others; while social disorder includes such things as the presence of prostitutes, disorderly groups, homeless people, among others (Parenti, 2000; Schultz and Tabanico, 2001; and Wilson and Grammenos, 2000). Shaw and Carli (2011); Doran and Lees (2005) opined that it is possible that the occurrence of crime in an area increases the likelihood of further incidents and that more serious types of crime will occur. This is what they described as "contagion-like effect". If any criminal act goes unaddressed in an area, it will open the window for further criminal acts, even more serious than the previously experienced. According to the theory, when there is physical and social withdrawal of the law enforcement agents from the community, coupled with social signal of breakdown of informal social control, there is a possibility of increased anti-social behaviour, which may eventually metamorphosed into serious crimes in the neighbourhood. If this state of anomie continues unchecked, it may culminate into total deterioration of the neighbourhood. The diagram below explains the theory more clearly.



Source: Doran and Lees (2005)

A number of empirical studies have confirmed the relevance and applicability of Broken Window Theory. For instance, Skogan (1990) surveyed 40 American Cities in which disorder was most common. Based on his data analysis, he concluded that in the 40 cities surveyed the risk of armed robbery was greatest. In support, Armitage (2007), opined that the probability of crime is greater in neighbourhoods where there are signs of disorganization. In a study of 196 neighbourhoods in Chicago, Sampson and Raudenbush (1990) used a range of data sources to examine the disorder-crime nexus. Crimes recorded by the police

(robbery, burglary, and homicide) and responses to resident surveys were used to measure levels of crime at neighbourhood level. Analyses revealed that there were significant correlations between indicators of disorder and crime, but with the exception of armed robbery.

Researchers such as Giddens (2001) pointed out the major limitation of the theory. According to him, "the theory leaves it to the police to identify a social disorder in whatever way they want. Without a systematic definition of disorder, the police are authorized to see almost anything as a sign of disorder and anyone as a threat" (Giddens, 2001 cited in Iwarie-Jaja, 2003:181). Also, the theory failed to acknowledge the fact that disorder is equally a form of criminal activities. For instance, the theory mentioned prostitutes, disorderly groups and homelessness as forms of social disorders. In some societies, these can be categorized as forms of crimes. Despite this drawback, the theory remains useful to this study. This is because the theory draws attention to the relationships between disorganization in neighbourhood and the incidence of crime. It appears that poor neighbourhoods are breeders and homes for criminals. Therefore, to address the problem of youth criminality in the study settings, the theory recommended that correcting the decay in the neighbourhood will go a long way in reducing the involvement of youth in criminal activities.

Method

The study adopted survey research to examine the influence of neighbourhood patterns on the incidence of crime in Kuntu and GRA neighbourhoods in Ilorin, Kwara State. The two neighbourhoods were purposively selected by the researchers due to their knowledge of the two areas. Also, purposive sampling technique was used to select the respondents from the two selected neighbourhoods. This was employed because of the unavailability of sampling frame due to limited number of people that can be used as primary source of data. From the sampling technique, one hundred and twenty respondents (120) were drawn from each neighbourhood. Thus, the sample size was two hundred and forty ($n=240$).

Questionnaire was used to collect data. This is because the study was purely quantitative. Before the administration of the questionnaires to the respondents, they were informed about the objectives of the study, and their consents were sought. Out of the one hundred and twenty copies of the questionnaire administered in Kuntu neighbourhood, only one hundred and eight were completely filled and returned; while in GRA neighbourhood, out of one hundred and twenty copies of the questionnaires that were administered, one hundred and seventeen were completed and returned. The response rate for Kuntu and GRA neighbourhoods were 90% and 97.5% respectively. This means that the response rate was very encouraging.

The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics (percentile method and the mean score method). The percentile method was used to analyze the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents; while the Mean Score method was used to analyze and compare the incidence of crime in both neighbourhoods. The Mean Score Method was adopted for this study because it is appropriate for comparing data. Therefore, it was employed to compare incidence of crime in both neighbourhoods in order to pinpoint the neighbourhood with higher incidence of crime and the neighbourhood with lower incidence of crime.

Result and Discussion of Findings

The data derived from the administration of questionnaire are analyzed below.

