

## IMPLICATIONS OF URBAN VIOLENCE ON COMMUNITY SECURITY IN IBADAN NORTH LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF OYO STATE, NIGERIA

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### Abstract

Violence, whether at the urban or rural areas, come with its consequences and implications on the lives and properties of the inhabitants of the area in which the violence takes place. Extant studies have scarcely interrogated the implications of urban violence on community security in Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria. This study therefore, examined the implications of urban violence on the community security of the inhabitants of Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria. Shaw and McKay's social disorganization theory was adopted as the theoretical framework and the case study research design was employed. A mixed method of data collected was utilized comprising key informant interviews and questionnaire. Two wards, ward 8 and 12 were purposively selected for the study and 10 Key Informant Interview was purposively selected in the following manner: community heads (2), members of Community Development Association (4), Divisional Police Officer's (2) and Amotekun commandant (2). A total of 399 copies of questionnaire was administered to residents in Ward 8 (163) and Ward 12 (236) using the simple random sampling techniques. Qualitative data was analyzed using content analysis while the quantitative data was analyzed with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Scientist and are represented in simple descriptive statistics. Responses from respondents revealed that the causes of urban violence in the local government area include; high rate of unemployment (56.1%), loss of social values (39.5%), proliferation of arms (38.2%), cultism (17%) and drug abuse (17%). The predominant nature of violence in the local government area are robbery, armed robbery, cultism clash, and road transport union violence. Urban violence has led to loss of lives and livelihood, destruction of properties, and increased state of insecurity in the Local Government Area. Urban violence had dire implications for community security in Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State. To ensure effective security in the local government area, there is need to accentuate peace education and emphasize synergize of effort among the communities, her leadership, law enforcement agencies and non-governmental organizations.

**Keywords:** Violence, Urban Violence, Security, Community Security

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## Introduction

Urbanization is one of the major trends of the twenty first century. Globally, there are thirty-six urban areas with a population more than 10 million people as at 2020 of which sixty percent of those urban areas had a population more than 15 million residents. (Demographia, 2020). Urbanization occurs when people move from rural areas to urban areas as a result of development and industrial activities going on in the cities which brings with it economic and social benefits (Friedman, 2018). It usually comes with its own benefits and challenges for the development of the country. Thus, for any urban area to have growth or decline, the role of formal state responses, local communities' informal responses and the negotiation between visions of state and local for the city must be considered (Glass, 2018b; Glass, 2018a).

Wirth (1938) defined urban area as a reasonable large dense and permanent settlement of socially heterogeneous population. Kendall (2007) expanded on this definition by stating that an urban area is a reasonably large dense and permanent community of socially heterogeneous people who earn their living primarily through non-agricultural activities. Urban, according to UN-HABITAT (2007), is a built-up populated area that includes the city core, suburbs, and continuously settled commuting zones.

Urban Violence is the breakout of conflict that has a devastating effects on the lives and properties of people living in a community (Aluko, 2018). High level of economic competitions in cities are closely associated with crime and violence perpetuated by the unemployed. Friel et al reported an increase in crime by 60% among the urban population in developing countries (Friel, Bowen, Campbell-Lendrum, McMichael, & Rasanathan, 2011). The most alarming is the increase in the spread of terrorism in some cities globally, especially in cities in Africa due to the activities of terrorist groups (Mbagwu, 2020). Radicalism of youths and terrorism are also increasing in city centers today leads to increased insecurity in cities. Insecurity poses significant risks to lives and properties, hinders trade activities and foreign investors, all of which hamper economic growth (Ewetan, 2014). The risks associated with insecurity has therefore necessitates studies on security in recent times.

The study of security in recent times have undergone a radical change and shift from emphasis on national security and State sovereignty to focus on human centred security since 1994 with the UNDP Human Development Report. It was observed that security of people in a State will

eventually lead to the security of the State as a whole. The term security has therefore moved from traditional military defense of the country against external aggression to includes non-military aspects. This paradigm shift is often referred to as Human Security. Human security encompasses a comprehensive approach that guarantees individual safety which includes the environment in which people reside and their freedom from fear and wants. Human security can therefore be defined as the wellbeing of people which could also mean increase in standard of living (Ezemenaka, 2021). Human security has seven (7) elements which includes; personal security, food security, economic security, political security, health security, environmental security and community security.

Community Security, as one of the elements of human security, focuses on protection of communities against the breakdown of relationships and values as from ethnic violence and sectarianism. Community security is concerned with both group and personal security while focusing heavily on freedom from fear (Caballew-Anthony, 2015). Community security aims to publicly improve relationships between communities by providing opportunities for actors to identify their security concerns, plan and make joint responses. Community security is achieved when technique to ensure communities can meet their security needs are in coherence with the community and institutional capacity and willingness to respond to them (Bennett et al, 2014). Community security is sometimes used interchangeably with societal security. With the increase in the rate of urbanization and urban violence in the twenty first century especially in third world and developing countries, the challenge of maintaining adequate security at the communities in urban areas is on the rise (World Bank, 2011).

The security of lives and properties especially in communities where one resides cannot be overemphasized. However, violence has become pervasive not only in urban areas but also rural communities. With the Covid-19 pandemic, there seems to have been an increase in the level of urban violence in communities and this has forced communities in urban areas to provide alternate sources of security for themselves in order to deal with the threat posed to the people (Akanmu et al, 2021). Community security in Nigeria is a major concern for the government as it has weakened the country's economy through massive deterioration of channels such as travel and investment in the country due to high level of insecurity. Oyo State has been grappling with insecurity and criminal activities especially in urban areas in recent times as communities in the state has

gradually turned to place of panicking and unsettled vicinity (Afolabi, 2019). This has affected the lives, properties and livelihoods of residents of most communities in the state. Extant studies have scarcely interrogated the implications of urban violence on community security in Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State. This paper will therefore examine the implications of urban violence on community security in Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State.

