

SAFETY PROFILE STUDY

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42.1 Introduction

Safety is a concept that is common in everyday life but its definition is often subsumed in other concepts. The best description of liveability of urban centres is in robust articulation of issues enshrined in the principles of safety. Safety and all of its manifestations describe how the various categories of urban residents within the various elements in urban spaces co-exist in harmonious inter-relationships in such a manner that realization of set goals are achieved within persistently insecure environments. Globally, about 60 per cent of all urban residents in developing countries have been victims of crime, where women, young people and those lacking security of land tenure are more vulnerable to risks (UN-Habitat, 2007). Hence, UN-Habitat (2007) defines safety as a condition whereby communities are free from crime, violence and related fear. The above notion takes safety to involve all activities centred on protecting a country, a building or persons against attacks, danger, or preventing something injurious from happening.

The absence of safety within liveable environments challenges the cardinal objective of the town planning profession, which is to ensure the actualization of an efficient, functional and safe environment. This

presupposes that, irrespective of where a person lives, the urban environment should provide an atmosphere conducive to living, working and recreation. However, the spiralling growth of cities ushers in problems of non-integration of various categories of migrant groups who throng the cities for better conditions of living. This population surge translates cities into places where aspirations are not met and where hotspots of criminal opportunities abound, leading to increases in crime rates with attendant heightened cases of fear of crime.

Insecure communities and a culture of fear heightens the negative effects of social exclusion and contribute to a poor quality of life. Ogboi (2009) and James and Effiong (2015) note that the safety of residential, work and public places are inextricably interwoven with residents' quality of life. Paulsen (2013) asserts that issues of crime should be considered as indispensable components in designing sustainable cities. This implies that sustainable cities should be well-designed places where people feel safe and secure, where crime and disorder, or the fear of crime does not undermine quality of life or community cohesion among residents. There is a near universal agreement that crime and the fear of crime are not only major causes of decline of neighbourhoods, but also key indicator of urban neighbourhoods in need of renewal (Metzger, 2000).

In view of the foregoing, this chapter is organised into four sections. Section one deals with the general introduction to safety. Section two examines the meaning and definitions of safety from the existing literature as well as theories underpinning safety discourse. Section three is inquiry into safety profile study. This section also examines the relevance of safety profile to urban and regional planning discipline and practice. Section four highlights the implications of safety profile discourse for Urban and Regional Planning education. Section five contains the concluding remarks and recommendations for safer cities.

42.2 Literature Review

42.2.1 Safety: Meaning and Definitions

In fashioning out the definitions of safety, it is somewhat difficult to extricate the term "safety" from the term "security". Security and safety share fundamentally important features as operational activities with the goal to protect people, property, and ensure the smooth economical functioning of organizations and society. Safety describes a condition of being safe from undergoing or causing hurt, injury or loss. It connotes a state of being free from harm or danger.

42.2.2 Safety versus Security – The Nexus

In both verbal and academic interchange of ideas, safety and security have been used interchangeably. Both concepts seem to explain conditions where one is well protected and without risks. The blurred lines sometimes are more pronounced in certain climes than in others. For instance, in Norwegian, the word 'sikkerhet' translates as security and safety.

Comparison between the different kinds of safety and security is not common and, as such, no generalization has been established. However, Hale and Hovden (1998) opine that security is protection against deliberate incidents and safety is protection against unintended incidents. The interconnectedness between the two concepts is rooted in both describing a "condition of being free from danger". According to Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2005), the primary definition of safety is "the condition of being free from harm or risks", while security refers to "a condition of being protected from deliberately induced incidents aimed at causing harm".

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) views safety as being subsumed within the broad contexts of security. Accordingly, "security refers to all-encompassing condition in which people and communities live in freedom, peace and safety, participate fully in governance of their countries, enjoy the production of fundamental rights, have access to resources and the basic necessities of life and inhabit an environment which is not detrimental to their health and well-being." (OECD, 2009)

Although safety is subsumed in security, there still exist some basic differences between the two. Safety connotes a state of being "safe", the condition of being safe from undergoing or causing hurt, injury, or loss or the condition of being protected from harm or other non-desirable outcomes by controlling of recognized hazards in order to achieve an acceptable level of risk. According to Albrechtsen (2002), safety generally refers to a state of being safe – the surety that nothing would cause harm in a particular situation. Indeed, safety connotes a state of not being exposed to danger.

