CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

“Everyone has a right to live in a community that is safe. Just as it should not pose threats to the health of residents, people should not have to fear for their personal safety and/or the safety of their belongings” (du Plessis, 1999, p. 1)

Crime has been cited as an important problem and is a prominent fact of contemporary societies (Garland, 2001). The cost of crime varies from direct cost to indirect costs (Forsyth, 2005). Crime as a social problem can restrict people’s freedom in the community participation. It can generate considerable fear within the community superceding national security, employment, cost of living, poverty and health (National Crime Prevention Institute [NCPI] 2003, Muncie & Mc Laughlin 2002). Victims of crime may suffer long-lasting psychological trauma (UN-HABITAT, 2007). High crime rate will impede foreign investments as well as result in the stigmatisation of neighbourhoods or even entire sections of the city (UN-HABITAT, 2007, Dodds & Pippard, 2005). The desire to feel safe and secure demands numerous public policy and governmental interventions to combat crime. But the problem of crime itself is still persistent. Global trends indicate that crime rates have been on the increase. This trend is however, not replicated in all regions of the world, though crime and violence are typically more severe in urban areas and is compounded by their rapid growth (UN-HABITAT, 2007).

Global report on human settlements (UN-HABITAT, 2007) also addressed crime as one of the threats to the safety and security of towns and cities and reported that:

“...The fear of crime and violence is pervasive and has affected the societies of both developed and developing countries...” (P.7)
The level and intensity of crime can vary from nation to nation and no country has remained unaffected. However crime and insecurity are serious threats in developing countries, while these countries face population explosion and accelerated urbanisation. In such countries with “limited resources to invest in modernisation of their criminal justice system, underpaid police officers, lack of equipment, overcrowding prisons and courts” (Dodds & Pippard, 2005, P.19), the growing crime rates pose formidable challenges for governments in ensuring the safety and security of the citizens and the quality of their lives. The seriousness of the crime issues in developing counties as a developmental problem make particular demands on the governments which is not faced by most of the developed countries (United Nations [UN], 2010).

Forsyth (2005) postulates that although crime has been known as a consequence of social upheavals resulting from industrialisation and urbanisation that have been equated with modernisation. But the experience of the developing countries in the last quarter of the twentieth century shows that crime is known as a critical obstacle to the realisation of development. It can even be a potential cause of underdevelopment.

Crime and fear of crime have been long recognised by urban experts as the dominant challenges and a threat to social sustainability of the cities (Polese & E. Stren, 2000). Cozens (2007a, P.3) said: “Sustainability\(^1\) will not achieve its full potential if crime and fear of crime pose a threat to current or future users”. Crime also has been identified as one the themes to measure the sustainability of the communities (West Midland Regional Observatory [WMRO], 2009).

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\(^1\) Sustainability is defined as forms of progress that meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs” (DESA, 1999). “The need is to integrate the three pillars of environmental, economical and social sustainability in order to meet human needs while preserving the earth’s life support systems” (Lopez, 2008, Clark, 2002b).
The need to safety and security is one of the human needs\(^2\) (Maslow's hierarchy of needs, 1968). “The opportunity to live a life largely free of becoming a victim of crime is a basic human right” (Homel, 2009. P.3) and therefore effective crime prevention programmes contribute to enhancing the human rights.

Considering the direct and indirect cost of crime such as physical, psychological, economical, social and political cost of crime, loss suffered by victims (Forsyth, 2005), the effects of crime and fear of crime on quality of life and peoples’ perception of the society and knowing the fact that crime prevention programs are cost effective (UN-HABITAT, 2007), it seems essential to prevent criminal activities and violence before they are committed (Schneider & Kitchen 2002, Crowe 2000, Homel 2009). National Crime Prevention Council [NCPC] (2007), defined crime prevention as:

“A pattern of attitudes and behaviours directed at reducing the threat of crime and enhancing the sense of safety and security, to positively influence the quality of life in our society, and to develop environments where crime cannot flourish”.

