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REVIEW ARTICLE

THE HUMAN FACE OF URBANIZATION: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF ITS
CHALLENGES IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

The unprecedented increasing size and densities of human activities in the urban cities have not only created enormous problems of congestion and overcrowding but have also resulted into degradation and haphazard development. The high proportion rate of urbanisation in the less developed countries (LDCs) and the inability of these countries to provide basic services and infrastructure have resulted in the development of slums thereby creating an urban sprawl and decline in the inner city. The rapid rate of urbanization in Nigeria is noted in the uncontrolled density of the urban city, the urban environments seems unable to support the healthy human population at tolerable levels of stress and the provision of rich social and cultural opportunities. These has accounted for the depreciating quality of housing in the country's urban centre as man had created urban complexes at odds with his behavioral and perceptual patterns which are increasingly dependent on it. The research explores the architecture of urbanisation and the dynamics of housing qualities in Nigeria and furthermore discusses the provisional challenges of urban housing sustainability in Nigeria.

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INTRODUCTION

The urban population of the world has grown rapidly since 1950, from 746 million to 3.9 billion in 2014. Asia, despite its lower level of urbanization, is home to 53 per cent of the world's urban population, followed by Europe (14 per cent) and Latin America and the Caribbean (13 per cent) (UN, 2014). The world is becoming increasingly urbanized. It is estimated that by the year 2025, 4 billion people will live in urban areas, constituting 77 percent of the world's population. As billions of people across the world choose to live in cities, urbanization is changing the human condition irreversibly. From small-scale, intimate societies based on subsistence economies experiencing slow change, humans are now increasingly part of globally-connected, fast-paced societies, where interdependencies with billions of strangers and with remote natural environments are the norm. Africa societies that had been predominantly rural for most of their history were experiencing a rapid and profound reorientation of their social and economic lives toward cities and urbanism. As ever greater numbers of people moved to a small number of rapidly expanding cities (or, as was often the case, a single main city), the fabric of life in both urban and rural areas changed in massive, often unforeseen ways. According to the latest UN estimates, almost all of the world's population growth between 2000 and 2030 will be concentrated in urban areas in developing countries.

By 2030, almost 60% of the people in developing countries will live in cities (Tibaijuka, 2004). If the present trend continue, urban population will equal rural population by around 2017.

With the largest and one of the most rapidly growing cities in sub-Saharan Africa, Nigeria has experienced the phenomenon of urbanization as thoroughly as any African nation, but its experience has also been unique--in scale, in pervasiveness, and in historical antecedents.

Consequently, urbanization takes place at a rapid rate in the developing countries. In Africa, the rate of growth of the urban population is estimated to be the most rapid than all other regions. The average annual growth rate in Africa was 4.7% and 4.6% between the period 1960 and 1980 and 2000 respectively (Olotuah, 2009). Africa is however, the least urbanized of the major developing regions. Okpochi, (2005), submitted that urbanisation is the expansion of a city or metropolitan area which could take the form of a proportion of total population or area in urban localities or area or the increase of this over time. It can also represent a level of urban relative to total population or the rate at which the urban population is increasing. These are caused by the migration of the people from the countryside to the city in search of better jobs and living conditions as well as high birth rates and migration.

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Source : Ajayi, (2014)

Fig. 1. The administrative map of Nigeria



Source: Author's field observation (2014)

Fig. 1. The congestion of the urban centres

The rapid rate of urbanization in Nigeria is noted to account for the depreciating quality of housing in the country's urban centres (**Olotuah, 2009**). Modern urbanization in most African countries has been dominated by the growth of a single primate city, the political and commercial center of the nation; its emergence was, more often than not, linked to the shaping of the country during the colonial era. In countries with a coastline, this was often a coastal port, and in Nigeria, Lagos fitted well into this pattern. Unlike most other nations, however, Nigeria had not just one or two but several other cities of major size and importance, a number of which were larger than most other national capitals in Africa. With the rapid growth of population, the spread of cities and the decline in the standard of living and in the standard of the environment, it has become increasingly evident that there is an urgent need for action-oriented efforts aimed at advocating and inducing the acceptance of appropriate and workable planning strategies that could facilitate the combating of the problems of urbanization and the dysfunctions of physical planning (**Aluko, 2010**). The rate of urbanization in Nigeria has witnessed tremendous increase in the last two decades. Census in the early fifties showed that there were about 56 cities in the country and about 10.6% of the total population lived in these cities. This rose dramatically to 19.1% in 1963 and 24.5% in 1985 and according to the country comparison report by the Central Intelligence Agency (**2011**), Nigeria's population is currently estimated at 155, 215, 573 million with the urban population constituting approximately 60%. The rapid growth rate of urban population in Nigeria since the early seventies is mainly due to migration promoted by the concentration of the gain from the oil sector in the urban areas (**Tibaijuka, 2004**).