Conversely, security describes a condition of being protected against planned, malicious and criminal incidents from a wide range of threats, where what is protected includes all categories of assets deemed to be of value to an organisation or individuals (Albrechtsen, 2002). Security, therefore, involves all the processes or means, physical or human, of

delaying, preventing, and otherwise protecting against external or internal defects, dangers, loss, criminals, and other individuals or actions that threaten, hinder or destroy an organization's "steady state," and deprive it of its intended purpose, which is the degree of resistance to, or protection from, harm. It applies to any vulnerable and valuable asset, such as a person, dwelling, community, item, nation, or organization (Albrechtsen, 2002).

Safety is seen as inextricably interwoven with security. Akin (2008) views security as the situation that exists as a result of the establishment of measures for the protection of persons, information and property against hostile persons, influences and actions. Ogunleye et al. (2011) note that security involves embracing of all measures designed to protect and safeguard the citizenry and the resources of individuals, groups, businesses, and the nation against violent occurrences. In the view of Igbuzor (2011), security entails safety from chronic threats and protection from harmful disruptions. Achumba et al. (2013) define security as the stability of and continuity of livelihood, predictability of daily life, protection from crime (feeling safe) and freedom from psychological harm (safety or protection from emotional stress), which results from the assurance or knowing that one is wanted, accepted, loved and protected in one's community or neighbourhood and by people around. This definition supports that of Wilson and McLaren (1972), cited in Odufuwa (2015), which views security as the preservation of peace and protection of life and property against attack by criminals and injury by careless and inadvertent offender. In all definitions, security is viewed from the perspective of absence of crime and the attendant fears of criminal victimization.

From the above, safety connotes a condition of being safe from harm while security refers to all measures put in place to achieve safety of lives and property. Therefore, there is a strong positive relationship between safety and security; and weakness in security creates increased risk, which, in turn, creates decrease in safety. Hence, safety and security are directly proportional, but inversely proportional to risks. This implies that increased level of security would naturally result in increased level of safety, while decreased levels of security and safety translates into increased levels of risks.

Although conceptualization of safety is somewhat clear and limited in scope, the conceptualization of security is complex, eclectic and sensitive,

lacking universal submissions. This is attributable to the fact that there is no universal agreement on how to categorize issues that are at the heart of security discourses. Hence, the seeming classification of areas of security is at its very best subjective, based on peoples' ideas, perceptions of realities and cultural leanings. Table 42.1 captures the basic differences between safety and security.

Table 42.1: Main Differences between Safety and Security

	Safety	Security
Causes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An incident is most often a result of human behaviour in combination with the environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An incident is most often a result of one person or a group's will
Causes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Often unplanned 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Often planned actions
Causes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Criminal acts (working environment Act) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Criminal acts
Causes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seldom, if ever, malicious 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mainly malicious acts
Causes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mainly deliberate acts without a wish of a wanted output and accidental incidents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mainly deliberate acts with a wish of a wanted output/ consequence of the act.
Threats/ hazards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internal human threats 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • External and internal human threats
Threats/ hazards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hazards are observable, tangible and proximate 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Threats are not always observable, tangible and proximate
Loss	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loss is related to human injuries/death and reliability of industrial assets 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loss is mainly related to physical assets and information
Surroundings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Includes physical and environmental conditions - not only humans and society 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflects the state of society through its structures, economic situation, law-abidingness and moral
Relevance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More relevant for the industry and transporting sector 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relevant for a wide range of issues and sectors
Issues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connotes a condition of being safe from harm 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encompasses all measures put in place to ensure safety of lives and properties
Uncertainty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ----- 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High degree of uncertainty and low degree of knowledge about threats within

Source: Albrechtsen (2003)

42.2.3 Historical Background of the Concept of Safety Profile

The term safety originated from middle English "sauftte" and from Anglo-French "salvete", both connoting a condition of being protected from harm and danger. The protection from harm is broad-based and multi-

faceted and includes all areas of safety – physical, social, emotional, occupational, political, psychological – or all other consequences of failure, damage, error, accidents, harm and all such events which could be considered undesirable. Encyclopaedia Britannica (2017) defines safety as those activities that seek either to minimize or to eliminate hazardous conditions that can cause bodily injury. Safety discourse was not considered to be a matter of public concern in ancient times, when accidents were regarded as inevitable or as the will of the gods. Modern notions of safety developed only in the 19th century as an outgrowth of the Industrial Revolution when recurrent factory accidents necessitated the humanitarian concern for their prevention.

