NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

COURSE CODE:ESM 324

COURSE TITLE:URBAN ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT

ESM 324: URBAN ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT

Study Guide

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NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

Course Code   **ESM 324**

Course Title	**Urban Environmental Management**
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Introduction

The study of urban environmental management is concerned with urbanisation and its attendant problems. Urban geographers are interested in forms and shapes of the urban centres, causes and consequences of urbanisation, and problems associated with

urbanisation. Basic to the study is to ensure that urban environments are liveable for the inhabitants.

Urbanisation is the increase in the proportion of people living in towns and cities. It occurs because people move from rural areas (countryside) to urban areas (towns and cities). Urbanization can be described in terms of increasing share of the national population, activities, properties, infrastructure and community services. Among the general characteristics of cities in the developing countries are rampant changes in land and building uses, increasing densities and expanding spatial size which if not adequately managed may lead to health hazards. This risk accumulation process in health can be experienced in other risks such as environmental, economic and social. Since urbanization is an irreversible and sometimes a positive development, the issue is therefore how effective are the available mechanisms in managing the processes and mitigating the potential risks.

What You will Learn in this Course

This course carries two credit units.
This course guide tells you what to expect from reading this course material. The study of Urban Environmental Management familiarises you with the relationships between urban dwellers and his environment. The course is designed to answer such questions as how is urbanization affecting our society?

When answering this question one must understand that urbanization, can not be stopped, but only contained in a manner that will help the country to function better. This course will not only break down the problems of urbanization, but it will also tell you some of the attempts made to fix the problems and give some solutions as to how it could possibly be solved in the future. The more densely populated and more heterogeneous a community is the more accentuated characteristics can be associated with urbanism. Urbanism causes decrease in per capita, and promotes urban violence, political instability, crime and aggressive behaviour. Rapid population growth in urban areas also perpetuates poverty. Another major issue being created by this social problem is the breaking of the traditional family structure. Our cities are not working well! Sanitation, safety, transportation, housing, education and even electricity are failing. These are all responsibilities of the government or it is at least their job to regulate these services deemed to be monopolies.

Course Aim

The aim of this course is to provide a good understanding of the urbanisation problems for better management of the urban environment.

Course Objectives

After going through this course, you should be able to:

- define and explain the concepts of urbanisation and urbanism;
- trace the historical origin of urban life in Nigeria;
- distinguish between rural and urban functions;
- describe the spatio-temporal changes in urban functions;

- describe the layouts and the internal structures of a typical Nigerian city;
- discuss the development of squatter settlements in urban areas;
- describe urban housing development strategies;
- identify the various housing types in Nigeria;
- identify and explain urbanization problems in Nigeria; and
- discuss the various management strategies adopted to alleviate urbanization problems in Nigeria.

Working through this Course

This course has been carefully put together bearing in mind that you might be new to the course. However, efforts have been made to ensure that adequate explanation and illustrations were made to enhance better understanding of the course. You are therefore, advised to spend quality time to study this course and ensure that you attend tutorial sessions where you can ask questions and compare your knowledge with that of your classmates.

Course Materials

You will be provided with the following materials:

i. A course guide

ii. Study units

In addition, this course comes with a list of recommended text books which are not compulsory for you to buy or read, but are essential to give you more insight to various topics discussed.

Study Units

This course is divided into 14 units. The following are the study units contained in this course:

Module 1

Unit 1   Principles, Aims and Scope of Urban Environmental Management
Unit 2   Rural-Urban Synergies
Unit 3   Modernisation and Urbanization in the Developing World

Module 2

Unit 1   Urban Growth
Unit 2   The Rational Use of Urban Space

Module 3

Unit 1   Urban Housing Development

Unit 2   Urban Housing Provision
Unit 3   The Growth and Development of Slums
Unit 4   Urban Renewal

Module 4

Unit 1   Urbanisation and Environmental Issues
Unit 2   Waste Generation and Disposal Systems in Urban Centres

Module 5

Unit 1   Management Policies and Strategies for Urban Liveability
Unit 2   Urban Waste Management
Unit 3   Policy Issues towards Urban Renewal

Module 1

In Unit 1 you will be taken through the scope of Urban Environmental Management. You will also be taken through the definitions of urbanisation and urbanism. In Unit 2, you will learn about the interrelationships of rural and urban settlements as well as their differences. In unit 3, you will be taken through the impacts of modernisation on urban development in the developing countries.

Module 2

In unit 1, you will be taken through the causes of urban growth and the influence of natural increase on urban growth. You will also be taken through the growth of urban centres in the 21st century. In unit 2, you will be taken through the rational use of urban space.

Module 3

This module is designed to take you through the processes and problems of housing units in the urban centres. In unit 1, you will learn about urban housing development. While unit 2 is concerned with housing provision in urban areas, unit 3 is designed to familiarise you with the growth and development of slums. Unit 4 will take you through urban renewal

Module 4

In unit 1 you will be taken through the city as a source of environmental degradation as well as cities and environmental sustainability in the developing world. In unit 2 you will learn about waste generation and disposal systems in urban centres.

Module 5

This module will expose you to management strategies towards making urban centres habitable for its inhabitants. Unit 1 will take you through management policies and strategies for urban liveability. Unit 2 deals with waste management techniques as unit 3 will take you through the policy issues towards urban renewal.

Text Books and References

The following are list of textbooks, journals and website addresses that can be consulted for further reading:

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Afolabi, G. J. O. (1966) Yoruba Culture – A Geographical Analysis. Nigeria and London: Universities of Ife and London Press.

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Tingbé-Azalou, A. (1997), "Cultural dimensions of rural-urban relations in Benin" in Baker, J. (ed.), *Rural-Urban Dynamics in Francophone Africa*, Nordiska Afrikainstitutet, Uppsala, pages 79-89.

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United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS) (1996), *An Urbanizing World: Global report on Human Settlements 1996*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Unwin, T. (1989), "Urban-rural interaction in developing countries: a theoretical perspective" in Potter, R. and T. Unwin (editors), *The Geography of Urban-Rural Interaction in Developing Countries,* Routledge, London, pages 11-33.

Wahab, K; L.A. Adedokun, & A.G. Onibokun (1990): "Urban Housing Conditions" Urban Housing in Nigeria, A.G. Onibokun (Ed.); Ibadan: Nigerian Institute of Social and Economic Research

Assessment

There are two components of assessment for this course. They are the Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA) and the End of Course Examination

Tutor-Marked Assignment

The TMA is the continuous assessment component of your course. It accounts for 30% of the total score. The TMAs will be given to you by your facilitator and you will return it after you have done the assignment.

Final Examination and Grading

The examination concludes the assessment for the course. It constitutes 70% of the whole course. You will be informed of the time for the examination.

Summary

This course intends to provide you with the knowledge of urban environmental management as it affects man's health, welfare, and activities as well as the physical environment. At the end of this course, you will be able to answer the following questions:

1.   Discuss any two familiar methods for classifying settlements.
2.   Describe the major measures of urbanization.
3.   In what ways is urbanization different from urbanism?
4.   Trace the historical origin of urban life in Nigeria.
5.   Outline the advantages and disadvantages of urban centres for economic activities
6.   Assess the influence of colonisation on the development of urban centres in   Nigeria
7.   Describe the impact of modern transportation systems on the form of urban growth.
8.   Discuss the relevance of the *Ecological Theories* to the present structure of cities.
9.   Explain why it has been difficult to have decent housing facility in urban areas.

10.   With specific examples from Nigeria, describe the emergence of slums and their impacts on the immediate environment.

We wish you success in this course and hope that you will apply the knowledge gained to conserve biological resources in your environment.

Good luck!

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**UNIT 1   PRINCIPLES, AIMS AND SCOPE OF URBAN ENVIRONMENTAL
MANAGEMENT**

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In regional studies, settlements are studied not just individually but in relation to one another with regards to their location characteristics. Within this context are two elements: distribution and pattern. Distribution implies the nature of the spatial spread of settlements across the area or region of study. The settlement pattern of any spatial system refers to the character of the settlements themselves which provides the framework for classifying the whole system into types (rural and urban).

A settlement, simply put, is any point or place on the earth's surface inhabited by man with dwellings in them. There are several units of settlement with considerable number of varieties in their spatial settings. Each of these units, which range from isolated farmstead through hamlet, village, town, city and metropolis to megalopolis is unique and has a personality of its own. This ranking according to settlement size is generally acknowledged by a large number of scholars in the field but terminology presents a problem. There is, for instance, no exact definition of a village compared with a town, or of a hamlet compared with a village, and the significance of the word "city" varies from one country to another.

2.0   AIM AND OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, students should be able to:

- define and explain the concepts of urbanisation and urbanism;

- classify settlements into rural and urban communities;

- mention the major factors that led to the development of urbanization in Nigeria; and

- trace the historical origin of urban life in Nigeria.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   CLASSIFICATION OF SETTLEMENTS

The terms "rural" and "urban" lack precision but are useful since they attempt to recognize and distinguish both the physical and human characteristics of man-made structures. Johnson remarks that in spite of lack of precision, there are many differences between the two classes of settlements: a rural area has less population than an urban centre; while human activities in rural areas are largely oriented towards primary production, they are largely secondary and tertiary in urban areas. However, Johnson maintains that there are some rural areas with diverse characteristics. Some rural areas may contain more people than some urban centres. On a general note, farms, hamlets, and villages are considered as rural settlements while towns, cities, metropolis and megalopolis are classed as urban centres (Oyeleye, 2001). In the advanced countries a rural area may serve as residential unit for retired persons and they could contain services that are lacking in some urban centres in the developing countries.

Urban phenomenon varies greatly from one geographical region to another, and through time from one era to another. The term 'urban' is often used interchangeably with city and there is no international agreement on their definitions. Many attempts have been made at defining urban centres by several scholars: Yussuff (1974), Johnson (1980), Andah (1988), and Abiodun and Salau (1993) attempted to define urban centres using the socio-economic parameters. Atanda (1980), and Layard and Nickell (1980) employed cultural activities in their attempts to describe urban centres. Other scholars like Buck and Atkins (1976), McGee and Das (1983), Harrison (1994) used the easily observable geographical features like the extent of built up area or population. All these attempts failed; each arrived at different definitions owing to prevailing differences in their focus of study.

National censuses using a minimum size of population to distinguish between rural and urban settlements have also been employed with disastrous results. In some cases, size may be combined explicitly with population density and employment characteristics. The size criterion is disregarded in some countries, especially, when it does not seem to be of importance in local contexts. United Nations (2003) pointed out that population size adopted for classifying settlements varies greatly from one country to another. Population considered large enough for qualifying a settlement to be classed as an urban centre in one country may be regarded as too high or too low in another. In Denmark, for example, settlements with more than 200 have been taken as a critical point; in USA the figure is 2,500; in Ghana it is 5,000 and in Greece, Spain and Switzerland it is 10,000. National Population of Nigeria, cited in Oyeleye (2001), defines an urban centre in the country as any settlement with at least 20,000 people. Reason given for the adoption of this figure was that only a population of that size can utilize at optimum level such essential services as higher institutions, hospitals, police station, banks, secondary schools, telecommunication services and supermarkets or chain stores country.

A number of other attempts at delineating urban areas have also been made through political activities (administrative power and political setup), and industrial activities. Other attempts, still, have employed such socio-economic characteristics as availability of social facilities, quality and quantity of buildings, street and building layouts, economic and commercial activities, higher educational institutions, and employment level. Clearly, all these attempts only nibble at the edge of the problem and dodge the difficulty of what are distinctively 'urban' and 'rural' settlements.

1.   Discuss any two familiar methods for classifying settlements.

2.   Explain why there are differences in the concept

3.2   URBANIZATION AND URBANISM

The term urbanization is used loosely to describe the process of expanding urban influence, but it is much more difficult to give it a precise meaning. The most commonly used measure of urbanization is the proportion of the total population of an area (usually a nation state) that lives in urban areas as defined by the census. Urbanization, when defined in this way, can involve various types of geographical conditions. For example, although one thinks of areas with high levels of urbanization as having very large dominant cities, one quite modest city in a small state with a limited rural population can produce a high level of urbanization. The basic difficulty here is the scale of analysis. The total population of individual countries varies greatly, with the result that urbanization measured in this way is often assessed at a large number of different levels of generalisation.

When one speaks of urbanization, there is also the implication of urban growth. This is somewhat different from the proportion of the total population, which lives in urban areas. However, it is statistically possible for the urban population to expand without any increase in urbanization, as it is usually measured. This occurs when the rural population is increasing at a similar rate to the urban population. Because of these complications, urbanization will simply be taken to mean the absolute growth of population living in geographically defined urban areas, although even here there are problems in interpretation since, in addition to the various meanings of 'urbanization', there is also difficulties in defining urban areas in order to analyse their populations.

The urban population is so important because of its large total size and because of its high density. These aspects of urban population make social contact much easier among a large number of individuals with varied backgrounds, and with people meeting in their residential neighbourhoods, as well as at their various places of work and of recreation. Thus, in defining urbanization, there should be consideration for the process by which the population adopts distinctive social attitudes and organization associated with city live. This process is known as 'urbanism'. In the modern world, because of the flexibility of transportation, urbanism is not merely associated with people living in geographically defined cities. People can live in the countryside and make their livings in the urban areas; in the same way, rural dwellers can seek employment without moving from their farms. The ideas and attitudes of the city are widely diffused through the electronic media such as radio, television and the internet.

1.   Explain the meanings of the concepts 'urbanization' and 'urbanism'.
2.   Describe the major measures of urbanization.
3.   In what ways is urbanization different from urbanism?

3.3   TRENDS OF URBANIZATION IN NIGERIA

Andah (1988) traced the evolution of urban centres in Nigeria to the pre-colonial times. The urban centres, according to him, evolved as a result of marketing activities or intense rituals. Some of the cities enlarged as collecting centres for wandering immigrants who

used their favourable locations as spiritual or cultural basis for subsequent territorial expansion. Other towns and cities began their initial growth because they lay at the crossroads of commercial exchange. Mabogunje (1962, 1968) identified two contrasting levels of urbanization in Nigeria, and which continue to exist side by side in the country. While one is the traditional medieval or the pre-industrial urbanization, the other is the modern, advanced or industrial urbanization. In the first category, the major contributing factors identified by Mabogunje corroborated by Ajaegbu (1976) include cultural influence, development of trading and commercial activities, political stability (especially in the northern part), migration and inter-state rivalries (in the southwest), and the introduction of transport nodes by the colonial administration.

Oyeleye (2001) dates the development of urban centres in Nigeria back to the medieval times. He noted that extensive urban development was, however, "a feature of more recent past and the present century" (Oyeleye, 2001, p. 222). He linked the development of urban centres in the northern part of the country to the origin and decay of the Sudanese empires like Ghana, Mali and Songhai in the nineteenth century. There was a very good interconnection between these regions through Trans-Sahara trade. Oyeleye opined that the growth of the seven Hausa Bokwoi states of Kano, Zazzau (now Zaria), Gobir, Katsina, Rano Biram and Daura could be as a result of this kind of background. Other northern states that are likely to be connected with this historical background are Zamfara, Yauri, Gwari and Nupe. Secondly, these settlements were trading centres. They form focal points for the organization of trading activities within the states on one hand, and between them and North Africa, on the other hand. Another factor that encouraged urban development in the northern part of Nigeria is the introduction of Islamic religion. As religious centres, the cities became seat of learned Islamic scholars from where religious doctrines, cultures, and laws were imparted throughout the large section of northern Nigeria. Many of these cities grew to fairly large sizes to become administrative capitals. Maiduguri and Potiskum are the only two cities that survived in the old Kanem-Bornu Empire.

In south-western Nigeria, Mabogunje (1968) traced the growth and development of Yoruba towns to the pre-colonial era in the 18th century. Penetration of British into the country in the middle of 19th century further accelerated the development processes. Yoruba kingdom was just one of the many states or empires in Africa south of Sahara before the scramble for and partition of Africa. The Yorubas were said to have migrated into their present location in the southwestern part of Nigeria from the Far East. The leader of the migrants was Oduduwa whose grandsons founded the cities and Kingdoms of Ila-Orangun, Ketu, Owu, Popo, Sabe, Benin and Oyo. Oyeleye (2001) remarks that it is save to conclude that these Yoruba towns were established as administrative centres.

Yorubas are great farmers and traders. Atanda (1980) remarked that, "from the dawn of their history to 1800 and after, the primary basis of economic development of the Yoruba people was agriculture. This was a logical development from several factors including the geographical location of their country" Atanda (1980, p.24). Asides farming and trading, Atanda observes further, "simple industries like iron mining and smelting, clothing: narrow loom produced by men about six inches wide and the wide one by women……………" Atanda (1980, p. 24). In effect of these great applications of human efforts there were surpluses enough to facilitate even inter-kingdom trades. Market centres were organized on some basis of periodicity that showed, distinctively, whether a market centre was a provincial, inter-kingdom or long distance trade terminals. Provincial markets were aimed at providing the requirements of people from other kingdoms and facilitating close inter-kingdom interactions. The inter-kingdom markets were held in

every eight days. Apomu, for instance, served Owu, Oyo, Ife and Ijebu kingdoms. Ibadan and Ijebu-Ode served as terminals for long distance routes both from other Yoruba cities and from outside Yoruba land. It is essential to recall that journeys and trading activities during the periods under consideration were carried-out on foot and animals as modes of transportation. Such distances that could be traversed in just one or two days separated the markets. The outbreak of civil wars towards the end of 18th and the beginning of 19th centuries resulted in the dispersal of Yoruba towns to various directions. This laid the foundation for the emergence of numerous urban centres found in the region today. Afolabi (1966) asserts, "………………the flowers of the Yoruba settlements are their remarkable urban centres, unparalleled anywhere else in Tropical Africa" (p. 104).

Nigeria is one of the very few developing nations, which had many pre-industrial cities before the colonial era. Most of these cities were found in the south-western region, which is by far the most urbanized area of its size in Sub-Sahara Africa (NISER, 1997).