The Federal Government of Nigeria (1988) National Policy on population for development also made the observation that "the present high rate of our population growth is already contributing substantially to the degradation of the ecology of the country. In two areas, the Yoruba region in the southwest and the Hausa-Fulani and Kanuri areas of the north, there were numbers of cities with historical roots stretching back considerably before the advent of British colonizers, giving them distinctive physical and cultural identities. Moreover, in areas such as the Igbo region in the southeast, which had few urban centers before the colonial period and was not highly urbanized even at independence, there has been a massive growth of newer cities since the 1970s, so that these areas in 1990 were also highly urban. While the United Nations estimates that Nigeria's population would reach 289 million by 2050, the United States Census Bureau projects that the population of Nigeria will reach 264 million by 2050. The rapid growth in population will create demand for shelter and efficient supply and distribution of basic utilities and services for the city dwellers. The effect of the explosion from the population growth will manifest in overcrowding in houses. Thus, Nigeria being one of the fastest urbanizing countries in the African continent faces a huge challenge of adequately providing affordable housing to its citizenry. As more and more Nigerians make towns and cities their homes, the resulting social, economic, environmental and housing need should be urgently addressed (**Aribigbola, 2000; Mabogunje, 2004**). Moreover cities are not only independent centers of concentrated human population and activity; they also exert a

potent influence on the rural landscape. Meanwhile, what is distinctive about the growth of cities in Nigeria is the length of its historical extension and the geographic pervasiveness of its coverage.

Brief historical Development of Urban Centers in Nigeria

Nigerian urbanism, as in other parts of the world, is a function primarily of trade and politics. In the north, the great urban centers of Kano, Katsina, Zaria, Sokoto, the early Borno capitals (Gazargamo and Kuka), and other cities served as entrepôts to the Saharan and trans-Saharan trade, and as central citadels and political capitals for the expanding states of the northern savanna. They attracted large numbers of traders and migrants from their own hinterlands and generally also included "stranger quarters" for migrants of other regions and nations. In the south, the rise of the Yoruba expansionist city-states and of Benin and others was stimulated by trade to the coast, and by competition among these growing urban centers for the control of their hinterlands and of the trade from the interior to the Atlantic (including the slave trade). The activities of European traders also attracted people to such coastal cities as Lagos, Badagri, Brass, and Bonny, and later Calabar and Port Harcourt. Overlying the original features of the earlier cities were those generated by colonial and postcolonial rule, which created new urban centers while also drastically altering the older ones. All these cities and peri-urban areas generally tended to have high population densities.

The northern savanna cities grew within city walls, at the center of which were the main market, government buildings, and the central mosque. Around them clustered the houses of the rich and powerful. Smaller markets and denser housing were found away from this core, along with little markets at the gates and some cleared land within the gates that was needed especially for siege agriculture. Groups of specialized craft manufacturers (cloth dyers, weavers, potters, and the like) were organized into special quarters, the enterprises often being family-based and inherited. Roads from the gates ran into the central market and the administrative headquarters. Cemeteries were outside the city gates.

The concentration of wealth, prestige, political power, and religious learning in the cities attracted large numbers of migrants, both from the neighboring countryside and from distant regions. This influx occasioned the building of additional sections of the city to accommodate these strangers. In many of the northern cities, these areas were separated between sections for the distant, often non-Muslim migrants not subject to the religious and other prohibitions of the emir, and for those who came from the local region and were subjects of the emir. The former area was designated the "Sabon Gari," or new town (which in southern cities, such as Ibadan, has often been shortened to "Sabo"), while the latter was often known as the "Tudun Wada," an area often quite wealthy and elaborately laid out. To the precolonial sections of the town was often added a government area for expatriate administrators. The result was that many of the northern cities have grown from a single centralized core to being polynucleated cities, with areas whose distinctive character

reflected their origins, and the roles and position of their inhabitants.