The concept “safety profile” is not very common in the social science literature. However, its earliest mention originated from the clinical and pharmaceutical sciences in the second half of the 1950s and the 1960s. Its usage in the literature is usually to explain the chemistry, pharmacology, therapeutic effects, and the adverse effects of an administered drug or other substances on patients. Specifically, safety profiling is narrowed to pharmacovigilance (PV or PhV), and takes its roots from *pharmakon* (Greek for “drug”) and *vigilare* (Latin for to “keep watch”). It covers all such areas which relate to the collection, detection, assessment, monitoring and prevention of adverse effects with pharmaceutical products, which may be noxious, unintended (WHO, 2002) and injurious to health. Central to safety profiling is the aim of providing all the necessary tools for valuable knowledge about risk assessment and management.

42.2.4 Key Elements in Safety Profile Study

A concept as central to sustainability of cities, as safety, requires a deep exploration into the many facets of issues that underpin safety discourse in both academic and professional disciplines. Safety profile study is a concise analysis that provides information about the concept of safety. Profiling is the act or process of extrapolating information about a person or a thing based on known traits or tendencies. It includes a detailed outline, analysis, and description of the issues under investigation. Safety profiling would entail investigation into the very many areas that affect and is affected by the term “safety”. Thematic description of profile should consist but not limited to the items listed in Figure 42.1.

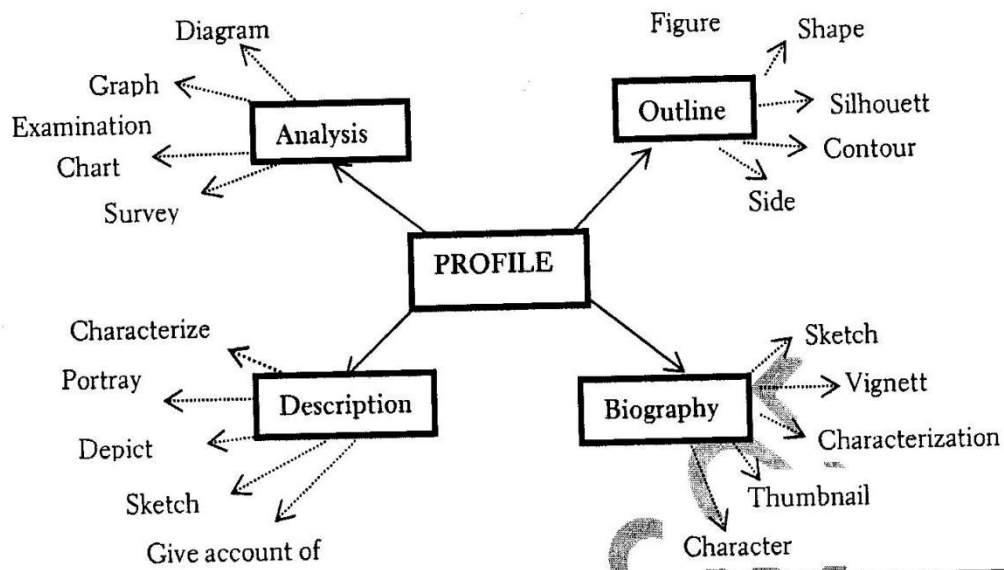


Figure 42.1: Thematic Elements of Profile
 Source: The Free Online Dictionary (2002)

Indeed, the entrance of safety profile into urban dynamics stems from the need to identify cities/regions/neighbourhoods, which needs increased level of safety. Through the use of a prescribed monitor, the degree of safety is measured by a large-scale survey distributed per each police region and city. The results and findings are then used for benchmarking, which provide useful insight into how cities and neighbourhoods score in comparison to other similar cities. To monitor safety at the local level, the safety profile study requires the use of a large-scale safety survey administered to residents. The results are processed into a safety index. The safety index summarizes data from police records, reported neighbourhood concerns and victimisation, as well as neighbourhood characteristics, such as property value and the number of people moving house as a result of repeated victimization. The safety index is then used to compare neighbourhoods over time. Safety profile study is underpinned by the drive to improve safety. Hence, to improve safety, society requires data-driven choices, policies and investments. This information is then generated by risks and impacts assessments.