There are many important factors, which could explain the well-established pre-colonial urbanization in the Yoruba speaking region of south-western Nigeria. One was the existence of coastal environment and water front that gave room for water transportation (the most effective and leading transportation system before 19th century). In addition, there were series of interethnic wars among the various sects within the large Yoruba Empire (this forced the peasants to seek for refuge in the walled cities). The gregarious nature of the Yorubas accounted for the rapid development of most of the settlements within their territory. Six out of the thirty-six towns in the south-western region had populations of more than 40,000 people each by the mid 19th century. Laurent (2003) observes that most of the Yoruba settlements emerged because of the disappearance of the old Oyo and Owu empires, which resulted from the intra-Yoruba war (1825-1893) and the military Jihad originating from Sokoto sultanate. Ibadan, the largest of all the Yoruba settlements, was established in 1829 simply as a war camp for warriors coming from Oyo, Ife and Ijebu. The existence of thick forest and several ranges of hills, which offered strategic defence opportunities made the location attractive to warriors and peasants who were seeking refuge. Consequently, its location at the fringe of the forest promoted its emergence as a marketing centre for traders and goods from both the grassland and forest areas.

The pattern of urban emergence and development was changed by the administrative structure initiated by the colonial government at the onset of 20th century (Laurent, 2003). This led to the appearance of some new towns as administrative headquarters (e.g. Kaduna, and Nzukka) and some others as industrial settlements (such as Jos and Enugu). The construction of railway network and stations also reinforced the positions of a few towns such as Ibadan, Ilorin and Osogbo.

Migration from the rural areas to urban centres is a common livelihood activity. Although young males are the predominant category of rural-urban migrants, young females are increasingly joining this movement to take advantage of greater educational and occupational opportunities in the cities. Spurred by the oil boom prosperity of the 1970s and the massive improvements in roads and the availability of vehicles, Nigeria since independence has become an increasingly urbanised and urban-oriented society. Estimates of urban dwellers reveal this shift: in 1952, 11% of the total population was classified as urban; this figure had grown to 28% by 1985 and to 46% by 2002.

It is not only the increase in urban population that has been dramatic but also the geographical spread has been spectacular in recent times. It is estimated that in 2002, some 18 cities had a population of more than 500,000. The 1991 population census

indicated that about 359 settlements have at least 20,000 people. Estimates for the year 2000 put the figure at more than 450. Thus unlike most African countries where one or two cities dominate the urban network, almost all corners of the Nigerian land space have large centres of human agglomeration.

Upon all, Laurent (2003) rates urbanization process in Nigeria as very slow. According to him, less than seven per cent of Nigerians lived in urban centres (here, urban centre is defined as any settlement that has population of 20,000 or above) by 1931. The proportion rose to ten per cent in 1952, 19.2 per cent in 1963 and 42 per cent in 1991. In the year 2005, it was published in Microsoft Encarta that only 45 per cent of Nigerian population lived in cities with 100 per cent urban population increase between 1970 and 1996.

1. Trace the historical origin of urban life in Nigeria.
2. Attempt a comparative analysis of urban development between the northern and south-western parts of Nigeria.

4.0   CONCLUSION

The seed of modern urbanization in Nigeria was sown by the colonial administrators through improved economic and commercial activities, development of transport networks and other social facilities, industrialization, development of educational and health institutions, regionalization of government functions, and expansion of administrative power. Activities of the colonial government gave rise to the growth and development of many urban centres in Nigeria at varying degrees between the two broad regions of the country, been more rapid in the southern part of Nigeria (specifically, the southwest) than the north largely because of the earlier contact of the former with the outside world. The British also capitalized on the available natural resources in their development efforts. In this manner, cities like Enugu and Jos received attention of the colonial government. Agricultural areas like Zaria, Jebba and the whole lot of the forest region were sufficiently provided for in their development plans.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this Unit we have learnt that:

1. Settlements can be classified into two broad classes - rural and urban centres;
2. An urban centre in Nigeria is any settlement with at least 20,000 people;
3. Evolution of urbanisation in Nigeria dates back to the pre-colonial times;
4. Urban population is important in describing the process of urbanisation;
5. Urbanisation was promoted in Nigeria through the existence of coastal environment and water fronts, results of marketing, trading activities, and religious activities, rise and fall of Empires and Kingdoms, and the introduction of transport nodes by the colonial government.

6.0   TUTOR –MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Assess the influence of colonisation on the development of urban centres in

Nigeria.

7.0 REFERENCES / FURTHER READINGS

Afolabi, G. J. O. (1966) Yoruba Culture – A Geographical Analysis. Nigeria and London: Universities of Ife and London Press.

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UNIT 2   RURAL-URBAN SYNERGIES

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    3.3   Urban Bias

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor –Marked Assignment

7.0   References / Further Readings

1.0   INTRODUCTION

In a regional setting there could be some remote rural communities as well as large, densely populated urban centres, and a wide range of areas in between. Both highly affluent and severely deprived communities could be found in both rural and urban areas throughout a region. All settlements in a spatial setting could be ranked according to their size and, or, shape to result in 'settlement hierarchy'. The hierarchy, which is usually broad based, indicates that the number of services that a settlement provides increases with settlement size.

Settlements in a defined region could be related to one another through the functions they perform, socio-cultural and economic links or through a continuous territorial expansion. The major city in the area can be regarded as a connecting node not only between itself and the surrounding tributary areas but also between it and other cities at great distances. All settlements, regardless of its hierarchy (whether central place or periphery), are expected to be interdependent in terms of their social and economic needs. In other words, rural and urban communities should affect each other in various ways, through flows and exchange of people, goods, services and information.

Linkages and interactions among settlements play critical roles in the livelihood strategies of the poorest groups, both rural and urban. Low income rural dwellers often rely on urban-based non-farm jobs, and remittances from migrant relatives. Also, low income urban dwellers usually rely on seasonal farm jobs, and on the help of rural relatives. The interaction can also have significant impacts on natural resource use and management, especially in the peri-urban interface.

However, in reality while the rural areas perform their primary function to the main settlement (the major city) by providing it with surplus agricultural products, the main centre has been found to offer more central functions even to higher-order towns. Most of these linkages and interactions are usually neglected by governments (of various tiers) in their development policies. Thus, the intra-regional linkages continue to revolve around few urban centers at the expense of the immediate rural areas.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, students should be able to:

▪   highlight the various forms of interactions between rural and urban settlements;

▪   distinguish between rural and urban functions; and

▪   explain the lopsided nature of the distribution of spatial processes and spatial structures.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   RURAL-URBAN INTERACTIONS

Definitions based on a sharp distinction between urban and rural settlements often assume that the livelihoods of their inhabitants can be equally reduced to two main categories: agriculture based in rural areas, and a reliance on manufacture and services in urban centres. However, recent research has shown that the number of urban households engaging in agriculture and that of rural households whose income is derived from non-farm activities is far higher than usually thought (Abramovay and Sachs, 1996; Bhooshan, 1986; Bryceson and Jamal, 1997; Misra, 1986; Saint and Goldsmith, 1980). These sectoral interactions can also have a spatial dimension. For example, when one or some of their members migrate but, (as is often the case) retain strong links with their relatives in rural home areas, households can be defined as multi-spatial, combining farm and non-farm activities and rural and urban residence. Even where activities can be described as either rural or urban and are spatially separated, there is a continued and varied exchange of resources. Urban centres may provide markets as well as social and producer services for the rural population whereas, for many urban individuals, access to rural land or produce through family or reciprocal relationships can be crucial.

The policy implications of sectoral interactions are particularly important. For example, rural development programmes have traditionally tended to increase agricultural production but have rarely included non-farm activities such as the processing of raw agricultural materials and the manufacturing of agricultural equipment, tools and inputs, and this has resulted in the marginalization of some groups in rural areas. Similarly, urban housing strategies for low-income groups tend to neglect their need to diversify their incomes or produce foodstuffs for household consumption (for example, through urban agriculture) and maintain and/or expand their social networks with rural areas (for example, by hosting newly arrived migrants in their homes) which can be restricted by narrow controls over settlement and land use in public housing projects (Chase, 1997). Straddling the rural-urban divide is, in some cases and for some groups, an important part of survival strategies. Policies which neglect this may increase their poverty and vulnerability.

In the early 1950s, development was conceptualized in terms of national economies taking off through the increase in the size of domestic markets and the creation of inducements to invest. In this way, the modern sector would progressively encroach upon the traditional sector, and the money economy upon subsistence or near subsistence. This dualistic construction based essentially upon Nurske's (1953) and Lewis' (1954) models have pervaded economists' and donors' views for several decades. Part and parcel of the modernization process were industrialization and urbanization. Lewis (1954) assumed that in densely populated rural settlements in the Third World, marginal productivity would be minimal. Therefore, the transfer of labour from rural agriculture to urban industry could occur without declines in agricultural productivity. Indeed, until the mid-1960s, rural to urban migration was perceived as a positive process and several studies focused on the implications of permanent settlement of workers and their families in urban areas. However, by the end of the decade, it became clear that job creation in the manufacturing sector was much lower than expected and could not absorb the fast-growing urban populations. Concern with over-urbanization translated into policies attempting to curtail labour migration to the cities.

Many of the rural-urban flows of people, goods and wastes are most intense and varied between the built-up area of towns and cities and the peri-urban areas that surround them. For instance, most of the rural dwellers that regularly travel to particular cities (including those who commute daily) will live close to the city although cheap and efficient

transport systems may help widen the area from which many people commute. In many cities, an increasing proportion of the population lives in peri-urban areas still officially designated as rural as new housing developments spill over the official urban boundary. Land markets and land uses in many rural areas around cities also become increasingly influenced by real-estate developments. Intensive land development, sub-division and sale may take place although with little building construction as many urban residents make speculative purchases in anticipation of increases in land value linked to urban expansion. The extent of such rural developments is much influenced by the way each city's boundary has been defined - and where city or metropolitan boundaries encompass city regions, most such developments may still be within the urban boundary.

One of the greatest flows of goods from peri-urban to urban areas are the heavy, bulky, low-value building materials such as stone, clay, aggregate and landfill, drawn from the city's immediate surroundings. Most cities draw heavily on their surrounding region for freshwater resources and reservoirs and water-treatment plants may be concentrated there. Most urban wastes also end up in the region surrounding the city, for example solid wastes disposed of on peri-urban land sites and liquid wastes either piped or finding their way through run-off into rivers, lakes or other water bodies close by (Hardoy et al., 1992). New enterprises selling goods or services to city populations or relying on urban labour markets and services but which do not need to be within the built-up area may also settle in the rural region. Leisure activities, many of them geared mainly to urban middle and upper-income groups (for example golf courses, country clubs, sports grounds, services for tourists) may also become an important part of economic activities and employment patterns within certain peri-urban areas still classified as rural. This large and often growing influence of cities on land ownership and use, economic activities and labour markets in the rural areas around them obviously has significant influences on agricultural production and on the livelihoods of those who live in these areas.

3.2   RURAL-URBAN DIFFERENCES

Notwithstanding the enormous poverty that exists in many Third World Cities, the populations of the rural areas appear to be far more deprived. Interestingly, even the poorest amongst the urban dwellers, specifically the in-migrants from the rural areas, believe that they are better off than they had been in the rural areas. Interregional comparisons in standards of livings are, of course notoriously difficult, but the gap between urban and rural is even greater when we consider the distribution of public utilities and amenities of various kinds. The urban areas, especially the large cities usually offer pipe water, electricity, even subsidized housing in some instances and superior health and education services.

Observations of these kinds raise important policy questions: should rural-urban migration be encouraged; should such migration streams be diverted away from the burgeoning metropolitan areas towards intermediate and lower-order cities; should measure be taken to control the growth of the big city and so on. However, these are relatively simplistic polices by themselves will do very little to solve the basic problems; they can make an important contribution, however, to more fundamental government initiatives designed to reallocate national assets and to redistribute resources so as to meet national development goals as a more equal income distribution, and lower unemployment levels.

To date, most development theory and practice have focused on either "urban" or "rural" issues with little consideration of the interrelations between the two. By contrast, several empirical studies show that the linkages between urban centres and the countryside, including movement of people, goods, capital and other social transactions, play an important role in processes of rural and urban change. Within the economic sphere, many urban enterprises rely on demand from rural consumers, and access to urban markets and services is often crucial for agricultural producers. In addition, a large number of households in both urban and rural areas rely on the combination of agricultural and non-agricultural income sources for their livelihoods. This unit discusses rural-urban interactions, with particular attention to the ways in which they have been affected by recent and current economic, social and cultural transformations.

3.3   URBAN BIAS

Much of the development debate of the last 40 years has centred on the changing relationship between agriculture and industry and on the "correct" allocation of investment between the two sectors. Policies aiming at economic growth traditionally followed one of two different approaches. The first favours investment in the agricultural sector, which can then provide the necessary surplus for industrial and urban development, whereas the second approach argues that industrial and urban growth are pre-requisites for a more modern and productive agricultural sector. The relative influence of these theoretical positions has changed over time.

In this context, Lipton (1977) notion of urban bias made an important and provocative contribution to the discussion. In his view, the rural poor are dominated and exploited by powerful urban interests. The most important class conflict in the Third World is that between the rural classes and the urban classes, since "...the rural sector contains most of the poverty and most of the low-cost sources of potential advance; but the urban sector contains most of the articulateness, organization and power" (1977:13). Lipton's argument was subject to intense criticism, mainly on the grounds of his conceptualization of undifferentiated urban and rural societies which does not take into account the existence of urban poor and rural rich (Corbridge, 1982). On a descriptive and empirical level, Lipton provided a useful account of the relative flows of surpluses between rural and urban areas. However, the conflation of people with places makes it difficult to explain why these flows occur (Unwin, 1989). Bates (1981) extended the criticism of urban elites in his analysis of the role of African bureaucracies which, in the name of industrialization, were seen as over controlling their economies, skewing incentives and infrastructural investment towards urban areas and, generally, undermining the real material base of African economies, that is, agricultural production. More recently, the attack on rent-seeking, urban based bureaucratic elites has been taken over by neo-classical economics and implemented through structural adjustment packages aiming to drastically reduce the role of the state.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Populations and activities described either as "rural" or "urban" are more closely linked both across space and across sectors than is usually thought and that distinctions are often arbitrary. There are some people residing in rural areas and many others in towns, as well as engaging in agriculture within urban areas or in non-farm activities in the countryside. Flows of people, goods and wastes, and the related flows of information and money, act as linkages across space between cities and countryside.

One consequence of these strong interrelations is that both rural and urban areas are affected by current transformations at the macro-level, including economic reform and Structural Adjustment Programmes whose impact has traditionally been examined primarily in urban economies and labour markets. Particularly in the African context, SAPs, trade liberalization and the growth of export oriented agriculture have resulted in the marginalization of small farmers, who often have to migrate or resort to low-paid, non-farm employment. For both urban and rural populations, recent and current changes in the global social, economic and political context have resulted in deepening social differentiation and increasing poverty. However, while the nature of these changes is global, they are also characterized by great diversity at the local level, itself the consequence of historical, political, socio-cultural and ecological, as well as economic, differences.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit we have learnt that:

1.   Urban centres provide markets as well as social and producer services for the rural population whereas, for many urban individuals, access to rural land or produce through family or reciprocal relationships can be crucial.

2.   In many cities, an increasing proportion of the population lives in peri-urban areas still officially designated as rural as new housing developments spill over the official urban boundary.

3.   Land markets and land uses in many rural areas around cities also become increasingly influenced by real-estate developments.

4.   The rural poor are dominated and exploited by powerful urban interests.

6.0   TUTOR –MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Assess the strength of interrelationships between the rural communities and urban centres in the developing world.

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UNIT 3   MODERNISATION AND URBANISATION IN THE DEVELOPING WORLD

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

    3.1   Changes in Agriculture
    3.2   Transport Development within Cities

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The success of the economies based on Western European and North American cities has taken the influence of westernization to most corners of the world, although it might be better to call this process 'modernisation' in order to include the stimulus to change provided by the urban systems of Japan and the Soviet Union, which are strictly-speaking 'non-western', although strongly influenced by the Western European and North American brand of change. By modernization is meant the mass adoption of a more advanced technology, with greater division of labour and higher levels of personal consumption. These changes appear to be always associated in one way or another with the growth of urban life. As a result, there are few traditional cities, which have not been touched by modernization, although its effects are sometimes subtle – perhaps seen in reduced death rates produced by access to western medicine. On the other hand, where the introduction of western culture has brought more wide-ranging economic and social changes, the interplay of contrasting cultures is more clearly visible.

Sometimes new cities have been built where none had stood before; often ports, their origin and growth have reflected the operation of a colonial economy, although they are now located in independent states. Such cities have also acquired features from the environments in which they have been planted: Calcutta, for example, is basically western in origin, although it is perhaps better to look upon this city as a swollen version of the type of city common in the western world at the end of the nineteenth century than that normal in the mid-twentieth century. Certain of its features, however, spring from its particular context. The upper-class areas in this city are found closer to the centre than would be expected in a typical modern western city, for reasons which have probably as much to do with the former segregation of European residential areas as with the functioning of transport; and the dense, very large urban proletariat reflects the social and demographic features of the population in the surrounding region.

The interaction of western and indigenous culture is most clearly seen where a western city has been grafted on to a pre-existing traditional city. Here the juxtaposition of the old and the new, seen cities as widely distributed as New Delhi, Ibadan and Addis Ababa, provides a visible indication of the former distinctiveness of two cultures. Increasingly the old and the new sections of these cities are establishing stronger functional links as the labour force moves into modern types of employment, both in tertiary occupations associated with the new central business district and in large-scale manufacturing located in new factories.