Crowe (2000) pointed out that there are three common descriptions that differentiate approaches to crime prevention namely punitive approaches, mechanical approaches and corrective approaches. Some criminologists have reversed the orders of these typologies by referring them as primary, secondary and tertiary approaches:

“Primary approaches or mechanical approaches are concerned with creating barriers or obstacles to criminal activities, secondary approaches or punitive approaches emphasize the implementation of a criminal justice and punishment, tertiary or corrective approaches focus on dealing with the causes of criminal behaviour and treatment or rehabilitation of offenders” (P.28)

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\(^2\) “As psychologist Maslow (1986) noted, human have a hierarchy of five universal needs and security is one of the most basic needs which if not fulfilled, interferes with the individual’s ability to achieve the higher needs” (O’Block, Donnermeyer & Dooren, 1991).
Crowe (2000) notes that people have a perception that the real priority to crime prevention is to deal with the roots of crime as well as social, economical and political causes. He adds that the corrective and tertiary approaches are the most socially desirable. But the theories relating to the causes of crime fail to explain the wide range of criminal behaviour and dishonesty in the community which has roots in self-centred nature of human behaviours and causes of crime as there are criminals (Jubilee Policy Group, 1993).

Secondary approaches or punitive approaches are reactive approaches that respond to crime after it has occurred, while crime prevention approaches are pro-active policing that attempts to prevent crime from occurring in the first place. Criminal Justice System (CJS) is unable to identify all offenders and to cope with the actual crime rates. United Nations Crime and Justice Information Network [UNCJIN] (2000) reported, “A growing body of literature show that crime prevention is successful and more effective than traditional, punitive approaches”

Primary approach or mechanical approach is directed at denying or limiting access to crime targets through physical barriers. Target hardening such as using barriers such as locks, electronic alarms, fences, gates and security patrols is one of the long established traditional components of primary approaches as it increase the efforts that offenders must expend to commit crime. According to Wortley & Mazerolle (2008) and Cozens, Saville and Hillier (2005) excessive use of target hardening tactics can create a fortress mentality. Baker & Bridgeman (1994) indicate that some people regarded target hardening as ‘threatening signs of a fortress society’.

“Evidence from several countries indicate that implementing efficient and effective crime prevention programs contributes significantly to achieve a safe and secure societies” (Homel, 2009) while it promotes a long term and sustainable solution to
threats posed by crime. All crime prevention initiatives should be sustainable (Public Safety Canada, 2009). Crime as a complex and multi-facet event is a product of many factors. Explaining criminal behaviour is a challenge and it is as complex as the human nature itself. Brantingham and Brantingham (1991 as cited in Evans & Herbert, 1989, Cozens, et al., 2005) have argued that “the law, the offender, the target and the location” are four dimensions for the occurrence of crime.

In most crime prevention strategies, the interest is primarily on the offenders and laws. The target as well as their location is relatively neglected features of criminological theorizing. Place-based crime prevention strategies focus upon the crime site, the spatial aspects of a target and the specific location of crime to redress the balance between these factors by changing the environmental design (Cozens, Saville & Hillier, 2005).

Situational prevention theory (SCP) as one of the place-based crime prevention strategies3 (Schneider & Kitchen, 2002) aims to change the physical and environmental condition that generate crime and fear of crime through improved urban design and planning. The assumption is that offending behaviour is opportunistic and therefore situational features can be more easily manipulated than the behaviour of offenders to inhibit crime. Consequently the focus is on the environmental setting in which crimes occur and not on the criminal act itself. SCP is not conceptually new. People have always responded to perceived risks by altering their behavior to reduce the risks (Tonry & Farrington, 1995).

SCP perspective has received much stronger empirical support than any other prevention strategies in recent years, however, it is still unknown in most developing countries. Pervasive issues of the crime and fear of crime as well as the threat they both

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3 Defensible space, SCP or situational crime prevention, CPTED or crime prevention through environmental design and environmental criminology theories are known as the contexts of Place-based crime prevention theory... (Schneider & Kitchen, 2002)
pose to long term sustainability of the cities in developing countries such as Iran, draw attention to an urgent need to consider the capacity of the built environment that can be utilised to facilitate the design of a safer, more liveable and sustainable urban community.

Tehran is the most populous city of Iran and has comparatively short, but very fascinating history of turning from a small village into a metropolitan area populated by 12 million of people (Statistical Centre of Iran [SCI], 2006). Rapid urbanisation, industrialisation and migration from other cities to Tehran are major factors that contribute to the high crime rate and fear of crime in Tehran. This has led to problems towards the approach of a sustainable city while affecting the quality of life (Tehran Geographic Information Centre [TGIC], 2005).

