

Technical Integration
Physical Planning

Territorial Integration
Rural Environment
Urban Planning
Urban Area

Administrative
Political, Social, and
Governance
Participatory
Public
Community

CONTEMPORARY CONCEPTS IN PHYSICAL PLANNING

Functional
State Teaching
Interactive Node
Hospital

EDITED BY

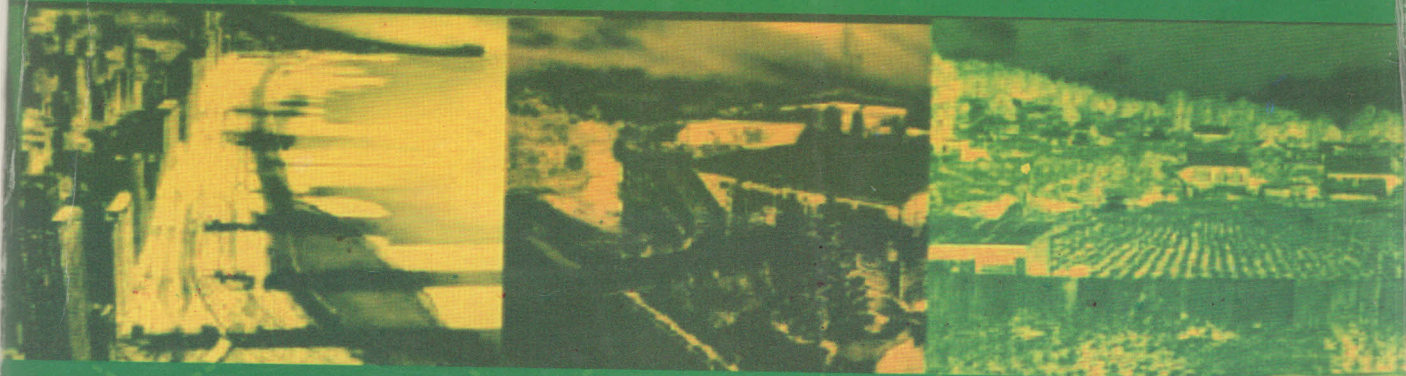
LAYI EGUNJOBI

Health
Centre

Regional
Hospital

District
Hospital

Dispensary
or
Maternity Centre



Education

Housing

VOLUME III

System

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Preface

It is my pleasure to present Volume III of *Contemporary Concepts in Physical Planning* to the reading public. The idea which started to build up in the early twenties got concretized into Volume I in 2015 and was immediately followed up in 2016 with Volume II. The objective, which has remained the same in the preceding volumes, is to facilitate familiarity with and acquire in-depth knowledge of contemporary concepts as they relate to physical planning, in particular, and to all other environment-related disciplines and professions, in general.

This volume comprises 57 chapters in 1240 pages, and contributed by a total of 76 highly-qualified and experienced single/joint authors from different parts of the country and beyond the shores of the country. In line with the formats in Volumes I and II, the chapter titles are arranged alphabetically in the table of contents and listed in the same order on the back cover of the book.

Authors were identified and selected based on their academic and professional qualifications, flare for research and writing, willingness to participate in the book project, and ability to keep to schedule. They were guided as to the structure and length of their chapters. This was done without necessarily jeopardizing some measure of independence in approach and style. Essentially, each chapter reviewed the literature on the concept, focusing on the meaning, historical origin, as well as philosophical and/or theoretical basis, and drew out the relationship or relevance of the particular concept to Urban and Regional Planning in all its ramifications. The accepted chapters, after reviews and corrections, have been packaged in the volume.

The potential value of this book, as in the two preceding volumes, is applicable to practically all shades of urban and regional planners. To those in training, the book has the potential value of developing in them the ability to conceptualize, facilitate skill acquisition and assist them in literature review. To those in education, the book is potentially of tremendous value to increase efficiency and effectiveness in teaching, research and consultancy. Those in planning practice, by reading the book, will be

able to strengthen their capacity to analyse and adapt to new technologies and innovations. Those in the civil service at various levels of government are not left out, as they will, through reading this book, gain lessons of being updated and upgraded in new ideas in areas of governance, policy and management.

In general, *Contemporary Concepts in Physical Planning, Volume III*, as Volumes I and II have proved, is loaded with the potential value that stimulates critical thinking and encourages new knowledge accumulation, not only in the planning field, but also in all other environment-related fields.

