URBAN GROWTH AND POOR MANAGEMENT OF URBAN DEVELOPMENT: IMPLICATION FOR SECURITY IN KARU LOCAL GOVERNMNET OF NASSARAWA STATE

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Abstract

Urban growth and poor management of urban development has been a major concern to government especially in developing countries and Nigeria is not an exception. The study examines the effect of urban growth and poor management of urban development and its implication on human security in Karu Local Government Area of Nassarawa State. Descriptive survey research method will be used and data will be collected using questionnaire and secondary sources will be utilized to further understand the Security implication of urban growth and Development. Regression analysis will be used to analyze the data. Findings from the study reveal that while there is an urban growth in Karu local government area, poor urban management poses challenge to human security in the form of criminality, health and shelter. There is high concentration of population in the area due to its proximity to Abuja. In conclusion, the high population coupled with lack of proper urban management made the area unplanned. The study recommends among others that government should keep the youth in the area busy by creating more employment opportunity. Also strict development control should be intensified in the area.

1.0 Introduction

Rapid urban growth as a result of influx of people to urban centres . This urban transition have contributed to problems of poor urban management such as inadequate development control, unemployment, poverty, inadequate health care facilities, poor sanitation and waste management, urban slums and informal settlements and environmental degradation. Available statistics show that more than half of the world's people live in urban areas, crowded into 3 percent of the earth's land (Angotti, 1993). Similarly, UN-Habitat (2006) stated that urban growth is increasing rapidly in most African countries, and the major factors for the rapid increase relate to large scale migration from rural areas to the urban areas for better economic opportunities. Other factors are natural increase of the population, and uneven concentration of investments by governments and private organizations in the cities compared to rural areas (Daniels, 1999). Today about 3.5 billion people lives in cities and the number is set to double in the next few decades (Dembowski, 2016). This means that more than half of the world population live in the urban settings and the share will rise to two-thirds by 2050 (Dick, 2016).

Most urban centers in Nigeria recently have been characterized by myriad of socio-spatial management problem ranging from rapid urbanization, urban sprawl, unplanned and uncontrolled developments, formation of blights and the rapid emergence of slums (Bhatta, 2010). These sordid developments have resulted in deplorable urban centers which have degenerated from centers of excellence to centers of squalor which are further characterized by inadequate social services, deplorable living conditions, high risk of disease outbreak, deprived land use planning, exposure to violence and other social vices. According to Demboski (2016) urban poverty is a huge issue and most urban slum dwellers lack public services, such as electric power, health care and schools. Town planners often consider informal settlements a problem. Attempt to drive them away compounds issue of social injustice and violation of human right and security. As such they are either neglected or plan evictions.

Olotuah (2009) noted that studies have shown that there has been an annual incremental formation of slums in Nigerian cities. Slums formation in Nigeria are wrought with hasty urbanization, poverty, substandard urban housing stock, near non-existence of enforcement of urban development guidelines by city management authorities, lack of proper housing stock and maintenance. Lohor (2012) asserted that slums have been theorized as collection of structures or an area encumbered by overcrowding, deterioration, unhygienic surroundings, absence of basic and essential facilities like potable water, standard educational and health facilities, drainage system, leisure centers, post office, markets and the like.

According to Dick (2016) the United Nations Habitat III conference held in Quito in October 2016, adopted the new urban agenda. The report emphasizes all people's social inclusion and call for good urban governance. All the 193 UN member countries adopted the New Urban Agenda (NUA). The agenda argued that municipal authorities' capacity to act must be boosted at National and local levels for them to become able to rise to the challenges. The NUA is linked to seventeen (17) Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) adopted by the United Nations in 2015. SDG II goal, for example, says to "make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable". Furthermore, Dick (2016) noted that while NUA is rooted in the SDGs, it does not move this discourse forward. The NUA fails to spell out the urgency of avoiding destructive lock-ing and developing alternative models for the design, planning and management of cities. However, one sure way of coming out of this quagmire biased on town planning orientation is the application of the appropriate development control tools by the relevant authorities, especially the local planning authorities. These planning authorities when established will be saddled with the responsibility of enhancing the quality of the environment, improve the conditions of the housing stock, encourage ordered development and improve livability within the cityscape. Notwithstanding the strategic importance of the application of these development control measures in the balancing of the physical environment, there exist other factors encumbering the effectiveness of this notion and thus made the entire process a mirage and a mismatch to the capacity of development control process to city growth management urbanization with an annual 5% growth rate.