## **Conceptual Clarifications**

### **Urbanization**

Urbanization is a very complex concept, with different dimensions. However, the size of a place, statistical measurement of the population that moved as well as the availability of basic amenities and industrial activities for the aim of improving the standard of living has been the criteria that is mostly used in the definition of urban population. Urbanization is defined as the net movement of people from rural to urban areas and the expansion of boundaries of urban areas as well as the creation of new urban centers (Tacoli et al, 2015). Pavoni and Tulumello (2018) “conceive urbanization as a movement of large number of people from rural to urban areas which can be measured using quantitative statistics”. That is, for a country to effectively document that urbanization has taken place, it must be able to efficiently and effectively measure the movement of people using quantitative statistics which allows accurate data to be collected and kept for further usage by the government of any country. Furthermore, Friedman (2018) defined Urbanization “is the process by which a large number of a country’s population move into towns and cities with basic amenities and services in search of improvement in their standard of living. This occurs when people move from rural areas to urban areas as a result of development and industrial activities going on in the cities which brings about economic and social benefits.

### **Urban Violence**

Urban violence is the pervasive aura of fear that increasingly characterizes contemporary urban spaces that is caused by an exogenous anomaly that needs to be eliminated (Pain and Smith, 2008). Such an affect-oriented approach to urban violence allows the emphasis on not just how circumstances in larger societal interactions influences the formation of violent and frightening narratives, but also how narratives themselves are formed by and perpetuated by societal interaction of materiality in cities. The intersections of structures, processes, narratives, practices and bodies that make up the urban environment can be considered to be the source of urban

violence and the dread of it (Rodgers, 2016). Urban violence is the breakout of conflict that has a devastating effects on the lives and properties of people living in a community. Urban violence can be categorized into four-fold segments and distinction between social, political, economic, structural and institutional violence (Moser, 2003)

Urban violence is the breakout of conflict that has a devastating effects on the lives and properties of people living in a community. This involves the use of small and medium size weapons or the use of nuclear weapons in a government owned space. This might also occur in forms of religious protests, political violence or ethnic violence (Aluko, 2018). This definition implies that violence at urban areas includes conflicts and crises that has a negative effect on the members of a community and it can go as far as using guns and other chemical weapons to defend one party against the other. Kaldor (1999) noted that violence can be viewed as “undeclared wars or quasi-warfare, with far-reaching social, political, cultural and institutional consequences. For Kaldor, urban violence is seen as new wars (Kaldor, 1999)

### **Human Security and Community security**

Recent studies on security have undergone a radical change and shift from emphasis on national security and state sovereignty to focus on human centered security since 1994 with the UNDP Human Development Report (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 1994). The United Nations Human Development Report in 1994 defined security as “the absence of insecurity and threats”. To be secured means to be free of both fear (of physical, sexual or psychological abuse, assault, or death) and lack (of work, food and health). This expanded definition of “security” contains two concepts: one, a concept of safety that extends beyond traditional physical security, and the other, the idea that people’s livelihoods should be protected through “social security” against unexpected disruptions. United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in 1994 highlighted the characteristics of human security as follows: people-centered, multi-sectoral, comprehensive, context-specific, and prevention-oriented. Human Security combines top-down norms, processes and institutions, such as the establishment of the rule of law, good governance, accountability, and social protective instruments, with a bottom-up focus in which democratic processes support the important role of individuals and communities as actors in defining and implementing their freedoms, in order to achieve its people centered characteristics.

As a subset of human security, community security is described as protection against community collapse caused by the loss of traditional relationships and values, as well as sectarian and ethnic

violence (UNDP, 1994). Several elements can pose a threat to community security. discrimination, isolation, violence from other groups, and threats from the government are only a few examples. While the focus of community security is on freedom from fear, the need for responding to a broader variety of social issues that influence communities' freedom from want is also recognized. The extended notion of community security is believed to give a flexible framework for adapting to diverse situations and cultures. The goal is to create functional states that are accountable to residents for providing high-quality services with a focus on building inclusive democracy (UNDP, 2009).

### **Global Trend of Violence in City Centres**

Urban violence usually takes different dimensions. Tyler (2015) noted that when cities become battlegrounds between contending entities in large-scale interstate battles, the most destructive and terrible types of violence occur. Cities, on the other hand, have been devastated by war, insurgency, and ethnic sectarian warfare since the conclusion of the Cold War. Examples of violence in cities in the global south include:

The Arab Spring of North Africa has led to insecurity in urban places in the region which has caused violent conflict and disorder in the political system that is characterized by networks of criminals such as human and drug trafficking (Gartenstein-Ross, Barr, Willcoxon, and Basun, 2015). Few cities, however, have been hit as hard by terrorism as Mogadishu, Somalia's capital. Suicide bombings involving cars and trucks have resulted in widespread death and destruction. In October 2017, an al-Shabab truck bomb killed an estimated 500 people and destroyed structures across a large area (Reuters, 2017). In Cape Town, which is the tenth most populous city in Africa, particularly the Cape Flats have been ravaged by similar gang wars as well as other cities in South Africa. Cape town has the highest number of murder and drug related violence in South Africa. Violence crimes that occurs in cape town includes homicide, robbery with severe effects, sexual violence and other assault that are aimed at inflicting grievous bodily harm (Chirisa, Bobo, and Matamanda 2016). The International Civil Commission has named Nairobi as one of the world's most crime-ridden major cities. More than half of Nairobi residents are concerned about violence on a regular or frequent basis (Pokharial, and Muthuri, 2014). Youth unemployment, poverty, inequality, poor city planning, rapid population growth, presence of organized gangs, and the proliferation of illicit weaponry and ammunitions are all factors that impact the prevalence of urban

violence in Nairobi, causing dread and insecurity among the people (Sana, and Okombo, 2012). Due to the surge of refugees in the city, the general populace contributes to crime and violence. Refugees bring guns and ammunitions and make them available to the public so that crime and violence can be used if necessary (Lynn, 2016).