Table 1: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

Classification	Kuntu		GRA	
Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Male	68	62.96	74	63.25
Female	40	37.04	43	36.75
Total	108	100	117	100
Age	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Below 30 years	43	39.81	51	43.59
31-45years	38	35.19	44	37.61
46-60years	21	19.44	18	15.38
61years and above	06	5.56	04	3.42
Total	108	100	117	100
Educational level	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
School Leaving	33	30.56	09	7.69
Secondary	42	38.89	13	11.11
OND	27	25	29	24.79
HND/B.Sc/B.Ed	04	3.70	35	29.91
M.Sc/Ph.D	02	1.85	31	26.50
Total	108	100	117	100
Occupation	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Self-employed	42	38.89	19	16.24
Civil Servant	03	2.78	63	53.85
Politicians	21	19.44	11	9.40
Unemployed	39	36.11	17	14.53
Others	03	2.78	07	5.98
Total	108	100	117	100
Income level	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage

Below #10,000	51	47.22	02	1.71
#10,001-#20,000	23	21.30	02	1.71
#20,001-#30,000	21	19.44	04	3.42
#30,001-#40,000	07	6.48	08	6.84
#40,001-#50,000	04	3.70	39	33.33
Above #50,001	02	1.86	62	52.99
Total	108	100	117	100
Type of Resident	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
A room/room and Parlour	105	97.22	07	6.00
Flat	03	2.78	49	41.88
Self-Contain	0	0	36	30.77
Bungalow	0	0	14	11.97
Duplex	0	0	11	9.38
Total	108	100	117	100
The structure of the resident	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Fenced resident	02	1.85	109	93.16
Non-fenced resident	106	98.15	08	6.84
Total	108	100	117	100

Source: Researchers' Fieldwork (2016)

The response rates in the two neighbourhoods (Kuntu and GRA) were 90% and 97.5% respectively. The reason for the difference in the response may be linked to the level of education of the inhabitants of the two neighbourhoods. Some respondents in the Kuntu area did not complete their questionnaire; while a few people demanded for money before they would fill the questionnaire. In both neighbourhoods, the majority of the respondents 68(62.96) and 74(63.25) respectively were males. This is not, perhaps, because only males were affected by the menace of crime. It may be a result of the fact that males were more accessible than the females when it comes to public issues.

The Table (1) also shows the age distribution of the respondents residing in both neighbourhoods. From the distribution, it is observed that the majority of the respondents fell between below 30 years and 45 years. This shows that substantial number of the respondents were youths. Respondents who have the First School Leaving Certificate and Senior Secondary School Certificate are high in Kuntun neighbourhood (30.62%) for School leaving Certificate and 38.98% for Senior Secondary School Certificate); while only 7.7% and 11.1% are in GRA for School Leaving Certificate and Senior Secondary School Certificate respectively.

Those who have Higher National Diploma (HND)/ Bachelor of Science degree/Bachelor of Education were 29.9% in GRA. Also, in GRA, 26.5% of the respondents hold a Masters degree/Ph.D. The results show the differences between the two neighbourhoods in terms of educational levels. There is no gainsaying the fact that these disparities would influence their socio-economic standing.

In terms of the respondents' occupations, most of the respondents in Kuntu neighbourhood were self-employed (38.9%, self-employed; and unemployed 36.1%). Even, those that were self-employed were road side mechanic, hair dressers, petty traders, electricians, and among others; while those in GRA were mainly in the civil service (53.9%). The numbers of the employed respondents were extremely low in GRA neighbourhood, when compared with the number of unemployed respondents in Kuntu neighbourhood. This further signifies the socio-economic conditions of both neighbourhoods. Overwhelming majority of the respondents from GRA neighbourhood were earning above #40,000 per month as monthly income. In contrast, the income level of respondents in Kuntu neighbourhood was low compared to that of GRA as shown in Table 1. More than 70% of the respondents in Kuntu neighbourhood were earning below #30,000 as monthly income. Based on these results, Kuntu neighbourhood can be classified under low socio-economic category, which may be the factor that account for high incidence of crime in this neighbourhood. On the other hand, GRA can be grouped under high socio-economic category, and this may explain the low incidence of crime in the area. This finding is in tandem with the research findings of Aluyor (2005), Petras (2007), and Bello (2011). According to them, high rate of poverty and unemployment in the neighbourhood breeds crimes, which result into high incidence of criminality in the slum or slum-like neighbourhoods. Moreover, Bello (2011) argued that resident's socio-economic attributes are critical precursor and determinant of crimes.