In Nigeria, Omoniyi (2010) noted that ever since the relocation of the Federal capital of Nigeria to Abuja, Karu Local government area in Nasarawa state, has been experiencing fast and tremendous growth in terms of physical size and population. Its close proximity to Abuja and the presence of some socio-economic infrastructure amongst others makes it a haven for migrants. This massive influx of people is being accompanied by diverse physical and socio-economic effects on the human security. There is poor management of development in the urban suburbs such as Mararaba, Ado and Nyanya Gwandara and Masaka in Karu Local government area. This is seen as majority of the structures are without planning permit and in uncoordinated layouts (Ogundele, 2012). Often times, these structures are products of squatters as a result of their inability to afford residential accommodation in the area. The urban facilities are overstressed and public utilities and services in the areas mentioned earlier are inadequate as a result of increasing population. The urban centres of Mararaba, Ado, Nyanya Gwandara and Masaka in Karu Local government are essentially residential areas and spread of services such as shopping malls, hotels, and agro-allied industries. The growing concern in the urban cetres is that of complex land use planning and infrastructure deficiency. These problems have made the areas wrestle with slum settlements due to inadequate planning enforcement and continuous movement of people from the surburbs of Abuja to the areas. It is against this backdrop that this study examines the effect of urban growth and poor management of development on human security in karu, Nassarawa state.

Hypothesis:

The formulated Hypothesis is:

Urban growth and poor management of urban development does not have significant effect on human security in Karu, Nassarawa state.

2.0 Literature Review

The paper review relevant literature on urban growth and urban security, urban development, urban management and implication of urban growth on urban security.

2.1 Urban Growth and Urban security.

Urban refer to a spatial concentration of people whose lives are organized around nonagricultural activities. Urban is fairly a complex concept and it is a function of population size, space (land area), density or concentration and economic and social organization (Weeks, 1999). Urban growth is characterized by high population size, heterogeneity, density and spatial distribution of the population. The cause of rapid urbanization is attributed to urban bias. The notion that most governments in developing countries including Nigeria favours the urban areas in their development policies. This create wide gap between rural and urban areas. Bilyaminu (2015) citing Todaro and Smith (2011) noted that the urban bias in development strategies has resulted in the growth of hug slums and shanty towns around cities. These slums communities that have been growing rapidly today represent over one-third of the urban population in all developing countries. Muggah (2012) noted that there is a strong link emerging between urban growth and urban security and many of the fastest expanding cities are experiencing rapid rising rates of urban insecurity and worsening forms of violence. This is most notable in major urban areas like Lagos and Port Harcourt. It is also the case for growing urban areas in Karu Local Government area of Nasarawa state. Drivers of urban insecurity include limited access to economic opportunities, basic services, housing, land and state security protection. Statistical analysis suggests violent conflict and insecurity is more likely in areas which have rapidly urban growth rate, and social and income inequality is commonly associated with urban insecurity (whereas per capita income seems to be less of a factor). Urban density (as opposed to urban population growth) and high numbers of young people are not necessarily associated with higher rates of violence but may create other problems for the urban poor (Bremner, 2014).