Safety is inextricably interwoven with impacts of crime and perceived fear of crime. Soomeren (2013) notes that, for robust safety profiling of any area, three basic elements to risks and impacts assessments must be considered:

- i. Where do crimes occur?

- a. Assessment of spatial distribution of crime
 - b. Spatial mapping of hotspots and safe niches.
 - c. Spatial mapping of spread of prevalent crimes
 - d. Definition of types, prevalence and rates of crime
- ii. What are the insecurity issues?
- a. Safety and insecurity auditing
 - b. Crime risks assessments – assessment of incoming threats from outside the observed domain
 - c. Crime impacts assessments – exported threats from one’s own activity
 - d. Crime reviews – whether crime has increased or decreased
- iii. Who are those involved in crime control and risks management
- a. Stakeholders – identification of partnerships, collaborations and working alliances
 - b. Co-ordination – identification of the co-ordinating bodies for different levels of governance
 - c. Decision-making – Assessment of decision-making body
 - d. Level of collaboration – Is partnership multi-sectoral or dyads (that is end-to-end encryptions)
 - e. Nature of partnership – Is partnership intra-agency or inter-agency?

To create a safety index or a neighbourhood profile, the following elements are necessary:

- i. a budget; to conduct neighbourhood /citywide survey
- ii. resources, to conduct the survey (or commission a research company)
- iii. statistical knowledge to calculate an index
- iv. IT knowledge to conduct crime/hotspots mapping
- v. commitment from local administrators and partners to implement outcomes of survey

42.2.5 Safety Profile of Neighbourhoods and Safety Index

The results of investigations and surveys into the safety concerns of neighbourhoods provide information which are used to generate a neighbourhood/ regional/city safety profile or safety index. An index score of between 1 and 10 depicting the safety profile (1: least safe; 10: most safe) is then assigned to the neighbourhoods, districts, and to the city as a whole. In addition to an overall score, specific scores are also

calculated per crime type, for example burglary or violence. The scores are used to identify the neighbourhoods with problems and pinpoint the biggest issue(s) posed in such areas. Each score is also assigned a colour based on the traffic light model (from dark green to dark red). A combination of figures and colours is then used to show which neighbourhoods are considered safe (dark green) or unsafe (dark red). The neighbourhoods labelled as unsafe with dark red negatively portray as the least safe ones.

The ranking also differs based on the scale of the profiling. At a global scale, most rankings are scored based on a 0-100 continuum. A score of zero denotes an extremely unsafe place to live and work, while a score of 100 denotes a perfectly safe place. Dangers' (2017) rankings revealed that most countries in Europe, Americas, Oceania and Asia scored above 85, while most countries in Africa scored less than 20. A typical neighbourhood profile – safety index – is shown in Figure 42.2.