At this juncture, may I express my unreserved appreciation to the chapter contributors as listed in the table of contents, for their willing and effective participation in the production of this value-loaded compendium. Their contribution to planning knowledge is particularly acknowledged. The peer reviewers, who are conventionally heard but not known are gratefully acknowledged and appreciated. Our language editor, Dr. Adesina Sunday – who is always ready to work under pressure to meet deadlines – comes prominent on our list of contributors to the success of the volume. Others on the list of honour are members of the Technical Team: they are Dr. Joe Omirin, Dr. Faith Kasim, Tpl. Olusegun Falola, Mrs. Fisayo Ogunmodede and Arc. Ola Olaniyan. Others are Miss Grace Abisoye, who designed the book cover and Paul Falodun, the printer. Last but not least on the list of honour is the Publisher – Department of Urban and Regional Planning, University of Ibadan, being currently headed by Dr. Olusiyi Ipingbemi. A substantive portion of the factors that led to the outcome of the book project is attributable to the staff and students of this Department. I thank you all for your dedication to scholarship and professionalism.

Layi Egunjobi, B.Sc., M.A., Ph.D.

July, 2017

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VIOLENCE

A.I. Bako, F.A. Balogun and
A.O. Abdulyekeen

56.1 Introduction

Graving urbanization is a distinctive trait of the 21st century (Thales, 2012). According to UN forecasts, half of the earth's current population of seven billion, lives in towns and cities. By 2050, it would have reached nine billion, and 70% of that number will be city dwellers. The rate at which contemporary cities are growing due to the rapid urbanization of the world's population has brought about widespread conditions of insecurity to human settlements, among which are natural and man-made disasters, crime and violence. As insecurity has aggravated over the years, it has become abundantly clear that there is no magic formula or policy to address it (Chioda, 2017). These threats occur in all regions and countries of the world, with Latin

America and the Caribbean being the most violent regions, with high rate of attendance too coming from developing countries of the sub-Saharan Africa (Chioda, 2017).

Boer (2012) argues that the world became a predominantly urban society in 2007. Across the world, an estimated three quarters of economic production takes place in cities. Urbanization brings with it possibilities of improved access to job, goods and services for poor people in developing countries and beyond as globalization trends connect cities worldwide. However, urbanization has brought new challenges in terms of conflict, violence, poverty and inequalities. The World Bank Development Report of 2011 highlighted the significance of violence as a development problem. It noted how violence is changing, becoming less structured around nations of civil war and conflicts, and more focused around criminal violence, terrorism and civil unrest. The report also underscored the close relationship between violence and poverty, stating that no low-income fragile or conflict-affected state has yet achieved a single Millennium Development Goal.

Robert (2012) opines that violence is becoming more widespread and chronic in many of the world's interest-growing cities – particularly in Latin America, the Caribbean and sub-Saharan Africa, but also increasing in South and Central Asia. While affecting all socio-economic groups in numerous direct and indirect ways, the burden of such violence is especially heavy on the urban poor. Together, these facts raise concerns amongst security and aid experts about their implications for national and regional stability and for human development more generally. According to the United Nations and World Bank reports of 2007, violent crime cost Guatemala an estimated \$2.4 billion or 7.3% of gross domestic product (GDP); and the Mexican government estimated the cost of violence in 2007 at \$9.6 billion, primarily from lost investment, local business and jobs. The UN and World Bank reports in 2007

also estimated that Jamaica and Haiti could have increased their GDP by 5.4% merely by bringing down their crime levels to that of Costa Rica.

Miller and Stephen (2009) state that, in today's world, it will be accepted that violence exacts a higher cost on global development. In about sixty (60) countries, over the last ten years, violence has significantly and directly reduced economic growth. It has hampered poverty reduction efforts and limited progress towards the Sustainable Development Goals. About half of these countries experience violence conflict or are in post-conflict transition. The other half experience high levels of violence crime, street violence, domestic violence, and other kinds of common violence. Common violence often increases significantly in post-conflict countries after large-scale politically motivated violence ends. Such cases include Somalia, Liberia, Guatemala, and El Salvador. Conversely, countries with high levels of common violence have shown tendencies toward sporadic large-scale instability, for example Kenyan (in the form of ethnic violence) and Brazil (in the form of urban riots).