Lahore in Pakistan provides a good example of the form of such a city. The modern central business district lies alongside the older, traditional city, where there is still a large, densely-packed population. Around the railway station and its sidings there is another district, reflecting its links to the outside world, while the military area is another

distinctive region. Although the functions of these areas have changed in various ways since colonial times, they still remain district in the modern city.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, students should be able to:

1.   describe the spatio-temporal changes in agriculture;

2.   explain the impacts of changes in transportation on urban development;

3.   assess the economic advantage of the urban environment; and

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   CHANGES IN AGRICULTURE

The bases of these changes were the complex technical and economic effects of the Industrial Revolution, which were not limited to the populations of the cities themselves. In particular, great improvements in agricultural productivity, often linked with a change from subsistence farming to production aimed almost entirely for sale, was fundamental to urban growth. It is impossible to date these agricultural changes precisely: in Britain, for example, they were taking place in one form or another from early in the seventeenth century until the latter part of the nineteenth. Food imports from overseas were relatively unimportant until the last decades of the nineteenth century and increasing agricultural productivity was stimulated by growing demands from urban dwellers and by the technical ingenuity of some pioneers.

Traditional field systems and farms were reorganized and unused lands reclaimed, new crops were introduced, the productivity of livestock breeds was raised, while improved rotations and new fertilizes allowed greater yields to be taken from the soil without loss of fertility. Reflecting the technical ingenuity of the period, new implements were developed and, eventually, mechanical power was applied to driving them, hence increasing the output of the individual agricultural worker. The greater productivity of agricultural workers reduced the number of workers required in agriculture and encouraged many workers to seek employment in the growing towns, sometimes driven out by conditions in the countryside, sometimes attracted by better–paid job in the towns.
Climatic and soil conditions allow Nigeria to produce a wide variety of agricultural products, including many food and cash crops. Although past economic conditions have not favoured the agricultural sector, prices of agricultural commodities are generally no longer subject to price controls. Considerable seasonal price fluctuations are frequent, reflecting the problems of inadequate storage, processing, marketing, and distribution facilities. Some estimates suggest that post-harvest losses reach 25% in cereal production, and up to 50% in horticultural production. The contribution of agriculture to GDP stood at 21% in 1980. It increased to 41% in 1988 after a collapse in oil prices and growth in the agriculture sector following the liberalisation of agricultural prices. It has since fluctuated between a low of 24% in 1992 and a high of 39% in 1998.

In the past decade, growth in production of staple foods has exceeded population growth, a considerable achievement in view of the country's large and growing population and the

relatively minor official support for such production. Less than 3% of the value of food consumed is imported.

More than 70% of the working adult population of Nigeria are employed in the agricultural sector directly and indirectly. Small farm-holders, account for about 81% of total farm holdings. They are usually subsistence farmers lacking in capital and in modern techniques of farming. They are constrained by many problems, including those of poor access to modern inputs and credit, poor infrastructure, inadequate access to markets, land and environmental degradation, and inadequate research and extension services. Only 10% of agricultural production is further processed industrially in Nigeria. Infrastructural factors, including energy and water shortages, credit constraints, poor knowledge of potential markets, and transport and telecommunications problems are important impediments to increasing this share.

Over the past couple of decades, successive governments have initiated numerous policies and programme to revive agricultural performance. During the pre-structural adjustment period, agricultural policies were designed to facilitate agricultural marketing, reduce the cost of agricultural production and enhance agricultural product prices as incentives for increased production. Major policy instruments included those targeted to agricultural commodity marketing and pricing, input supply and distribution, input price subsidies, agricultural extension and technology transfer, agricultural cooperatives, and agricultural water resource and irrigation development.

Since the structural adjustment period, the state has withdrawn completely from involvement in certain agricultural sectors and the incorporation of private sector involvement in the provision of these services has scarcely begun. However there are active private trader networks (Okorua and Bedford, 2001) on which the agricultural sector depends, particularly in urban food supply, although their activities are often regarded as exploitative and based on cartel arrangements, with a dominance of marketing systems by particular ethnic groups. The relatively strong growth of the sector since the mid-1990s does however suggest the marketing system is functional despite its constraints, though little progress has been made in reviving agricultural exports except in limited cross-border trade and in the cocoa sector. The state's withdrawal from an active role in agricultural marketing has been positive in its impact on the marketing system, but the state is failing to provide key services or effectively to support research or other forms of technology support.

Land tenure systems in Nigeria have been confronted with problems resulting from rapid population growth and the advances being sought towards the modernisation of agriculture through investment, market orientation, technology and attempts to increase size in order to achieve economies of scale. Customary land tenure systems are breaking down under the impact of cash cropping, population pressure and non-agricultural enterprises and there has been a growing individualisation of land tenure. As a result there is a need to modify the existing tenure systems in order to solve the complex and dynamic sets of problems affecting resource management, the adoption of new technologies, and farm income levels. Population growth has led to a fragmentation of farm plots with a more intensive use of the land for agricultural practice. Depletion of soil fertility and reduced production levels invariably result.

An important form of government intervention in the agriculture sector, now that it has largely withdrawn from involvement in output marketing, has been related to fertiliser. Between 1990 and 1996, government heavily subsidised fertiliser use. Liberalisation of the government monopoly from 1997 and its withdrawal from fertiliser procurement and

subsidy led to a sharp drop in fertiliser use. Nagy and Edun (2002) argue that the way in which liberalisation was implemented limited the private sector response, particularly "ad hoc procurement/subsidy policies of the FGN in 1999, 2001 and 2002." They note that most stakeholders identify the quality and availability of fertiliser as the main constraint on use, while government policies have justified subsidy on the grounds that farmers cannot afford the free market price. Cities represent the largest and fastest growing market for farmers, in a context where over 90% of total agricultural production is used for domestic consumption. But the influence of urban demand for food and labour is unevenly spread in the country.

3.2   TRANSPORT DEVELOPMENTS WITHIN CITIES

Also having an impact on wider regions as well as individual cities was the gradual improvement of transportation. The first substantial advance here was the adoption of the canal in the second half of the eighteenth century. Roads, too, were improved, primarily for the easier movement of passenger and mail coaches; but transport by wagon must have benefited also. Such improvements permitted the beginnings of the concentration of manufacturing industry in specialist towns, since a much larger market could be brought in from increasing distances. Both these developments were essential for the growth of large urban-based manufacturing enterprises supplying wider regions. But limits to urban expansion remained. Food was still expensive to move over long distances and was usually produced close by. The larger a city became, the longer were the distances over which food had to be brought and the more expensive it became. In addition, the lack of a proper system for the mass movement of people within cities meant that most urban dwellers travelled to work on foot, limiting the size of city which could function efficiently.

The development of the railway created a new situation; indeed many would argue that this was the critical development in transport. In Britain a dense network of railways had been established by the end of the 1850s; and one of its earlier effects was to intensify the commercial nature of agriculture in wider areas of the British Isles. In addition, better long-distance communications exposed the countryside more fully to factory-produced good reduced the number of rural craftsmen, and encouraged further rural depopulation and the drift of workers to the towns.

The process was carried a stage further in the later 1870s, when grain, grown on the newly-cultivated North American prairies, flooded the British market. The precise economic situation which caused this change included a series of poor harvests in Britain and low freight rates induced by a trade depression; but more fundamental were the developments in the techniques of long-distance transportation, which facilitated the import of cheap food, first from North America and later from Australia, New Zealand and Argentina. At this time the steamship was conquering the wider oceans as well as the more sheltered seas. Large urban populations could now be fed cheaply and reliably; and the industrial city was not restricted to locally-grown food or to supplying a limited region with its products and services. An example of the result of this is given by Britain at the end of the nineteenth century, when 85 per cent of the population had become urban dwellers. Similar changes took place in other industrialized regions of the world, in Western Europe and in parts of North America. The largest cities increasingly became the foci of communication networks, which ultimately pushed out into nearly every corner of the world.

A further restriction to the growth of cities was removed with the improvement of internal transport within urban areas, which allowed an increasing separation between place of work and place of residence. In the largest cities, London for example, the steam railway played a growing part in the internal transport system. In the southern suburbs of London railway companies were particularly active in the pursuit of daily season-ticket travellers and they provided a close network of lines. With electrification, which began in the first decade of the twentieth century, stations could be located more closely together because of the faster acceleration of electric trains, thus producing a more continuous belt of suburbs, based on commuting by rail.

Elsewhere in London commuter traffic first became important during the last quarter of the nineteenth century; and, in addition, the inner sections of the Metropolitan Railway, which represented the beginnings of the modern underground system, was opened in 1863 and indicated the important role which underground railways were later to have for travel within inner London at the beginning of the twentieth century. Other large and very diverse cities like Paris, Berlin, New York and Chicago also reduced the problems of inner-city passenger traffic congestion about the same time, again using an intra-urban railway system, sometimes underground and sometimes on elevated tracks. This pattern was later repeated elsewhere in the world, often more as a mark of metropolitan status than as a good investment producing clear profits.

But road transport was more important in most cities, even the larger ones. Horse buses were found in some European cities from the 1820s, although it was not until the 1870s that their fares became cheap enough to make a substantial impact on travel within cities. In fact, the horse tram was more important pushing out urban growth along the main highways leading to a city. In Boston Massachusetts, for example, the limit of dense settlement only extended outwards by about half a mile between 1852 and 1873; but in the fourteen years between 1873 and 1887, encouraged by the opening of new tram routes, development spread one and a half miles further. Then by the end of the century, stimulated by the electrification of the system, the limits of dense urban settlement in Boston were extended another two miles.

Tram routes tended to bind together some of the clusters of manufacturing towns which had grown up on coal-field during the nineteenth century. The individual towns of the Potteries, which we now lump together as Stoke-on-Trent, were linked in this way in the late nineteenth century, producing among other things a relocation of important shopping facilities into a few dominant centres, as the pattern of accessibility within the conurbation changed. Similar processes were also going on elsewhere for example in the woollen manufacturing towns of West Yorkshire, centre on Leeds. From a morphological point of view the tram encouraged urban development along the main roads, either joining formerly separate towns into an apparently unbroken urban area (although there were often rural and semi-rural areas left hidden away behind the main roads) or, in the case of a single large settlement, producing a characteristically star-shaped city.

Improved passenger transport within cities had more subtle morphological effects than the simple expansion of the urban areas. Cheaper transport, by allowing workers to reside at some distance from their work, encouraged the rise of districts exclusively used for residential purposes. In turn this development allowed a greater sorting-out of the homes of particular social groups into distinct areas, although not on the scale that was found in later twentieth century suburbs. Boston, Mass, provides an example of this. Between 1870 and 1890 considerable redistribution of population took place, associated in particular with the development of the street-car system, which consisted of radial routes linking the

centre with the urban periphery and also of cross-town routes connecting different sectors of the inner built-up area.

In late nineteenth-century Boston, middle-class workers like lawyers and the owners of larger shops usually worked in the same location each day and were often the only earner in the household. When they bought a new house they could afford the cost of travelling some distance to the city centre and only require a radial tram service. As a result their homes were associated with main roads towards the edge of the city. The lower middle class, consisting of office and sales personnel, small shopkeepers and skilled artisans, could also afford to purchase new houses, but then tendered to need a more flexible tram service, because their places of work were more likely to vary from time to time an also because in each household there was more likely to be a number of wage earners, with more widely scattered places of employment. These people normally did not find it convenient to live beyond the limits of cross-town street-car services, which allowed more flexibility in the daily journey to work.

Improved internal transport also brought changes in the location of shops. The growth of a dominant city-centre shopping area required easy access by housewives from all the built-up areas. Hence the development of public transport within the city and the expansion of the central business district went hand-in-hand. In large cities shopping also extended along main roads, particularly at interchange points in the tramway system, where subsidiary shopping centres were likely to grow.

Other services besides transport were making life in larger towns and cities more viable at this time. For example the telegraph was already expediting inter-urban communications and a new invention, the telephone, developed from being a scientific toy in the 1870s to a practical instrument of commercial importance in less than ten years. In Britain in the 1880s an increasing number of urban areas acquired telephone networks, which not only improved the links between businesses but also improved the administration and servicing of cities. Similarly, municipal sewage and water-supply enterprises improved in effectiveness, and central and local governments increasingly found it inappropriate to intervene by setting minimum standards for various aspects of the urban environment, in particular for new housing. These developments made uneven progress and the legacy of grossly unsatisfactory living conditions, created in particular during early industrial growth, lingered on. Yet by the end of the nineteenth century the still-expanding cities were becoming more tolerable places in which to live.
What are the effects of changes in transportation on the rate of urban growth?

3.3   ECONOMIC ADVANTAGES OF THE URBAN ENVIRONMENT

The expansion of the urban population was permitted during the nineteenth century by change in urban transport, services and food supply, but the underlying force behind growth was the economic advantage enjoyed by enterprises operating in an urban environment. A critical matter here was the greater division of labour and the increased specialization in production made possible in the industrial city. These features were found in the traditional city as well, but the large city of the nineteenth-century allowed this process to go much further, aided by the increased ability of power-driven machines to take over production.

Such developments required specialized workers with new skills, but in addition to mechanics, large numbers of semi-skilled machine minders and unskilled labourers were also needed, often women and children as well as men. As the organization of production,

the control of materials and the marketing of the finished product all grew in complexity; further diversity was given to the factory labour force by managers, foremen, clerks and sales personnel of various kinds. As a result the occupational and class structure of the urban population became more complex, consisting not just of factory owners and unskilled workers, but of employees in a wide range of occupations, possessing various levels of status and income status was often closely associated with income and a more acquisitive society grew up. Social mobility also became easier for those who were able to prosper in the new urban society be virtue of their skills, their hard work, and their inventiveness of perhaps, their good fortune.

Certain regions proved attractive for the continued growth of specialized industrial production. Sometimes this was because of natural advantages like the local availability of important raw materials, but more often it was because of the presence in a particular group of urban settlements of enterprises and skilled workers already involved in a particular type of industry. Once a specialism had become established in a city, for reasons which may often have owed more to chance than some geographers would care to admit, useful ancillary services tended to be located there also, making it difficult for other less favoured areas to enter into competitive production. In textile areas, for example, in addition to spinning and weaving factories there were other related plants concerned with the printing and finishing of fabrics, as well as a pool of labour processing skills developed by the local tradition of textile work.

Although large-scale manufacturing was fundamental to urban growth, not all large cities were dominated by industry, since manufacturing was only one aspect of the changes taking place. All cities, of course, had some workers concerned with transport, trade, wholesaling, finance and the provision of general services to the rest of the local population; but as more complex forms of economic organization evolved, a number of cities grew because of the financial, distributional and administrative services they provided for wider regions and sometimes for national and international customers. The role of local and central government progressively expanded, as the need was increasingly felt to regulate various aspects of the new industrial society, and hence civil servants became more important in the labour force. Private firms also grew in size and consisted of numerous plants and offices, not just one, thus producing the need for the centralized administration of large companies. Financial capital was amassed as a result of the profits made in the new industrialized economy; and the management of this finance involved such institutions as banks, insurance markets and stock exchanges. Workers became progressively organized into trade unions, each with its own central administration. All these administrative and organizational tasks tended to be concentrated in the largest urban settlements, particularly the capital city. The progressive removal of checks to urban growth and the developed at of a more industrial economy created a situation during the last quarter of the nineteenth century in which cities in the industrialized regions of the world grew more rapidly than ever before. And as the cities grew, the positive factors behind their expansion during the twentieth century altered in emphasis. It is to these changing factors that we must now turn.

1.   Outline the advantages and disadvantages of urban centres for economic activities.

4.0   CONCLUSION

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It appears that many traditional cities are gradually acquiring the mix of functions and the social and economic impact of typical modernized cities, although the speed at which this is happening varies greatly in different areas. The processes are clearest in those very large cities which one American sociologist has called 'cities of the main street of the world'. These are cities tied closely into the world economy and active in furthering the process of modernization. They are also cities, which tend to weaken traditional local cultures and may eventually create citizens whose social and economic life is shaped by cosmopolitan rather than local influences. The visible expression of this cultural convergence is the prevalence of such things as international clothing fashions, well-known consumer products (Coca Cola is a classic example) and the whole-hearted acceptance, by the young at least, of modern popular music.

On the other hand, these observations cannot be pressed too far, since the modernized cities of the developing world are still evolving. They are unlikely to become completely identical with the typical western city, since they represent a mixture of cultures; and in terms of urban planning they appear to be drawing stimuli both from the methods used in the democratic world and also from more authoritarian traditions. As a result it is too early to say whether socially they will diverge from or converge towards the social patterns found in the western city.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit we have learnt that:

1.   Large urban populations could now be fed cheaply and reliably.

2.   The industrial cities are not restricted to locally-grown food or to supplying a limited region with its products and services.

3.   Great improvements in agricultural productivity is fundamental to urban growth.

4.   Improvement in transportation is having an impact on wider regions as well as individual cities.

5.   Improvement in internal transport within urban areas has removed restriction to the growth of cities.

6.   Improved passenger transport within cities had more subtle morphological effects than the simple expansion of the urban areas.

7.   In large cities shopping has extended along main roads.

8.   Other services besides transport were making life in urban centres more viable.

9.   The expansion of the urban population was permitted during the nineteenth century by change in urban transport, services and food supply.

10.   The underlying force behind growth was the economic advantage enjoyed by enterprises operating in an urban environment.

11.   Although large-scale manufacturing was fundamental to urban growth, not all large cities were dominated by industry.

6.0   TUTOR –MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Describe the impact of modern transportation systems on the form of urban growth.

