

A Review of Urban Residential Neighbourhood Security

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Abstract. The history of cities is intertwined with the search for protection from, and the containment of violence. There is a shared lineage between urbanisation and security – from the progressive fortification of cities through aggressive and defensive architecture and the use of siege tactics and enclaves to the rapid expansion of surveillance technologies and the regulation of mobility. However, the modern day urban residential neighbourhood security is creating a wide gap between citizen’s security and privacy. The sheer scale of insecurity in the poor areas or slums means that, in many contexts, it has become routinised or normalised into the functional reality of daily life. Violence is linked to fear and insecurity, which pervades people’s lives, with serious implications for trust, well-being and social capital among communities and individuals. On this note, this paper was borne out the sole aim of having a comprehensive review of urban residential neighbourhood security which however, agrees with literature that the issues that constitute security threat vary across nations in the world and further expounded the five multi-facial security frameworks guiding urban residential neighbourhood security in other to provide justice and sustainable global security.

Keywords: Neighbourhood Security, Insecurity, Urban Violence, Global Security

1. Introduction

A widely dispersed range of policy makers and scholars are becoming aware of the dilemmas posed by urbanization, urban poverty, urban insecurity, crime and violence (Muggah, 2012). However, the rate at which contemporary cities are growing, as a dividend of rapid urbanization of the world’s population has given birth to the widespread conditions of insecurity of urban settlements, amongst which are: natural and man-made disasters; crime and violence. Giles (2011) stated that the problems facing cities today is their expansion at an unprecedented pace at which people abandon rural areas in search of better job opportunities, which has posed greater challenges to infrastructure thereby resulting to the divers growing challenges of urban residential neighbourhood security in the developing countries of the world. The way many large urban regions are currently developing has destructive consequences for societal stability which labelled cities as citadel and havens for international terrorist and criminal networks (Philip, 2002).

Nigeria in recent times has witnessed an unprecedented level of insecurity. This has made national security threat to be a major issue for the government and has prompted huge allocation of the national budget to security. Alapata (2012) expounds plainly that the concentration of violent crimes in major urban centres worldwide is being heralded as an indicator of the breakdown of urban systems. Every city has its own unique blend of challenges and needs its own strategy and approach to tackle security issues. Therefore, there is the need for a strong amalgamation of technology, concept operations and collaboration that is unique to every individual city to be used as an established and effective framework to address urban residential neighbourhood insecurity. According to Security and Defence Agenda (SDA) (2011), urban residential neighbourhood security requires a comprehensive strategy that spans the police and judiciary as well as other administrations at local and global levels and addresses internal and external insecurity. The assertion of SDA is as a result of the growing challenges of urban residential neighbourhood security issues which include: terrorism, organized crime, political and economic unrest, and climate change. These challenges made SDA debate group to raise some research questions that are yet to be answered by today's researchers which include: (1) how can communications between police, military and intelligence communities be improved in towns and cities? (2) What new technologies can improve urban residential neighbourhood security? (3) Where should governments draw the line between security guarantees and citizens' privacy in residential neighbourhoods? (4) Is the government giving urban residential neighbourhood security enough attention or should this remain a local matter?

Ogboi (2013) opined that over the years, the incidences of crime and violence have increased tremendously in urban areas, making some neighbourhoods literally inaccessible. The cities experience a wide range of criminal activities ranging from petty to violent and organized crimes. The crimes are also facilitated by institutional weakness and deficiencies in security architecture. Ogboi and Eze (2013) stated that response to the growing threats of crime and inability of the police to provide adequate protection has made individuals, communities and businesses to engage private security. In other words, residents in the cities organized themselves into neighborhood self-protection groups such as vigilantes in order to ensure neighbourhood security.