According to Beall (2011) urban security occur when an area experience rapid urban growth with an equally rapid increase in the access to basic services, income opportunities and housing. State failures to ensure an inclusive economy and access to basic services may lead to urban insecurity as such, government authorities are blamed for situations of deprivation and inequality. The reactive violence which may result is therefore often political as much as criminal and the structural causes are closely related (Beall, Goodfellow and Rodgers, 2011). While it is obvious that there are challenges of insecurity facing the largest urban cities, medium and small cities may be more at risk of urban insecurity and violence as they usually have fewer resources, less investment infrastructure and basic services and less professional capacity for effective governance. Informal settlements and the peri-urban areas of cities are particularly vulnerable to violence.

Davis (2012) described how municipal governments typically perceive informal and peri-urban areas to be a source of problems and accordingly adopt a repressive form of security provision. In turn, people living in these areas depend on informal local leaders to mediate between them and the state, and so provide an alternative form of governance and security. When there are no local leaders in these growing urban areas like Karu, the area may experience criminal violence which may be structured according to social groups and geographical boundaries, where clashes between rival groups may be along both political and communal lines (Jutersonke etal., 2007). Gang violence in this context can be a way for marginalized urban inhabitants to establish their identity within their social group (Briceño-León and Zubillaga, 2002) and can thus be understood as a reflection of broader social problems (Moser and McIlwaine, 2014).

According to Smith (2013) a post-conflict environment poses particular risks to security in urban areas as extended conflict, reduced social cohesion, weakened security and justice systems and organized armed networks may enable the emergence of new forms of violence. In Nigeria, people living in urban centers have higher fear of crime in their locality than those in rural areas, and data on armed violence in Nigeria confirmed that the majority of incidents between 2011 and 2012 occurred in the capital city (Crime watch, 2012). Similarly, urban areas around Abuja, the federal capital territory have been the 'amphitheatre' of insecurity. Land in particular is found to be a cause of conflict in urban areas as this is a highly scarce and valuable resource which is fought over by different social groups.

Consequently, cities may be prioritized in peace building efforts given the tendency for violence to persist or even increase in urban areas after a conflict has formally ended (Hills, 2008). States which are considered stable may still have urban areas which are deemed fragile. The concept of the 'fragile city' reflects a change in discourse from 'fragile states' to an understanding of how cities may be the major places in which both conflict and development occurs (Moser and McIlwaine,

2014). An additional important consideration is that, while cities may be sites of chronic violence and conflict, the causes of insecurity may lie in wider socio-economic inequalities beyond the city's boundary (Moser and Rogers, 2005). While a focus on the specific nature of insecurity in developing urban areas is important, cities should be understood as sites in which national and international processes play out (Davis and de Duren, 2010).

2.2 Urban Development

According to Glaeser (2005) urban development is a system of residential expansion that creates cities which occurs by expansion into unpopulated areas and or the renovation of decaying regions. Urban development is a time consuming and expensive process. It requires joint efforts between organizations, institutions and individuals. It requires major funding by governments, corporations and individuals. The development of urban areas through renovation and expansion require major transformations of existing neighborhoods, industries, transportation systems, sewage and waste management systems, technologies and cultures (Chindo, 2017).

Daniels (1999) asserted that urban development is a necessity as global populations grow; there are many criticisms of the system. Many consider the external influences of the government and urban planner's to be detrimental to the development or renovation of urban areas. Critics of these external influences argue that the inhabitants of cities should have more influence in the renovation and development of their neighborhoods. Because urban planning is focused on future development, many argue that the field ignores current problems.

However, Anas (2012) stated that capacity of cities to manage urban growth and development, including preparedness to respond to disasters, needs to be strengthened. Project-based approaches with short time horizon adopted in some cities are unsustainable and did not effectively address long-term goals.

2.3 Urban management

The elusiveness of urban management as a concept has been widely acknowledged (Stren, 1993; Mattingley, 1994). Stren (1993) observed that the concept is strongly lacking in content and that it is largely an analyzed abstraction. This is in spite of the significant interest in urban management that has been generated at local and international levels, as represented particularly in the World Bank, UN Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS), and UN Development Programme (UNDP) Urban Management Programmes. In Africa, urban management refers to the political and administrative structures of cities and the major challenges that they face to provide both social and physical infrastructure services. These include managing urban economic resources, particularly land and the assets of the built environment, creating employment, and attracting investment in order to improve the quality and quantity of goods and services available (Clarke, 1991). Enumerating the challenges and aims, however, does not necessarily specify how urban management can achieve all these different goals.