7.0   REFERENCES / FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 2

UNIT 1   URBAN GROWTH

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Urbanization processes consist of two elements: expansion and aggregation. While expansion relates to the spatial growth of towns, aggregation implies the accelerating increase in the proportion of the total population concentrated in urban areas. Most studies on urbanization have tended to concentrate on the expansion aspect believing that the other aspect is the most critical facet of the urbanization process. The main issue has been whether such a rapid rate of urbanization is desirable or not especially in view of the concomitant ill-effect and weak generative influences of the cities on the rest of the space economy. Considering the rapid rate of urbanization and consequent explosion in the growth of major cities coupled with the attending problems, it is desirable to shift the analysis of urbanization from the cities as individual physical entities to one of analyzing cities as integrated and organized system interacting through multiple links relationship.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

▪   relate increase in population to the growth and spread of urbanisation;

▪   analyse the factors that encouraged urbanisation in the twenty-first century; and

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   NATURAL INCREASE AND URBAN GROWTH

The natural increase of the population is a non-economic force, which has played an important part in the twentieth-century urban growth. This is particular influential in the largest centres where there is a greater absolute number of people and where, because of recent immigration, the population contains a higher than average proportion of people of fertile age. Until relatively late in the nineteenth century many large urban centres experienced natural decrease, that is, more people died in them than were born there infectious diseases could spread easily because of overcrowding and because the provision of essential urban services like pure drinking water, sanitation and refuse

disposal required capital investment, engineering development and municipal involvement, all which took time and effort to achieve. Improvements in medical techniques, sanitation and the general standard of living have changed this balance of birth and death rates, so that large modernized cities now show considerable natural increase, often at a rate higher than rural areas, which have lost many young adults to the cities. This has produced a new, but very important, encouragement to urban growth.

Recent fluctuations in fertility in urbanized societies and the difficulty of estimating future migration into small areas like individual cities make population forecasts fraught with uncertainties. For example, in south-east England, dominated by the London metropolitan area and its satellite towns, the population was expected to have grown by 2.4 millions between 1961 and 1981, largely as a result of natural increase. More recent figures hide the fact that the demand for homes, and therefore the pressure for urban growth, is growing much more rapidly than the total population, since changing life-styles are leading to the formation of more independent households, even though family size is likely to be smaller.

In most of the non-western world, however, where little check to population growth is apparent, natural increase tends to be a dominant encouragement to rapid urban growth and such subtleties of demographic interpretation have little relevance. The demographic factor in the growth of large cities does not end with natural increase. Large urban centres, because of their relatively buoyant, economies attract more than their share of new immigrants, who come from both short and long distances, lawn by the availability of jobs and by flow of information from the existing immigrant population about the opportunities available.

The processes encouraging the growth of very large cities have been important since the 1870s and have steadily increased in significance since then. In the twentieth century, there have been two further developments, which have had important geographical results. These are the development of motor transport and the spread of very large cities to the Third World.

3.2   URBAN GROWTH IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

One of the most important of the changes of emphasis in the process of urbanization in the 21st century city has been in the nature of manufacturing industry. Heavy industries, in which the expense of handling raw materials is a significant element in their costs of production, have become relatively less important. For expanding lighter industries, many of whose end-products are designed for sale to domestic consumers, the environs of the largest cities seem to offer an increasingly attractive location, specifically as these cities also provide rapid access to national and international markets. Access to skill labour, close links with other manufacturers of related products and availability of ancillary services, such as those provided by advertising agents and wholesalers: these and similar facilities are more likely to be found in the largest cities and also prove attractive to industries, although government intervention may attempt to reduce that attraction.

At the same time the productivity of manufacturing industry has increased as a result of the adoption of more sophisticated machinery, hence contributing to a reduced proportion of industrial workers in the total workforce. As a result another important element in modern urban growth has been the increasing proportion of the population of the technically advanced countries employed in tertiary occupations. This sector of the

economy includes a wide diversity of jobs involving the provision of services which are therefore located in towns and cities where they have access to urban concentrations of population and to those people living in zones of influence around about.

Partly this growth in the tertiary sector has been associated with rising standards of living, partly with the increasing proportion of workers required to service modern industry. In fact this sector of the urban economy has grown to such an extent that it has been suggested that it is best to subdivide it further, limiting the tertiary sector to those who provide personal service and recognising in addition a quaternary sector consisting of workers involved in the 'transactional economy'. The most obvious expression of this development is the growth of massive office buildings in the centres, and now on the peripheries of large cities of the modernised world.

Social factors have also encouraged urban growth. These non-economic factors are not a recent addition to the range of city-building forces, but in the modern world they are particularly influential in encouraging the growth of largest settlements, particularly if they are capital cities. Social facilities may make it more attractive for highly-educated workers to live in a particular city; and, as it is from the ranks of these people that key management and research personnel are recruited, their significance in encouraging the location of certain kinds of manufacturing is greatly magnified.

The attraction of a cultural centre may perhaps lie at a much less sophisticated level, since the snobbish overtones of living in a socially-desirable city may have an appeal for certain executives. Many young people have felt the pull of the 'bright-lights', the glamour of being a metropolitan resident with access to the entertainment facilities of the large city. Such an influence is strongest where one city dominates the life of a nation, like Paris in France. It is also strong in the developing world, where, for good or ill, urban life appears to provide a path towards the seductive appeal of 'westernisation'.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Although the seeds of change had been sown earlier, a distinctively different brand of urban life emerged in the nineteenth century in areas where the 'Industrial Revolution' was having its most direct impact. The economy of these cities was often supported by industrial activities; and they produced concentrations of population larger than had ever experienced. These growing cities were eventually linked together economically, to form part of international economic and social systems.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit we have learnt that:

1.   natural increase of the population is a non-economic force, which has played an important part in the twentieth-century urban growth;

2.   the demographic factor in the growth of large cities does not end with natural increase;

3.   there has been increase in the proportion of urban population of the technically advanced countries employed in tertiary occupations;

4.	there has been the growth of massive office buildings in the centres, and now on the peripheries of large cities of the modernised world; and

5.	economic and social factors have played significant roles in the growth of largest settlements in the modern world.

## 6.0	TUTOR –MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Analyse the socio-economic parameters that accounted for rapid rate of urbanisation in the modern times.

## 7.0	REFERENCES / FURTHER READINGS

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## UNIT 2	THE RATIONAL USE OF URBAN SPACE

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
	3.1	Urban Land use Patterns
	3.2	Development of Squatter Settlements in Urban Areas

4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor –Marked Assignment

1.0   INTRODUCTION

One result of the presence of a large number of poor people in the large cities of the developing world is the remarkable widespread growth of 'shanty' towns or squatter settlements, which bring some of the poorest in urban society to the periphery of the city. In their initial stages these shanty settlements consist of temporary buildings, although with the passage of time larger and more permanent buildings may be constructed. The people who live in squatter settlements are there because they are occupying land, which is not sought after for other uses. Sometimes this is derelict land within the city, but more commonly it is on the fringe, beyond the legal limits of the city. These are locations, which, in these cities of the developing world, are often distant from employment and are poorly provided with transport and other services.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, students should be able to:

▪   describe the layouts and the internal structures of a typical Nigerian city;
▪   discuss the development of squatter settlements in urban areas; and

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   URBAN LAND USE PATTERNS

Before we proceed further, it is essential to have a picture of the arrangement of the inner portion of a city. Most of the theories and models attempting to explain the internal structure of cities seek largely to understand the patterns of their growth. Three of these models, popularly referred to in the literature as *the Ecological Theorie*s, have become relatively well known: Concentric Zone Model, Sectorial Model, and the Multiple - Nuclei Model. The Concentric Zone Model is a theory on the pattern of organization of urban land use formulated by E.W. Burgess (1925). In this model, five land uses are arranged in concentric zones around the city centre: the Central Business District; Zone of Transition; Zone of Independent Working People Homes; Zone of Better Residence; and Commuter Zone. On a general note, the *Concentric Zone Model* assumes a relationship between the socio-economic status of households and the distance from the city centre. Thus, the farther one moves away from the CBD the better the housing quality, but the longer the commuting time.

The *Sectorial Model* put forward by Hoyt (1959) suggests that the arrangement of land use is in sectors rather than the concentric zones put forward by Burgess. Thus the effect of time and direction was added to distance. Hoyt suggested that growth along each sector is of relative homogeneity and expands outwards in a particular direction from the CBD, high-rent sector occupy certain sectors and rent decreases in all directions away from these areas. Transport corridors are responsible for the creation of these sectors, thus cities would grow along major axis.

The *Multiple-Nuclei Model* proposed by Harris and Ullman in 1945 explains that land uses in cities are not build around a single city centre, but several. The numbers of nuclei, however, depends on how large the city is. Each of the nodes would become specialised

and differentiated in the growth process and are not located in relation to any distance attribute, but are bound by a number of attributes such as differential accessibility, land use capability and incompatibility, and location suitability. It therefore follows that the larger an urban area becomes the more numerous and specialized the nuclei becomes. This poly-nuclei model was the first to represent the fragmentation of urban areas, specialised functions as well as sub-urbanization.

In sum, each of these theories concentrates on one or just a couple of factors in an attempt to explain urban land use pattern. However, in real life situation, it is common that a combination of two or all the three models would characterise a particular city. In like manner, there could be a situation whereby the identified layout would not match any of the three models, particular the modern cities with more dispersed structures.

3.2   DEVELOPMENT OF SQUATTER SETTLEMENTS IN URBAN AREAS

One result of the presence of a large number of poor people in the large cities of the developing world is the remarkable widespread growth of 'shanty' towns or squatter settlements, which bring some of the poorest in urban society to the periphery of the city. In their initial stages these shanty settlements consist of temporary buildings, although with the passage of time larger and more permanent buildings may be constructed. The people who live in squatter settlements are there because they are occupying land, which is not sought after for other uses. Sometimes this is derelict land within the city, but more commonly it is on the fringe, beyond the legal limits of the city. These are locations, which, in these cities of the developing world, are often distant from employment and are poorly provided with transport and other services.

The essential nature of these squatter settlements is a matter of debate. To outsiders they appear areas of squalid homes inhabited by the dregs of urban society, although research has suggested that the possession of a shanty home sometimes represents a step up in the world for a poor inhabitants of a Third World city. Certainly to their inhabitants these shanty settlements may offer the benefits of proximity to a large city, without being controlled by its bureaucracy. They are spared urban taxes and building costs, but, as a result, forego urban services and proper homes.

Not only are these settlements often peripheral within the geographical extent of the city, but their inhabitants are also peripheral to urban society. Some view these squatter settlements as being occupied by people, who, because of their poverty or their rural background, are unable to enter fully into urban society. Others interpret the inhabitants of these fringe settlements as being at a transitional stage on the way to becoming more fully absorbed into urban life.

In fact all these observations may be true in particular areas since squatter settlements exhibit a wide range of social conditions. What they have in common is that these fringe sites are apparently not highly valued for residential purposes by more prosperous urban dwellers in these societies. The squatter settlements thus reflect a different evaluation of urban location from that commonly found in western cities, with access to central facilities still having a strong pull for the leaders of society, leaving residential sites in some parts of the urban periphery disregarded by those with financial power.

The rapid in-migration of population from an un-modernised countryside, often coming to live in squatter settlements, has meant that in many large cities in the Third World a large section of the urban population may not have broken its ties with village life and its only partially 'urbanised', in a sociological sense. For example, Bert Hozelitz has pointed out

that in India the cultural impact of urban life on the modernization process is exerted upon a population, which is further removed from accepting change than was the population of nineteenth-century Europe.

4.0   CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the cultural elements of modern urbanization have been adopted from a foreign culture that is not indigenous. There was economic growth closely associated with rapid urbanization in the developing countries. Europe is much less likely to accompany the current urbanization of the Third World, since many of the important social attributes of western urbanization have not been absorbed. It is to these social characteristics that attention must be turned.

5.0   SUMMARY

1.   the layout of a city has no particular structure;
2.   wide-spread growth of 'shanty' towns or squatter settlements in the developing countries is as a result of the presence of a large number of poor people in the large cities;
2.   squatter settlements are often peripheral within the geographical extent of the city as their inhabitants are also peripheral to urban society; and
3.   shanty towns are spared urban taxes and building costs, but, as a result, forego urban services and proper homes.s

6.0   TUTOR –MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the relevance of the *Ecological Theories* to the present structure of Nigerian cities.

7.0   REFERENCES / FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 3

UNIT 1   URBAN HOUSING DEVELOPMENT

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

    3.1   Urban Housing Development Strategies
    3.2   Housing for the Urban Poor

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Shelter is one of the basic needs of man; it is vital to social welfare and to the development process as a whole. In common parlance, shelter and housing are sometimes used synonymously though in reality meaning differs. Shelter is the dwelling unit which protects man from the natural elements of rain, sunshine, e.t.c. while housing is defined as a process which makes the act of dwelling possible. However, housing signifies not just the physical structure that provides protection against the elements, but also the environments surrounding the structure include the physical infrastructure, and social services. Housing then consists of land, the unit, services, economic activities and the environment.

Overcrowding in the cities has caused slums to spread and shantytown suburbs to emerge in most of the larger urban centres. Most houses are built by individuals, and, because banks do not normally lend money for home construction, most of these individuals must rely on their savings. A federal housing program provides funds for the construction of low-cost housing for low- and middle-income workers in the state capitals, local government headquarters, and other large towns.

House types vary by geographic location. In the coastal areas the walls and roofs are made from the raffia palm, which abounds in the region. Rectangular mud houses with mat roofs are found in the forest belt, although the houses of the more prosperous have corrugated iron roofs. In the savanna areas of the central region and in parts of the north, houses are round mud buildings roofed with sloping grass thatch, but flat mud roofs appear in the drier areas of the extreme north. Some mud houses are also covered with a layer of cement. Larger houses are designed around an open courtyard and traditionally contained barrels or cisterns in which rainwater could be collected.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- describe urban housing development strategies; and
- explain the problems faced by the urban dwellers in securing decent housing facility.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1 URBAN HOUSING DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Housing the urban poor or dwellers has been a problem for each successive administration in Nigeria. Both the State and Federal Governments have been adopting series of pragmatic strategies to combat housing deficient in major cities across the country. Besides, there are mini-housing estates developed by private sectors to reduce the housing deficit in Nigerian cities. Unfortunately it is becoming difficult to attain the goals and aspiration of the government and the people. Some of these estates had been occupied on owner-occupier basis while some have been sold out rightly to the poor urban dwellers because of harsh economic realities. Hence, the money bags have hijacked these units and rented them to the poor again at higher rental prices. This is a common practice in all urban areas of Nigeria.

a. The Sites and Services Scheme Concept

This is about acquiring land in the urban areas and serviced it with infrastructure such as road, water, electricity and sustainable drainage system. The purpose of this strategy is to magnetize private developers and builders in the provision of more houses at a reduced cost to compliment government efforts of housing supply to the teaming urban dwellers in Nigeria. For instance in Benin-City the Federal Government had acquired about 284 hectares of land at Upper Sakponba area of Benin Metropolis to be sold to the public at affordable prices. The project was expected to have taken-off in the second quarter of 2008.

b. Encouragement of Housing Cooperatives

In order to reduce the urban housing deficit, the State Governments are now encouraging cooperative societies to acquire land in within the state capital territory. Through the present housing cooperatives in most of the states do not build houses but give loans to active members who pay membership shares and regular savings. Thus, there are the Federal Housing Cooperatives, the Power Holding Housing Cooperatives, the NIPOST Housing Cooperatives just to mention a few. Presently the numerous housing cooperatives are facing some internal problems due to economic situation in the country such as unexpected retirement of members, lack of legal and financial backing and the unstable government policies. Therefore, cooperative housing requires the correct combination of subsidy programmes, state and federal aids to become operational so as to contribute positively to ameliorating urban housing deficit.

c. Housing subsidies

In attempt to reduce the dilemma that urban housing development is facing, (Agbola, 1986) identified three types of housing subsidy in Nigeria. These are Employers Housing Subsidy Share, Interest Rate Subsidy, and New Construction Subsidy. All these subsidies had been in operation but of little effect to ameliorate urban housing problem due to unstable federal government policies. But with the present administration, efforts are on the way to see that all these subsidies are workable so as to achieve the goal of housing for all in this Millennium Development Goal (MDG).

d. Public - Private Partnership

Public-Private Partnership (PPP) is now being emphasized, as vital to achieving the goal of "adequate shelter for all" in this present administration. The federal and the state governments are now embracing the PPP strategy of urban housing development to ameliorate urban housing deficit. This strategy has been employed in Lagos; it gave rise

to Housing Development at Lekki peninsular, Ajah Corridor in Lagos metropolis and Port Harcourt in River State. The concept is based on mutual collaboration between the private sector and the state government to beef up housing supply in the urban areas.

3.2   HOUSING FOR THE URBAN POOR

Housing the urban poor is a global problem. In the urban areas of developing countries, shelter conditions of the poor are deteriorating. In early 1970's resident in cities of most developing countries were getting disillusion with public housing programs earlier lunched as the solution to the proliferation for slums and squatters settlements. The rising cost of public housing with rigid planning and few finance institutions could not keep up with growing demand for housing loans.

Invariably, low-income population was squeezed out in favours of middle and sometimes high-income group in cities. The authorities assumed that housing was the major priority of urban holds whereas being gainfully employed was the major problem. Also, not recognized is the fact that housing for the poor in urban areas for example is Nigeria have always been provided by the rental sector (Oruwari, 1992) The federal and state governments have also always focused on the owner – occupied housing and paid insignificant attention to rental housing.

Currently, the campaigns by the United Nation Centre for Human Settlement (UNCHS – Habitat) directed at improving housing provision for the urban poor and improving housing as an integral part of the global development. The outcome of all these interventions is that the slums are still there in the urban developing countries and have added negatively to the built environment.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Housing is the process of providing a large number of residential buildings on a permanent basis with adequate physical infrastructure and social services in a planned, decent, safe and sanitary neighbourhood to meet the basic and special needs of the population. While mass housing is the production of residential buildings to target prices of large numbers of decent, safe, sanitary and affordable houses with secured tenure; on a continuous and permanent basis, possibly aggregated together in each production location; for the majority of Nigerians through private sector, real estate developers, on the basis of home-ownership-through-mortgage in planned healthy and liveable environment/ neighbourhoods. In fact, with adequate physical infrastructure and amenities complete to meet the basic and special needs of the population and whose mass housing shall eventually result in a well developed housing market that would allow individuals to match their housing needs with their current and future life circle situations. It is sobering to reflect that about 20% of the world's total population is thought to be lacking decent housing. With regards to the residents of the developing world, it is estimated that at least one fifth, and perhaps over half, live in substandard housing, and this is in situations where national governments are either unwilling, or unable, to make housing available of a higher standard.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have learnt that:

1. private sectors are developing mini-housing estates to reduce the housing deficit in Nigerian cities;
2. the federal and the state governments are now embracing the Private-Public Partnership strategy of urban housing development to ameliorate urban housing deficit; and
3. housing the urban poor is a global problem.