Also, the table 1 shows that 97.22% of the respondents from Kuntu neighbourhood reported that they were living in a room/ room and parlour. Whereas, more than 70% of the resident from GRA area were living in either flats or self-contain. On whether their residents were fenced or not, 98.2% of the respondents from Kuntu neighbourhood reported that their residents were not fenced; while 93.2% of the respondents from GRA area reported that their residents were properly fenced. It can be deduced from these results that GRA is a planned neighbourhood because the majority of the residents in the area live in either flats or self-contain, and they were properly fenced. This makes it extremely difficult for potential criminals to commit crimes. This finding is supported by Newman (1973), Abodunrin (2004), Adeboyejo and Onyeonoru (2003), and Adeboyejo and Abodunrin (2005). According to them, crimes are greatly influenced by urban residential patterns. According to Adigun and Afolabi (2013), neighbourhood patterns have become a new focus of environmental criminologists.

Table 2: Respondents' Perception of Crime in Kuntu Area of Ilorin, Kwara State

Type of crime committed	Very Low	Low	High	Very High	Mean Score
Burglary	14	20	41	33	3.23
Robbery	03	11	55	39	3.20
Trespass	12	19	37	40	2.97
Vandalism	02	06	49	51	3.38
Cultism	01	02	18	87	3.77
Theft	09	14	61	24	2.93
Murder	40	51	15	2	1.81
Drug abuse	07	06	17	78	3.54

Source: Researchers' Fieldwork (2016)

Table 3: Respondents' Perception of Crime in GRA Area of Ilorin, Kwara State

Type of Crime Committed	Very Low	Low	High	Very High	Mean Score
Burglary	31	62	13	11	2.03
Robbery	28	67	10	12	2.05
Trespass	38	44	17	18	2.13
Vandalism	41	53	13	10	1.93
Cultism	55	61	1	0	1.54
Theft	34	47	22	14	2.14
Murder	40	55	13	09	1.92
Drug abuse	43	50	14	10	1.92

Source: Researchers' Fieldwork (2016)

The Weighted Mean Score was used to compare and grade incidences of crime in both neighbourhoods. The mean score value for burglary (3.23), robbery (3.20), trespass (2.97), vandalism (3.38), cultism (3.77), theft (2.93), murder (1.81), and drug abuse (3.54) in Kuntu neighbourhood were approximately high compared to that of GRA neighbourhood (burglary (2.03), robbery (2.05), trespass (2.13), vandalism (1.93), cultism (1.54), theft (2.14), murder (1.92), and drug abuse (1.92). The implication of this may be because Kuntu neighbourhood is classified as slum area and the inhabitants live in poverty and are engaged in diverse crime (Omole, 1995). Hence the occupants in Kuntu area perceived crime to be very

high. From the above results, the most common forms of crimes in Kuntu neighbourhood were cultism and drug abuse. These findings were supported by Onokerhoraye and Omuta (1986) and Afon (2004). According to them, low quality residential areas are more likely to have high number of potential criminals.

Conclusion and Recommendations

From the findings obtained from this study, it was observed that incidence of crime is more prevalent among people living in densely populated area than sparsely populated area. It was also revealed that environmental factors influence criminal activities in unplanned neighbourhoods. Flowing from this, the following recommendations are suggested:

Efficient security mechanisms should be taken up by the government and the security agents, such that the police patrols is extended to all nooks and crannies of the Ilorin metropolis. In other words, law enforcement agencies in Ilorin metropolis should be adequately equipped so that they would be more efficient in tackling and controlling increased incidence of crime in our neighbourhoods. In addition, Physical infrastructures that offer better surveillance by the law enforcement should be provided. Physical infrastructures that physically obstruct or deter offenders from committing crime should be made available in high-crime residential areas (crime spots). The structural patterns of the "crime spot" neighbourhoods should be adjusted. This includes giving careful attention to walkways, paths, streets, traffic pattern, and residential lay-outs. Experience has shown that the residential lay-outs of low-crime neighbourhoods often have more one-way and low-volume streets. Changing the pattern of how neighbourhood space is used would go a long way in reducing contact between potential criminals and their targets, which help in curbing incidence of crime.