2. Security-broad Perspectives

Lippman (1944) viewed security as the capability of a country to protect its core values both in terms that a state need not sacrifice core values in avoiding war and can maintain them by winning war. Baldwin (1997) argued that to sustain security sometimes requires sacrificing other values including marginal and prime values. Wolfers (1952) argued that the expectation is of different nation on the issue of security differs because they face different levels of threats as a result of their unique geographical, economical, ecological and political environment. Ullman (1983) suggested that security means decrease in vulnerability. Buzan (2000) considered the study of international security as more than a study of threats, but also a study of which threats that can be tolerated and which require immediate action. He sees the concept of security as a balance between power and peace. Since 1990s, the concept of international security has spread to all directions, from nations to groups,

individuals, international systems, non-government organizations and local governments.

Czeslaw (2004) said that the core issue in any security discussions is a broadly defined prediction, or identification of a disturbance (threat) which should make possible subsequent future actions an emergency measures – monitoring, prevention, elimination, isolation etc. The evolution of security could be traced back to 1943 during the World War II when the term “national security” came into full usage in US political discourse. At the end of the World War II in 1950s the term “international security” emerged. International security consists of the measures taken by nations and international organizations, such as the United Nations, to ensure mutual survival and safety. These measures include military action and diplomatic agreements such as treaties and conventions. International security is national security or state security in the global arena. The content of international security has expanded over the years. Today it covers a variety of interconnected issues in the world that have an impact on survival. It ranges from traditional or conventional modes of military power, the causes and consequences of war between state, economic strength, ethnicity, religious and ideological conflicts, trade and economic conflicts, energy supplies, science and technology, food, as well as threats to human security and the stability of states from environmental degradation, infectious diseases, climate change and the activities of non-state actors. While the wide perspective of international security regards everything as a security exclusively on military concerns.

According to (Zabadi, 2005), security has been seen as a situation where a person or thing is not exposed to any form of danger

or risk of physical or moral aggression, accident, theft or deterioration. The security experts argued that the concept of security has always been associated with the safety and survival of the state and its citizens from harm or destruction or from dangerous threats. All these conceptions hold that the state is the only institution with the primary responsibility and power for the safety of its territory and its people which is the guiding principles of the concept of security.

Czeslaw (2004) said that for long, security has been equated with the threats to a country’s borders. For too long, nations have sought arms to protect their security. But for most people today, a feeling of insecurity arises more from worries about daily life than from the dread of a cataclysmic world event. Czeslaw (2004) said further that job security, income security, health security, environmental/neighbourhood security and security from crime are the emerging concerns of human security all over the world today. There is paradigm shift from state security to human security because of its relevance to people everywhere in the world, whether rich or poor.

Nayef (2009) opined that the issues that constitute security threat vary across nations in the world. The major security threats to powerful nations like United State of America today may be how to defeat international terrorism and promote their economic interest and democratic values, but to the developing countries like Nigeria may have their peculiar security challenges determined by socio-economic (disease, poverty, natural disaster, violence, landmines, human rights abuses) and political circumstances.

3. Nature and Types of Security

According to Purpura (2002), security is defined as traditional methods (security officers, fences, and alarms) used to increase the likelihood of a crime-controlled, tranquil, and uninterrupted environment for an individual or organization in pursuit of objectives. Shinoda (2004) opined that the term, “security” may convey more general meanings including safety of individuals from violence or crimes, religious, peace of mind and financial measures to sustain a certain standard of living. Luke (2014) buttressed safety of individuals when he interpreted security as: security of people, not just territory; security of individuals, not just nations; and security through development, not through arms. Security of all the people everywhere is it in their homes, in their work places, in their streets, in their communities and in their environment. McNamara (1968) viewed security beyond individual safety but rather means development. It is further buttressed that security is not military hardware, though it may include it; security is not military force, though it may involve it; security is not traditional military activity, though it may encompass it. Security is development and without development, there can be no security.