In Baghdad, the U.S. and allied occupation troops face both a Sunni insurgency led by al-Qaeda in Iraq (AQI) and Shia violence led by Muqtada Al Sadr and his paramilitary force Jaish-al-Madhi, was another city wracked by wracked by conflict. Ironically, the Sunni and Shia factions appeared to unite against the Coalition Provisional Authority at times, while at other times, they engage in savage sectarian cleansing against one another, raising worries of a full-fledge civil war in Iraq. Despite the fact that AQI appeared to be crushed in 2008 and 2009, the Sunni Insurgency developed into Islamic State in Iraq and Syria (ISIS). ISIS conquered Mosul in 2014 when the Iraqi Army dissolved and fled; the city was regained by Iraqi forces after a nine-month war in 2017-2018. However, one observer described the liberation of Mosul as including unimaginable devastation, caused by airstrikes by the US-led coalition, which crumbled certain parts of the city to the size of football fields (Hopkins, 2020). The large concentration of collective violence in cities has raised concerns about urban violence particularly in Latin America, which has 8 percent of the world's population and a homicide rate of 33 percent (Muggah, and Aguirre, 2018). The five most violent cities in the world as assessed by homicide rates, were all in Latin America in 2017, and each had a homicide rate that was 50 percent higher than the worldwide average. While violence and the resulting human misery are particularly high in Latin America cities, they are not unique to the continent.

In the global north, Grozny, the capital of Chechnya, was one of them, with Russian soldiers fighting Chechen militias in 1995-1996 and 1999-2000 (Hopkins, 2020). In 2017, four of the fifty most violent cities were in United States, and three in South Africa (Seguridad, and Paz, 2018). Terrorist organizations might find a wide range of soft targets in cities. The September 11, 2001 attacks on New York City's World Trade Center remain the most dramatic and costly terrorist acts committed at urban targets. Attacks in Madrid, London, Paris and Brussels later highlighted the vulnerability of urban attacks. Brussel terminal in Belgium was attacked on march 22, 2016 and Zaventem airport in Brussel was bombed leading to the death of 32 persons and 100 casualties (John et al, 2016).

With the inception of the covid-19 pandemic in Wuhan, China in December 2019 and its spread to all the continent in the world and the subsequent lockdowns that followed its discovery in any country, there have been increase in urban violence and insecurity which has affected all spheres of human lives (De Abreu et al, 2021). The effects of these lockdowns were felt more by those working in the informal sector in most countries. The lockdown led to loss of employment, food shortage, social evils and increase violence especially in urban areas (Dhal, 2020). Police brutality, violations of human rights and gender based violence includes the forms of violence that were common during the pandemic. It should be noted however, that violence in urban areas have been prevalent in most of the metropolitan areas and cities, the covid-19 pandemic brought in another dimension to the nature of the violence by urban safety compromise, neighborhood risk and safety of residence.

The examples discussed above indicates that violence as a phenomenon takes place in cities across global south and global north. However, the nature and mode of operation of these activities differs based on location and peculiarity of each country in the various locations.

### **Security and Insecurity convergence in Nigeria Cities**

Since the return to democratic rule in May 1999, there has been an upsurge in insecurity in Nigeria. Communal confrontations, ethnic/tribal disputes, religious riots/conflicts, militancy, ritual killings, cultism and ethnic militia attacks, farmers-herders conflict, electoral violence, banditry, Boko Haram insurgency and abduction, to name a few, are all factors that contribute to insecurity (Akinola, 2016). Violence within cities had always been in the headlines, and its severity had increased in the recent years. It has been in the headlines for reasons such as unprecedented political violence, ethno-religious strife, economic marginalization, and other unforeseen imbroglios, all of which have occurred in varying degrees and have impacted every aspect of life. Indeed, the trend of urban violence and political upheaval did not occur in Nigeria without coming out in new dimensions. This trend in Nigeria is part of a vicious cycle that revolves from west to east, then south and finally north where it has almost been a permanent phenomenon in its daily affairs (Ayinde, and Aluko, 2017). Since the British government established colonialism in Nigeria, various waves of urban violence have occurred.

The Aba women riot in 1929, the Nigerian labour movement's national strike in 1945, and the Kano riots in 1953 are all examples of resistance to colonialism in Nigerian cities. Even after Nigeria's political independence from the British government on October 1, 1960, the tendency of



urban violence persisted in Nigerian cities. Following both federal and regional elections in country and especially the Western region, political violence known as “operation wet e” was observed from 1964-1965 as well as the division between Akintola and Awolowo. In the sections of the Northern Region, there was also violence, particularly between the supporters of the Northern People’s Congress and supporters of other parties such as the Northern Elements Progressive Union (NEPU) and Action Group (Falola, and Genova, 2009). The Nigerian civil war which raged between 1967-1970, resulted in the deaths of thousands of people and the destruction of property. Ethnic antagonism, corruption, political instability, and agitation for resource control are among the key reasons of the war. The end of the war paved the way for the formation of a new socioeconomic elite based on the sale of arm and ammunition in violence prone areas (Bamgbose, 2009; Odoemene, 2008). Furthermore, following the declared landslide victory of the National Party of Nigeria (NPN) in Oyo and Ondo States, which is the supposed stronghold of the Unity Party of Nigeria (UPN), there was widespread post-election violence in 1983. Several people were killed, and property was destroyed in enormous quantities. This trend of violence extends from 1960 to the contemporary democratic dispensation, which began with massive power struggles and assassinations (Alemika, 2011).