There is the need for the institutionalization of neighbourhood watch in Ilorin metropolis. Neighbourhood Watch is a crime prevention program that brings community members together and teaches them how to make their neighbourhoods safer by using basic crime prevention techniques and identifying and reporting suspicious activities. The program should encourage residents to act as the "eyes and ears" of law enforcement agencies and to take steps to make their neighbourhood less vulnerable to crime. The residents should be encouraged to involve in community vigilante (Community Policing). This, in turn, reduces the incidence of crime in the area.

Government should prevent physical deterioration and disorder in the neighbourhoods. Controlling the physical deterioration in a neighbourhood by limiting the number of abandoned cars, long-forgotten uncompleted buildings, and trash accumulations. This can influence a potential criminal's perception of an area's vulnerability to crime. Government should embark on programs targeting youths. This is because the research findings show that the bulk of potential criminals in unplanned neighbourhoods are youths. Therefore, youths in

the areas should be incorporated into such activities as athletic and drug rehabilitation programs tutoring. These programs would provide young people with alternative and positive activities, thereby reducing the incidence of crime in the neighbourhood.

Also, law enforcement agencies, particularly the Nigeria Police, should establish a dialogue with resident groups with the goal of strengthening relationships. Community-Based Collaborative Problem-Solving is a strategy that would connect the Police with the community on projects of common interest. The Police and the citizens must reach a shared realization that the police alone are incapable of fixing neighbourhood problems and keeping residents safe.

References

- Abodunrin, F.O. (2004). Spatio-Temporal Variation and Residents Response to Crime in Ogbomoso. *M.Tech, Dissertation*, Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Ladoke Akintola University of Technology.
- Adeboyejo, A. T., & Onyeonuru, I.P. (2003). Residential Density and Adolescent Reproductive Health Problems in Ibadan, Nigeria. *African Population Studies*, 18(1), 3.
- Adeboyejo, A.T., & Abodunrin, F.O. (2007). Spatio-Temporal Variations in Urban Crime in Ogbomoso, Nigeria. *Journal of Environmental Sciences* 6 (1) p21-26.
- Adigun, F.O., & Adedibu, A.A. (2013). Correlates of Residents Response to Crime in Nigerian Cities. *Global Journal of Human Social Science*, 13(issue 5), 38-50.
- Afon, A.O. (2001). Resident Diversity Factor in the Perception of and Response to Fear of Crime in Nigeria. Paper presented at the *International Conference on Security, Segregation and Social Networks in West Africa Cities* 19th –20th centuries, held at the International Centre for African Studies(IFRA) University of Ibadan.
- Agboola, E.B. (2009). Dimension of Criminal Behaviour in Cities. In A.C. Adesina., O.O., Olufayo., & T. Adefolaju. (Eds), *Perspectives on Urbanization in Nigeria*. Lagos. Bolabay Publication.
- Aguda, A.S. (1994). Area Ecological Analysis of Crime. A Case Study of a Nigerian City. In I.O. Albert., J. Adisa., T. Agbola., & G. Herault. (Ed), *Urban Management and Urban Violence in Africa*. Ibadan: IFRA.
- Ahmed, Y.A. (2012). The Pattern and Distribution of Crime Incidence in an Urban Environment: A Case Study of Osun State, South-western Nigeria. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 2(5), 178-188.
- Ailshire, J., Bader, M., Morenoff, J., & Melendez, R. (2010). *Do Neighbourhood Effects Depend on the Definition of the Neighbourhood?* California: Andrus Gerontology Center.