Nwolise (2012) asserted that the nature of security is depicts in its expansion horizontally or vertically. Horizontally, security goes beyond the military to encompass economic, political, environmental, social and other aspects. Vertically, security goes beyond the state to incorporate and emphasize the individual, social groups (ethnic, religious, and professional), the state and humanity at large. McNamara (1968) stated that irrespective of the acclaimed nature of security, any nation that sought security in the face of acute unemployment, poverty, low technological development, hunger and

poor infrastructure has a false sense of security.

Since the 1990s, there have been a number of attempts to broaden the conception of security beyond the purely state-centric model. A cooperative security concept was advanced in response to the realization that states needed to cooperate to tackle the multiple security challenges that were identified in the post-cold war era. This concept suggested that national security was no longer just a national concern and called for enhanced cooperation between states (Nayef, 2009). Hence the “multi-sum security principle” which classified global security to five dimensions that includes human, environmental, national, transnational, and trans-cultural and that both global security and the security of any state or culture cannot be achieved without good governance at all levels that guarantees security through justice for all individuals, states, and cultures.

The first dimension is human security; a concept that says the principle object of security is individual and not state. The second dimension is environmental security which includes issues like climate change, global warming and access to resources. The third dimension refers to national security which is linked to the state’s monopoly over the use of force in a given territory and as a type of security that emphasizes the military and policing components of security. The fourth dimension has to do with transnational threats such as organized crime, terrorism, and human trafficking. The fifth dimension is concerns with integrity of diverse cultures and civilization terms of that which tackles the issue of trans-cultural security. These five multi-facial security frameworks must be addressed in other to provide justice and sustainable global security.

According to Nayef (2009), the multi-sum security principle brings together the five aspects of security issues with the nation that justice is a prerequisite for sustainable security both domestically and globally. It is imperative that justice be a central consideration when formulating security policies, negotiating an end to conflict or reconstruction as a post-conflict environment. Part of the reason for the marginalization of justice in security studies is the dominance of the state-centric paradigm of political realism, as well as the relegation of ethical concerns to the domestic realm otherwise known as traditional security.

According to Roland (2001), the traditional security paradigm refers to a realist construct of security in which the referent object of security is the state. The prevalence of this theorem reached a peak during the cold war. For most half a century, major world powers entrusted the security of their nation to a balance of power among states. In this sense, international stability relied on the premise that if state security is maintained, then the security of citizens will necessarily follow. Traditional security relied on the anarchistic balance of power, a military build-up between the United States and the Soviet Union (the two superpowers), and on the absolute sovereignty of the nation state. States were deemed to be rational entities, national interests and policy driven by the desire for absolute power. Security was seen as protection from invasion's executed during proxy conflicts using technical and military capabilities.

Roland (2001) expressed that traditional state-centric notion of security has been challenged by more holistic approaches to security. Among the approaches which seeks to acknowledge and address these basic threats to human safety are paradigms that

include cooperative, comprehensive and collective measures, aimed to ensure security for individual and, as a result for the state.

4. Meaning and Nature of Urban Residential Neighbourhood Security

Chivot (2015) stated that urbanization and the rise of residential neighbourhoods are driven by factors of economic development and cultural vitality. This made heavier demands to be placed on the environment and public health through increased energy consumption, water and air pollution, and waste mismanagement. Kleeman (2008) opined that residential neighbourhoods have become one of the defining features of modern urban life for a growing number of people in the developing world and their security challenges are a daily reality.

Purpura (2002) stated that there are three notable occurrences affecting security today. First, the terminology varies but the examples are: cybercrime, denial of service and e-security. Secondly, we have the information technology security specialists and the physical security specialists. Generally, the former possess a background geared to protect against computer-related crime such as Yahoo boys, ATM fraud, etc and unauthorized intrusions into computer systems, whereas the latter focus on traditional security duties (e.g. perimeter security and contract security forces). Thirdly, the term common to this category is denial of access and intrusion detection.