6.0 TUTOR –MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain why it has been difficult to have adequate decent housing facility in urban areas.

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UNIT 2   URBAN HOUSING PROVISION

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

    3.1   Housing Provision in Urban Areas
    3.2   Factors Determining Urban Housing Provision
    3.3   Challenges Ahead

4.0   Conclusion

1.0   INTRODUCTION

There is a high magnitude of housing inadequacy in urban centres in Nigeria. This is manifested in quantitative and qualitative terms. Severe overcrowding and insanitary physical environment characterize the housing in the urban centres. The culminating effect of this is the growth of slum areas. This unit takes a critical look at housing development and provision in urban areas. The unit affirms that there is monumental deficiency in housing quality, while the design and the arrangement of the buildings into spatial units significantly influence the behaviour of the residents.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit students should be able to:

▪   highlight the contributions of the private developers in alleviating housing problems in urban areas;

▪   identify the various housing types in Nigeria; and

▪   itemise the factors influencing housing types in Nigeria.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   HOUSING PROVISION IN URBAN AREAS

Provision of housing in urban areas rested in the hands of the private developers. The government concerned itself with various levels of development controls, provision and maintenance of urban services. Private developers erected buildings within the unit of existing zoning regulations as their capital and profit allowed. The federal government did not accept housing as part of its social responsibility. At times, when housing programs are targeted at the low-income group, the end products never reach them.

The rental sector in urban areas in Nigeria can be divided into two parts; the public rental sector and the private rental sector. The public rental sector includes all the housing units constructed by government, its agencies to house their staff. The rent charges are both highly subsidized the rent are so ridiculously low that the tenants continue to stay there even when they are promoted to higher income levels. Also, there are little or no resources allocated for regular maintenance of these properties thus, most have become eyesore and degrade the environment.

The private rental sector consist of housing unit provided by private landlords and a few supplied by companies to house their staff as part of incentive in response to federal government directive in early 1970's that companies should assist in housing the people by providing housing units for their staff.

In order to have maximum impact on urban housing development, the private rental sector should be given much attention since the bulk supply of housing unit in the rental sectors is in the hands of private landlords. The available housing stock in the private rental sector is not only grossly inadequate, it is continuously diminishing and the rate of construction is very slow, thus widening the gap between supply and demand. This phenomenon had resulted in an astronomic increase in the number of squatter settlements in the Nigerian cities as well as soaring house rents even in the squatter settlements. These problems persist because government did not assist in rectifying them.

In Nigeria, urban housing type can be flat apartment, bungalow, duplex, storey building and tenement building. Housing provision can also be categorized into 3 types, based on the income of the residents.

a.   provision of housing for residents that are classified as 'low-income earners' by the Nigerian constitution;

b.   provision of housing for those classified as 'middle-income earners' by the Nigerian constitution; and

c.   housing provision for residents that are classified as 'high-income earners' by the Nigerian constitution. This group can afford to rent, lease, buy or build housing units in choice locations.

3.2   FACTORS DETERMINING URBAN HOUSING PROVISION

There are four main factors that determine the provision of housing facilities in urban centres, these are:

a.   Housing Finance

In looking at the present housing finance system, housing holds are not able too save substantially so as to meet resources available for housing finance. This is because of the harsh economic realities at the present times and also public mortgage bank have not benefited the low income households.

b.   Housing subsidies

Generally, researchers and development agencies in the developed world always recommend that housing in developing countries must be provided by the people from their own resources. In Netherlands, Dutch government subsidized building societies to build houses for the people and at the same time subsidized the people to rent the houses. It is not possible to provide housing for the low income group without assistance. The problem in Nigeria is the form the assistance should take.

c. Supply of Land for Housing Development in Urban Areas

To make land available for urban housing development, three strategies must be employed that is, land exchange, land readjustment and Guided Land Development (GLD). Land Exchange is done by exchanging urban land for rural land for example, the

community whose farmland at Rumueme in Port-Harcourt (urban) can acquire land at Isiokpo (rural) about 20km away given room for urban housing development. Land readjustment strategy has additional advantages of bringing unused urban land into the master plan of the city and gives the communities concerned the opportunity to participate in the planning of their areas. The government can buy more land like any other entrepreneur and allocate it for low-income housing development. Guided Land Development (GLD) scheme is initiated by planning for roads, water supply, electricity e.t.c in consultation with the landowners and village heads. However, landowners are not compensated directly for providing land to be used for infrastructural development. The increasing value of their land (cause by provision of infrastructure) is expected to be a sufficient compensation in itself.

3.3   CHALLENGES AHEAD

Architectural training as it is being practiced presently does not prepare the architect to design housing for the low – income people. Projects have to be critical assessed not only in terms of how much shelter they provide, but also more on their capacity as vehicles to scale up housing activity and therefore contribute to national development.

The importance of politics to housing provision cannot be overemphasized; politicians who are at the apex of policy making have never necessarily listened to the advice of architects or other professionals. If we want the best for urban housing we must respect power of existing systems and politicians and political system must be carried along in our housing proposals.

Furthermore, women have special relationship with human settlements by virtue of their daily task in the business of living and as managers or maintainers of the environment and rehabilitators of the natural environment in a sustainable sense (Moser and Chant, 1985). This relationship must be considered in the design of housing and planning of activities in cities as these roles have significant impact on the ways both men and women use the environment.

4.0   CONCLUSION

It is recognized that no country in history has been able to solve its housing problems without governmental intervention. In Nigeria, the problem is how to make the intervention benefits the low income urban households by channelling the resources in the most effective directions. It is expected that if the highlighted areas are considered, a lot of positive strides would be made in genuinely providing housing for the urban households instead of earmarking the target group (low income level) and the products benefiting mainly the high income households. The unit has discussed the poor housing conditions in the urban centres.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that the rental sector in urban areas in Nigeria can be divided into two parts; the public rental sector and the private rental sector. The public rental sector includes all the housing units constructed by government, its agencies to house

their staff. It has also been proved that if we want the best for urban housing we must respect power of existing systems and politicians and political system must be carried along in our housing proposals.

6.0 TUTOR –MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the impact of the private developers in alleviating housing problems in urban

areas.

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UNIT 3 THE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF SLUMS

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

    3.1   Meaning of Slums
    3.2   Slums Types in Nigeria
    3.3   Slum Formation in Urban Areas

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor –Marked Assignment

7.0   References / Further Readings

1.0   INTRODUCTION

When people agglomerate at a geographic location, they do not fold their arms doing nothing; they tend to interact socially, economically and environmentally. The patterns of these interactions over space are the same world over. The only differences are the variations in the types and levels of control and management mechanisms put in place to check excesses in their interactions. Excesses such as uncommitted population growth, excessive environmental exploration exploitation for anthropogenic use often lead to over stretching of facilities/resources, pollution, erosion, land degradation, exhaustion and collapse of facilities, and air/water borne diseases. The socio-economic and environmental vices are innumerable. This fact can be discussed against the background of Walter Christaler's Central Place Theory which main theme opined that activities over space in any geographical location tend to diminish from the city centre outward to the suburb. One may conclude that there is agglomeration and concentration of socio-economic and environmental activities at the city centres. In the absence of effective control and management mechanisms, slum ensues. The extreme case of this results in blighted area.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:

▪   define the term 'slum';
▪   identify and explain the various types of slums; and
▪   describe the circumstances that lead to the development of slums.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   MEANING OF SLUM

The United Nations Agency (UN-HABITAT, 1997) defines slum as the run-down area of a city characterized by substandard housing and squalor and lacking in tenure security. The term was traditionally referred to as housing areas that were once respectable but which deteriorated as the original dwellers moved on to newer and better parts of the city, but has come to include the vast informal settlements found in cities in the developing world. Slum buildings vary from simple shacks to permanent and well-maintained structures. Most slums lack clean water, electricity, sanitation and other basic services. Other term that are often used interchangeably with "slum" include shanty town, favela, skid row, barrio, ghetto, and "the Hood," although each of these has somewhat different meaning. Slums are distinguished from shantytowns and favelas in that the latter initially

are lawless settlements, whereas slums are generally constructed early on as respectable, often prestigious communities. By contrast, identification of an area as a slum is based solely on socio-economic criteria, not on racial, ethnic, or religious criteria.

The characteristics associated with slums vary from place to place. Slums are usually characterized by and by high rates of poverty and unemployment. They are commonly seen as "breeding grounds" for social problems such as drug addiction, alcoholism, high rates of mental illness, and suicide. In many poor countries, they expect high rates of disease due to unsanitary conditions, malnutrition, and lack of basic health care. A United Nations Expert Group has created an operational definition of a slum as an area that combines to various extents the following characteristics: inadequate access to safe water; inadequate access to sanitation and other infrastructure; poor structural quality of housing; overcrowding; and insecure residential status. To these one might add the low socio-economic status of its residents.

In many slums, especially in poor countries, many live in very narrow alleys that do allow vehicles (like ambulances and fire trucks) to pass. The lack of services such as routine garbage collection allows rubbish to accumulate in huge quantities. The lack of infrastructure is caused by the informal nature of settlement and no planning for the point by government officials. Additionally, informal settlements often face the brunt of natural and man-made disasters, such as landslides, as well as earthquakes and tropical storms. Many slum dwellers employ themselves in the informal economy. This can include vending, drug dealing, domestic work, and prostitution. In some slums people recycle trash of different kinds (from household garbage to electronics) for a living selling, either the odd usable goods or stripping broken goods for parts or few materials.

3.2   SLUM TYPES IN NIGERIA

According to Agbola (1987), two types of slum exist in Nigerian cities. There are the traditional slums arising in towns from the decay of existing structures and there are spontaneous slums created by squatters on illegally acquired lands. If this pattern represents the majority of the slums in Nigeria, it is necessary to reconsider the use of such terms as "traditional" and "spontaneous", and to show that some slums can appear outside the inner city on legal land.

In 1985, about 68.2 per cent of the slums in Nigerian cities were found within a radius of I km from the city centre (Abumere, 1985). If there are no resources for urban renewal, the city centre, which is the oldest by definition, turns into a slum in time. However, slums on the city outskirts can also be found, normally in the largest Nigerian cities (Abumere, 1987). In the large and fairly large cities, such as Enugu, Kano, Ibadan, and Lagos, a considerable proportion of slums occur at the city outskirts, more than five km from the centre. The main reason is that accommodation in many of the cities has been priced beyond what most citizens can afford. Many low-income workers live in low-cost shanties or slums at the city outskirts. It is important to note that even up until the present day, the situation has not improved and general poverty has spread out in all Nigerian cities and the governments have not really addressed the issue of slums in their city.

Also, based on their age, location and size, there are three types of slum in Nigeria:

i.   The oldest and largest slum is the core area of the cities, which covers the entire pre-colonial town. A large part of the ancient walled cities can be seen as a slum, even if the inhabitants do not agree that they live in a slum for historical reasons.

ii.   A few small-scale slums, on land occupied illegally by squatters can be found at the margins of the planned city.

iii.   Numerous slums, generally occupied by tenants on legal lands, arc found at the outskirts of the city along major roads or close to local labour markets. Their size, history, socio-economic and cultural features differ from one slum to another. In spite of the increasing knowledge of modern planning and number of planners, physical development in some cities in Nigeria remains an array of chaos and disorder.

3.3   SLUM FORMATION IN URBAN AREAS

In developing countries like Nigeria, due to poor management, poor control, poor spatial forecasting technique, urbanization (city creation) is synonymous with slum creation. Since the pattern of cities' distribution depicts pattern of slums distribution. For instance, in Nigeria, the pattern of urban centre distribution is linear (Ikporukpo, 2004). Slums are more visible along the coastal regions/lines of the country (Lagos being the worst); except in few pockets. Studies have shown that rapid rate of urbanization in Nigeria and the consequential explosion have not been matched by a correspondingly commensurate change in socio-economic and technological development (Mabogunje et al 1978). Also, the demand for urban services in Nigeria has grown over the years but the overall quality and coverage public services have deteriorated (Olotuah, 2002). These ideas can be extrapolated to cover other developing countries (Adedayo et al, 2006).

Abuja is a recent development, which has also had a direct pull over the surrounding cities such as Niger, Nassarawa, Kogi, Kaduna, Kwara and indirect pull on other parts of the country as it was with Lagos state. Slums are easily identified in adjacent suburbs. Barely eight months after the exit of Mallam Nasir EI- Rufai, Abuja is witnessing a rapid multi-slum growth rate. In Lagos state, forty-two slum communities were identified by the state authority in 1984 with the assistance of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) during to be implementation phase of 1980-2000 Lagos Master Plan. Today, the figure is better imagined.

Apart from urbanization, industrialization is another major cause of slum development. In fact, rapid industrialization in to be 19th century Europe, was accompanied by population growth and the concentration of working class people in over crowded, poorly built housing. Other developed parts of be world where slums are sighted, include but not limited to Balham, Spain, Beijing, China, Boston, Massachusetts, Cardiff, Wales, New Brunswick, Glasgow, and Scotland.

This is to affirm that slum is not just a third world phenomenon, it occurs world over. As a matter of fact, according to surveys, over one billion people world wide live in slum/blighted areas However, whereas the industrialized world continually put corrective and preventive measures in place, the poverty stricken, technologically backward, economically and politically unstable third world either pay lip service or does nothing. Alternatively, when actions are taken, they are to satisfy the needs of the rich; the Maroko (Lagos, 1990), and Abuja land sagas are few examples.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Slum has been discussed as synonymous with poverty and inferior living. This is because in real life, slums are communities characterized by overcrowding, high occupancy ratio, dilapidated structures, and general features of vandalism, deterioration, unsanitary conditions and absence of facilities such as potable water, roads, drainage system, schools, health facilities, recreational grounds etc; which endanger the health, safety or morals of its inhabitants or community.

The displacement of slums is aided by the fact that many are squatter settlements whose property rights are not recognized by the state. However, a number of attempts have been made at solving the problems of slums by clearing away old decrepit housing and replacing it with modern housing with much better sanitation. This aspect shall be treated in the next unit.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit we have discussed the incidence of housing poverty in Nigeria and the resultant deviant behaviours, including crimes, emanating from it. It notes the occurrence of rapid rate of urbanisation occurring in the country, the consequences of which have been severely degraded urban environment. The unit also discussed the different types of slums in Nigeria and how they are formed.

6.0   TUTOR –MARKED ASSIGNMENT

With specific examples from Nigeria, describe the causal-factors of slums.

7.0   REFERENCES / FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 4   URBAN RENEWAL

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   Main Content

    3.1   Slum Clearance and Urban Renewal
    3.2   Urban Renewal Methods
    3.3   Steps to Slum Clearance

4.0   Conclusion

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Urban renewal is often controversial and sometimes involves the use of eminent domain (known as compulsory purchase in the United Kingdom); it is a legal instrument to reclaim private properties for civic projects. In the second half of the 20ᵗʰ century, renewal often resulted in the creation of urban sprawl and vast areas of cities being demolished and replaced by freeways and expressways, housing projects and vacant lots. Some of which could remain vacant for many years.

Urban renewal is a wrenching experience for the city and its people. There is no doubt that some demolition is essential. Whenever the radical surgery is undertaken, it rents the fabric of community and the lives of thousands of residents. Its costs--human as well as financial--outraged some citizens, and the destruction of so many buildings provided an impetus toward the preservation of the physical fabric of community, the history reflected in the buildings erected over centuries. This exhibition is a reminder of the importance of the humanly created environment, and its fragility, as the arena for human interaction and public culture.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- ▪   explain the meanings of slum clearance and urban renewal;

- ▪   evaluate the efficiency of various methods of urban renewal; and

- ▪   mention and discuss the steps involved in slum clearance.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   SLUM CLEARANCE AND URBAN RENEWAL

It is a general belief that urban renewal is an increasingly prominent, important and powerful tool of shaping urban environments in many nations. The main goal of urban renewal effort is to eliminate slums and blight areas. The attractiveness of urban renewal as feasible solution lies in its partnership approach to the problems of poor housing, traffic congestion due to narrow lanes, inadequate sites for commercial and industrial growth, poor environmental quality, and neighbourhood decay. This, in other words, lies in correcting the overcrowding problem existing before the renewal. Since renewal

programmes occur usually in the abode of the original indigenous settlers and often in or near the urban centres, urban renewal tends to accelerate rather than retard the decentralization of residential population. The newly renovated areas of the city usually become places to work rather than places to live.

Urban Renewal transformed Lancaster. It resulted in the demolition of 926 buildings, necessitating the relocation of almost 1100 families, 350 individuals, and 171 businesses. It was responsible for rehabilitating almost 1600 structures, most of them residential, and for erecting 710 new housing units. Urban renewal is a wrenching experience for the city and its people. There is no doubt that some demolition was essential. The radical surgery undertaken, however, rent the fabric of community and the lives of thousands of residents. Its costs--human as well as **financial**--outraged some citizens, and the destruction of so many buildings provided an impetus toward the **preservation** of the physical fabric of community, the history reflected in the buildings erected over centuries. This exhibition is a reminder of the importance of the humanly created environment, and its fragility, as the arena for human interaction and public culture.

3.2   URBAN RENEWAL METHODS

Two processes or Methods could be identified and used in achieving the urban renewal goals as specified. The first method is the sequential/comprehensive (large scale) slum clearance and the second is the Organic planning or Redevelopment Approach.

a. **The Sequential/Comprehensive Slum Clearance Approach**
This approach involves the urban renewal process of the entire area to be carried out in stages: an area would be identified or selected, it would be carefully inspected, every houses or shack was measured, valued and ownership recorded. Each area was kept fairly small, usually about 5 to 8 acres at a time, forming only a small portion of the total area to be cleared. A layout for development showing the position of new roads plots, etc. was prepared. Estimate for the acquisition of house and land and the engineering works were then prepared. The houses in the chosen area were then demolished, cleared, graded and levelled and serviced with new roads, water and electricity. The land was then demarcated to plots of convenient sizes for building purposes. As soon as a chosen area is finished, work on another area was started until whole area was cleared and subdivided.