In much of the development literature of the 1960s and 1970s, violence was viewed as an individual issue of criminal pathology linked to rapid urbanization and to the marginality of migrant population. Moser (2006) argues that evidence from Latin America challenges the population stereotype that poverty is the main cause of violence and shows that inequality and exclusion (unequal physical infrastructure) coupled with poverty precipitate violence. At the same time, in the context of several inequalities, living conditions of the urban populace heighten the potential for conflict, crime and violence. Globalization and the spread of neoliberalism world increased social polarization and led to a worldwide criminal economy in drugs, firearms, prostitution and extortion. This chapter focuses on the

meaning and causes of violence, and appropriate planning programmes and policies capable of preventing violence.

56.2 Origin and Meaning of Violence

There has been a concern over whether we live in a violent time or not. To be convinced that we live in an especially violent time, we have only to think of the assassinations of President John F. Kennedy and Martin Luther King, Jr. the riots in Watts, Detroit, and other urban areas; police violence; the war in Vietnam; the 44 minutes' robbery in United States of America and the rising crime rate. But it must be borne in mind that violence is as old as man himself (Fromm, 1969). In the first place, we have to distinguish between violence against people and violence against things. There is difference between beating up or killing another person and stealing or destroying things. Only those for whom there is no difference between life and property will miss this difference.

In the light of this, it will be necessary to define violence. As defined by World Health Organization (2006), violence is "the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, which either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development, or deprivation". The inclusion of "the use of power" in this definition expands on the conventional understanding of the word (World Health Organization, 2002). This definition involves intentionality with the committing of the act itself, irrespective of the outcome it produces. However, generally, anything that is exerted in an injurious or damaging way may be described as violent: even if not meant to be violence (by a person and against a person).

Furthermore, Fromm (1969) notes that we have to distinguish between incidental violence, which may arise out of actions of protest or

affirmations of certain views, and intended violence, which is aimed at the violation of others. Although it is often not simple to draw a clear line between these two kinds of violence, they represent two forms of violence which can be distinguished from each other. The cry for law and order which is raised in the name of stopping violence can in itself be an expression of violence. It can be, and often is, rooted in the wish to use force to suppress unpopular opinions or attitudes. 'Law and order' is an emotionally charged slogan which often speaks against minority violence, while the mood behind it may be just as violent as that which it claims to fight (Fromm, 1969).

A psychological insight into the causes of violence shows that most common motivations for violence can be viewed as inappropriate attempts to handle emotions. Often, violence is the medium used by an individual to openly express their feelings, such as anger, frustration, or sadness (Jacobson, 2011). Other times, violence can be considered as a form of manipulation for individuals to try and get what they want or need. Aggressive behaviour can also be used as a form of retaliation, a means by which one uses to even the score. However, violent behaviour is sometimes caused because people grow up seeing violence openly displayed. Violence then becomes learned as an "appropriate" way to behave.

The effect of poverty and inequalities on mixed populations is evident in a study across 20 cities in the US. It analysed how local inequalities and heterogeneous populations can influence crime rates. More countries face problems related to immigration. Policymakers should be aware that inequality, even within one ethnic group, is a major cause of crime. Oladosu, Bwala and Muhammad (2015) aver that there exists a gap between the rich and the poor, which increases by the day. Social goods are inaccessible and unaffordable by the majority of the masses, which makes them susceptible to crime and violence; hence they are readily available for fomenting violence whenever the rich want to achieve their selfish interests. Farrington (1994)

identifies drugs and alcohol abuse as one of the factors that promote violent acts, but excesses here are usually tightly associated with the aforementioned risk factors. However, there is strong evidence that behaviour in childhood is predictive of later criminal behaviour.

56.3 Conceptual/Theoretical Issues on Violence and Literature Review

As issues involving violence transcend national boundaries, the impact of violence calls for adequate attention (World Bank LAC, 2011). For example, violence in the highly urbanized and poorer areas of cities presents the highest risks of homicide. Somewhere in Latin America and the Caribbean, someone has probably died by homicide. In fact, the region sees at least four homicide victims every 15 minutes (Chioda, 2017). Homicide rate can be several times higher in low-income areas than in the rest of the city; endemic violence has been shown to gradually transform relationships in ways that erode effective action which is essential for enabling predictable exchanges within political, market and social domains. Violence can have an impact on child and adolescent learning, undermining well-being as well as future earning and productive potential. Violence study in the context of urban and regional planning is a paradigm development that needs to be viewed holistically because of its prominent challenges in both developed and developing countries of the world. Therefore, existing theories, ideas and models in planning that are related to violence studies were reviewed and used as foundation for this study.