UNHabitat (2007) opined that poor urban planning; design and management have increasingly been cited as playing a role in the shaping of urban environments that put citizens and properties at risk. Thus, the physical fabric and layout of cities have a bearing on the routine movements of

offenders, victims and on opportunities for crime. More so, the lack of integration of crime prevention strategies within comprehensive city planning practices is a factor in facilitating opportunities for urban crime.

Ogboi and Eze (2013) asserted that level of safety differs among urban residential neighbourhoods, especially between inner city and suburban content. Adeli (2011) showed that residents in old areas of the city where social unity is witnessed feel more secure. Suburban typically features quiet streets with less traffic than the inner city neighbourhoods but may have “eyes on the street” which may limit level of security (Jacobs, 1961). Environmental barriers to safety are higher among low-income people, who typically live in poor environments characterized by physical and social disorder (Craig, 2002). Ross (2000) reported that residents of poor neighbourhoods had high levels of fear of being victimized and injured yet out of necessity they walked more than residents of rich neighbourhoods. Rich neighbourhoods therefore, rank higher than poor areas in safety while poor inner city neighbourhoods typically suffer from high crime and general disinvestment (Ogboi and Eze 2013).

Liotta (2014) suggested that the lack of proper and sufficient infrastructure and public services (such as proper sanitation, housing, education and health care) to support the growing population of residential neighbourhoods do not only lead to the growth of slums, but also breeds discontent among urban dwellers, leading to high crime rates, as visibly seen in growing mega cities such as Karachi, Rio de Janeiro and Lagos. Agbola and Alabi (2009) identified essential parameters of security threats to residential neighbourhoods which include: inadequate access to basic human needs such as environmental degradation;

natural and human made disaster; denial of fundamental human rights; gender inequality; fear of security of tenure and forced eviction; and poor governance. These security parameters are fundamental and essential to neighbourhoods’ safety and security in the developed and developing countries of the world.

Boisteau (2006) said that the public policies implemented by authorities no longer satisfy the need of security caused by the growing sentiment of insecurity, with new public-private partnership being used. The development of these partnerships originates from the idea that governmental authority is no longer capable of controlling urban spaces alone, with the cost of a “State-led war on crime” exceeding the financial and institutional capacities of the majority of local and national governments. Thales (2012) suggested an integrated concept based on developing systems that enable security forces to handle incidents and coordinate emergency response by police, fire crews, first responders and private operators. These systems share and pull together information from separate subsystems-video surveillance cameras, emergency call points, multi-agency communications, etc – through an integrated operations control centre, providing real-time decision support and managing resources for incident response. This concept is driven by an urban transformation policy aimed at optimizing a city’s operations through an open, scalable architecture integrating innovative and efficient solutions within an urban security plan to ensure continuity of public services on a daily basis and in a crisis.

Philip (2008) stated that urban crime rate in the United States fell markedly during the 1990s and remains at historically low levels. He used statistical evidence to indicate that

the decline, like crime surge has been largely uncorrelated with changes in socio-economic condition across cities. He stressed further that the ups and downs of crime have a considerable effect on residential location and property values but the assertion has not been empirically proved in the developing countries especially in the Sub Sahara Africa.

Shopeju(2007) looked into the relationship between crime and urbanization. He assumed that the urban setting with its abundance of wealth and goods provides ample opportunities for various types of crimes. Shopeju also examined the factors which militate against social control and enhance the prevalence of crime to include: increased interaction (due to high population density) in urban areas and anonymity which make crime detection a difficult task; improved mobility and increased physical environmental heterogeneity.

According to Afrobarometer (2010), accelerating rates of violence and crime are by no means an urban specific problem; they are particularly problematic in residential neighbourhood areas. The sheer scale of violence in the poor areas or slums means that, in many contexts, it has become “routinized” or normalized’ into the functional reality of daily life. This made Moser (2006) to state that urban violence is a serious development constraint in developing countries and increasingly dominates the daily lives of citizens across the globe. The accompanying increase in fear and insecurity has led to a wide-scale pre-occupation with the phenomenon, but there is little agreement on the underlying causes of such endemic violence or of its costs and consequences.