According to Clark (1991) the traditional view associates urban management primarily with municipal and central government. This is a largely supply-driven model, whereby the state and its agencies have the statutory responsibilities for management. The provision of services and their maintenance are therefore viewed as rights that citizens expect, partly as a result of the taxes they pay and partly because of the political legitimacy that they give to both the state and local authorities. Indeed, in many countries in sub-Saharan Africa, there are local government statutes or decrees that define local responsibilities and also articulate centre-local relationships.

A more recent view of urban management articulates a broader governance view that brings to the fore the role that civil society plays and expands the range of stakeholders to include private sector agencies, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), community-based organizations (CBOs), and a variety of interest groups (Mabogunje, 1990). Urban management within the broader governance perspective has to be more participative, broader in outlook, more transparent, and less bureaucratic. Although there are no significant changes in what is being managed, the range and scope of actors significantly increase.

Urban management has been influenced by other forces at work, particularly the globalization of the world economy. Rapid advances in information technology and the liberalization of the international capitalist regime have significantly reduced the barriers of territorial borders, and have,

in particular, reinforced the position of cities and towns as significant points of exchange and interaction. This transformation has been linked to the "regimes of accumulation" thesis, which highlights major changes in labour markets and consumption patterns, particularly the deregulation of markets. The organization of production has shifted away from the Fordist principles that shaped the industrial revolution of the Western world, with the systems now becoming more technologically driven, flexible, and decentralized. Globally, cities are more interlinked and have to be competitive in a global sense to attract capital. Older cities have to compete with new centers of production, and more and more have less of a manufacturing base as their economies become more service oriented.

At local and national levels, a major trend has been the shift from centralized government systems to more decentralized ones (Mawhood, 1983/1993). The international structural adjustment process, together with the end of the Cold War, has reinforced the idea of the market and placed less and less emphasis on state intervention. Decentralization and local government have been emphasized in many countries and this has significantly improved the visibility of municipal and city governments.

Urban management has continued to be viewed in terms of addressing problems of land, environment, infrastructure, poverty, and finance, which are the traditional domains of city and town management. A typical municipal/city government operates on the basis of departments (e.g. Health, Town Planning, Engineering), which have responsibility for providing and maintaining services. These departments are usually linked to the operations of those central government ministries with responsibility for managing cities. Indeed all these models are top-down, sect oral, and based on a link-pin system for the organization of the state apparatus.

The responsibility for managing urban growth revolves around land management and related built environment services. The government aims to determine planning permission for all development and, together with central government, to provide and manage services. Other responsibilities are defined by the enabling statutes and are translated into the work of both political and technical-bureaucratic committees. This is the nature of the inherited municipal management model, although it is far removed from actual practice in many African cities today.

Urban management responsibility in urban areas straddles urban physical planning, urban administration, and social services provision. This represents several areas of responsibility, which form the basis for the key administrative departments. The main stakeholders in urban management include central government, local government, non-governmental agencies, private sector business, urban households, and the various segments of civil society. These groups have interests in the way towns and cities are managed and create a dynamic environment of both competing and complementary interests. Traditionally, local government represents the public interest, and in particular the management of externalities created as a result of the operations of the different interest groups. Like central government, local government aims to ensure that public interest is maintained and regulates activities to ensure free and fair competition. The intention is to provide a restraint on the operation of markets to serve private interests, and to ensure the protection of all interest groups in society. In terms of management objectives, the aims of government differ significantly from private sector corporate objectives, which usually have a focus on profit maximization, although in the end there is convergence in terms of a need for efficiency and effective management.