56.3.1 Frustration-Aggression Theory

The theory of frustration-aggression is a reaction that is based on so many causal factors. This reaction might have rational effects on individuals,

families, communities, towns and cities' security and safety. Salami (1994) explains the main argument of this theory as a gap between expectations and achievement in the social life of the urbanized, which might lead to frustration and the urge to react aggressively, through acts such as assassinations, demonstrations, bombings and riots. In most of the developing countries of the world, unemployment, especially among the young, has been identified as one of the causal factors of frustration-aggression in society. Agbola (1997) asserts that the social amenities which exist in urban centres are educated youths in search of jobs. Since only few of them in the urban centres are employed eventually, the frustration, anger and aggression built up serves as motivation for urban crime and violence.

Frustration-aggression at individual level metamorphoses to violent conflicts between groups. Hence, the need to consider the relational/vengeance theory (Nwankpa, 2014). This theory is very important to the issues of urban security and safety, because the action of relational/vengeance in any society has damning consequences on lives and property. The theory of relational/vengeance attempts to provide explanation for violent conflicts between groups by exploring sociological, political, economic, religious and historical relationships between such groups. The belief is that cultural and value differences as well as group interests have influence on the relationships between individual and groups in different ways. Faleti (2006) opines that a number of conflicts grow out of a past history of conflict between groups that has led to the development of negative stereotypes, racial intolerance and discrimination. The differences in value disrupt the flow of communication, twist the perceptions that people have about each other and cause fear of living in the urban areas. Human needs and socio-economic factors have contributed to increase in the rate of violence in the developing countries of the world. Hence, it is important to consider the theory of human needs and socio-economic perspective.

The socio-economic perspective of violence in the developing countries blames social conditions for the violent occurrences. The perspective is mainly anchored in human needs theory of social conflicts. The main idea of this theory is that humans have basic needs which they aspire to fulfil. Failure caused by any other individual or group of individual to meet these needs might lead to conflict. The theory is similar to the frustration-aggression theory of violence, which posits that aggression is always a consequence of frustration (Doughery and Pfattzgrate, 1990). According to the theory, relative deprivation is a perceived disparity between value expectation and value capabilities, and the lack of a need satisfaction – defined as the gap between aspiration and achievement – generally relies on the psychological state of frustration and aggressive attitudes emanating from it (Midlarsky, 1975). Disorderliness reflects violence which affects the physical and social order of towns and cities of the developing countries. Social disorganization establishes the presence of broken windows in the urban areas.

56.3.2 Social Disorganization Theory

Social disorganization theory grows out of the research conducted in Chicago by Shaw and McKay in 1942. Kelly(2000) argues that disorganized communities are characterized by poverty, ethnic heterogeneity, residential mobility and weakened social stability. Their theory is for quick and easy identification of urban setting that is socially disorganized. The theory directly links crime rates to neighbourhood ecological characteristics. A core principle of social disorganization theory is that place matters. In other words, a person's residential location is a substantial factor involved in illegal activities. The theory suggests that, among the determinants of a person's later illegal activity, residential location is as significant as or more significant than the person's individual characteristics (e.g. age, gender, or race). The

theory suggests that youths from disadvantaged neighbourhoods participate in a subculture which approves of delinquency and these youths acquire criminality in this social and cultural setting. According to the social disorganization theory, there are ecological factors that lead to high rates of crime in the communities, and these factors are linked to constantly elevate the levels of "high school dropouts, unemployment, deteriorating infrastructures, and single-parent homes"(Gaines and Miller, 2012).