Farrell and Sullivan (2004) examined the relation between witnessing violence and

changes in problem behaviors (violence, aggression and delinquency) and attitudes during early adolescence. They found out that witnessing violence also predicted subsequent increases in drug use and attitude supporting violence, also that boys reported greater increases in witnessing violence than girls. In addition, they also discovered that increase in witnessing violence also were related strongly to increase in problem behaviors and attitudes supporting violence and to decrease in attitude supporting non-violence.

Osgood and Chambers (2000) examined community social disorganization and crime beyond its exclusive focus on large urban centres. Their findings support the generality of social disorganization theory: juvenile violence was associated with rates of residential instability, family disruption and ethnic heterogeneity. Though, rates of poverty were not related to juvenile violence, this is also accord with social disorganization theory because unlike urban setting, poverty was negatively related to residential instability. They also ascertained that rates of juvenile violence varied markedly with population size through a curvilinear relationship in which countries with the smallest juvenile population had exceptionally low arrest rates.

Olajide (2018) explored the position of residential neighbourhood crime among the key determinants of residential property value to find out that accessibility is the most significant determinant followed by residential neighbourhood crime and building/neighbourhood characteristics. The study concluded that since neighbourhood security can only guarantee a neighbourhood free of crime, policy makers should put up efforts in ensuring adequate security arrangement for residential neighbourhoods in Nigerian urban centres.

Ajibola et al (2011) emphasized on the role that adequate provision of security facilities (at the perspective of gated communities) can play within the residential neighbourhood of urban centres in Lagos, Nigeria. The study found out that the quest for security of lives and properties was the major factor attracting people to the residential estate and the gated communities provided good basis for improving the standard residential properties in the neighbourhood. The study concluded that security of neighbourhood has influence on property value and housing investment.

Bello (2011) observed that insecurity of Nigerian urban residential neighbourhood led to a corresponding rise in crime affecting lives and properties of the neighbourhood dwellers. The study concluded that there is a correlation among environmental planning; poverty and property values and state of insecurity can negatively impact on housing investment.

According to Frost and Sullivan (2012), crime as a community problem is another important factor that allows society to unite with public services to fight criminal activities. Frost and Sullivan (2012) further expressed that public awareness focuses on the private businesses that are in the purview of criminals and natural disasters will allow all the community entities to have a united security system that will lead to efficiency gains, thus reducing the time to act and allow swift apprehension of the law-breaking individual. The more aware the public is of security threats, the more open they will be to adopt security measures. Once the security measures are in place, the probability to integrate the systems with municipal security, in turn creating a broad safer city project is high. Frost and Sullivan (2012) assumed that the approach of private/public partnership and cooperation in

tackling the security challenges in residential neighbourhoods would help in the sustainability of urban security and safety.

According to United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2014), security from crime, fear and victimization at the State, local and personal levels is an important basis for economic and social development. United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime (2015) opined that States play a primary role; public safety and crime prevention are not the sole responsibility of government or public law enforcement. Indeed, individuals, communities, non-governmental organizations, civil society and the private sector all play a role in enhancing security and neighbourhood safety. Recognizing the role of diverse actors and stakeholders in enhancing community safety and the prevention of crime, the UNGPC (2015) calls upon States to develop national policies in the field of crime prevention. These include cooperation and partnerships with the corporate sector and action to increase the likelihood that offenders will be apprehended.

5. Recommended Ways Towards enhancing Urban Residential Neighbourhood Security

According to UNHabitat (2007), the physical designs such as gated communities, low-wall fence, observatory, operation Cul-de-sacs and management of the built environment play a role in facilitating or diminishing opportunities for crime and violence. More so, effective urban planning, design and governance should seek to manipulate the built environment in ways that are intended to reduce or even eliminate the opportunity to commit crimes.