Although current development thinking tries to separate markets and politics, it is clear that in urban management they are linked and mutually dependent. Urban management addresses key public goods that are prerequisites for markets to function various dimensions of law and order, property rights, and enforcement of contracts through planning permits. Of particular importance is providing the physical skeleton and circulatory systems that are essential to the functioning of urban economies, because they allow goods and services to move to the market. Within the areas already provided with services there is a maintenance crisis - potholes in the roads, broken water pipes, lack of garbage collection services, and a general lack of investment in infrastructure. The per capita levels of investment in infrastructure have declined to zero in the past decade for most major cities. There are no new highways, street lighting, refuse collection trucks, or markets.

Urban centres of Mararaba, Ado, Nyanya Gwandara and Masaka in Karu Local government area are experiencing major decay in terms of infrastructure. The source of this problem is government policy that has not allowed significant resource flows to towns and cities, and has not provided local autonomy for revenue generation. Another important local responsibility that has significantly

emerged is that of social services. This has been the result of the rapid urban growth, civil disorder, lack of employment, and the refugee crisis faced in many countries. Municipal/city governments have been called on greatly to expand the horizon of their management responsibilities to include a significant component of social services delivery. There is a call that they should address a variety of social problems that emanate from lack of employment and growing social disintegration in urban areas (UNCHS/UNDP/World Bank, 1995). The tradition in both francophone and Anglophone countries is that, although local authorities have been given a whole range of responsibilities, this is not always matched with the resources they are granted. The mismatch is particularly severe because of the rapid growth of urban areas and the attendant demand for services. In most African cities the major services have been neglected or abandoned because of the failure to transfer resources from the centre.

Implication of urban growth on urban security

Urban security occur when an area experience rapid urban growth with an equally rapid increase in the access to basic services, income opportunities and housing (Beall, 2011). Many urban cities in Nigeria are like Karu local government are experiencing rapid urban growth without increase in access to the basic service, leading to increased pressure on farmlands, forests and water resources. Similarly, there is rapid accelerated desertification and environmental change, leading to water scarcity, soil erosion, and climate change. Current trends of urbanization and ensuing natural resources and environmental degradation have increased people's vulnerability to water scarcity, hunger, disease, poverty and deprivation.

NSIAH (2003) asserted that the urban population is vulnerable to diseases such as malaria. They also face diseases associated with industry and traffic injuries, consumption of infected food. Urbanization exposes the youth to crime, and diseases including HIV/AIDS, often associated with high levels of commercial sex, commonly found at high level in cities. Africa's changing climate as well as increased urban agriculture will affect people's lifestyles and health. Intensive cultivation of food and horticultural crops as well as vegetables, has resulted in the destruction of biodiversity, watersheds, wetland ecosystems and led to pollution of water resources that serve as drinking water sources. In Karu local government, there is a record of increases overcrowding and traffic congestion. Inadequate housing and uncontrolled housing development due to weak planning systems lead to the development of slums or shanty settlements. In many urban centers in Nigeria and Karu, environmental pollution control measures are weak and pollution arising from industries and chaotic movement of vehicles is high. Associated with dense city population is noise pollution. Urban problems affect children most leading to diseases and stunted growth of children who are unable to care for themselves.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

The study adopted the **neoclassical theory of Migration.** The neoclassical theory understands urban growth to be driven by differences in returns to labor across markets. The most basic model originally developed to explain urban growth in the process of urban development in the works of Hicks (1932), Lewis (1954) and Harris and Todaro (1970) highlights that urban growth (rate of migration) results from actual wage differentials across markets or countries that emerge from heterogeneous degrees of labor market tightness. According to this theory, urban growth is driven by geographic differences in labor supply and demand and the resulting differentials in wages between labor-rich versus capital-rich areas. The central argument of the neoclassical approach thus concentrates on wages. Under the assumption of full employment, it predicts a linear relationship between wage differentials and urbanization (Bauer and Zimmermann 1999; Massey et al. 1993; Borjas, 2008). More than 30% wage differential has been set as necessary for the gains of urbanization to override its costs (Mansoor and Quillin, 2006, Krieger and Maitre, 2006). In the extended neoclassical models, migration is determined by *expected* rather than actual earnings and the key variable is earnings weighted by the probability of employment (Bauer and Zimmermann 1999; Massey et al. 1993).