In line with international thinking, attempts should be made to develop and test situational techniques in developing countries. It is to help recognise that situational approach can complement law enforcement approaches to prevent crime and fear of crime in these communities. Lack of any research related to environmental setting to prevent crimes such as vandalism and graffiti in Tehran leads to initiation of the present research work.

1.2 Background studies

Vandalism and graffiti as a wilful act of vandalism are known as a big challenge that both developed and developing countries face. It is one of the most expensive crimes. The cost of vandalism and graffiti is both monetary and social costs. Apart from discomfort and the actual danger to the public indirectly and the huge sum of money needed to repair vandalism damages, the effects of vandalism lead to encourage further neglect among residents, increasing anxiety about crime and fear of victimisation are

On the importance of preventing vandalism and graffiti Barker & Bridgeman (1994, P.4) have stated:

“The financial costs of repairing vandalism damages as well as the human costs of inconvenience and annoyance suffered as a consequence are enough in themselves to justify putting effort into finding effective ways of reducing its incidence and prevalence.”

According to Horowitz & Tobaly (2003), studies on vandalism⁴ are based on two different perspectives:

I. Vandalism from the view of an individual who commits vandalism. In this view, personal traits, difficulties in adjusting to society and emotional problems are known to be the causes of vandalism.

II. Vandalism as a social phenomenon and is a malaise of modern society that is characterised by alienation and meaninglessness that relates to high level of social mobility, rapid growth and instability (Zimbardo, 1969 as cited in Horowitz & Tobaly, 2003)

Both perspectives show that the causes of vandalism should be sought in the culture, history, economic, social and environmental conditions under which vandalism occurs.

Vandalism prevention programs are *the person oriented strategies* that “seek to reduce potential or actual motivation of vandals to perpetrate such a behaviour” or

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⁴ Graffiti is studied in the same category with vandalism
environmental oriented strategies that “seek to alter the physical setting, context or situation in which vandalism might occur” (Goldstein, 1996).

It should be noted that whatever be the causes of vandalism, changing the social and cultural conditions, require a long time frame. Therefore, situational features can be more easily manipulated than the behaviour of offenders to prevent vandalism. The focus of this research is more on the environmental setting in which crimes occur and not on the criminal act itself.

The study of crime and built environment is not a new one (Eck & Weisburd, 1995) and the link between the built environment and crime occurrences have long been of interest to urban planners.

Lighting is known as one of the most important aspects of built environment that “plays an essential role in influencing the way we comprehend the environments” (Rateau, 2002, P.75). Lighting has clearly an impact on perception of the space by its occupants. The interaction of light with humans in three ways namely visibility, health and mood (Rialhe, 2007, Advanced lighting guidelines [ALG], 2001) can cause the light to become an “instrument capable of shaping the atmosphere and modifying our perception of space, a place or a situation” (Rateau, 2002. P.75) but it is always the question of how to use lighting to enhance the achievement of human objectives.

Improved outdoor lighting is widely seen and implemented by public as a useful way of preventing crime and lessening its’ fear and its use has been advocated by crime prevention practitioners.

Crime prevention through environmental design and situational prevention strategies suggested using improved outdoor lighting as one of the ways of preventing crime to illuminate human activities and to provide security.
The relation between the outdoor lighting level and crime has been extensively discussed in street lighting and crime literatures. These literatures disseminate the results from the studies that have examined the effects of improved street lighting on crime and fear of crime in UK and US. Although the number of studies are limited but the topic is unique in the number of reviews published per original study carried out (Pease, 1999a).

Several studies and reviews have showed the effectiveness of implementing outdoor lighting interventions to prevent crime and have provided evidences on the cost benefits of the approach. Other studies draw attention to the negative or ineffective impact of improved lighting on crime rate and one study discussed on the effective role of darkness as a crime deterrent.

However, the assessment of the recent reviews (by Farrington & Welsh 2002, 2008, Clark 2002a, 2002b and Marchant 2004, 2006) are more likely to indicate that the effect of improved lighting on crime is still in doubt.

In addition, a review on the effects of lighting level on vandalism and graffiti in particular, indicates two different theories based on some experiments in school campuses: ‘lighting vs. no lighting’ (Purvis, 2008).