- Aluyor, G.B.O. (2005). Performance Evaluation of the Nigerian Police in Crime Prevention in Urban Centers. *Journal of Land Use and Development Studies*, 1(1), 84-89.
- Armitage, R. (2007). Sustainability Versus Safety: Confusion, Conflict and Contradiction in Designing out Crime. In G. Farrell., K.J., Bowersk., S.D., Johnson., & M. Townsley (Ed), *Imagination for Crime Prevention: Essays in Honour of 'Ken Pease' Crime Prevention Studies* (Volume 21). Criminal Justice Press.
- Asl, H.B., Moghadam, H.Z., & Parhiz, F. (2014). Analysis of Spatial Patterns for Urban Crimes in the Informal Settlement Area of Islamabad in Zanzan. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 4(1), 4-19.
- Audit Commission (2006). *Neighbourhood Crime and Anti-Social Behaviour: Making Places Safer through Improved Local Working*. Community Safety National Report.
- Bello, V. (2011). *The Impact of Urban Crime on Property Values in Akure, Nigeria*. FIG, Working Weeks.
- Braga, A.A., & Bond, B.J. (2008). Policing Crime and Disorder Hot Spots: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Criminology*, 1(1), 577-607.
- Brantingham, P. & Brantingham, P. (2005). Criminality of Place: Crime Generators and Crime Attractors. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*, 3(3), 5-26.
- Brantingham, P., & Brantingham, P. (1990). Situational Crime Prevention in Practice. *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, 3(2), 17-49.
- Buck, N. (2001). Identifying Neighbourhood Effects on Social Exclusion. *Urban Studies*, 38(1), 2251-2275.
- Clark, R.V., & Felson, M. (1993). *Routine Activity and Rational Choice: Advances in Criminology Theory* (Vol.5). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books.
- Clarke, R.V. (1983). Situational Crime Prevention: Its Theoretical Basis and Practical Scope. In M. Tonry., & N. Morris (Ed), *Crime and Justice: An Annual Review of Research*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Dambazau, A.B. (1994). *Law and Criminality in Nigeria*. Ibadan: University Press.
- Dambazau, A.B. (2011). *Criminology and Criminal Justice*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.
- Davidson, R.N. (1981). *Crime and Environment*. London: Croom Helm.
- Doras, B.J., & Lees, B.G. (2005). Investigating the Spatio-temporal Links between Disorder, Crime and Fear of Crime. *The Professional Geographer*, 57(1), 1-12.
- Dubey, K.C. (2009). *Introduction to Crime Psychology*. New Delhi, Omega Publication.

- Durkheim, E., (1964). *The Division of Labour in Society*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Eck, E.J., Chainey, S., Cameron, J., Leitner, M., & Wilson, R. (2009). *Mapping Crime: Understanding Hotspots*. Zanzan: Azar Kelk.
- Ellaway, A., Macintyre, S., & Kearns, A. (2001). Perceptions of Place and Health in Socially Contrasting Neighbourhoods. *Urban Studies*, 38(1), 2299-2316.
- Ellen, I.G., Tod, M., & Keri-Nicole, D. (2001). Neighbourhood Effects on Health: Exploring the Links and Assessing the Evidence. *Journal of Urban Affairs*, 23(1), 391-408.
- Felson, M. (1994). *Crime and Everyday Life: Insight and Implications for Society*. Thousand Oaks: Pine Forge Press.
- Forrest, R., & Kearns, A. (2001). Social Cohesion, Social Capital and the Neighbourhood. *Urban Studies*, 38(1), 2125-2143.
- Galster, G.C. (1986). What is Neighbourhood? An Externality-Space Approach. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 10(1), 243-263.
- Galster, G.C. (2001). "On the Nature of Neighbourhood". *Urban Studies*, 38(1), 2111-2124.
- Haralambos, M., & Head, R.M. (1980). *Sociology, Themes and Perspectives*. Sloughs, SLI 4JQ: University Tutorial Press.
- Harris, P.A. (1994). Client Management Classification and Prediction of Probation Outcome. *Crime and Delinquency*, 40(2), 154-174.
- Hartjen, C.A. (1978). *Crime and Criminalization*, 2nd edition. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston/Prager.
- Hunter, A. (1979). The Urban Neighbourhood: Its Analytical and Social Contexts. *Urban Affairs Quarterly*, 14(1), 267-288.
- Igbo, E.U.M. (1999). *Introduction to Criminology*. Nssukka: Afro-Orbis Publications Ltd.
- Iwarimie-Jaja, D. (2000). *Criminology: The Study of Crime*. Port-Harcourt: SIJ Publishers.
- Jeffery, C.R. (1997). *Crime Prevention through Environmental Design*. Beverly Hills. SAGE Publication Inc.
- Kalantari, M. (2001). *Investigating Crime Geographical in Tehran City*. Ph.D Proposal, Submitted to the Faculty of Geography, University of Tehran.
- Kalantari, M., & Ghezelbash, S., & Jabari, K. (2009). *Analyzing City Criminal Space by Using Kernel Estimation Model, Under Study Violence Crimes, Struggle in Zanzan, Nazm Va Amnyat-e Entezami*. Quaterterly, 2(3), 80-98.
- Kalantari, M., Hedayati, A., & Abbasi, E. (2010). *The Study of the Role and Type of Land Occupancies in the Formation of Crime Spots, Using GIS for Drug Abuse and Drug Trafficking in Ghazvin Police Sciences*. Quarterly, Eleventh Year(3), 1-44.