Perry (1998) asserted that neighbourhood unit was embraced for its community idealism and many of the public sectors in those countries which were exposed to the theorem have since adopted its purpose of protecting and promoting the public health and of considering the safety and welfare of citizens. The assertion of Perry (1998) revealed that neighbourhood unit principles can be used as a planning instrument to foster security and safety in towns and cities of the world.

Timberlake (2015) stated that residential neighbourhood security features are in contrast to high perimeter walls and fences, security requirements are achieved through landscape design, such as the large pond, low garden walls with bench seating and differences in elevation that creates natural, unobtrusive barriers. Purpura (2002) stated that Architects play an increasing role in designing crime prevention into building plans. He further expressed that environmental security design such as natural and electronic surveillance of walkways, parking lots, windows and landscaping that enhance visibility, improved lighting and other architectural designs that promote crime prevention can be adopted as security measures in towns and cities.

As a new technological approach to residential neighbourhood security, millions of closed-circuit television (CCTV) cameras are installed in streets and businesses throughout the world with the stated goals of reducing crime and increasing public safety in towns and cities. The United Kingdom is one of the most enthusiastic proponents, with an estimated 1.9 million cameras in 2011- one for every 32 U.K. residents- and the number continues to rise. Chicago reportedly has at least 15,000 cameras installed in one of the largest U.S. networks- which has prompted civil liberties groups to

express strong concerns- while in New York, cameras are increasingly found both on public transit as well as in businesses and even high- end residences (John, 2014). The installation and operation of CCTV camera in the residential neighbourhoods of the developing countries is a great challenge especially where there is prevalence of exclusion, weakness of civil society and failure of the State due to corruption.

Purpura (2002) suggested an integrated system approach as part of physical security strategies in controlling and operating security devices in a geographical setting. For example, the computer-based systems such as access controls, alarm monitoring, Close Circuit Television (CCTV), electronic article surveillance, fire protection and safety system, environmental monitoring, radio and video media, intercom, point-of-safe transactions, and inventory control that are installed within facilities should be controlled and monitored by operators and management at a centralized work-station or from a remote location.

Dewitt (1997) drew the synergy between the term “comprehensive” and “security” and came up with the idea of comprehensive security to mean the total well-being of the elites and of the communities which they led. This he explains by saying that elites, thus, organized themselves in ways which improved the likelihood of survival whether through conflict avoidance, conflict management, or the ability to defeat one’s enemies in revolution or in war. The idea of comprehensive security can be adopted in the residential neighbourhoods of the world with the aim of improving the well-being of the citizens and defeat the common enemies of terrorism, crime, violence and any other social menace.

Purpura (2002) opined that one of the notable twenty first century security challenges is terrorism. There is the need for a rethinking of defense and security strategies to meet these threats. Though, security professionals are on the front lines, facing not only terrorism, but also a variety of crimes, fire, accidents and disasters. Through improved education and training, increased professionalism, creativity and leaders, this is hope to go a long way in helping the professionals to provide a safe environment.

Kwaja (2016) opined that privatization of security in residential neighbourhoods will have significant implications for an ineffective and democratically unaccountable security sector. He further said that to address this challenge, one should strengthen the mechanism and institutions of governance; to emphasize the democratic control of the security sector on one hand and the professionalization of the security sector as responding to the security needs of the citizens on the other. In the final analysis, the proliferation of informal security providers represents a potential and real security challenge, if they are not integrated within the overall framework of security sector governance.

6. Conclusion

Urban residential neighbourhood security requires a comprehensive strategy that spans the police and judiciary as well as other administrations at local and global levels in addressing internal and external security threats. More so, there is the need for a strong amalgamation of technology, concept operations and collaboration that is unique to every individual residential neighbourhood to be used as an established and effective framework coupled with good urban governance in city management on

issue related to security policies, programmes, projects and plan.

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