Between 1999 and 2003, approximately 10,000 lives were lost and over 300,000 people were internally displaced in Nigeria, according to statistics (USAID, 2005). During the 2006 religious violence in Northern Nigeria, about 50,000 people were displaced (IRIN News, 2006). In the Niger Delta cities of Warri, Yenegoa, and Port Harcourt, the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) launched a “oil war”, which resulted in repeated attacks on oil corporations and the deaths of numerous individuals. The militants were against the regions environmental destruction and underdevelopment. While the federal government send nearly half of the country’s oil revenue to the state governors as part of a revenue sharing agreement, these revenues do not reach Delta’s over 30 million citizens. (Obasi, 2010; Aver, Nnorom and Targba, 2013). When observing the waves of urban violence in central Nigeria, it is clear that Jos has been the scene of numerous violent ethnic riots since the country’s democratic transition in 1999. Between 2001 and 2004, riots in Jos killed 3000 people; such disturbances have been characterized as religious, ethnic or between “settlers” and “indigenous” populations. Several incidents of urban violence occurred in Eastern Nigeria during the fourth republic, particularly as a result of the Bakassi Boys’ actions in Aba, Enugu, Onitsha, and Imo. Similarly, OPC has played a role in outbreaks of urban violence

in Western Nigeria, especially Lagos and Ibadan. Several incidences reported in Warri and Port Harcourt, both in Southern Nigeria, during the militant attacks on companies in the area (Kendhammer, 2010).

The activities of the Boko Haram sect, whose initial name was Jama'atu Ahlis Sunna Lidda'awatiwal-Jihad, which began in Maiduguri in 2001 and later became a Jihadist organization, have been felt in Nigeria to this day. This group has been involved in violent attacks such as bombings, kidnapping and slaughtering on churches, schools, security and installations, and media organizations on a regular basis since 2009 which have spread from Maiduguri to Yobe, Kastina, Kaduna, Abuja, Adamawa, Niger and other North Western and Eastern states in Nigeria, with large human casualties, portraying the government as weak and incapable of dealing with the insurgency (Okpaga, Chijioke, and Eme, 2012)

Electoral violence is not a new occurrence in Nigeria, as the country has witnessed a series of violent incidence leading up to, during and after general elections since the country's fourth republic began (Olowojulo et al, 2019). Given the violence and voting irregularities that characterized the 19<sup>th</sup> April, 2007 presidential elections, Falola and Genova (2009) stated that it was plainly dysfunctional. Nigeria's ethno-religious division was exemplified in the 2011 elections. The election of President Goodluck Jonathan, a member of the Christian minority South-South ethnic group, triggered widespread violence in Nigeria's Muslim-Majority Norther states. Following the announcement of result, some Christians and Southerners were unjustly killed. The presidential election in 2015 used the same tools as previous elections, with the exception that, while it was extremely competitive, it was fair and less violent than previous elections since the country's democratic transition in 1999 (Nyijaana, 2019). During the 2019 general election period, the insurgent group Boko Haram was repeatedly making attacks in the Northeast, communal violence between the nomadic herdsmen and farmers spread southward from the north central states, and banditry, kidnapping, and killings increased dramatically in the northwestern states of Kaduna, Kastina and Zamfara (Nyijaana, 2019).

Few of the most recent experience of violence in Nigeria cities include the ENDSAR protest which turned from a peaceful protest against acts of violence perpetuated by the Special Anti-Robbery Squad of the police force to a violent one starting from October 20, 2022 in most of the major cities like Lagos, Benin, Ibadan, Abeokuta, Port Harcourt amongst others (Punch Newspaper, 2020). Forty-nine civilians and 11 policemen were reported to have died in clashes across the

country in the ENDSARS Protest (Taiwo-Hassan, 2020). Also, agitation for the Republic of Biafra in southeastern states of Nigeria has led to killings, arson and destruction which were orchestrated by the Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB) and the Eastern Security Network (ESN) in their fight against the Nigerian army and Nigeria government as a whole (Vanguard News, 2021). Some of the examples listed are few of the issues of urban violence Nigeria is facing in current times.

### **Theoretical Framework - Social Disorganization Theory**

The Social disorganization theory is concerned with the social structure of urbanization and its consequences for the growth of urban violence (Alanezi, 2010). Shaw and McKay established the social disorganization theory at the Chicago school in 1942 based on their study of juvenile delinquency which took place in major cities in Chicago, United States. It's a rephrase of the idea that violence is a result of both the physical environment and social institutions, and that the way they interact and are organized may be examined using an ecological framework. The theorists claimed that their understanding of social disorder stems from a community's absence of macro-level social constraints (Shaw, & McKay, 1942). According to the concept, disorganized urban environments are essentially lacking in social control, and the high level of poverty and violence in urban areas can be attributed to the collapse of value system and vital institutions that provide social control, such as families, schools and businesses. Shaw and McKay (1942), high rates of home mobility combined with a lack of social capital provide the conditions for violence to originate and persist. Low socioeconomic development, high rates of residential mobility, and high rates of ethnic heterogeneity are three of the key theoretical proposition of social disorder.

Sampson and Groves (1989) extended the concept of social disorganization by articulating the mechanism by which each social structural component influences the level of social disorganization. They expected that low-income areas would have less formal and informal regulations, as well as fewer youth supervision opportunities. Residents ability to reach consensus is hindered by ethnic heterogeneity, which is projected to disrupt the community's network of social interactions as people move in and out of the area. Sampson and Groves (1989) further expanded on the basic model of social disorder by including family breakdowns and urbanization. According to them, family disruption diminishes the value systems, local kinship and friendship networks and reduces involvement, while urbanization impairs informal social control at the community level. Skogan (1990) argued that the impact of violence on community organization is

mediated by fear of violence. High levels of anxiety are likely to reduce community cohesion, increase organizational mobility, and increase residential mobility. As a result, the social control process that prevents violence and chaos is weakened. Social disorganization theory is also of the view that those that are meant to enforce the value system of the society are no longer carrying out this duty and so some members of the communities especially the youths are able to perpetuate violent activities in the society. This theory assumes that the perpetrators of violence in this study are members of the community and as a result of the loss of the value system such as discipline, hard work, violence is therefore the new normal in the society. The creation of fear in people seems to be the new norm and the way to earn respect and a living in communities of today.

Researchers like Cohen (1955) have criticized the social disorganization theory, claiming that while high levels of violence may be a result of poor community relationships, it fails to address impulsivity and that the word “organization” does not imply “no organization” in the community. Regardless of these criticisms, it is obvious that social disorganization theory has withstood the test of time and has provided explanations for structural determinants of violence as well as the mediation process and feedback mechanism that may explain for crime’s non-random distribution (Voss, Long, Hammer, & Friedman, 2006).