- Kearns, A., & Parkinson, M. (2001). The Significance of Neighbourhood. *Urban Studies*, 38(1), 2103-2110.
- Leventhal, T.; & Jeanne, B. (2000). The Neighbourhoods they Live in: The Effects of Neighbourhood Residence on Child and Adolescent Outcomes. *Psychological Bulletin*, 26(1), 309-37.
- Lupton, D. (1999). Dangerous Places and the Unpredictable Stranger: Constructions of Fear Crime. Australian and New Zealand. *Journal of Criminology*, 32(1), 1-15.
- Martin, D.G. (2003). Enacting Neighbourhood. *Urban Geography*, 24(5), 361-385.
- McVie, S., & Norris, P.A. (2006). *Neighbourhood Effects on Youth Delinquency and Drug Use*. Edinburgh Study of Youth Transactions and Crime Research Digest No.10.
- Morenoff, J.D., & Sampson, R.J. (1997). Violent Crime and the Spatial Dynamics of Neighbourhood Transition: Chicago, 1970-1990. *Journal of Physical Environment*, 76(1), 31-64.
- Nasar, J.L., & Fisher, B. (1993). Hot Spots of Fear and Crime: A Multi-Method Investigation. *Journal of Environment Psychology*, 13(1), 187-206.
- Newman, O. (1972). *Defensible Space*. New York: Macmillan.
- Newman, O. (1980). *Community of Interest*. Garden City, NY: Anchor.
- Nolan, J.J., Norman, C., & Jack, M. (2004). Situational Policing: Neighbourhood Development and Crime Control. *Police and Society*, 14(2), 99-117.
- Okafor, E.E. (2011). Youth Unemployment and Implication for Stability of Democracy in Nigeria. *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, 13(1), 358-373.
- Olson, P. (1982). Urban Neighbourhood Research: Its Development and Current Focus. *Urban Affairs Quarterly*, 17(1), 491-518.
- Omale, F.K. (1995). Urban Renewal as a Tool for City Planning Time *Property*, 11-18.
- Onibokun, A.G. (1972). Nigerian Cities: Their Rehabilitation and Residential Redevelopment. *Journal of Royal Town Planning Institute*, 58 (2), 5-56.
- Parenti, C. (2000). *Lockdown America: Police and Prisons in the Age of Crisis*. New York: Verso.
- Park, R.E., Burgess, E.W., & Mckenzie, R.D. (1967). *The City*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Petras, T.L. (2007). *Measuring the Effects of Perceptions of Crime on Neighbourhood Quality and Housing Markets*. Ph.D Thesis, Graduate School of School of the Ohio State University.
- Reid, S.T. (1982). *Crime and Criminology*, 3rd edition. New York: Crowell-Collier.
- Riva, M., Lise G., & Tracie, A.B. (2007). Towards the Next Generation of Research into Small Area Effects on Health: A Synthesis of Multilevel