The neoclassical macro-level elaboration can be transferred to the micro-level model of individual choice and has been termed the human capital theory of migration (Todaro 1969). Founded by Sjaadstad (1962), the human capital theory enriches the neoclassical framework by incorporating the socio-demographic characteristics of the individual as an important determinant of migration at

the micro-level (Bauer and Zimmermann 1999). At the center of such analyses is a rational individual who migrates with the goal of maximizing his or her benefits and gains. Human capital endowments, skills, age, marital status, gender, occupation, and labor market status as well as preferences and expectations strongly affect who migrates and who does not.

Heterogeneity between individuals is an important factor and different individuals in the same sending country demonstrate different propensities to migrate and would also choose different receiving countries (Bonin et al. 2008). It has been shown that the likelihood of migration decreases with age and normally increases with education level (Bauer and Zimmermann 1999). According to the human capital theory, therefore, migrants tend to be relatively (more) skilled because this, ceteris paribus, increases the chances of their success. Borjas (1987) investigated this assumption in respect to the immigrants in the US labor market and analyzed in particular the relationship between the income distribution and the skills of migrants. He found that immigrants from countries with a higher income inequality tend to be less skilled (negatively self-selected) than the average worker in both host and source countries. He argued that differences in earnings outcomes of immigrants with the same measurable skills but from different home countries are due to variations in political and economic conditions in the countries of origin at the time of migration.

3.0 Methodology

The study adopted Survey research design. Survey was used in sourcing data through the administration of questionnaire in order to proffer solutions to the problems under study. It allows for a scientific conclusions and generalizations based on the findings.

In 2006, Karu Local government area had a population of 205,177 inhabitants with a growth rate of 2.6 percent (Tai.ng 2019). The population was projected to the year 2018 using the exponential formula pn= po (1 + r/100) n, where pn= projected population, po= base population, r= growth rate and n= number of years.

Therefore pn = 205,177 (1+ 2.6 /100) 12

=205,177 (1+ 0.026) 12
=205,177 (1.026) 12
=205,177 (12.31)
Pn = 2526139.224

Therefore, the estimated population of this study by 2018 is 2,526,139 people.

The sample size was determined using infinite formulae. The formula is computed as follows;

$$SS = \frac{C^2 \times (p) \times (1-p)}{C^2}$$

P = Percentage of population picking a choice, expressed as decimal
C = Confidence interval, expressed as decimal (0.052 = 0.0025)
The Z-values for confidence levels (i.e. ∞ to z)
1.645 = 90 percent confidence level
1.96 = 95 percent confidence level
2.576 = 99 percent confidence level

$$SS = \frac{1.96^2 \times (0.5) \times (0.5)}{1.96^2} = 384$$

Cluster sampling technique was used with the urban cetres of Mararaba, Ado, Nyanya Gwandara and Masaka as clusters. The study employed the use of primary source of data collection with the use of questionnaire instrument. The questionnaire was self-administered by the researcher with the help of two research assistants. The research assistants were trained for two weeks on the aims and methods of the study, as well as the instrument in order to ensure that the instrument is completed appropriately. Information was collected from respondents about their demographics as sex, age, marital status and occupation as well as on the topic under investigation.

4.0 Data Analysis

This study employed quantitative method of data analysis. The researcher inputted data collected from the questionnaire into the computer using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. Descriptive statistics such as percentages, frequency tables was employed. Regression analysis was used to test the hypothesis for the study.

Results

Table 1shows the descriptive analysis of the effect of urban growth and poor urban management on human security in Karu Local government area.