### **Methodology**

This study adopted a case study research design to gather data and analyze the implications of urban violence on community security in Ibadan North Local Government Area. This study relied on both primary and secondary sources of data. A mixed method of data collected was utilized comprising key informant interviews and questionnaire.

This study made use of multi stage sampling technique. At the first stage, purposive sampling was used to select Ibadan North Local Government as a study area because of its urban nature and occurrence of violence in various communities within its jurisdiction in recent times. At the second stage, purposive sampling was used to select Ward 8 (Sango, Ijokodo) and Ward 12 (Agbowo, Bodija, Barika, Lagos-Ibadan expressway) out of the twelve wards in Ibadan North Local Government Area because of the incessant violence experienced in these two wards in recent times and their closeness to tertiary institutions in the local government area. Furthermore, the head of the communities, members of Community Development Association, members of the vigilante groups and police officers in police stations in the communities in Ward 8 and 12 was purposively

selected in the third stage of sampling of the qualitative method of data gathering based on their closeness to the communities and the fact that they were able to give first-hand information on the objectives of this study while simple random sampling was used to select respondents at the third stage of the sampling for the quantitative method of data gathering such as residents, business owners and traders in the community for questionnaire administration in each ward. The residents, businesses and traders are important to this study because they are at the receiving end of these violent activities perpetuated in the communities. A total of 10 key informant interview (5 Key Informant interview in each ward) will be conducted with respondents purposively selected in the following manner: The Head of the communities (Baale) (2), members of the CDA (4), Amotekun Commandants of Ward 8 and 12 (2), and DPO's of Agbowo and Sango Police Station (2).

There are many approaches to determining the sample size. This includes using a census for small population, imitating a sample size of similar studies, using published tables, and also applying formulae to calculate sample size. To obtain the sample for the study, Taro Yamane (1967) formula will be applicable.

$$\text{Taro Yamane Formula: } n = \frac{N}{1 + N(R)^2}$$

The values used are

N= Study population (94,582),

R=0.05

n= sample size

The computation for this is expressed below:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(R)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{94,582}{1 + 94,582(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{94,582}{1 + 94,582(0.0025)}$$

$$n = \frac{94,582}{1 + 236.455}$$

$$n = \frac{94,582}{237.455}$$

n=398.3 approximately 399.

Simple random sampling was used to administer a total of 399 questionnaires to residents, business owners and traders within the communities in Ward 8 and 12. That is, 163 questionnaires was administered to respondents in Ward 8 and 236 to respondents in Ward 12 based on random sampling. Qualitative data was analyzed using content analysis while the quantitative data was analyzed with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Scientist and are represented in simple descriptive statistics. This process involved the use of mixed method of data collection from residents of Ibadan North Local Government, Oyo State.

### Sampling Technique Table

Sources of Data	Method of Data Collection	Sample
Ward 8: Community Head	KII	1
Members of Community Development Association ( Head Landlord Association and Youth Leader)	KII	2
Amotekun Commandant in charge Ward 8	KII	1
Divisional Police Office Sango Police Station	KII	1
Residents, business owners and traders in Ward 8	Questionnaire	163
Ward 12: Community Head	KII	1
Members of Community Development Associated (Head Landlord Association and Youth Leader)	KII	2
Amotekun Commandant in charge of Ward 12	KII	1
Divisional Police Officers of Agbowo Police Station	KII	1
Residents, business owners and traders in Ward 12	Questionnaire	236
<b>Total</b>		<b>409</b>

### Data Presentation and Analysis

A total of 399 questionnaires were administered to members of the residents of Ward 8 (Sango, Ijokodo) and 12 (Agbowo, Bodija, Water, Barika, Agbowo express) of Ibadan North Local Government, of which 380 questionnaires was retrieved. 10 key-informant interviews were conducted among the stakeholders in each Ward 8 and 12. The KII were content analyzed.

## Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

N=380

Table 1 Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	189	49.7
	Female	191	50.3
Age	Less than 20	35	9.3
	21-30	243	63.9
	31-40	72	18.9
	41-50	19	5.0
	51-60	9	2.4
	61 and above	2	0.5
Ward	8	153	40.3
	12	227	59.7
Community	Ward 8	153	40.3
	Ward 12	227	59.7

Source: Field survey (2023)

Table 1 above indicates that majority of the respondents were female which constitute 50.3% of the total population while 49.7% are male. Most of the respondent 63.9% are between the ages of 21-30 years, 9.3% are below 20 years, 18.9% are between the ages of 31-40 years, 5.0% are between the ages of 41-50 years, 2.4% are between the ages of 51-60% and 0.5% are above 60 years old. 59.7% of the respondent resides in communities in Ward 12, while 40.3% are residents of Ward 8 of Ibadan North Local Government

Table 2: The Nature and Causes of Urban Violence in Ibadan North Local Government.

Statements	SA (%)	A (%)	UD (%)	D (%)	SD (%)	Mean	Standard Deviation	Inference
High rate of unemployment among youths encourage participation in violence	213 (56.1)	133 (35.0)	14 (3.7)	14 (3.7)	6 (1.6)	4.40	0.852	5
The proliferation of small arms and light weapon fosters urban violence	145 (38.2)	176 (46.3)	42 (11.1)	17 (4.5)	-	4.18	0.800	4
Low level of education in cities promote urban violence	126 (33.2)	163 (42.9)	31 (8.2)	55 (14.5)	5 (1.3)	3.92	1.050	4
Over population in cities encourage crime	98 (25.8)	174 (45.8)	32 (8.4)	70 (18.4)	6 (1.6)	3.76	1.080	4
Loss of social values in contemporary	150 (39.5)	174 (45.8)	34 (8.9)	22 (5.8)	-	4.19	0.826	4