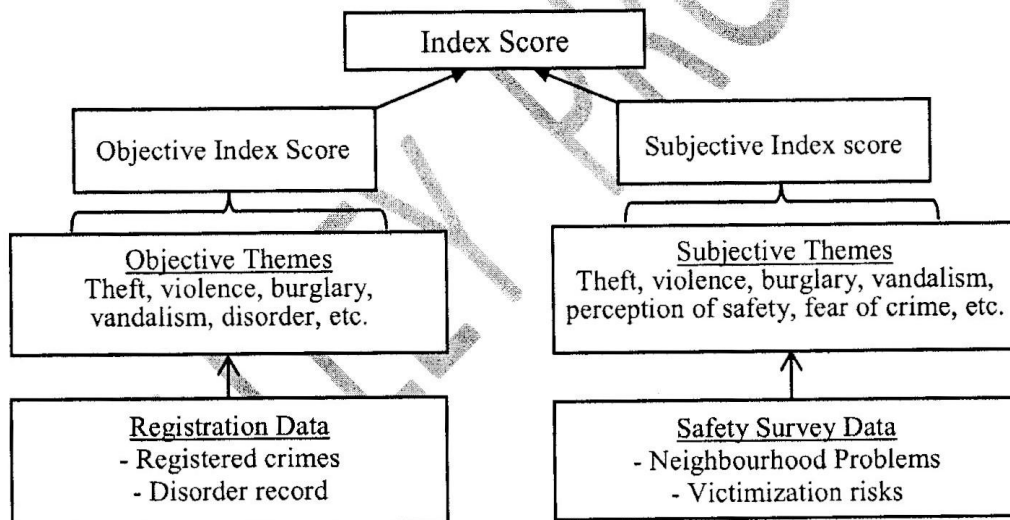


Figure 42.2: Core Elements of a Neighbourhood Safety Index

42.2.6 Theories of Safety

A number of theoretical perspectives have been developed to explain the prevalence of crime, disorder and associated fear in society. Most of the theories are gleaned from theories used in other disciplines, such as sociology, criminology, victimology and penology. The extant theories used to explain safety and security are not without criticism, and none has been developed explicitly for the purpose of explaining safety and security. Criminological theories, and ideas and perspectives from other

fields and disciplines are usually adopted to explain safety and security issues. Some researchers have further categorized fear of crime models into two broad theoretical frameworks: facilitators of fear, which are represented by the victimization (vulnerability) and disorder models; and inhibitors of fear, as represented by the social integration model (Franklin et al., 2008). The third dimension of safety theories has to do with offenders-victim pathways within a mesh of routine activities that predisposes victims to victimization, thereby creating feelings of fear at certain places within the environment.

(a) Facilitators of Fear Models

Both vulnerability and disorder are considered as the likelihood (risk) of attack of both humans and property in the neighbourhood. That people are vulnerable is an indication of their being at a high risk of being assaulted or victimized. The facilitators of fear model suggests that fear of crime may be facilitated by the vulnerability of a place to physical assault and social distress (Okunola, 2012). This includes the vulnerability of the residents to attack and the vulnerability of the place itself, which is influenced by the state of disorder of the place.

i. Victimization (or Vulnerability) Model:

The vulnerability model is thought of as having two categories, namely: the physical and the social. Physical vulnerability is explained as the perception of increased risk to physical assault. (Denkers and Winkel, 1998; Franklin et al., 2008). Social vulnerability, on the other hand, is seen as increased exposure to victimization resulting from factors such as economic distress, high crime rates and lack of resources to protect oneself (Franklin et al., 2008).

Much of the research examining the predictors of victimization as indicators of safety has identified the risk factors as comprising four major categories: (1) individual demographic factors, such as age, gender, and ethnicity; (2) developmental and psychosocial factors, such as history of victimization; (3) situational factors, such as alcohol and drug abuse; and (4) contextual factors, such as living in poor neighbourhoods.

ii. The Disorder (Broken Windows) Model:

The broken windows model of crime prevention was first described in 1982 in a seminal article by Wilson and Kelling. The model focuses on the importance of disorder (for example, broken windows) in generating and sustaining more serious crime. The theory addresses the contextual factors associated with victimization, such as living in poor and unsafe

neighbourhoods, and states that signs of disorder will lead to more disorder. A building with a broken window that has been left unrepaired will give the appearance that no one cares and no one is in charge. This will lead to vandals breaking the rest of the windows and adding graffiti, because in their minds nobody cares. The logic behind this theory is that, in every neighbourhood, there are informal social controls. Usually people police their own neighbourhoods until they feel it is unsafe to do so. When the neighbourhood becomes unsafe in residents' opinion, they either move away or remain inside their houses to stay safe. This reduces the effectiveness of the informal social control, which can lead to increased criminal activity. In this context, violent crime is a product of the neighbourhood's social dynamics, something that builds up from within rather than invading from without.

The disorder model argues that the perception of high levels of physical and social disorder is related to high levels of fear of crime. (Bursik and Grasmick, 1993). Both vulnerability and disorder may be considered as the likelihood (risk) of attack of both humans and property in the neighbourhood. That people are vulnerable is an indication of their being at a high risk of being assaulted or victimized. This breeds and heightens feelings of vulnerability to fear.

(b) Inhibitors of Fear Model

i. Social Participation (Community Concern) Model

The social integration model is one in which fear of crime is understood through characteristics that inhibit or reduce the grounds of fear. The argument is that increased participation, sense of community and cohesion in the neighbourhood dampens the fear of crime. Other characteristics in this model include social control mechanism, such as the presence of the police and the relationship between the police and residents.