Although both ‘dark campus’ theory and improved lighting to tackle vandalism shows positive effects but the results are not conclusive and pointed out to the need for more studies to find any correlation between lighting level and vandalism occurrence. More studies need to be conducted considering the effectiveness of other related environmental variables as well as the role and importance of the social and cultural characteristics of the area from the view of different age groups.
To that end, this research aims to explore the teenagers’ perception of safety in relation to non-political graffiti vandalism with reference to outdoor lighting levels in urban areas of Tehran. It is also to assess the related SCP variables known to impact on vandalism and graffiti occurrence, as well as to evaluate the environmental variables that correlate with the high degree of non-political graffiti vandalism damages.

1.3 Overviews of Crime Prevention and Environmental Strategies in Tehran

UNCJIN (2000) reported that crime has skyrocketed over the last few decades and although nations are spending increasing amount on police, prosecution, court and prisons, this spending has done very little to reverse crime rates or reform offenders. The report added that crime control in developing countries uses up to 14% of GDP\(^5\) while it is about 5% in developed countries.

Although police and criminal justice systems play an important role to prevent crime, enhancing the police force and enacting zero tolerance policies result in increased convictions and over populated prisons while it was unsuccessful to prevent crime (United Nations Human Settlements Programme [UNHSP], 2004).

Because of multiple causes of crime, different sectors of the society can impact the crime rate and have responsibility to act to prevent crime. Crime prevention is not ‘criminal justice issue’ alone but crime prevention is “multisectoral and integrated endeavour that should be addressed by examining the casual factors and vectors of crime so as to identify appropriate measures” (United Nations Office on Drug and Crime [UNODC], 2009, P.3).

\(^5\) Gross Domestic Product
Environmental strategies to prevent crime such as CPTED and SCP are innovative methods of preventing crime that have “potential benefits for public health in the provision of local crime risk assessments and in delivering safer environments which can support active living, workable communities and public health” (Cozens, 2007b, P.1). It also deals with common sense solutions to practical environmental problems while it doesn’t interfere with the normal use of space. One of the rewarding aspects of environmental strategy is to improve the quality of life especially in developing countries.

The research showed that while there are often mistrust and poor relations between police and citizens in developing and poor countries (UNHSP, 2004), environmental strategies can be used ‘with a good deal of success and local acceptance’ (Stephens & Rau, 2001) although in most of the developing countries, the responses to the problem of crime tended to be repressive.

In Iran crime prevention has traditionally been seen as the responsibility of the police, deterrent aspects of the law and repression of offenders. Target hardening is also the first solution that occurs to residents and designers to physically reduce opportunities for crimes. Although environmental strategies to combat crime have been studied extensively and implemented over the last few decades in most of the developed countries but it is still a new topic in Iran.

Juvenile delinquency with its mental, economic and social negative consequences has become one of the most important social problems in Iran (Jalaeipour & Hosseini, 2008). The high proportion of youth, chaotic urbanisation, and socio-economic condition cause Tehran to be more vulnerable to some types of street crimes such as vandalism and graffiti that pose a threat to stability and development of the country.
There are no published studies about the effectiveness of implementing environmental strategies to prevent crimes such as vandalism and graffiti in Iran. Hence the need for the present study.

1.4 Aims, objectives and outcome of the research

The aim of the present research is to explore the teenagers’ perception of safety in relation to non-political graffiti vandalism with reference to outdoor lighting levels in urban areas of Tehran. It is also to assess the related SCP variables known to impact on vandalism and graffiti occurrence, as well as to evaluate the environmental variables that correlate with the high degree of non-political graffiti vandalism damages it helps to control and minimise the incidence of high graffiti vandalism damages in Tehran.

The objectives of the study are to:

- To explore and assess the teenage students’ perception of safety in relation to non-political graffiti vandalism with particular reference to outdoor lighting levels in urban areas of Tehran.

- To assess the related SCP variables known to impact on vandalism and graffiti occurrence, as well as to evaluate the environmental variables that correlate with the high degree of non-political graffiti vandalism damages.

This study enriches the current knowledge among criminologists, academicians, urban planners and architects to implement situational approaches in line with law enforcement approaches to prevent crime and fear of crime.

In response to the debate over the effectiveness of lighting initiatives to tackle vandalism and graffiti that leads to initiation of this research, it will be explored how respondents view lighting as a deterrent to graffiti vandalism in urban areas of Tehran.
If lighting viewed by respondents as an effective SCP variable to tackle graffiti vandalism, then it would make sense to address lighting concerns in SCP initiatives to tackle graffiti vandalism in urban areas of Tehran. This research can provide useful guidance to the authorities and policy makers to address only the SCP variables identified to be correlated strongly with high degree of graffiti vandalism damages in their new graffiti vandalism prevention initiatives in urban areas of Tehran.