Shaw and McKay (1942) found that areas characterized by economic deprivation had high rates of population turnover, since these were undesirable residential communities, which people left once it became feasible for them to do so. Socioeconomically deprived areas also tended to be settled by newly arrived immigrants, which resulted in the ethnic and racial heterogeneity of these areas. As such, socioeconomically deprived areas had high rates of residential mobility and racial heterogeneity. These neighbourhoods were viewed as socially disorganized. In such areas, conventional institutions of social control (e.g. family, schools, churches, voluntary communities' organizations) were weak and unable to regulate the behaviour of the neighbourhood's youths. From the lack of behavioural regulations, socially disorganized neighbourhoods tended to produce "criminal traditions" that could be passed to successive generations of youths. This system of pro-delinquency attitudes could be easily learned by youths through this daily contact with older juveniles. Thus, a neighbourhood characterized by social disorganization provides fertile soil for crime and delinquency in two ways: through a lack of behavioural control mechanisms and through the cultural transmission of delinquent values.

The system variant of social disorganization focuses on the structural variation of three basic types of networks and the effects of these on crime. These networks relate to the private sphere (intimate friendship and kinship relations), parochial networks (less intimate and secondary group relationships), and the public sphere (groups and institution's outside the

neighbourhood) (Seepersad, 2016). This variant focuses on the effects of social disorganization on these three sources of behaviour regulation.

Faris (1955) extended the concept of social disorganization to explain social pathologies and social problems in general, including crime, suicide, mental illness, and mob violence. He defines social disorganization as the weakening or destruction of the relationships which holds together a social organization. Such a concept is to be employed objectively as a measurable state of a social system, independent of personal approval or disapproval. Robert's (2012) central proposition is that "a crime rate is a reflection of the degree of disorganization of the control mechanisms in a society". In turn, crime also contributes to disorganization, and disorganization of such conventional mechanisms is especially likely large in rapidly growing industrial cities where such disorganization permits highly organized criminality, as well as less organized forms of group and individual crime and delinquency. The deduction from the theory of social disorganization is that sustainable social order or organization in any environmental setting would contribute to the security and safety of towns and cities. The emergence of violence in towns and cities as a result of rapid urbanization gave birth to different thought-driven ideas that provide solution to urban violence, captured in the socio-ecological model.

56.3.3 Socio-ecological Model

The socio-ecological model identifies and discusses the factors that put people at risk of or protect them from experiencing or perpetrating violence and the prevention strategies that can be used in other to have environmental setting that is safe and secure. To better understand and prevent violence, four levels of socio-ecological model have been identified by Dahlberg and Krug (2002). These are individual, relationship, community and societal. The

individual level identifies biological and personal history factors, such as age, education, income, substance use, or history of abuse, that increase the likelihood of becoming a victim or perpetrator of violence. The relationship level examines close relationships that may increase the risk of experiencing violence as a victim or perpetrator. A person's closest social circle-peers, partners and family members influence their behaviour and contribute to their range of experience. The community level explores the settings, such as schools, workplaces, and neighbourhoods, in which social relationships occur and seeks to identify the characteristics of those settings that are associated with becoming victims or perpetrating violence. The societal level looks at the broad societal factors, such as health, economic, education and social policies that help create a climate in which violence is encouraged or inhibited and help to maintain economic or social inequalities between groups in society (See Table 56.1).

Table 56.1: Socio-ecological Model: Blueprints for Violence Prevention

Level of SEM	Examples of Factors that Potentially Increase Risk (Risk Factors)	Examples of Strategies by Level of Influence
Individual		
▪ Personal characteristics	▪ Age/gender	▪ School-based programs that help students develop social, emotional and behavioural skills to build positive relationships
▪ Biological factors	▪ Lower levels of education	▪ In-home programs that teach parents skills for age-appropriate infant and toddler care
▪ Behaviour	Belief supporting use of violence	▪ An after-school program that provides tutoring to increase academic performance
▪ Personal experience	▪ Anger or hostility toward others	▪ Group sessions that increase knowledge and understanding of healthy dating relationships
	▪ Having few friends or being isolated from others	▪ Classroom based health curriculums that teach ways to cope with loss and disappointment, and learn warning signs for depression
	▪ Being unemployed	
	▪ Substance use	
	▪ History of engaging in violence	

individual level identifies biological and personal history factors, such as age, education, income, substance use, or history of abuse, that increase the likelihood of becoming a victim or perpetrator of violence. The relationship level examines close relationships that may increase the risk of experiencing violence as a victim or perpetrator. A person's closest social circle-peers, partners and family members influence their behaviour and contribute to their range of experience. The community level explores the settings, such as schools, workplaces, and neighbourhoods, in which social relationships occur and seeks to identify the characteristics of those settings that are associated with becoming victims or perpetrating violence. The societal level looks at the broad societal factors, such as health, economic, education and social policies that help create a climate in which violence is encouraged or inhibited and help to maintain economic or social inequalities between groups in society (See Table 56.1).