In a neighbourhood where the history of abandoned property and theft are more prevalent, vandalism occurs much more quickly, as the community generally seems apathetic. Similar events can occur in any civilized community when communal barriers - the sense of mutual regard and obligations of civility - are lowered by actions that suggest apathy. Sarason (1971) posit that sense of community is related to various indices of quality of daily life, such as life satisfaction; mental, physical and social well-being; and perception of safety and security. This justifies the conclusion from Jane Jacobs, that once residents lose their sense of

community and belonging, the neighbourhood is vulnerable to increases in crime which are thought then to lead to increases in fear of crime (Delone, 2008). When this happens, feelings of fear is increased among residents, and invariably safety is mortgaged.

(c) Environmental Criminology Theories

Environmental criminology theories are also used to explain the distribution of crime, fear of crime and victimization patterns, which identify which places, and by extension, which segments of the city are safe or unsafe. Cornish and Clarke's (1986) "rational choice theory" argues that most opportunistic criminals are rational in their decision-making and recognize, evaluate and respond to a variety of environmental cues. These are environmental factors and signals within the built environment, which relate to the perceived risk, rewards and efforts associated with an offence and are central to the offender's decision-making processes.

Cohen and Felson's (1979) "routine activities theory" claims that, for a crime to take place, there must be a motivated offender, a suitable target and the absence of capable guardians. Crime is, therefore, more likely at this conjunction of criminal opportunity (Ekblom, 2008). Offenders, like most citizens, have routine daily activities (work/school, visiting friends, shopping and entertainment) during which they might discover or search for potential targets. These routine activities and travel routes form the "awareness space" (Brantingham and Brantingham, 1984) of the offender (Figure 42.3). Brantingham and Brantingham (1993) assert that "all people, including those who commit crime, develop an awareness space ...[from which] crime targets are usually picked". These awareness spaces are ultimately the most unsafe places within the built environment.

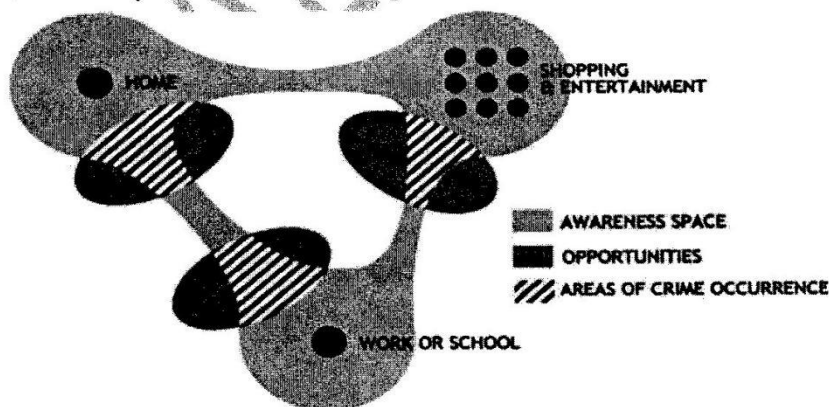


Figure 42.3: Awareness Spaces – Routine Activities Theory
Source: Cozens (2011)

Brantingham and Brantingham's (1984) "crime pattern theory", seeks to understand the search and selection processes that criminals use and analyses how people and objects associated with crime move about in space and time. Crimes against the person predominantly take place at home or in and around drinking establishments (Fattah, 1991), while property crimes are concentrated at or near activity nodes and attractors, where people congregate (Brantingham and Brantingham, 2008; Kinney et al., 2008). These locations include the home, shopping centres, work/school, sports areas, parks and recreation centres and along the routes that connect these nodes. Felson and Boba (2010) observe how daily life is divided into different types of settings, which can generate significant amounts of crime. The riskiest settings are places and situations. These include:

- Public routes (especially footpaths, parking facilities and unsupervised transit areas);
- recreational settings (especially bars and some parks);
- public transport (especially stations and their vicinities);
- retail stores (especially for shoplifting);
- educational settings (especially at their edges);
- offices (especially when entered for theft);
- human support services (especially hospitals with 24-hour activities); and
- industrial locations (especially warehouses with "attractive" goods).