<b>communities promote violence</b>								
<b>Social and economic violence such as gang activities, robberies are common in Ibadan North Local Government</b>	128 (33.7)	152 (40.0)	74 (19.5)	22 (5.8)	4 (1.1)	3.99	0.927	4
<b>Political violence is frequent in the local government areas</b>	98 (25.8)	127 (33.4)	91 (23.9)	60 (15.8)	4 (1.1)	3.67	1.058	4
<b>Perpetuators are from the community</b>	117 (30.8)	151 (39.7)	76 (20.0)	33 (8.7)	3 (0.8)	3.91	0.960	4
<b>Perpetuators are not from the community</b>	61 (16.1)	107 (28.3)	119 (31.3)	64 (16.8)	29 (7.6)	3.28	1.150	3
<b>The local government area is porous</b>	77 (20.3)	170 (44.7)	96 (25.3)	29 (7.6)	8 (2.1)	3.73	0.939	4
<b>Violence by the police and law enforcement agencies is prevalent in the local government area</b>	63 (16.6)	139 (36.6)	92 (24.2)	78 (20.5)	8 (2.1)	3.45	1.058	4
<b>Sexual violence and domestic abuse occurs regularly in the local government area.</b>	55 (14.5)	153 (40.3)	104 (27.4)	58 (15.3)	10 (2.6)	3.49	1.003	4

Source: Field Survey (2023) Note: SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, UD= Undecided, D=Disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree.

Table 2 showed that the causes of urban violence in Ward 8 and 12 of Ibadan North Local Government to include “high rate of unemployment among youth encourage participation in violence” ( $x = 4.40$ ) ranked highest by the mean score rating and was followed in succession by “Loss of social values in contemporary communities promotes violence” ( $x = 4.19$ ), “The proliferation of small arms and light weapon” ( $x = 4.18$ ), followed by followed by “Low level of education in cities promote urban violence” ( $x = 3.92$ ) followed by “Over population in cities encourage crime” ( $x = 3.76$ ), and lastly “The local government area is porous” ( $x = 3.73$ ). Table 2 also identified the nature of urban violence prevalent in Ward 8 and 12 to include “Social and economic violence such as gang activities, robberies” ( $x = 3.99$ ), followed by “Political violence is frequent in the local government area” ( $x = 3.67$ ), followed by “Sexual violence and domestic abuse occurs regularly in the local government area” ( $x = 3.49$ ), followed by “Violence by the police and other law enforcement agencies are prevalent in the local government are” ( $x = 3.45$ ).



**Table 3: Other Causes of Urban Violence Asides from those Captured in the Questionnaire**

<b>Statement</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Bad governance</b>	20	5.3
<b>Cultism</b>	65	17.0
<b>Betting pool and gambling</b>	55	14.4
<b>Discrimination</b>	55	14.4
<b>Drugs</b>	65	17.0
<b>Ethnic issues</b>	20	5.3
<b>Greed</b>	20	5.3
<b>Intimidation</b>	20	5.3
<b>Lack of infrastructural facilities</b>	20	5.3
<b>Peer pressure</b>	20	5.3
<b>Poverty</b>	20	5.3
<b>Total</b>	380	100.0

Source: Field survey (2023).

Table 3 showed the other causes of urban violence asides from those captured in the questionnaire with cultism and drugs leading with 17.0% each, followed by the presence of betting pool, gambling and discrimination with 14.4% each while bad governance has 5.3%, ethnic issues 5.3%, greed 5.3%, intimidation 5.3%, lack of infrastructural facilities 5.3%, peer pressure 5.3% and poverty 5.3%.

The result presented in the tables above resonates with responses retrieved from the KII conducted on the causes of urban violence in Ibadan North Local Government Area. The KII however identified causes of urban violence in the location to include presence of tertiary institutions, cultism, amongst others. A respondent noted that:

Urban violence is caused by high rate of unemployment, presence of tertiary institutions in the environment such as the University of Ibadan and The Polytechnic, Ibadan, high level of migration leading to overpopulation and formation of new alliances, poor upbringing of children and cultism. All these factors further enhance the spread of urban violence in the communities for a long period of time. For example, anywhere that cultism is prevalent, all forms of violence and criminal activities will happen in such places because cultism is the mother of all crimes. (KII with DPO, Sango Divisional Headquarters, Sango, Ibadan, Oyo State)

The community head sampled from one of the communities in the local government area agreed with the position of the DPO, Sango Divisional Headquarters on the causes of urban violence in

the local government area. He however, added that drug usage, gambling and greed especially among youths had made urban violence a daily occurrence in the communities.

Other causes of urban violence in the local government area include illiteracy, poverty, easy access to arms and the extension of tertiary institutions into the surrounding communities. It is important to note that population explosion especially through migration leads to formation of new alliances such as mob as it is observed among the commercial motorcyclist in the communities (KII with DPO, Kajorepo Divisional Headquarter. Agbowo, Ibadan, Oyo State).

**Table 4: Other Nature of Urban Violence being exhibited in Ibadan North Local Government**

<b>Statement</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Bullying</b>	24	6.3
<b>Child abuse</b>	15	4.0
<b>Human trafficking</b>	15	4.0
<b>Jungle justice on suspected criminals</b>	62	16.4
<b>Kidnapping</b>	20	5.2
<b>Pickpocketing</b>	14	3.6
<b>Ritual killings</b>	8	2.1
<b>Road transport workers violence</b>	62	16.4
<b>Street fighting</b>	70	18.4
<b>Thuggery</b>	70	18.4
<b>Victimization</b>	20	5.2
<b>Total</b>	380	100.0

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Table 4 showed the other nature of urban violence being exhibited asides from those captured in the questionnaire with thuggery and street fighting leading with 18.4% each, followed by road transport workers' violence and jungle justice on suspected criminals 16.4% each, bullying 6.3%, kidnapping 5.2 %, victimization 5.2 %, child abuse 4.0%, human trafficking 4.0%, pickpocketing 3.6 %, and ritual killings 2.1%.