Table 56.1: Socio-ecological Model: Blueprints for Violence Prevention

Level of SEM	Examples of Factors that Potentially Increase Risk (Risk Factors)	Examples of Strategies by Level of Influence
Individual		
▪ Personal characteristics ▪ Biological factors ▪ Behaviour ▪ Personal experience	▪ Age/gender ▪ Lower levels of education - Belief supporting use of violence ▪ Anger or hostility toward others ▪ Having few friends or being isolated from others ▪ Being unemployed ▪ Substance use ▪ History of engaging in violence	▪ School-based programs that help students develop social, emotional and behavioural skills to build positive relationships ▪ In-home programs that teach parents skills for age-appropriate infant and toddler care ▪ An after-school program that provides tutoring to increase academic performance ▪ Group sessions that increase knowledge and understanding of healthy dating relationships ▪ Classroom based health curriculums that teach ways to cope with loss and disappointment, and learn warning signs for depression

Level of SEM	Examples of Factors that Potentially Increase Risk (Risk Factors)	Examples of Strategies by Level of Influence
Relationship		
Interaction between two or more people	- Fights, tensions, or struggles among family members - Marital instability, divorces or separations. - Poor communication between parents - Poor supervision or monitoring of children - Association with aggressive or delinquent peers - Emotionally unsupportive family	- Education and family support to promote positive child development offered within child-parent centres - A mentoring program that pairs youth with caring adults - A peer program that teaches youth how they can promote positive norms for dating in their circle of friends - Relationship workshops where couples work with other couples on respectful communication strategies - An art program that increases emotional support to children by pairing elders from a senior centre with children from a preschool program
Community		
Setting or institution in which social relationships take place.	- Level of residents' social connectedness. - Income level of neighbourhood - Rate of residents moving in and out of a neighbourhood. - Lack of neighbourhood organization - Limited economic opportunities - Lack of recreational opportunities - Poor physical layout of a neighbourhood	- Residents organize and make physical improvements to their neighbourhoods. - A city develops safe recreational areas for residents - Community associations work with the major's office to develop a series of after-school programs for youth - A school district creates, implements, monitors, and evaluates a policy to prevent bullying behaviour - A city establishes a business improvement district to increase community employment opportunities and make other improvements in the community - A city-wide policy that changes the planning procedures for the layout of new communities

Level of SEM	Examples of Factors that Potentially Increase Risk (Risk Factors)	Examples of Strategies by Level of Influence
Societal		
Societal factors that either create a level of acceptance or intolerance for violence. Also included are factors that can create and sustain gaps between different segments of society.	- Social norm that it is acceptable to use violence to resolve conflict and that consequences are minimal - Cultural norms - Health policies - Economic policies - Educational policies	- Legislation to encourage employers to offer family-leave options and flexible schedules to both men and women - A national media campaign, including TV, radio, newspaper, and Internet methods of communication to create awareness and change the way people think about violence - A state sponsors a media campaign designed to reduce the stigma associate with self-directed violence being considered only a mental health problem. - State-wide legislation that provides tax incentives to businesses that partner with school districts to provide learning-based technology and other academic resources in disadvantaged communities

Source: Adapted from Dahlberg and Krug (2002: 26)

Dahlberg and Krug (2002) further notes that each level in the socio-ecological model can be thought of as a level of influence and also a key point for prevention which offers a framework for programme planners to determine how to focus prevention activities through programmes and policies that can reduce risk factors and increase protective factors at each of the different levels in the model. The idea of socio-ecological model can be found so useful in the prevention of violence in towns and cities of the world.