It is these considerations that give rise to the Situational Crime Prevention (SCP) concept, which utilizes the physical dimensions of CPTED, but focuses on existing, specific crime problems, rather than on anticipating crime problems for new developments on the basis of past experiences with similar designs.

42.3 Relationship and Relevance of "Safety Profile Study" to Urban and Regional Planning Practice

Generally, safety are dominant predictors used in explaining satisfaction with the general living conditions of urban communities (Savasdisara, 1998). The fear of crime is seen as a powerful and independent factor that may affect people through different pathways other than actual experiences (Pain, 2000; quoted in Wood et al, 2008), hence, residents' perception of safety as conveyed by the built environment is believed to be interwoven in fear of crime discourse. To this end, Baba and Mark Austin (1989) submit that a measure of fear of crime should be seen as a

measure of perceived neighbourhood safety since research in perception of crime or fear of crime has explained fear as a consequence of victimization.

Safety dimensions and indicators are veritable tools in measuring neighbourhood safety levels. For instance, fear of crime may restrict residents off the streets and other public areas as well as constitute a barrier. Among other factors, the safety of any specific environment depends mostly on the physical environmental factors which, in fact, depends on poor urban designs and management of urbanization process, inadequate urban services and failure to incorporate safety related issues into urban designs (Wekerle and Whitzman, 1995).

Urban and Regional Planning has become a melting pot of theory and practice. Where theory meets practice, Urban and Regional Planning is intended to offer a broad-based knowledge reservoir for improved capacity building in the planner's working alliances on making cities safe for living and working.

There has been rigorous research efforts in this area. At the very micro level, Agbola's (1997) work on "Architecture of Fear" examined how urban residents react to feelings of fear by constructing physical barriers thought to keep off crime and criminals, thereby making residents within such protected enclaves safe. At macro levels, gated neighbourhoods are adjudged to give residents within such enclaves a feeling of being safe from offenders outside.

Urban and Regional Planning and related disciplines have, over the years, explored concepts that could guarantee safer environments for living, working and recreation. This quest for sustainable urban neighbourhoods has led to the evolution of economic and social parameters and criteria for development, which are captured in catchy words, such as "sustainable development", "safer cities", "inclusive cities", and "smart cities". It is interesting to note that all such development objectives cannot be successful within persistently unsafe and insecure environments.

The issue of safety is a place-based phenomenon. It is increasingly recognized that a sustainable community is one that is both safe and perceived by its residents to be safe from crime. Thus, as a means of ensuring that cities are liveable, sustainable and smart, the concept of crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED) was evolved by Jeffrey (1971) and has been increasingly adopted as strategies, guidance and policies throughout countries in the developed world and in many

developing countries (Schneider and Kitchen, 2007; Cozens, 2008, cited in Agbola and Ntamark, 2017). In spite of the achievements of CPTED, Cozens (2011), argues that planners need a broader understanding of environmental criminology and patterns and trends in crime as they relate to the built environment within which safety issues are deeply challenged. Brantingham and Brantingham (1998), as observed by Cozens (2011), have asserted that “most planning proceeds with little knowledge of crime patterns, crime attractors, crime generators, the importance of edges, paths and nodes or the site specific solutions that facilitate or even encourage crime.”

Paulsen (2013) asserts that planners design in crimes in their layout proposals. A total lack of or insufficient knowledge on how crime cues are generated, distributed or even displaced within the urban space can make handling of crime issues complex and non-directional.

42.4 Implications of Safety Profile Discourse for URP Education

Planning is ultimately about making places safe for the people. Agbola and Ntamark (2017), quoting Schneider and Kitchen (2007), submit that, if planning is about making places better for people, it has to address those elements that make places problematic for people, and crime and the fear of crime are high up the list. Since the planning profession does not traditionally study the temporal and spatial locations of crime (or the fear of crime), planners need to look across academic disciplines to the insights, theories and evidence from the field of criminology (Cozens, 2011) and bring relevant areas into planning discourses. Topmost on the priority is to connect issues of environmental criminology with activity areas and spaces in the urban built environment where safety of urban residents are most challenged.