On further discussion and emphasis on the nature of violence prevalent in Ibadan North Local Government. It was discovered from the Key Informant interviews conducted that the nature of urban violence as identified by the results presented in the tables above were present in the local government area. The law enforcement agencies sampled revealed that robbery is so prevalent in Ward 8 and 12 ... the case of Agbowo caught the attention of the former Commissioner of Police,

Mrs Ngozi Onadeko because it was published in the newspaper' (KII with DPO, Sango Divisional Headquarters, Sango, Ibadan, Oyo State). The sampled respondent from the Western Nigeria Security Network also known as Amotekun agreed with the position of the DPO, Sango Divisional headquarters on the nature of urban violence in the local government area. He however added that thuggery, victimization and jungle justice are prevalent in the local government.

In the same vein, interviewees sampled from the communities submitted that street fighting is a common phenomenon in the area and it can happen suddenly at any time of the day. The Head of Landlord association sampled from Agbowo community in the Local Government Area noted that:

...These activities are not just one-time event in the communities but a continuous and recurrent issues that have wreaked havoc on many residents of the community. (KII with the head, Landlord Association, Agbowo, Ibadan)

**Table 5: Implications of Urban Violence on Community Security in Ibadan North Local Government Area**

Statement	SA (%)	A (%)	UD (%)	D (%)	SD (%)	Mean	Standard Deviation	Inference
<b>Loss of livelihoods</b>	153 40.3	183 48.2	28 7.4	14 3.7	2 0.5	4.24	0.784	4
<b>Fear and anxiety of residents which may lead to health issues</b>	144 37.9	178 46.8	30 7.1	24 6.3	4 1.1	4.14	0.887	4
<b>Loss of lives and properties</b>	161 42.4	180 47.4	19 5.0	19 5.0	2 0.5	4.26	0.802	4
<b>Destroys social capital leading to mistrust among community members</b>	117 30.8	188 49.5	51 13.4	21 5.5	3 0.8	4.04	0.857	4
<b>Slowdown of development and democratic sustainability</b>	120 31.6	193 50.8	45 11.8	20 5.3	2 0.5	4.08	0.830	4
<b>Additional expenses is incurred by government on security matters</b>	103 27.1	200 52.6	50 13.2	22 5.8	5 1.3	3.98	0.869	4
<b>Breakdown of law and order</b>	161 42.4	174 45.8	35 9.2	6 1.6	4 1.1	4.27	0.777	4

Source: Field Survey (2023) Note: SA= Strongly Agreed, A=Agreed, UD=Undecided, D= Disagreed, SD=Strongly Disagreed.

Table 5 showed the implications of urban violence in Ibadan North Local Government as follows: “breakdown of law and order” ( $x = 4.27$ ) ranked highest by the mean score rating and was followed in succession by “Loss of lives and properties” ( $x = 4.26$ ), “Loss of livelihood” ( $x = 4.24$ ), “fear and anxiety of residents which may lead to health issues” ( $x = 4.14$ ), “Slowdown of development and democratic sustainability” ( $x = 4.08$ ), “Destroys social capital which leads to mistrust among

community members” ( $x= 4.04$ ), and “Additional expenses is incurred by government on security matters ( $x= 3.98$ )

**Table 6: Other Implications of urban violence on residents of Ibadan North Local Government**

Statement	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Anarchy</b>	40	10.5
<b>Bad reputation of the community</b>	80	21.0
<b>Displacement</b>	20	5.2
<b>Economic disorder</b>	60	15.7
<b>Loss of freedom</b>	20	5.2
<b>Loss of interest in renting apartment in violent areas</b>	60	15.7
<b>Moral decadence</b>	50	13.7
<b>School dropout</b>	20	5.2
<b>Vandalizing public properties</b>	30	7.8
<b>Total</b>	380	100.0

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Table 6 shows the other implications of urban violence asides from those captured in the questionnaire to include “bad reputation of the community 21.0%, economic disorder and loss of interest in renting apartment in violent areas leading with 15.7%each, followed by moral decadence 13.7%, anarchy 10.5%, vandalizing public properties 7.8%, displacement, loss of freedom and school dropout 5.2% each.

The results presented in the tables above were further emphasized by KII conducted with sampled population from Agbowo and Ijokodo communities in the local government area where they noted that the security of their communities have been hampered by negative consequences of urban violence which includes living in perpetual fear, loss of lives and properties, insecurity, abandonment of properties and additional expenses to maintain security.

There is an atmosphere of perpetual fear because anyone could fall a victim of these violent actions. The environment is so tensed that many of the youths don’t spend the night in the community. Loss of lives and properties are also prevalent here as at least one person has been killed daily in the cultism clash going on in the area for the past three days while many are injured. The level of suspicion and mistrust is so high that no one trusts the other and nowhere is safe. (KII with Youth Leader, Ijokodo Community. Ijokodo, Ibadan)

The loss of livelihood that occurs with urban violence in this community can sometimes not be quantified. In the case of street fighting, people leave their businesses open and run for their lives and their shops are always looted. Urban violence has led to break down of order and almost make the community ungovernable to the extent that people are moving out of the community. (KII with Head of Landlord Association Ijokodo. Ijokodo, Ibadan). To buttress this, the youth leader of Agbowo explained that urban violence had contributed to the level of insecurity and it has affected all facet of live in the community (KII with Agbowo Youth Leader. Agbowo, Ibadan).

The DPO Sango Divisional Headquarter stated that negative consequences of urban violence in communities in Sango/Ijokodo axis are more devastating than those experienced in communities in Agbowo as many people have been forced to move out of the communities and some had to abandon their landed properties. It is important to note that these violent activities occur frequently when students of the tertiary institutions in this environment are on session and dowse when they are on break. It was further stated that

Urban violence has led to addition expenses incurred by government and the communities. When cultism clash for example occurs, it leads to breakdown of law and order and for some of these violent acts to be curtailed government put up additional expenses. In Agbowo for instance, when the CP ordered me to maintain sanity in the area, new patrol vehicles had to be released for that purpose and the fueled daily. The community leadership also had to start employing vigilantes to guard their communities at night (KII, DPO Sango Divisional Headquarters)

### **Discussion of Findings**

The common causes of urban violence are remote in some cases that is, it is peculiar to the characteristics of the environment where it occurs and general in other cases. It is however important to note that the causes of urban violence and the exhibition of urban violence in various kinds of activities which includes robberies, rape, cultism clash amongst others have been able to thrive for a long period of time because of lack of long term government interventions in these locations.