Table 1: Descriptive analysis of the effect of urban growth and poor urban management on human security in Karu, Nassarawa state

Variable	N	Arithmetic mean	Expected mean	R	Remarks
Urban growth and poor management of development	5	14.28	11.60	0.756	*perfect relationship
Human Security in Karu ,Nassarawa State		13.96	11.60		

Source: Field Survey

Results from Table 1 indicate that the two variables were observed to have strong relationship at 76%. The arithmetic mean for urban growth and poor urban management 14.28 was observed to be slightly greater than the expected mean score of 11.60. In addition to that, the arithmetic mean as regards Human Security in 13.96 was observed to be higher than the expected mean score of 11.60

Test of Hypotheses

The null hypothesis states that : Urban growth and poor management of urban development does not have significant effect on human security in Karu, Nassarawa state. In order to test the hypothesis, regression analysis was used as shown in table 2.

Table 2: Regression Analysis of theeffect ofurban growth and poor management of urban development on human security in Karu, Nassarawa state

Model	R	R-Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. error of the Estimate	R Square Change
	.756[a]	.652	.608	.57845	.652

***Significant at 0.05 level; df= 399; N= 400;**

The regression analysis result in table 2 shows an R square value of 0.652 indicating tha..t 65% of the variation of Human security resulted from the urban growth and poor management of urban development in Karu. The remaining 35 percent can be explained by other factors not captured in this model. The adjusted R square value of 60.8 implies that more variables which could better explain the Human security can be added to the model to improve its explanatory power.

Table 3: Analysis of variance of the effect of urban growth and poor management of urban development on human security in Karu, Nassarawa state.

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	762.23	1	562.23	1271.80*	.000[b]
Residual	174.70	339	.47		
Total	936.93	400			

Table 3 further reveals that there is a significant relationship between urban growth and poor urban management on human security. This is based on the fact that the calculated F-value has (1271.80) and the P-value (.000) is less than 0.05. Being that the P-value (000) is below the probability level of 0.05, the result therefore indicate that there is significant effect of Urban growth

and poor management of urban development on human security in Karu Local government area of Nassarawa state. Hence null hypothesis is rejected.

Findings

The findings of this study revealed that human security in Karu Nassarawa state is significantly affected by urban growth and poor management of urban development at 5 percent level of significant.

The increase growth rate of Karu local government is as a result of its close proximity to Abuja and the presence of some socio-economic infrastructure makes it a haven for migrants.

Urban dwellers in Karu local government are found to be faced with congestion, overcrowding due to slum settlements and population increase in the area. Urban growth exposed the youth to crime which contributes to insecurity.

Also there is lack of proper management which made the area unplanned. This is also in agreement with the findings of Brown (2017) on urban growth challenges, management and planning implication in Karu, and Omoniyi (2010) on Challenges of urbanization and Urban Growth in Nigeria, and Lohor (2012) the Planning and Challenges of Rapid Urban Growth in the Greater Karu Urban Area (GKUA) Nasarawa State, Nigeria. They all agreed that the massive influx of people to urban area is being accompanied by diverse physical and socio-economic effects on human security.

5.0 Conclusion

Based on the result of the finding, the paper concluded that Urban growth and poor management of urban development does havea negative significant effect on human security in Karu, Nassarawa state. Increased disease, commercial prostitution, lack of proper urban management explained the implication of urban growth and poor management of the urban development in the study area.

6.0 Recommendations

The recommendations are as follows:

1. Government should provide more employment opportunities in Karu. This will keep the youth busy and prevent them from engagement in criminal activities.
2. Also government should ensure that substandard urban housing are demolish and deadline given to uncompleted buildings inorder to prevent the criminals a hiding place to perfect criminality as well as reduce slum settlements.
3. Government should educate the urban dwellers on the impact of unhealthy living habit on health and ensure that adequate and well equipped health facilities are provided in the area to cater for the ever increasing population.
4. Nasarawa state government should provide urban infrastructure such as good roads, water and pursue urban planning and development control in the urban centres.
5. More security men and patrols should be intensified by the police and military in order to secure the citizens and their property.

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