- Investigations. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health*, 61(1), 853-61.
- Ronald, E., Timothy, H.B., & Beth, S. (2012). *Preventing Neighbourhood Crime: Geography Matter*. Research Report, Washington, D.C: National Institute of Justice (NIJ, 226875).
- Rosenbaum, D.P. (1987). The Theory and Research behind Neighbourhood Watch: Is it a Sound Fear and Crime Reduction Strategy. *Crime and Delinquency*, 33(1), 103-134.
- Salehi, E. (2009). Building Role, Environmental Theory in Preventing Rough Behaviour City. *The Publication of Building and Architecture New Art*, 1(39), 129-130.
- Sampson, R.J. (1985). Neighbourhood and Crime: The Structural Determinants of Personal Victimization. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 22(1), 7-40.
- Sampson, R.J., Raudenbush, S.W., & Earls, F. (1997). Neighbourhoods and Violent Crime: A Multilevel Study of Collective Efficacy. *Science*, 27(7), 918-924.
- Sampson, R.J., Stephen, W.R., & Fello, E. (1997). Neighbourhoods and Violent Crime: A Multi-Level Study of Collective Efficacy. *Science*, 277(1), 918-25.
- Schultz, P.W., & Tabanico, J.J. (2009). *A Social Norms: Approach to Community-Based Crime Prevention Implicit and Explicit Messages on Neighbourhood Watch Signs*. Final Report Submitted to the National Institute of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice, Washington, DC.
- Schwirian, K. (1983). Models of Neighbourhood Change. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 9(1), 83-102.
- Seddon, T. (2008). Youth, Heroin, Crack: A Review of Recent British Trends. *Health Education*, 108(1), 237-246.
- Shaw, C., & McKay, H. (1942). *Juvenile Delinquency and Urban Areas*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Shaw, M., Carli, V. (2011). *Practical Approaches to Urban Crime Prevention*. Proceeding of the Workshop Held at the 12th UN Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, Salvador, Brazil, April 12-19.
- Sherman, L.W., Gartin, P.R., & Buerger, M.E. (1989). "Hot Spots of Predatory Crime: Routine Activities and the Criminology of Place". *Criminology*, 27(1), 27-55.
- Simmel, G. (1971). *Individuality and Social Forms*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Skogan, W.G. (1986). Fear of Crime and Neighbourhood Change. In J.R. Albert., & Tonry, M. (Eds) (203-29), *Communities and Crime*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

- Stark, R. (1987). Deviant Places: A Theory of the Ecology of Crime. *Criminology*, 25(4), 893-909.
- Taylor, R.B., & Harrell, P. (). Physical Environment and Crime. In R.B. Taylor (Ed), *Crime Changes in Baltimore, 1970-1994*. Baltimore, MD: Battelle/Survey Research Associates, Inc.
- Taylor, R.B., & Harrell, A.V. (1990). Physical Environment and Crime. Research Report, Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice (NIJ, 157311).
- Taylor, R.B., & Harrell, A.V. (1996). *Physical Environment and Crime*. USA: National Institute of Justice.
- Tonnies, F. (1955). *Community and Association (Gemeinschaft and Gessellschaft)*. London, UK: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Weatherburn, D. (2001). *What Causes Crime? Crime and Justice Bulletin. Contemporary Issues in Crime and Justice Series*, No. 54; Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research New South Wales, Sydney.
- Weatherburn, D., & Lind, B. (2001). *Delinquent-Prone Communities*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.
- Wilson, D., & Grammenos, D. (2000). Spatiality and Urban Redevelopment Movements. Urban Redevelopment Movements. *Urban Geography*, 21(4), 361-370.
- Wilson, J.Q., & Kelling, G.L. (1982). Broken Window: The Police and Neighbourhood Safety. *Atlantic Monthly*, March, 29-38.
- Wilson, W.J. (1987). *The Truly Disadvantaged: The Inner City, the Underclass and Public Policy*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.



Benin Journal of Social Sciences

Volume 23

Number 1

June 2017

The End of Sovereignty: Globalization and Third World Development
Agara Tunde & Imokhai Philip Ikhanafe

Pious Transformation: Boko Haram, Religious Culture and Radicalization
John Agbonifo, PhD

Nigeria Army-Police Relations and the Containment of Boko Haram, 2009 – 2015
Chilaka Francis Chigozie, Ph.D & Idika Ogboso Ikehukwu

Climate Change—Induced Migration: Cattle Herdsmen and Savannah Grasses
Invasion of the Forest Zone in Edo State, Nigeria
J. E. Agheyisi

Neighborhood Pattern and Incidence of Crime: A Comparative Study
of G.R.A and Kuntu Areas of Ilorin
Mohammed Sanusi Yusuf, Abdussalam Abdulhameed & Moshood Issah

Conceptual Ramification of Nigerian Cybercrime
Cletus A. Lanshima

Nigerian Social Protection: Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme
and Social Investment Programme
Oscar Edoror Ubhenin

Nigeria's Current Economic Recession and Political Leadership Change:
The Dynamics of Reactions
Oarhe Osumah, PhD

Understanding Inequalities in North-East and South-West Regions of Nigeria
Osunde Omoruyi

Assessment of the Knowledge, Perception and Preferred Mode of Sex Education
among Secondary School Adolescents in Ilisan-Remo, Ogun State
Omozusi Omosafe Mercy & Efeturi Eloho Victoria

Political Normadism in Nigeria: Who Benefits?
Francis Osadebamwen Osayi & Nelson Onyekewen Isibor