56.4 Consequences of Violence

The evolution of violence and insecurity, especially during the last decade, has considerably altered the understanding of violence. Since the end of the

Cold War, the world has witnessed the lives of millions of people being threatened not only by international war and internal conflicts, but also by chronic and persistent poverty, climate-related disasters, organized crime, human trafficking, kidnapping and sudden economic and financial downturns (United Nations, 2011). The impact of today's complex and multidimensional challenges reveals our shared vulnerabilities to a growing risk of violence that is widespread and cross-cutting. It also heightens the recognition of the fact that violence gives rise to more intractable crises that not only challenge individuals, but also often spill over into broader national, regional and international levels which is a global concern. The consequences of violence identified by Moser (2006) are as follows:

- (i) **It Has Negative Effects on Human Development** – the consequence of violence and insecurity can be devastating on human development. This resulted to damages not only on private and public properties, but also resulting in grievous bodily harm that leads to death in extreme cases. Violence and insecurity have sent waves of panic in the city, destroyed social relationship among people of the same communities, scared away investors and retarded all aspects of development in the country.
- (ii) **It Erodes Human Capital of Communities** – This relates mainly to education and health care services within communities in terms of users and providers. For example, in the case of Nigeria, some National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) members rejected serving in the northern and other parts of the country where there were all kinds of violence and insecurity. Likewise the dwellers of those areas are migrating to other cities where there is relatively peace and security.
- (iii) **It Erodes Social Capital of Communities** – This may be associated with the ways in which cognitive social capital, such as trust and unity

(iv)

(v)

56.5

The
dates
deep

within communities deteriorates in the context of violence and insecurity. In terms of structural social capital, violence may affect the ability of formal and informal social institutions, to operate; cooperation is eroded and further undermines the incentive to work together. At the household level, violence erodes informal social capital endowments within families, such as norms, shared values and so on. In addition, inter-household social capital networks break down when unity is affected by widespread violence and insecurity.

- (iv) **It Erodes National Capital of Communities** – Violence and insecurity erode land uses, which is a critical asset for urban poor communities. In addition, they may relate to other natural assets, such as rivers that may be used for leisure and laundry purposes. Violence and insecurity often mean that these areas cannot be used.
- (v) **It Erodes Economics Resources** – In the last ten years, violence and insecurity have significantly and directly reduced economic growth, thereby exacting a higher cost on national development. Developing countries of the world where there is prevalence of violence spend billions of money accrued from gross domestic product (GDP) on security. If such amount is invested into other sectors of the economy, there will be greater dividends to better the lots of those nations. This has hampered poverty-reduction efforts and limited progress towards the sustainable development goals.

56.5 Violence Prevention through Planning Policies

The notion that good urban design can promote an equitable, peaceful society dates at least to the 1960s, when the urbanist William H. Whyte launched his deep studies of pedestrian behaviour in New York. He concluded that

strangers can be forged into a community through well-designed public spaces, and that the smallest details, like the orientation of doorways, the location of benches, and the width of sidewalks can affect human behaviour (Loth, 2015). Today, these insights are even more crucial given the pressures of mass urbanization, especially in the developing world.

The relationship and relevance of violence in urban and regional planning is effective in the various urban designs, planning and management policies for violence and crime prevention. Urban planners now know that is not about what the people can do for themselves in case of violence again, but it is about what the urban planners can do for people through their planning policy programmes in curbing violence. This is the aim of ensuring freedom from fear and encouraging more walking in public areas of the cities.

A United Nations report in 2013 informed leaders of the globe's sprawling megacities that neglecting basic principles of urban planning can lead to widespread crime and social disruption. A mass of people living in poverty without access to clean water, electricity, or transportation, vulnerable to natural disasters, and fighting over scarce resources is hardly a recipe for social comity. "If cities are to play their role as drivers of economic and social development, "these challenges have to be addressed through effective planning and policies." These planning policies include:

- i. **Safe Neighbourhood Programmes:** These planning programmes can include the removal of high fences that provide cover to criminals, and the rehabilitation and re-appropriation of community public spaces. Ideally, they are combined with targeted social prevention activities as well as community policing programmes (World Bank LAC, 2011). A study of gangs and social capital conducted in El Salvador, for example, showed that gangs

thrive in neighbourhoods and communities where poverty has eroded social services or eliminated them completely, where the streets are in poor condition, and where public and community infrastructure is run-down, dirty or abandoned.