Environmental criminology is defined as the study of crime, criminality, and victimisation as they relate, first, to particular places, and then, to the way that individuals and organisations shape their activities by place-based or spatial factors (Bottoms and Wiles, 1997). Research consistently reveals that crime is not randomly distributed across urban space, but rather different types of crime cluster at certain locations and at certain times. Environmental criminology, therefore, concentrates on the spatial location of crime and the fear of crime and how individuals' behaviour is influenced by place-based factors. It is underpinned by three related crime opportunity theories that provide an alternative perspective

from which to consider the issues of permeable urban configurations, mixed-use developments and higher densities. Knowledge garnered from such understanding could promote cross-disciplinary dialogue and more informed inter-disciplinary discourses and, consequently, ensure potentially more effective decision-making in the management of urban spaces.

Crime and safety are inversely proportional, as espoused by this review. Crime and criminality occur within the urban space, over which planners should exercise some form of proprietary and management rights. The issues addressed in this review advocates the integration of safety issues into planning curriculum in planning schools. The training arm of the Town Planners Registration Council (TOPREC) and the NITP should consider issues of safety of urban areas as being of utmost importance. They should be made recurring themes in seminars, conferences, MCPDP/MCPPEP workshops, as well as in research and developments. In addition, planners and planning students should be made to know that designing an environment that is capable of defending itself through CPTED strategies will heighten the safety and security level of neighbourhoods better than those neighbourhoods that have been left to chance. This will require a deep and academic knowledge of the issue under investigation.

Also, creating safe neighbourhoods through urban planning requires that planners understand that the assessment of crime problems will entail assessment of spatial distribution of "safer places" and "crime hotspots" within the urban setting, landuses that are "crime attractors" and "crime generators", spatial mapping of spread and distribution of crime incidents in the area under focus; and definition of area/spatial of extents of secure/insecure neighbourhoods. It will also entail investigating what is the existing crime problem. Central to this investigation are assessment of types and nature of crimes; crime auditing/budgeting, crime review/assessment; and assessment of plans, scenarios, strategies, costs, anticipated effects of social exclusions. Identification of stakeholders involved in safety auditing, the various partners involved, identifying the decision-making body in charge of safety, levels of collaborations, type of multi-sectoral, and inter-agencies or intra-agencies partnership in safety management identified in a specific area are also important.

Achieving safe neighbourhoods for living, working and recreating, therefore, requires a holistic approach to urban space management as well

as taking stock of all physical, cultural, social and economic capital that affect and is affected by safety. The discovery of their interconnectedness and the way they facilitate or inhibit safety requires a well thought-out plan for their integration in urban planning and management strategies. Concepts and theories of safety must be entrenched in planning programmes and courses at the very early stage of the planning students' lives and ideology. The various areas of specialization in Urban and Regional Planning - environmental health, housing, transportation, regional development planning, facilities management, and many others can be tailored to capturing safety principles at all levels of planning programmes. The safety awareness, expertise, knowledge and know-how so acquired could prepare them for spatial decision-making during professional practice.

42.5 Conclusion

The issue of safety is that which affects most facets of our urban life and environment. It is evident from the above discourse that safety profiling is a complex and multi-faceted concept. However, the nexus between safety and security as well as their interconnectedness with risks and victimization are telling pointers to a quest for a holistic approach to security and safety of the built environment.

There is need for deliberate effort at ensuring that our environments are safe for living, working and recreation. A knowledge of crime patterns, crime attractors, crime generators, the importance of edges, paths and nodes or the site specific solutions that facilitate or even encourage crimes and induce fear of crime must be entrenched in the planner's day-to-day activities as they site facilities and allocate land to various uses. This, in turn, will guide the planner against "designing in crimes".

Urban settlements that must be safe may not occur or grow spontaneously. They must be deliberately created with a robust knowledge that should guide urban and regional planning practice. "Safer cities", "smart cities", "sustainable cities", "inclusive cities" all have, at their very heart, safety principles. Segregation within urban spaces and privatization of urban spaces are all reactionary efforts to separate targets (persons) from perceived sources of offending thought to breed feelings of fear among urban residents. In the same vein, the various defensible space and CPTED principles espoused by situational crime prevention strategies,

popularly known as “architecture of fear”, are the fallouts of unsafe neighbourhoods.

In conclusion, insecurity may not be stamped out of the built environment in one day. However, a careful implementation of safety principles in all aspects of the urban environment could improve residents’ quality of life. This can only be achieved if a detailed, all-encompassing safety profile study is carried out in urban neighbourhoods.

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