Government interventions on a long term scale determines how well urban violence will thrive in any community. Moser (2014) posits that failures of government to put in long term preventive measures through state public security systems as well as formulation and execution of public

policies to tackle urban violence over the years is also one of the causes of urban violence in communities. For instance, policies of compulsory and free formal education of children if effectively carried out will in turn reduce the level of participation in violence in the society as any country that is not intentional in investing on education of her younger generations will be faced with the distress of curbing the negative consequences of crisis they would cause in future. The inadequacy in executive polices such as education for a sustained period of time in the society further enhances the spike in participation of urban violence especially by the uneducated/ semi youths who are the major drivers of these violent activities. It is therefore important that attention be paid on investment on education of youths and younger generations.

The results also showed that attention is not paid to inner communities within cities as it is paid to communities at the core of the city and local government. Communities on city margins socially and/or geographically are seeing upswings in violence, crime and organized criminal activities in Nigeria (Yue et all, 2022). This is because these communities rarely benefit from programs and project executed by government which includes infrastructural facilities and opportunities because of their location. The result further implies that the nature of violence in the study area can be further categorize as: socio-economic, structural and political with the dominant being socio-economic and structural. The rise in socio-economic violence which can be traced to the unfavorable economic situations and increase in rate of poverty in third world countries including Nigeria which has led to migration to cities for survival and participation in whatever means that will bring survival. The situation got worse during the Covid-19 period and countries all around the globe still struggling to recover from the inflation being experienced in the post Covid-19 era. Social and economic inequalities are therefore strongly linked to differences in violent rates in communities within cities.

Furthermore, urban violence has had both positive and negative consequences on the residents of the study area. However, the negative consequences are far-fetching than the positive ones and affects the overall wellbeing of the residents of communities and a country at large (Skarperdas et all, 2009). Urban violence in the study area have created employment opportunities for vigilantes and other private security outlets, it has made residence to be more security conscious and has enforce government, it agencies and communities to work together in order to work out security challenges in the society but it had also lead to increase in cost of security for the residence of the

communities and sometimes the lives of the vigilante are cut short on duty. Urban violence has had a substantial and direct influence on economic growth in Nigeria thereby posing a barrier to poverty reduction while producing profound psychological and physical damage which includes lowering the quality of life of all members of society (Baku and Aduloju, 2018).

### **Conclusion and Recommendations**

Urban violence had implications for community security in Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State. To ensure effective security on a long term basis in the local government area, there is need to accentuate peace education and emphasize synergize of effort among the communities, her leadership, law enforcement agencies and non-governmental organizations. Attention should be paid to the youths especially the unemployed ones in the local government area by developing mechanism and strategies that could get them engaged and at the same time provide income for them in order to reduce their participation in violence as violence can never be reduced or discouraged if the underlying factors are not properly dealt with.

Darkness has been said to be an enabler of bad activities. In Ibadan North local Government, some of the areas are poorly lit and have poor access to light at night. To this effect this study recommends an illuminating campaign so that these places are well lit. In this way, this will to an extent serve as a preventive mechanism against crime and on the other hand help security agencies and community efforts in tackling crime in the local government area. There is a need for tandem of non-governmental agencies and private agencies to support the efforts of the communities and law enforcement agencies in Ibadan North local government in order to fund logistics and execute plans to reduce violence on a long term scale in the communities.

Peace education has been hammered upon as a way to go regards issues of violence, conflict and disorders in the society. It must be noted that community security provides a safety net in the community that allows people to be free from fear at least. In this sense, community security is seen to be a failure if members of the community live in fear. Peace education and sensitization program focus on the community resilience effort and the ability to understand and identify aliens in the community and report mechanism to peace promotion will go a long way to ensure the reduction of violence and promotion of community security in the local government. This study hereby recommends peace education and sensitization for leaders and members of Ibadan north local government. This can be done by the police in collaboration with NGO's working on peace

education. Government should set up long term interventions especially in the aspect of education and ensure that it covers a large percentage of people in the country in order to prevent spike in the cases of violence in few years' time. The level of out of school children in some of these communities is alarming and its such that if adequate steps are not taking to make basic education compulsory in the country, Nigeria is standing on a time bomb which is not needed considering the level of malfunctions happening in the country at the moment.

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**APPENDIX A: KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW GUIDE**

Dear Respondent,

This key informant interview session is designed as a means of collecting data to **examine the Implications of Urban Violence on Community Security in Ibadan North Local Government Area, Oyo State from 2017 to 2022**. Information given by you during this interview will be used for research purpose which is essential in getting desired result and with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you so much for the anticipated cooperation.

*Section A: Demographic Information*

(1) Name: .....

(2) Ward: .....

(3) Community: .....

*Section B: Identify the nature and causes of urban violence in Ibadan North Local*

- a. Do you understand what urbanization is? If yes, what is urbanization?
- b. Would you describe Agboowo community and the Polytechnic area as an urban area knowing it was formally rural?
- c. How has urbanization and urban migration led to violence in Ibadan North local Government?
- d. What type of violence is prevalent in the local government area?
- e. What are the major causes of violence in communities in the local government area?
- f. Are the perpetrators of the violence from the community or outside the community? Explain more on your response

*Section C: Examine the implications of urban violence on community security in Ibadan North Local Government*

- a. Do you think that urban violence has contributed to insecurity in communities in the local government area? If yes/no, expatiate.
- b. What is the psychological effect of urban violence on members of community in Ibadan North Local Government?
- c. Can you name some of the social disorders caused by violence in communities in the area?
- d. Has violence in the community led to loss of lives and properties? Can you quantify damages, or loss of lives if any?
- e. What are the financial implications of violence on members of the community and the government? Has the financial implication being on large scale? Does it have a lasting effect on businesses thrive and patronage?