- ii. **Improvement of Transportation and Communication Routes:**
A Cable Car Concept: Effective planning of transportation and communication routes by urban planners would help in reducing the crime rate and incidence of violence globally. The city of Medellin, Colombia, is a case in point. The locus of savage drug cartels for decades, it was seemingly ungovernable, as smugglers and assassins terrorized local residents (Loth, 2015). Then, beginning in the early 2000s, three consecutive mayors pushed ahead with an urban plan to improve transportation, housing, and civic life in the city's sprawling favelas. Among the most creative ideas were three new funicular cable-car lines that cut across the hillside slums, slashing commuting times and improving employment, social integration, and commercial activity. Crime receded. Now Medellin is a model city, with a nascent tourist industry. Also Lagos State, in Nigeria has recognized the importance of cable car project in reducing issues of violence at the bus terminuses by having fourteen terminuses for cable car projects all across the state. The project was initiated by Lagos State Government, in conjunction with the Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development that was charged with site selection for all cable car points as well as strict monitoring of the project.

- iii. **Urban Renewal Programmes:** Since the psychological problem has a percentage in the cause of violence, especially in slum areas, how we feel about a place of abode matters a lot and could bring about violence. However, urban renewal programme could be employed in such areas, because man is a product of his environment and, environment has a great influence on man. A decent environment through urban renewal will enliven the lives of people, thereby giving them the sense of decency in which they will be able to eat well, sleep well and think well. Therefore, enlivening the environment in which people live will reduce the psychological cause of violence significantly.
- iv. **New Town Concept:** Many cities are so populated today, leading to overcrowding and deprivation at the city centre, where increase in crime rate, juvenile delinquency, and soon. exist. A new town concept could actually be a way out of that quagmire in which those deprived of resources and utilities find themselves. Deprivation brings frustration and violence, and increase in crime rate. Incidental and intended violence becomes inevitable and subsequently a feeling of deprivation follows. New town concepts represent a new life, new infrastructure, new business and so on; all these will reduce violence.
- v. **Site Selection for CCTV Cameras and Street Cameras:** It is within the purview of physical planners to coordinate the installation of closed circuit television (CCTV) and street cameras through site selection, as these will help in forestalling security challenges such as violence and crime. Urban planners focus on how and where these cameras should be installed. An example is Lagos State where 1000 cameras and five (5) base stations are

spread across (13) local areas of the state. This is a policy programme that should be suggested and made compulsory across all states in a country and subsequently all over the world, in order to curb crime.

- vi. **Infrastructural Planning:** Utilities is defined as things that should be enjoyed with maximum satisfaction. The field of urban and regional planning, through their initiative programmes, can seek for grants to improve on inadequate nameplates of streets and bus station termini and also have a functioning street lighting project all across major and minor corridors of the city; local access and cul-de-sacs etc. This will help the law enforcement agencies in locating a place of crime and violence in time and easy pursuits of culprits anytime of the day, be it during the day or at night.
- vii. **Treat Violence as a Public Health Concern:** Violence has insinuated itself as one of the major man-made disasters. To this effect there is need to use campaigns and technology to reach every child and family in countries. A community that fails to plan with the people will inevitably fail. We need to develop those tools to make sure that everybody feels important and cared for through parenting interventions, family interventions, well-being campaigns, community sensitization and early childhood education. This will help people to know the agencies recognized by law to deal with violence and also give them the sense of logical readiness of what they can realistically do in case of violence, such as: emergency telephone numbers, like 911, in USA, and 112, in India.
- viii. **Development Control:** As a strong tool in the urban and regional field, development control is a system through which government

regulates land use and new building. Its purview covers how to guide against dilapidated and blighted buildings which are normally the hideouts and crime spots of robbers, drug addicts, etc. who are the major drivers of violence. However, development control will help in achieving a decent environment by removing derelicts from our environment and guiding erection of buildings and existing buildings. Development can also stress the types of building that should be encouraged in the modern world. Tenement buildings tends to breed contempt, as people of heterogeneous races, tribes, culture, backgrounds, religions and beliefs live in a tenement building and come together to share some personal basic utilities, like toilets and bathrooms, and kitchen. This will result in domestic violence.

56.6 Conclusion

Violence is a serious constraint in the world today, especially the developing countries, because it is increasingly dominating the daily lives of citizens across the globe. The accompanying increase in fear has led to a large-scale preoccupation with the phenomenon, but there is little agreement on the underlying causes of such endemic violence or of its costs and consequences (Moser, 2006).

Apart from the general factors that contribute to increase in violent acts today, poor governance and lack of effective leadership at all levels of governance also play an important role. The idea of violence prevention to foster safety in towns and cities of the world requires the attention of professionals, policymakers and other stakeholders concerned. Otherwise, it would become an instrument of ideology and its uses in policy making and social communications would be very limited.

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