Nigeria has had two-time experiences with this type of slum clearance or urban renewal. The first time was in 1978 when Lagos Town planning Ordinance came into Operation. The objectives of the ordinance were the clearing away of the old unsanitary slum properties, the improvement and preplanning of the cleared area and the control of development after planning to prevent the re-creation of slums. The Lagos Executive Development Board was created to implement these objectives.

The proposed areas for development were 750 acres and the 150 acres considered the most unsanitary and overcrowded lying in the northern part of Lagos Island and around Idumagbo Lagoon. These areas were low lying and subjected to severe flooding; due to inadequate drainage and the roads consisted of narrow unpaved and unlit winding lanes; the building and roofs were made of an agglomeration of rusty thin bamboo and corrugated iron sheets, overcrowded and unhealthy site to behold.

These experiences of slum clearance schemes have being witnessed with many failures despite genuine government intensions and strict appliance of Town Planning Principles. Two important reasons could however be identified. The first and perhaps the most important reason is that the people to be re-housed or resettled were never fully briefed and allowed to participate in the redevelopment process. Had the urban redevelopers sought the views of the target population and involved them actively in the planning and execution processes, they would have found out same or worse would have happened. It is in the light of these failures that a second approach, the organic approach, has been proposed.

b. The Organic Approach

This method sought the involvement of the target population in all aspects of the decision-making and decision implementing strategies. The organic approach structures activities and encourages the residents of each neighbourhood to be redeveloped to plan themselves. This approach also identified that efforts that dislocate the existing interaction among the different components of the extended families; that break the social attachments, family identity and vital cultural values and goals are doomed to failure. Thus, urban redevelopment efforts are better done through the repairs and renovation of individual buildings instead of mass relocation.

In retrospect, urban development dates back at least to the rebuilding of Rome by the Roman Emperor, Augustus. However, modern attempts can be said to have started within the late 19th century Paris. By the end of the Second Empire, Paris was the cultural centre of Europe and one of the world's most developed cities. Nevertheless, the physical infrastructure of the city was failing in the face of increasingly rapid growth (as effects of the Industrial Revolution took hold and combined with the economic impacts of war and upheavals).

From the 1850s, into the 1870s, Haussmann supervised a programme, which demolished large areas of slum and narrow cross-streets in Paris, replacing them with new neighbourhoods, plazas and traffic circles; and the broad tree-lined boulevards. Other infrastructures and services such as railroad lines, removal of garbage and large parks were rebuilt. This led to large numbers of the working class and the poor being forced to move to the suburban areas of Paris. 20th century redevelopment in Paris has however been criticized for favouring the wealthy at the expense of the poor and the minority of out of the central area.

In the United States of America, it has been tagged redlining and segregation in time past. In 1939, the national Housing Act that established the Federal Housing Administration (FHA) to improve housing conditions and the standard of living was enacted. This later led to the formation of the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). White it was designed to develop housing for poor residents of urban areas, that act also required cities to target specific area and neighbourhoods for different racial groups. Another Housing Act of 1937 created the United States Housing Agency (USHA), which marked the nation's first housing program. However, the Housing Act of 1949 kicked against the urban renewal program that would have reshaped American cities.

In Nigeria, urban renewal/slum clearance experiences significantly dates back to the colonial era. Precisely in the 1920s, they were carried out in Lagos by the then Lagos Executive Development Board in response to the bubonic plague that broke out at that time. This was followed by the pre-independent demolition that resulted in the Isale Eko

clearance to give the visiting Queen of England a pleasing view of the area. Maroko village was to follow significantly in 1990.

Slum clearances tagged urban developments in some quarters are registered in various locations in Nigeria. These include; the metropolitan Kano (May 1979), Adeniji Adele street, Lagos (October, 1975), Calabar (1976), Iponri, Lagos (1976/85), Elekuro, Ibadan (1976), Central Lagos (1976), Ketu Lagos (1976), Suleja, Niger state (1982), Maroko, Lagos (1990), Shomolu, Lagos (1986), Maitama Village, Abuja (1990), Lugbe Garki, Abuja (1990).

Urban renewal is a license for slum clearance through rehabilitation of impoverished urban neighbourhoods by large-scale renovations and or reconstruction of housing and public works. Synonymous with urban regeneration is a process of land re-development in areas of previous moderate to high-density urban land use. Urban renewal and slum clearance may involve slum clearance and redevelopment in an urban renewal area, or rehabilitation or conservation in an urban renewal area, or any combination or part thereof in accordance with an urban renewal plan. Such undertakings and activities may include:

(1)   Acquisition of a slum area or a blighted area or portion thereof;

(2)   Demolition and removal of buildings and improvements;

(3)   Installation, construction or reconstruction of streets, utilities, parks, playgrounds, and other improvements necessary in the urban renewal area the urban renewal objectives of this appendix in accordance with the urban renewal plan;

(4)   Disposition of any property acquired in the urban renewal area including sale, initial leasing or retention by the municipality itself, at its fair value for uses in accordance with the urban renewal plan;

(5)   Carrying out plans for a program of voluntary or compulsory repair and rehabilitation of buildings or other improvements in accordance with the urban renewal plan;

(6)   Acquisition of any other real property in the urban renewal area where necessary to eliminate unhealthy, unsanitary or unsafe conditions, lessen density, eliminate obsolete or other uses detrimental to the public welfare, or otherwise to remove or prevent the spread of blight or deterioration, or to provide land for needed public facilities; and

(7)   Preservation, improvement or embellishment of historic structures or monuments.

3.3   STEPS TO SLUM CLEARANCE / URBAN RENEWAL

1. Identification and demarcation of urban/ blighted areas.

2. Urban renewal action plan creation taking into consideration slum/blighted area inventory, spatial modelling and or urban design etc) "Urban Renewal Plan" technically, means a plan which is sufficiently complete to indicate such land acquisition, demolition and removal of structures, redevelopment, improvements, and rehabilitation as may be proposed to be carried out in the urban renewal area, zoning and planning changes, if any, land uses, maximum density and building requirements.

3. Carrying out to the letter the provision made in the urban renewal plan in practical terms. This is technically known as "Action Plan Implementation"

4.0   CONCLUSION

While urban renewal never lived up to the hopes of its original proponents, it has played an undeniably important role in cities throughout the United States, England, and many other nations. It has been hotly debated by politicians, urban planners, civic leaders, and current and former residents of the areas where urban renewal took place in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s. It has brought economic and cultural development to many cities, but often at a great cost to low-income and minority communities living in them. It has also played a role in the economic devastation faced by many of the major industrial cities. Urban renewal continues to evolve as successes, failures are examined, and new modes of development and redevelopment are tested and implemented. Slum clearance in nature is violent, socially, economically, or racially discriminatory in nature. Often times the evictees are faced with broken family ties, psychological pathology. It also has political undertone. The dilemma is worst when forced ejection is enforced.

5.0   SUMMARY

So far in this unit we have been able to provide insights into the meanings of slum clearance and urban renewal; assess the efficiency of various methods of urban renewal; and discuss the steps involved in slum clearance. It is now clear that the two terms, urban renewal and slum clearance are circularly causal; one being the cause and effect of the other. The concepts can technically mean undertakings and activities of a municipality in an urban renewal area for the elimination and for the prevention of the development or spread of slums and blight. They may involve slum clearance and redevelopment in an urban renewal area, or rehabilitation or conservation in an urban renewal area, or any combination or part thereof in accordance with an urban renewal plan.

6.0   TUTOR –MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the two familiar methods of urban renewal and provide the basic steps to be followed in embarking on such an undertaking.

7.0   REFERENCES / FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 4

UNIT 1   URBANISATION AND ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The problem of environmental deterioration arises either from the inadequacy of existing urban facilities and hence their over-utilization or inability of the city to cope with these needs at current rates of urbanization. Most of the large cities are closely associated with overcrowded and dirty/degraded environments.

This unit discusses the health and environmental security as prerequisites for successful urban development. As the environment is simultaneously the cause and a victim of urban problems it is an issue, which links together shelter, employment, basic needs, poverty, human rights, politics and gender. The unit moves on to examine the way in which environmental issues are gendered, before examining a number of key environmental priorities for developing world cities, namely adequate access to safe and secure shelter, basic that urban environmental. The unit concludes that environmental sustainability and the empowerment of the poor need to be addressed simultaneously, in order for any real change to occur in the immediate future.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, students should be able to:

▪   explain the meaning of environmental sustainability;

▪   highlight and explain the main components of sustainability; and

▪   discuss the contradictions between the intentional call for sustainable development and the current global economic trends.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   THE CITY AS A SOURCE OF ENVIRONMENTAL DEGRADATION

Recent reports by Amnesty International and the media about the execution of street children in Brazilian cities by police death squads to clean the urban environment are just one extreme example highlighting the perceptions held by urban municipalities over the causes of environmental degradation and aesthetic blight. In the first half of 1993 alone, Amnesty International reported that 320 homeless children had been executed in Rio de

Janeiro in a campaign, which regarded homeless children as unwanted pest. In this, and many other instances, the vulnerable victims of poverty are seen by urban governments to be the cause of environmental degradation.

Whilst no government would publicly sanction the execution of children as a policy to tackle homelessness, Timberlake and Thompson (1990) argue that this 'child crisis' results from an unequal economic system which favours rich countries. The situation is compounded by the concentration of power and capital in the hands of urban elites and multinational corporations. The fact that such atrocities occur is an indication of the vulnerability of certain groups in developing world cities, and it highlights the interrelationships between poverty, the environment and basic human rights.

Paradoxically, during the 1990s the environment was placed at the forefront of the international agenda, particularly with regard to the 1992 Rio summit (UNICEF, 1992). Global institutions, national governments and communities have also become increasingly concerned over the future of the environment, many of these organizations having adopted the concept of sustainable development. In its simplest form, there is a fundamental argument which states that a healthy and safe environment is essential for the continued survival of a given population. A population's mental and physical health is directly linked to the quality of the various environments with which its members interacts, from the household and workplace to the international scale. Although the figures vary, it has been estimated that approximately 600 million urban dwellers in Africa, Asia and Latin America live in life-threatening environments with respect to overcrowded and inadequate shelter, sanitation and drainage, unsafe housing sites and working conditions, and the absence of primary health care.

Many urban centres in the developing world have been built on ecologically fragile lands, which are vulnerable to national hazards such as earthquakes, floods, hurricanes and soil erosions. When natural and human -induced hazards occur together, however, it is usually the urban poor who disproportionately bear the costs. Although the extent of the interconnection and interdependence between countries is still open to debate, it is now widely accepted that the actions and activities of all nations inevitably affects the lives of others, whether in relation to acid rain, waste generation or consumer preferences.

Whilst the need for sustainable development is widely supported, current global economic and social trends are leading to further environmental damage which is not sustainable in long term. For example the increased ownerships of private cars, the consumption pattern of a growing disposable society, and increased materialism, are all incompatible with sustainable developments. As developing world countries become wealthier, there is concern that their lifestyles and consumption patterns will start to resemble those of the west. The scale of poverty and failure of previous decades of development have meant the majority still lacks access to basic needs. This begs the question why developing world cities are still encouraged to develop through economic growth when western consumption and resource use patterns are so evidently non-sustainable. If all the poorer nations of the world were to consume the same amount of resources as the United States, our planet would not be able to sustain life for long. On the other hand, if the poorer nations are not encouraged to develop in this way, the richer countries will continue their exploitation of the natural and human resource base. It appears therefore that the developing countries have found their ability to react to global environmental problems constrained by their concern over the daily survival of their populations.

There are many contradictions between the intentional call for sustainable development and the current global economic trends. Neo liberalism and the new international division

of labour are leading to increased privatisation of public resources, the exploitation of workers through deregulation of rights and safety conditions, and the spread of 'footloose' multinationals, which are able to avoid local environmental legislation in countries without the finance, means to enforce tighter controls. Increased privatisation and deregulation is also occurring at a time when the state needs to be centrally involved environmental planning.

3.2   CITIES AND ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY IN THE

DEVELOPING WORLD

The concept of sustainable development has dominated development has dominated both the environmental and development literatures since the early 1980s, when decades of mismanaged growth in the name of development were manifested in environmental degradation at a global scale. 'Sustainable development' is a popular catch-all phrase which endeavours to encapsulate growing concerns over the future of the planer by highlighting the inextricable links between environment and development. Despite its global popularity, there is no universally agreed definition of sustainable development because the term expresses different views of development' itself.

Since the Brundtland Commission published its report *Our Common Future* in 1987, the sustainability debate has revealed major differences in thinking about development, economic growth, social change and environment conservation (World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED). For example, environmentalists who argue from a 'green' perspective identify natural resource base as the focus of the sustainability debate which must be protected at all costs. Other writers take the view that it is more important to consider sustaining present and projected future levels of production and consumption in order to enhance development. In this respect, sustainable development can imply a radical change in lifestyle to manage existing resources in a more sustainable manner. However, the economic goal is 'to increase the new welfare of economic activities while maintaining or increasing the stock of economic, ecological, and socio – cultural asserts over time.

Whilst advanced capitalist static communities might be more concerned with the natural environment and conservation, the development debate in the some other societies often prioresses human development, which as Barbier (1989) argues 'is directly concerned with increasing the material standard of living of the poor at the "grassroots" level the emphasis here is no meeting social and economic objectives, with a focus on improving access to basic needs. In particular, there is a need to ensure that the poor have access to sustainable and secure livelihoods as it is poor that often have no option but to choose short – time economic benefits at the expense of the environment.

The contradictions between different ideological views require attention to be paid to the structural inequalities of the global system. In developing areas, environmental struggles are often about basic needs rather than enhancing already comfortable lifestyles.

According to WCED (1987), the main components of sustainability are environment, equity and growth, although some practitioners would question the role of growth. Although the notion that human development needs, including cultural and social ones, must go hand in hand with long – term environmental consideration has gained much support over the last decade, there is still a fundamental problem concerning the global agenda for sustainable development. The 1992 Rio Summit highlighted the lack of

consensus over the sustainability debate between the 'developed' and the 'developing' nations, particularly with respect to different environment priorities as well as concerns over the financing of this new agenda.

Essentially, many developing countries failed to appreciate the need for a global approach to the problem, as it insisted on greater efforts by the more advanced nations; co conserve essential resources, such as rainforests, without giving consideration to the poverty of many countries and the financial constrains imposed by the debt crisis. For many countries, long-term environmental objectives are difficult to comprehend when short-term problems pose the most serious risks. Despite the heightened awareness of environmental factors, there has been no move to assist poorer nations to reduce their debt burden, thereby enabling them to reduce exploitation of their natural and human resources for foreign exchange.

The levels of environmental degradation found in many cities in the developing world clearly indicate that the global system and the trend towards westernised living are far from sustainable, and overall are particularly damaging. However, an immediate agenda for radical change has so far been obscured by failing to face the fact that satisfying basic needs is a necessary step to ensuring the viability of any policy aimed at sustaining the environment. Thus, the environment has become, at least to some extent, the unacknowledged victim of inequitable development and political power.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Although the need for sustainable development is widely supported but the current global economic and social trends are leading to further environmental damage. Increasing number of private car ownerships, the consumption pattern of a growing disposable society, and increased materialism, are all incompatible with sustainable developments. This begs the question why developing world cities are still encouraged to develop through economic growth when western consumption and resource use patterns are so evidently non-sustainable. To this end, it can be assumed that the developing countries have found their ability to react to global environmental problems constrained by their concern over the daily survival of their populations. The sustainability debate has revealed major differences in thinking about development, economic growth, social change and environment conservation. In developing areas, environmental struggles are often about basic needs rather than enhancing already comfortable lifestyles.

Although the notion that human development needs, including cultural and social ones, must go hand in hand with long – term environmental consideration has gained much support over the last decade, there is still a fundamental problem concerning the global agenda for sustainable development.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit we have learnt that:
1.   cleaning the urban environment is just one extreme example highlighting the perceptions held by urban municipalities over the causes of environmental degradation and aesthetic blight;
2.   when natural and human induced hazards occur together, it is usually the urban poor who disproportionately bear the costs;

3,   the concept of sustainable development has dominated both the environmental and development literatures since the decades of mismanaged growth in the name of development were manifested in environmental degradation at a global scale;

4.   sustainable development endeavours to encapsulate growing concerns over the future of the planer by highlighting the inextricable links between environment and development; and

5.   environmental struggles are often about basic needs rather than enhancing already comfortable lifestyles.

6.0   TUTOR –MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Assess the impact of the expanding urban influence on the sustainability of the human environment.

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UNIT 2   WASTE GENERATION AND DISPOSAL SYSTEMS IN URBAN CENTRES

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The consequence of expansion of cities and continuous influx of migrants from rural areas is a rapid rate of garbage accumulation, coupled with a low rate of removal leading to foul air and bad smells within the city. One of the most critical issues in our cities today is overcrowding, which in turn results in poor living and poor sanitary conditions. These issues have not only become a reoccurring issue in the media, they had also attracted scholars and researchers in their studies. Urban decay connected with over crowding is almost entirely a large town problem in Nigeria. Waste disposal constitute nuisance and a source of embarrassment to many nations particularly visitors to the country who assess the state of health environment from this angle. All these problems, as manifested in urban sprawl, poor access to dwellings, bad drainage, housing congestion, uncontrolled and increasing density of physical development among many other problems, characterize the high-density areas of Nigerian cities.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, learners should be able to:

- define and explain the concept of wastes;

- name the types and the nature of wastes;

- discuss the methods of waste disposal;

- explain the effects of poor waste disposal systems; and

- highlight the differences in gender attitudes to waste disposal.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   MEANING OF WASTES

Waste is an unwanted or undesired material or substance. It is also referred to as rubbish, trash, garbage, or junk depending upon the type of material and the regional terminology.