This research also helps architects and urban planners to be aware of their seminal role to combat crimes and antisocial behaviours in the act of preparing urban development plans and designing the physical urban environment of the cities. Eventually, this research can attract interest and lead to more studies on the effectiveness of environmental strategies to prevent different types of crime in Iran and other developing countries.

1.5 Research Questions and hypothesis

Although the effectiveness of utilising environmental strategies has been proven, the extent to which any of the related environmental factors can be effective to prevent different types of crime beside the role and importance of the dynamics of the communities themselves and the forces that shape the physical environment in which the communities exist to help succeeding the strategies is yet a challenge.

The following research questions address both sides of the challenge to answer the aims of the research:

- What is the relationship between teenage students’ perception of safety, non-political graffiti vandalism occurrence and outdoor lighting levels in urban areas of Tehran?
• What are the SCP variables and urban environmental variables that contribute to high degree graffiti damages in urban areas of Tehran?

The answer to above questions will help authorities and policy makers in developing new strategies and appropriate countermeasures to decrease incidence of graffiti vandalism. This might lead to developing new SCP strategies with special reference to Tehran/ Iran. It is hypothesised that:

• There is a correlation between teenager’s perception of safety and all type of vandalism occurrence in urban areas of Tehran,
• There is a correlation between outdoor lighting level and non political graffiti vandalism occurrence in urban areas in Tehran,
• Some studied SCP variables have more stronger correlation with high degree of vandalism damages rather than the lighting level,
• There are correlations between the studied urban environmental variables and high degree of graffiti vandalism damages,

1.6 Research scope and limitations

Research into the effects of outdoor lighting and other environmental factors on graffiti and vandalism require sufficient information on magnitude of vandalism and graffiti occurrences in the urban areas. Since vandalism and graffiti is one of the most underreported crimes (Muncie & Mc Laughlin, 2001), there is no recorded information on the direct and indirect cost of vandalism to residents. The researcher could only obtain the information from the respondents. This might generate findings, which are different with the actual costs of vandalism in Tehran urban areas.

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6 Lack of reports on the incidence of vandalism and graffiti to the police on one hand and responsibilities and approaches of various departments and organisations against such type of vandals on the other hand is the major obstacles to submitting exact statistics and evaluation on this social abnormality and problem (Tehran Municipality report, 2008)
Research on the effectiveness of improved outdoor lighting on crime prevention are based on the findings from the experiment (Farrington & Welsh, 2002)\(^7\) conducted to measure crime rates before and after intervention. This requires support from government, public participation, needs a longer time frame and expensive budget requirements and hence is outside the scope of the present study.

Apart from that, differentiating and dissociating of the effects of improved outdoor lighting interventions regardless of the role and importance of other environmental variables is a difficult task.

Considering the limitations of this study:

- The research does not attempt to discuss psychological motivations to vandalism and graffiti,
- Because of the lack of relevant studies, the research does not investigate the cost benefit analysis of implementing lighting initiatives to prevent graffiti vandalism,
- Due to different nature of motivations, this study does not investigate the effects of lighting and other studied SCP variables on political and social graffiti occurrences in urban areas of Tehran\(^8\).

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\(^7\) A systematic review by Farrington & Welsh (2002) on available studies from UK and US is based on some criteria that discussed in chapter 3 of this research

\(^8\) There is little evidence available on motivations to vandals and modus operandi of people who commit graffiti and vandalism. In political and social graffiti, due to different nature of motivations, other variables can contribute to choice of target.
1.7 Research Methodology

The aim of the present study is addressed by the following research methods. Literature search is conducted from professional and academic journals, books, websites and the internet search related to environmental psychology, lighting and designing out crime. Through that a wide range of relevant theories that can be identified and established.

The main body of the present research is based on qualitative and quantitative data that is gained from the survey conducted by the author over a period of two months in 2009 and comprises the followings:

Establishing correlation between outdoor lighting level, non political graffiti vandalism occurrences and respondents’ perception of safety in urban areas of Tehran, investigating the perception of juveniles’ regarding the various aspects of vandalism and graffiti as well as its main causes and risk factors is based on primary data that is obtained through a questionnaire survey conducted in April and May 2009.