Waste, according to Oguniyi and Folasele (2003), may be defined as unwanted material that is no longer needed and is thrown away. Waste disposal is a process of getting rid of waste. Materials such as food wastes, paper, plastic, metal containers, leaves, glass, leather, rubber, textile, wood and bulky items e.g. boxes refrigerators etc. added to the growing mountain if waste are scrap of tyres. Under the Waste Framework Directive (European Directive 75/442/EC as amended), the European Union defines waste as an object the holder discards, intends to discard or is required to discard. Once a substance or object has become waste, it will remain waste unless it is fully recovered and does not poses any threat to the environment or human health.

On the 28th of October 2003, Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) published proposed revisions to the definition of solid waste in the Federal Register (68 FR 61558). The 2003 proposal provided an exclusion from the definition of solid waste for hazardous secondary materials, which are generated and reclaimed in a continuous process within the same industry. In this regard, what was once regarded as waste is now considered as raw materials in the light of recycling process possibility. Thus, the term "waste" is assuming a new meaning in recent time, which differs from one place to another, depending on the environmental policies of the place(s) concerned.

The challenge of waste disposal system in urban areas is neither a new thing nor peculiar to the developing nations alone but rather, a global issue. In every part of the world, it has been observed that for every consumption attempt, waste generation is inevitable. This is evident in every production process, and one cannot shy away from the fact that waste is being generated at the end of it all. The UK Environmental Protection Act 1990 indicated that waste includes any substance which constitutes scrap material, an effluent or other unwanted surplus arising from the application of any process or any substance or article which requires to be disposed of which has been broken, worn out, contaminated or otherwise spoiled. This is supplemented with anything which is discarded otherwise dealt with as if it were waste shall be presumed to be waste unless the converse is proved. This definition was amended by the Waste Management Licensing Regulations (1994) defining waste as "any substance or object which the producer or the person in possession of it, discards or intends to discard but with exception of anything excluded from the scope of the waste directive".

To this end, since consumption is the essence of production, and human lives are sustained by consumption of goods and services, then waste generation becomes necessary, however, it can be minimized if an appropriate waste management system is adopted in spite of the increasing urban population.

3.2   TYPES, NATURE AND VOLUME OF WASTES

Nwadike (2000) identified a long list of hospital wastes, which can be grouped as hazardous component, infectious sharp objects, pharmaceuticals, chemicals, genotoxic and radioactive wastes. While consumers of "pure water" litter the landscape with empty sachets the adolescents add empty tubes of cream and lotions to the heaps of 'dunghills' in our urban centres. With improvement in road transport, abandoned dilapidated vehicles are common sights in Nigerian cities; used tyres have become a feature of the landscape.

Generally, waste exists in three main states - solid, liquid and gas. Gaseous type of waste is rarely founds in homes, it is usually peculiar to large-scale industries, while liquid and solid waste are part of common domestic waste. Of course, industrial waste could also be in solid or liquid form. It has been observed that the nature of waste generated in urban

areas is usually different from that of rural areas. Perhaps socio-economic factors should be held responsible for the variance. In the rural areas, organic materials such as leaves/vegetables/plant materials, kitchen waste, etc constitute larger percentage of their disposed waste. While urban waste is usually characterized with a balance of organic and inorganic waste; depending on the disposable income, taste, habit, status, educational level, and other relevant factors of the average individual in the areas concerned. Organic waste does not take much time to get decomposed and this includes leaves vegetables, leftover food, kitchen waste and the like. On the other hand, inorganic waste usually take longer period to get decomposed, some take several years, while others do not decomposed until they are retrieved and recycled mechanically or with the aid of chemicals and this includes used tyres, plastic, heavy metals, vehicle/machine scraps, computer scraps, etc.

Even within the urban areas, there is little variation in the nature of waste disposed of. The sector theory popularized by Homer Hoyt (1939) holds that the different income groups and classes of a city tend to be found in distinct areas describable in terms of sectors of a circle centred on the Central Business District (CBD). The theory identifies high rent class (high-income group), medium rent class (medium-income group), and low rent class (low-income group) residential areas, each of which occupies a unique sector.

In relation to the nature and volume of urban waste, particularly solid waste, there are variations among the three residential sectors identified by Homer Hoyt. Relatively, the areas occupied by high income group is likely to have the highest inorganic waste component and total waste volume/day, followed by the medium income, which is invariably followed by the medium income households. The reason for this is traceable to the relative differential standard of living among the income groups identified; as high-income group is presumed to have more to spend on canned and bottled food/drink item, which sometimes come in cartons. Consequently, it is expected that more cans, bottles, and cartons are generated in their waste awaiting disposal.

Moreover, the CBD identified in the theory is expected to generate more volume of waste to be disposed of relative to the three categories of residential areas, perhaps due to the function it performs. CBD is usually characterized by various natures of businesses, each of which contribute to the high volume of waste generated in urban areas. At the CBD, where retailers of goods predominate, one should expect breaking of bulks and disposal of useless containers from which bulks were broken and sold. The consequence of this is usually multiply in the volume of CBD waste.

3.3   WASTE DISPOSAL METHODS

A rising urban population, in some cases coupled with a rising quality of life, and high rates of resource consumption patterns have had an unintended and negative impact on the urban environment - generation of wastes far beyond the handling capacities of urban governments and agencies. Cities are now grappling with the problems of high volumes of waste, the costs involved, the disposal technologies and methodologies, and the impact of wastes on the local and global environment.

At this juncture, it is pertinent to elucidate that waste disposal system is not the same thing as waste management system, though somehow related. The former is one of the processes or stages involved in the latter, and vary in practice for urban areas in

developed and developing countries. The reasons for the variation include type of waste material, nearby land uses, and the area available.

Historically, efforts in the management of waste have focused primarily on the disposal part of the waste. Whilst there is now a general move towards the recovery of resources from waste, disposal is still the most common form of managing waste. Dumping, land filling of waste and incineration are some of the most common methods of waste disposal.

a. Dumping

This system of waste disposal involves literal dumping of waste - solid and liquid in open dump site. This type of waste disposal method does not require any special design and so does not have any particular design characteristics. Open site dumping is very common in urban areas where the law enforcement agents are too relaxed in the execution of waste and environmental related laws.

Observations have shown that long abandoned building sites, nearby bushes, unkempt public drainages, etc are usually converted to dumping sites for urban waste, perhaps due to a number of reasons which include inefficiency on the part of local authorities. Good examples of such areas are found all over Nigeria. In Lagos State, the commercial capitals of Nigeria, there are several open dump sites which include Oshodi, Maroko, Ojota, Cele-Ijesa, Abule-Egba, etc. In Ibadan, the capital of Oyo State, the largest city in Africa, there are dumping sites in areas such as Bodija Market, Beere-Oje Market, etc. If these strategic urban areas, despite their socio-economic, political and geographic significance are still harbouring open dump site, even in the hearts of the cities, the urban areas of less relative importance can not be exempted~ perhaps in a worse situation.

The current state of New Market, Sabo in lle-Ife, Mulero Canal and Abattoir Canal in Lagos State are proofs of another dimension open dump site, in which case, solid and liquid waste from the market and neighbouring residence is dumped in a nearby open drainage. The negative impact of this on the environment goes beyond pollution, extending to blockage of drainage system - a major factor responsible for the recurrent flooding in the area.

b. Landfill

This method of waste disposal involves buying waste to dispose of it, and this remains a common practice in urban areas of most countries. Rectory reveals that landfills were often established in disused quarries, mining, and void or borrow pits. A properly designed and well-managed landfill can be a hygienic and relatively inexpensive method of disposing of waste materials. Design characteristics of a modern landfill include methods to contain leachate such as clay or plastic lining material. Deposited waste is normally compacted to increase its density and stability, and covered to prevent attracting vermin (such as mice or rats). Many landfills also have landfill gas extraction systems installed to extract the landfill gas. Gas is pumped out of the landfill using perforated pipes and flared off or burnt in a gas engine to generate electricity.

c. Incineration

Incineration is a controversial method of waste disposal, due to issues such as emission of gaseous pollutants. Incineration is a controversial method of waste disposal, due to issues such as emission of gaseous pollutants. Incineration is a disposal method that involves

combustion of waste material. Incineration and other high temperature waste treatment systems are sometimes described as "thermal treatment". Incinerators convert waste materials into heat, gas, steam, and ash. In this regard, Incineration is a controversial method of waste disposal, due to issues such as emission of gaseous pollutants. Incineration is carried out both on a small scale by individuals and on a large scale by industry. It is used to dispose of solid, liquid and gaseous waste. It is recognized as a practical method of disposing of certain hazardous waste materials (such as biological medical waste). Incineration is common in countries such as Japan where land is relatively scarce, as these facilities generally do not require as much area as landfills. Waste-to-energy (WtE) or energy-from-waste (EfW) is a broad term for facilities that bum waste in a furnace or boiler to generate heat, steam and/or electricity.

3.4   EFFECTS OF POOR WASTE DISPOSAL

Indiscriminate dumping of wastes on the slopes of streams and river courses can lead to flooding, destruction of lives and properties. The Ogunpa flood disasters in Ibadan in the early 1980s are still fresh in the memories of those who were affected in one way or the other. Such dumping according to Botkin and Keller (2000) spoils scenic resources, pollutes soil and water resources, and is a potential health hazard to plants, animals and people. In sum, careless dumping of waste usually result into the following:

a.   **pollution of water:** both rural and urban drinking water sources come largely from surface streams and rivers. This makes the susceptible to easy pollution and contamination carelessly dumped wastes.

b.   **outbreak and wide epidemic:** outbreak of epidemiological diseases such as cholera, typhoid fever, guinea worm infections, hepatitis, dysentery etc

c.   **poor sanitary conditions of urban areas**: invasion of residential, institutional and commercial housing units by such pests as flies and rodents leading to food poisoning.

d.   other notable problems include shortage of fish resources, shallowness, siltation and drying of streams, blocking roads, alleys and pavements.

3.4.1   GENDER DIFFERENCES AND INEQUALITIES ON WASTE DISPOSAL

Gender differences and inequalities can affect various aspects of waste disposal, and these include household responsibilities relating to waste and waste disposal. Given women's primary responsibility for cleaning, food preparation, family health, laundry, and other domestic cores; women and men may view domestic waste and its disposal differently. They may have different definitions of what is waste or garbage. They may also manage waste differently and put different priorities on its disposal.

Household Resources and Waste Disposal: Women do not always have equal input into the allocation of family finances. For example, although a woman might be willing to spend scarce household resources on waste disposal, her spouse may not agree. As well, women's heavier workloads mean that they often have less available time. Thus men and women can assign different values to time spent on waste disposal. For example, men may think that one central disposal point is sufficient, while women may prefer a greater number of smaller, yet more accessible disposal sites.

Views and Priorities Related to Waste Disposal: Given different responsibilities and resources women and men may set different public health priorities and have different environmental standards. For example, in one community where untrained storm water caused problems, the neighbourhood committee was given a choice between two types of drainage systems: a sophisticated one that would take three years to become operational or a simple one that could be operational before the next rainy season. The committee chose the sophisticated one while the women, consulted separately, would have preferred the simple system which would have solved their problems immediately.

Participation in Community Decision-Making about Waste Disposal: Despite women's relatively high involvement at the local level, men are more likely to have access to institutions that set priorities and make decisions regarding municipal infrastructure. Community consultations processes often fail to take gender inequalities into consideration and thus neglect women's preferences. Unless explicit measures are taken to ensure women's participation, their priorities, responsibilities and needs will not be heard.

Employment Opportunities in Waste Disposal or Sewage Treatment: In some urban centres, solid waste management has evolved into an organized system of collection, trade and recycling. There is often a marked division of labour in these various tasks between women and men (see the example on the overleaf). With a consideration of the specific barriers faced by women, waste disposal initiatives could offer improved employment possibilities for women.

All of these differences have implications for the design and implementation of waste disposal programmes: who to target, who to involve and who to listen to regarding preferences. These broad issues need to be explored in each situation. Studies have also shown that other factors such as age, class, race, or religion would influence people's responses to waste and their ability to participate in initiatives. For example, daughters may view waste recycling differently than sons (given their responsibilities fur different household tasks). A woman from a wealthy household may be able to pay for a private sewage treatment system that is not an option for a poorer woman. Participatory approaches can assist in both the understanding of gender equality dynamics and the design of gender-sensitive interventions.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Waste disposal is a consequent of the industrialisation process in both developed and developing countries. Whereas the developed countries have put in place policy measures to contain the waste problems, developing countries are still battling with the mountains of waste generated daily. In many parts of the world, people are facing a serious waste disposal problem. The problem results because too much waste is produced and there is too little acceptable space for permanent disposal.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

1.   waste is an unwanted or undesired material or substance;

2.   waste exists in three main states - solid, liquid and gas;

3.   efforts in the management of waste have focused primarily on the disposal part of the waste;

4.   hazardous waste materials are disposed off by literal dumping;

5.   gender differences can affect various aspects of waste disposal; and

6.   solid waste management has evolved into an organized system.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the evils of waste disposal systems in Nigerian urban centres.

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MODULE 5

UNIT 1 MANAGEMENT POLICIES AND STRATEGIES FOR URBAN LIVEABILITY

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Several policies have been adopted by government to improve living conditions in the Nigerian urban centres. One of such policies is the National Urban Development Policy promulgated in 1992. The policy provides guidelines for urban development and management. An Urban Development Bank and an enabling law for the establishment of physical planning units at all levels of government were also achieved under the policy. To enable the construction sector to meet human settlement development goals while avoiding harmful side effects of human health, the Federal Government of Nigeria also established and commenced the enforcement of National Building Codes and Standards. In addition, a National Construction Policy was promulgated in 1994 to ensure and enhance the use of indigenous building materials and industries; adoption of standards and regulatory measures for increased use of energy-efficient designs; and use of labour intensive construction and maintenance technologies for the generation of employment. Based on this background, we shall discuss the various Management Policies and Strategies for Urban Liveability with particular reference to Nigeria.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

- appraise the various urban management policies adopted by the Nigerian governments;
- analyse the implications of urban management policies on both the environment and inhabitants;
- the impacts of rural-urban migration on both the source and the destination regions; and

3.1 NIGERIA'S URBAN POLICY

A National Urban Development Policy was launched in 1997. Its stated goal is to develop a dynamic system of urban settlements that will foster sustainable economic growth,

promote efficient urban and regional development and ensure improved standard of living and well being for all Nigerians. The 1992 Urban and Regional Planning Law of Nigeria provide the legal framework for the implementation of the policy. The law specifies the urban limit for any settlement and the planning and development parameters guiding such development. Thus it holds a good promise for the protection of rural agricultural lands in peri-urban areas. Necessary institutional frameworks have been established to implement the policy. At the local level, Urban Planning Authorities are being set up to administer the policy, while Urban Planning Boards are located at the State level and a National Urban Development Commission has been set up at the Federal level. The decree setting up the Commission is now being reviewed.

In one of its recent publications, National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) highlights evidence that suggests that the rural sector has been facing "a relatively more serious poverty situation than the urban".

NEEDS states further that:
> "with partly rural-fed increases in population putting pressures on limited resources in the urban areas, the latter centres continue to face serious problems of unemployment, under-employment, housing and other environment-related problems, which contribute to persistent seriousness of the urban poverty situation".

Furthermore, constraints inhibiting private sector participation in the transformation of agricultural production highlighter by NEEDS include "the rapid shift of population from rural to urban areas and the perceptible shift in consumption patters from local to imported food items" and "a land tenure system that inhibits the acquisition of land for mechanised farming".

Policy thrusts in NEEDS that aim to address these issues include the "creation of more agricultural and rural employment opportunities to increase the income of farmers and urban dwellers through the modernisation of production and creation of an agricultural sector that is responsive to the demands and realities of the Nigerian economy" and the "promotion of integrated rural development involving agricultural and non-agricultural activities including the provision of physical infrastructure such as feeder roads, rural water supply and rural communications".

3.1.1 POLICY IMPLICATIONS

➢ Since rural-urban interactions are a significant part of livelihood strategies, they should always be taken into account by development policy makers in designing interventions for policy alleviation in both urban and rural development – rural and urban areas should be seen as two ends of a continuum of the urbanisation process.

➢ As agriculture is shown to be the engine of growth in the rural economy, prioritisation of agricultural development is an important rural development and poverty reduction strategy, despite the declining importance of agriculture in livelihoods and GDP.

➢ The government faces immense challenges in improving urban infrastructure and related public services. Continued privatisation of public utilities and policies that promote private funding of some ventures, such as urban water and electricity

supply, refuse collection, and housing is one way in which service provision can be improved.

➢ Although highly controversial in Nigeria, reform of the 1978 Land Use Act has the potential to significantly improve the efficiency of land use in both rural and urban areas.

3.1.2   CONSEQUENCES OF THE POLICY

In rural areas, the vast increase in food demand generated by the growth of cities and expansion of transport capacity were amongst the major driving forces of agricultural production and modernisation through the 1990s. Urbanisation has played an important role in reducing pressures on scarce land and rural environmental resources and allowing the remaining rural population to develop viable production. Unless there is a considerable increase in the country's dependence on food imports, farm output per worker will need to grow by two-thirds and farm surplus per worker will need to double between by 2020 in order to feed Nigeria's growing urban population (Club du Sahel, 2000). If this growth does occur, it has the potential to provide for a significant increase in the standard of living of farmers.

Migration between rural and urban areas in Nigeria has had a significant impact on both rural and urban areas because of the number of people involved and the fact that most migrants have been the young, often male, most productive members of the rural population. This has meant that the rural areas from which they came have often been left with a demographically unbalanced population of women, younger children, and older people. This process has affected the rural economy in the areas of migration by creating marked changes in the gender division of labour.