The survey was administered to 518 teenagers from 12 schools of interest recruited from three distinct areas of the city namely Elahie, Piroozi and Nazi Abad region where people from three different socioeconomic statuses live. Considering the aim of this study and the need to exclude vandals with political and social expression, teenager students aged 10 to 18 were selected as target population since they are less likely to be involved in political and social protests. It will result in nullifying the effects of political and social motivations to vandalism and graffiti that can bias the results. Basic

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9 The characteristics of the selected areas discussed in chapter 3 of this research

10 The age of majority is 18 in Iranian Law
socio-demographic data (age, gender, education status and family income) was also collected from the participants participating in the survey.

The final sets of questionnaires were prepared after conducting the pilot surveys within a 3% margin of error at the 95% confidence level. Length and purpose of the interview were outlined and the confidential nature of the interview was emphasised to justify the survey in order to get permission from Iranian educational system to do the survey among students. Apart from asking direct and indirect questions, the questionnaire also applied a technique that had been used previously by Webb (1984), Decker et al.(1993) and Smith (2003) (as cited in Smith, 2003) to study the effects of improved lighting on vandalism occurrence. The method used photographs as the stimuli to measure vulnerability of the shown target to graffiti vandalism. According to Smith (2003), the approach overcame problems such as when offenders are not conscious of why they offend in one particular situation rather than another as well as the need to allow a number of factors to be presented to subjects at the same time as in real life situation.

The second part of data collected during the SCP assessment in the same 3 areas of Tehran from 160 vandalised cases by 50 students in Architecture from Soureh University that aims to determine of all studied SCP variables known to prevent vandalism and graffiti and studied urban environmental variables, which one correlated strongly with high degree of non political graffiti vandalism damages. The effectiveness of these variables might have roots in social and physical characteristics of the areas.

SPSS and Mintab software used to compute statistics to identify trends, relationships and differences in qualitative and quantitative data to achieve the aim of the study. The research activities are described in figure 1.1
Research Starts

Review of Literature
To identify research problem

Identification of Research Objectives

Aims and Outcome of the Research

Research Methodology

Literature Review

Survey: Questionnaire
SCP Assessment

Research strategy

Quantitative approach

Data Analysis

Research Out put
Suggestions & recommendations

Research Ends

Figure 1.1: Research Process Chart
1.8 The Structure of the Thesis

The thesis comprises of 6 chapters as follows:

**Chapter 1** provides an overview of the objects of crime prevention and necessity of implementing sustainable crime prevention strategies to improve development in both developed and developing countries. It is followed by a brief introduction to situational prevention strategy as a sustainable response to crime issues and presents an overview of environmental strategies to combat crimes in Tehran. This chapter covers a brief introduction to the issues, aim, objectives, outcome and significance of the research and the research methodology employed in this study.

**Chapter 2** presents a summary of review on vandalism as a social problem, the causes and prevention of behaviour of the vandals. It is also to address deviance, costs and consequences of vandalism. It explores the demographics and ecology of vandalism, theories of vandalism causation and intervention strategies to combat vandalism. This chapter discusses vandalism issues and anti-vandalism programs in Tehran and draw attention to the problems faced in Tehran because of high rate of vandalism occurrences.

**Chapter 3** comprises of two parts:

First part studies the relationship between outdoor lighting quality, urban development and effective lighting design and discusses the available literature on the effectiveness and cost benefits of the street lighting interventions to reduce crimes and antisocial behaviour. This part continues with a review on lighting initiatives to prevent vandalism that allow deeper understanding of the findings and any shortcomings in this area.
The second part reviews the different aspects of social and physical characteristics of urban areas in Tehran. The issues are presented as a critical review of Tehran Housing design, Block layout, Street design and lighting systems and discuss the problems and limitations in public domain of the City. A brief description of Tehran history and urban development of the city as the study area is also provided.

Chapter 4 discusses in details the research methodology appropriated to this research. It is followed by a discussion on the reliability check of the methods, the determination of the samples, the questionnaire design and SCP assessment.

Chapter 5 presents the analysis and discussion of the results from primary and secondary data. The findings summarised in the form of charts and tables to assist with comparative analyses for the performance evaluations.

Chapter 6 presents inferences drawn from data analysis and concludes the research by discussing the important findings that meet the research objectives. The chapter describes all research findings and conclusions drawn from the study and gives the recommendations for future studies.