Agricultural labour was traditionally specified by gender: men had certain tasks and women had others, although the specific divisions varied by culture and ethnic group. As working-age men have left the rural areas, the resulting labour gap has normally been met by others, usually wives or children, or by hired labour. In other cases, the tasks have been modified or not performed.

The departure of men has helped to generate a lively market for rural wage labour. In many areas, male and female labourers are commonly hired to perform agricultural tasks such as land preparation, weeding, and harvesting, which in the past were done either by household labour or traditional work parties. In turn, the growth in demand for hired labour has fostered an increase of seasonal and longer term intra-rural migration.

In more remote areas, however, finding hired workers is often difficult. The absence of men has led to neglect of such tasks as land clearing and heavy soil conservation work, which they generally performed. Thus, in forest areas from which there has been much male migration, thickly overgrown land that has been left as fallow for extended periods is often not cleared for cultivation; instead, the same areas of land are used repeatedly, leading to rapid declines in soil fertility and yields. As a result, land degradation has occurred in these low density areas. Intra-rural migration has led to increasing land disputes. Migrants can be allocated land but they lack security of tenure and the host community can in theory reclaim land at will. Many long running conflicts in Nigeria are rooted in the disputes over the property rights of migrants (such as the Tiv/Jukun and Ife/ Modakeke conflicts).

The rapid growth of urban populations has created the following challenges in Nigeria's largest cities:

- ➢ Congestion leading to urban squalor, housing shortages, invasion of urban open spaces and green belts with low quality housing.

- ➢ A rapid accumulation of urban waste and a breakdown of urban infrastructure (including transport, water, and electricity).

- ➢ Atmospheric and groundwater pollution.

- ➢ Lack of adequate infrastructure for housing, sanitation, water, and open space amenities. Much of this is due to the absence of land planning statutes that encompass the evolving functions and responsibilities of urban areas.

4.0   CONCLUSION

So far we have been discussing the policy issues relating to the Nigerian urban centres. To this end it is therefore safe to conclude that the migration of the (educated) workforce to the urban areas is the main factor responsible for Low rural productivity. Other factors are as a result of limited access to credit, extension services, and modern technology for agricultural production, processing and preservation. Also, there is sharp seasonality in the flow of production, income and employment opportunities in the rural sector. There are a large number of policies that if formulated and implemented properly would not only improve the living conditions in our urban centres but will as well improve the quality of the cities. Among such policies are those related to urban management, environmental issues, service maintenance and sources of finance. Some of these would be discussed in the subsequent units; however it should be borne in mind that Nigeria is yet to develop any meaningful policy that will guide the development processes in our urban centres.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:
1.   there is urban limit and development parameters for any settlement;

2.   the rural agricultural lands in peri-urban areas should be protected;

3.   rural and urban areas are not equally catered for in terms of social and economic infrastructure;

4.   there is continuous exodus of the workforce to the urban areas as the ageing population is left in the rural areas;

5.   since rural-urban interactions are significant parts of livelihood strategies, they should always be taken into account by development policy makers;

6.   the government faces immense challenges in improving urban infrastructure and related public services;

7.   urbanisation has played an important role in reducing pressures on scarce land and rural environmental resources and allowing the remaining rural population to develop viable production

6.0 TUTOR - MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Critically examine the nature and failure of urban development policies in Nigeria.

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UNIT 2   URBAN WASTE MANAGEMENT

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Waste management is the collection, transport, processing, recycling or disposal of wasted materials. They usually relate to materials produced by human activity, and are generally undertaken to reduce their effect on health, aesthetics or amenity. Waste management is carried out to reduce the materials effect on the environment and to recover resources from them. Waste management can involve solid, liquid or gaseous substances, with different methods and fields of expertise for each.

The problems of poor waste management have provided a window of opportunity for cities to find solutions involving the community and the private sector involving innovative technologies and disposal methods and involving behavioural changes and awareness raising. These issues have been amply demonstrated by good practices from many cities around the world. There is a need, therefore, for a complete rethinking of "waste" - to analyse if waste is indeed a 'waste'. When this has been properly analysed, the subsequent recommendations can be achieved.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit learners should be able to:
- explain the meaning of waste management;

- highlight government efforts towards waste disposal management in urban areas;

- assess the impact of poor waste disposal management on the environment; and
- proffer solutions to waste management problems in Nigerian cities.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   POLICY ISSUES TOWARDS WASTE MANAGEMENT

Waste management practices differ for developed and developing nations, for urban and rural areas, and for residential and industrial, producers. Management for non-hazardous residential and institutional waste in metropolitan areas is usually the responsibility of Local Government Authorities, while management for non-hazardous commercial and industrial waste is usually the responsibility of the generator.

Most local governments and urban agencies have, time and again, identified waste management as a major problem that has reached proportions requiring drastic measures. We can observe three key trends with respect to solid waste - increase in shear volume of waste generated by urban residents; change in the quality or make-up of waste generated; and the disposal method of waste collected by land-fill, incineration, etc.

Problem of waste disposal management is very critical in Nigerian cities. For example, the metropolitan city of Lagos has been grappling with the problem over the years. Balogun (2001) observed that Lagos seriously lacks an efficient waste disposal method, and this inadequacy makes it one of the dirtiest capitals in the world. Municipal waste and sewage disposal problems are specifically serious in Lagos, Ibadan, Enugu, Kaduna, Aba, Port-Harcourt, Owerri and Warri. The reaason for this is not far fetched. The large influx of people into these areas is fast compounding their problems of waste management. They suffer most because of over population and congestion. They are also the industrial cities of Nigeria.

3.2   PROBLEMS OF WASTE DISPOSAL MANAGEMENT

The following have been identified to be the problems of waste disposal management in urban areas:

1. There is too much emphasis on waste disposal that is focused on municipalities and uses high energy/high technology. Another is lack of holistic waste management system - disposal, processing, recycling and. minimization, which is capable of helping in understanding the actions to be taken, and in building a comprehensive waste management strategy for local governments in cities, particularly in the developing countries.

2. The implementation strategy of waste minimization aim is usually very poor, since the defining criteria for waste minimization programmes often lack deeper community participation, understanding economic benefits of waste, and other vital ingredients and the idea of waste disposal and pollution control as matters of efficient resource utilization seems unfamiliar in light of contemporary concerns over environmental protection and ecological integrity.

3. Lack of holistic waste management system - disposal, processing, recycling and minimization, which is capable of helping in understanding the actions to be taken, and in building a comprehensive waste management strategy for local governments in cities, particularly in the developing countries;

4. Several historians have recently pointed out that utilitarian attitude towards water resources have long extended to their use as sinks for domestic and industrial wastes.

3.3   REASONS FOR POOR WASTE MANAGEMENT

Waste management is a critical issue in environmental quality in both developed and developing countries.

a.   **Inadequate Funds:** Funds to ministry of environment most of the time is always inadequate. Local governments hardly supplement the efforts other tiers of government.

b.   **Insufficient Personnel:** This requires high level trained personnel knowledge in environmental issues. Large unskilled labour may be available but we need trained personnel to develop ideas and utilize the facilities provided.

c.   Insufficient equipment for waste disposal.

d.   Low awareness of proper waste disposal methods by majority of the populace.

3.4   SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The current emphasis on waste disposal that is focused on municipalities and uses high energy/high technology, needs to move more towards waste processing and waste recycling that involves public-private partnerships, aiming at eventually waste minimization driven at the community level and using low energy/low technology resources. Some of the defining criteria for future waste minimization programmes should include deeper community participation, understanding economic benefits/recovery of waste, focusing on product life cycles (rather than end-of-pipe solutions), and decentralized administration of waste, minimizing environmental impacts, and reconciling investment costs with long-term goals. Through minimizing the waste volume disposal to dump site and conditioning of its disposal to near settlement areas, usage of plain and fuel as well as the emissions depending on it can be decreased.

Gender differences and inequalities should be put into proper consideration in the design and implementation of waste disposal programmes: who to target whom to involve and who to listen to regarding preferences; since they can affect various aspects of waste disposal. In addition to gender differences, other factors such as age, class, race, or religion that are capable of influencing people's responses to waste and their ability to participate in initiatives should not be neglected either.

More importantly, the third party such as environmental NGOs would be expected to bridge the gaps between administrative officers and inhabitants who live in any sites where the projects are planned. The idea of waste disposal and pollution control as matters of efficient resource utilization, which seems unfamiliar in light of contemporary concerns over environmental protection and ecological integrity can be changed positively. This can be achieved through the third party medium, such that utilitarian attitudes towards water resources, which have long extended to their use as sinks for domestic and industrial wastes, will be corrected. Thus, canals and other drainage system will be assisted to perform their origin function.

Hagerstrand (2001) argues in favour of functional specialization, an indication that each group of the actors at each level should be provided with "own set of rights, responsibilities and expertise". Thus, the actors can participate actively in its planning and implementation at different special domain. The domains are presented in a hierarchical order in which actors are divided into several levels and each level is held by the domains acting above it, e.g. the local government works below the provincial government; the provincial government works below the state government. The spatial domain system can

clearly illustrate how each upper level can influence the level below. It also allows the actors from the lowest level to influence the upper levels e.g. in the form of trade union or Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) so to ensure the realization of a dynamic two-way flow of information between the upper and the lower.

This nested spatial domain system can be adopted for analyzing and improving stakeholder partnership in Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) management system both vertically and horizontally. This will assist the efficiency of stakeholder partnership. a necessary precondition for the implementation of "waste disposal fee" to control MSW over-generation in urban areas. This strategy is already in use in some urban areas in Nigeria and China, although both pros and risks can exist with the adoption of "waste disposal fee".

Moreover, the state government should operate indirectly through setting goals, legal limits or creating incentives and introduction of waste disposal fee while the ultimate operations to decrease Municipal Solid Waste generation should be located in the actor level in accordance with Hagerstrand's nested spatial domain system. The adoption of a waste disposal fee can result in a number of positive impacts, such as to mobilize households' enthusiasm for minimizing waste over-generation in a cost-efficient way, to increase consolidate revenue and to reflect the Polluter-Pays-Principle, etc. The major advantage of imposing waste disposal fee is that it can force all stakeholders to take environmental concerns into account to minimize the negative impacts it has on their activities as much as possible.

In sum the following suggestions may improve the already worsen situation.

a.   Solid Waste Recycling is a method can be adopted to reduce the need for lands fills and incinerators.

b.   Street trading and unauthorized trading in non-market places should be discouraged.

c.   Collection bins should be provided in strategic and public places such as markets, taxi parks, and stadium. In addition, residential houses should make adequate provision for efficient waste disposal system.

d.   Public enlighten programmes to educate city dwellers on the appropriate methods of disposing their wastes. This can be done through handbills, radio, television jingles.

e.   Engage more personnel and equipment in the disposal of solid waste, especially in the unplanned section of the cities.

4.0   CONCLUSION

As the definition of "waste" differs from place to place, so the waste disposal system adopted. In most developing parts of the world, particularly in Nigeria, open dump site system of waste disposal is predominant. The so called incineration method claimed are mere dumping in disguised. Waste disposal system as it is now, particularly in Nigeria, deserves special attention from the government. It is only Abuja, the metropolitan city that one can use as a model with excellent waste management arrangement. However, one or combination of the recommendations provided, if properly annexed, has the potential

to drastically reduce the current threat posed by the consequences of Municipal Solid Waste over-generation in urban areas against the survival of man and his environment.

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have learnt that:

1.   Urban Planning Authorities are set up to administer the policy;
2.   there are rapid accumulation of waste and a breakdown of infrastructure in the Nigerian cities;
3.   waste management is the collection, transport, processing, recycling or disposal of wasted materials;
4.   waste management practices in developed countries differ from those in developing nations;
5.   there are three key trends with respect to solid waste: volume of wastes generated change in the quality or make-up of wastes; and the disposal method of wastes collected;
6.   waste management is a critical issue in environmental quality in both developed and developing countries;
7.   there is lack of holistic approach to waste management system in Nigerian urban centres;
8.   there is insufficient equipment for waste disposal;
9.   there is low awareness of proper waste disposal methods by majority of the populace; and
10.   a necessary precondition for waste management is the implementation of waste disposal fee to control Municipal Solid Waste over-generation in urban areas.

6.0   TUTOR –MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Attempt an appraisal of the implications of urban management policies on both the environment and the urban dwellers.

7.0   REFERENCES / FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 3   POLICY ISSUES TOWARDS URBAN RENEWAL

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The sporadic application of slum clearance programmes served only to exacerbate the already intransigent problem of urban housing shortage, as the example of Lagos and Port Harcourt have demonstrated. The continued application of western assumptions in urban development (whereas they have since been modified in those countries) has inhibited a reassessment of issues in the Nigerian context.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit students should be able to:

▪   explain the concept of urban renewal;

▪   highlight government efforts towards urban renewal in Nigeria; and

▪   itemise the procedure for urban renewal in any community.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   THE URBAN RENEWAL PROGRAMMES

In recognition of the problems of sporadic development of slums and other illegal structures in the Nigerian urban centres, the Federal Government of Nigeria has being making effort in combating the issues of squatter settlements (i.e. slums) through their policies and programmes. One of which was the Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law promulgated in 1992 to regulate and guide spatial planning at all levels of government. A fall-out of the policy is the establishment of the Housing Policy Council to monitor activities in the housing sector and evaluate policy impact on the sector. The council regularly collects data and publishes information on the state of the housing sector. The second is the National Housing Fund and an Infrastructural Development Fund, which were put in place to facilitate the attainment of the goals of sustainable human settlement in the country since 1990s.

The Urban renewal programme by the Federal Government was directed at improving existing neighbourhoods in core areas. It has been implemented in 18 cities across the

nation. The Federal Government has provided through the National Sites and Services Programme over 15,000 plots at subsidized rate to the public.

Furthermore, the country is participating in the Sustainable Cities Programme {SCP) under the urban management programme (UMP) of the United Nations Centre for Human Settlement (UNCHS / World Bank / United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Under the programme, the Sustainable Ibadan Project (SIP) is being implemented. Through the initiative, Local Governments, NGOs, Community Based Organizations (CBOs), and private individuals are encouraged to participate and contribute to urban improvement and management. The process of replicating the sustainable city programme has already begun. Two other cities, Kano and Enugu have commenced their projects. The sustainable Kano Project has already prepared Kano environment profile study forming the basis for consultative actions on the management of Metropolitan Kano. The SCP emphasizes the two-way relationship between development and environment which promotes awareness and understanding of the priority issues to be addressed in urban environment and development, better understanding of modern urban and environmental management approaches, and the most effective and lasting impact.

In addition to efforts of the Government toward the achievement of the objectives of programmes under the Infrastructure Development Programme, the Urban Basic Services Programme (UBS) is being undertaken in the country to promote the integrated provision of environmental infrastructure, water, sanitation, drainage and solid waste management. The project involved the identification of core areas in some Nigeria cities and the packaging of improvement programmes targeted at women and children. However, housing development policies are skewed in favour of those in the middle and upper income brackets. Proposed housing development for the poor are either not sufficient, or hijacked by the rich since most poor cannot afford the cost of acquisition. Not only have their past efforts been limited by ineffective programmes of action and the ineptitude of the appropriate institutions but also most of the programmes have not met their target of decent and affordable accommodation for the urban poor. Meanwhile, governments who persist with the policy of wholesale clearance of what are judged blighted areas have made significantly worse the housing problems of the poor. For example, in most cases where evacuees were given government assistance, its scale was inadequate and often misdirected. As a result, evacuees usually moved to another area that the government also considered a slum, thus reinforcing the cycle of slum development, government inaction and eventual clearance.

3.2   Procedure for Urban Renewal

In terms of planning, five procedural steps are necessary to be followed to accomplish a desirable urban renewal exercise for the community. They are:

1. to acquire land in accordance with the plan, consisting of purchase of land and the structures on it.

2.   relocation of residents from the acquired buildings into satisfactory quarters. The relocation exercise must be made not only mandatory on the government (local and state) undertaking renewal but made a legal requirement.

3. the razing of the structures (site clearance) on the land may be carried out only after the qualities of such structures have been determined. The exercise also assumed that a process of data collection and analysis has been accomplished (social and physical).

4. site improvement and supporting facilities and services should be undertaken by the agency.

5. land may be built upon by agency or sold to original or sold to the original owners if compensations have been paid. They may also be given back to the owners with loans to rebuild either through self-help cooperative venture while amortization and interest on such loans should be made generous for the poor.

6. the only way to avoid the problem of a reduced housing stock in any urban renewal project in order to curb the incidence of the spiral process of slums among the poor, as the case of Maroko, in Lagos, is by building new dwelling units for relocates before demolishing their present homes. Such policy would merge with general attempt to relocate the poor in suburbs, seeking a reduction in the concentration of poverty in the city centres in Nigeria

4.0   CONCLUSION

There is a fundamental fact that should be taken into consideration in proffering solution to third world problems. The remedies to be applied must be determined by local circumstances and the different background causes. Wholesale slum clearance might have succeeded in Britain; can the same be said of the central Lagos slum clearance in Nigeria? Sit and services might have succeeded in Singapore but that does not mean that it will succeed in Kenya with its problem of low per capita income. Core housing might have succeeded in Italy; the experience in Ghana is not the same story. System building might be the vogue in the United States of America: where machinery is cheap and labour is expensive, can that be the same in Nigeria where labour is cheap but machinery very expensive?

5.0   SUMMARY

In recognition of the problems of sporadic development of slums and other illegal structures in the Nigerian urban centres, the Federal Government of Nigeria has being making effort in combating the issues of squatter settlements (i.e. slums) through their policies and programmes. A fall-out of the policy is the establishment of the Housing Policy Council to monitor activities in the housing sector and evaluate policy impact on the sector. The Urban renewal programme by the Federal Government was directed at improving existing neighbourhoods in core areas. Furthermore, the country is participating in many international programmes in its efforts toward the promotion of the integrated provision of environmental infrastructure, water, sanitation, drainage and solid waste management.

6.0   TUTOR - MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Prepare an agenda for the renewal of a named city in Nigeria.

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