By 1990, the inner close settled zone around Kano, and the largest of its kind, extended to a radius of about thirty kilometers, essentially the limit of a day trip to the city on foot or by donkey. Within this inner zone, there has long been a tradition of intensive interaction between the rural and urban populations, involving not just food but also wood for fuel, manure, and a range of trade goods. There has also been much land investment and speculation in this zone. The full range of Kano's outer close settled zone in 1990 was considered to extend sixty-five to ninety-five kilometers from the city, and the rural-urban interactions had extended in distance and increased in intensity because of the great improvements in roads and in the availability of motorized transport. Within this zone, the great majority of usable land was under annual rainy season or continuous irrigated cultivation, making it one of the most intensively cultivated regions in sub-Saharan Africa. In areas such as south-eastern Nigeria, which had few urban centers before the colonial period, there was a massive growth of new cities since 1915, so that these areas in 1960 were quite urban and had become highly so by the late 1990 (Odoemene, 2007). Some of these urban areas in the southeast are Enugu and Port Harcourt. Enugu experienced the phenomenon of urbanisation as thoroughly as Port Harcourt, but their experiences and trajectories have been uniquely different – in scale, pervasiveness, and historical antecedents.

In the south, there were some similarities of origin and design in the forest and southern savanna cities of Yorubaland, but culture, landscape, and history generated a very different character for most of these cities. As in the north, the earlier Yoruba towns often centered around the palace of a ruler, or *afin*, which was surrounded by a large open space and a market. This arrangement was still evident in older cities such as Ife. However, many of the most important contemporary Yoruba cities, including the largest, Ibadan, were founded during the period of the Yoruba wars in the first half of the nineteenth century. Reflecting their origins as war camps, they usually contained multiple centers of power without a single central palace. Instead, the main market often assumed the central position in the original town, and there were several separate areas of important compounds established by the major original factions. Abeokuta, for example, had three main chiefly families from the Egba clan who had broken away from and become important rivals of Ibadan. Besides these divisions were the separate areas built for stranger migrants, such as Sabo in Ibadan, where many of the Hausa migrants resided; the sections added during the colonial era, often as government reserve areas (GRAs); and the numerous areas of postcolonial expansion, generally having little or no planning.

The high population densities typically found in Yoruba cities--and even in rural villages in Yorubaland--were among the striking features of the region. This culturally based pattern was probably reinforced during the period of intense intercity warfare, but it persisted in most areas through the colonial and independence periods. The distinctive Yoruba pattern of densification involved filling in compounds with additional rooms, then adding a second, third, or sometimes even a fourth story. Eventually, hundreds of people might live in a space that

had been occupied by only one extended family two or three generations earlier. Fueling this process of densification were the close connections between rural and urban dwellers, and the tendency for any Yoruba who could afford it to maintain both urban and rural residences.

The colonial government, in addition to adding sections to existing cities, also created important new urban centers in areas where there previously had been none. Among the most important were Kaduna, the colonial capital of the Protectorate of Northern Nigeria, and Jos in the central highlands, which was the center of the tin mining industry on the plateau and a recreational town for expatriates and the Nigerian elite. These new cities lacked walls but had centrally located administrative buildings and major road and rail transport routes, along which the main markets developed. These routes became one of the main forces for the cities' growth. The result was usually a basically linear city, rather than the circular pattern largely based on defensive needs, which characterized the earlier indigenous urban centers.

The other ubiquitous colonial addition was the segregated GRA, consisting of European-style housing, a hospital or nursing station, and educational, recreational, and religious facilities for the British colonials and the more prominent European trading community. The whole formed an expatriate enclave, which was deliberately separated from the indigenous Nigerian areas, ostensibly to control sanitation and limit the spread of diseases such as malaria. After independence, these areas generally became upper income suburbs, which sometimes spread outward into surrounding farmlands as well as inward to fill in the space that formerly separated the GRA from the rest of the city. New institutions, such as university campuses, government office complexes, hospitals, and hotels, were often located outside or on the fringes of the city in the 1980s. The space that originally separated them from the denser areas was then filled in as further growth occurred.

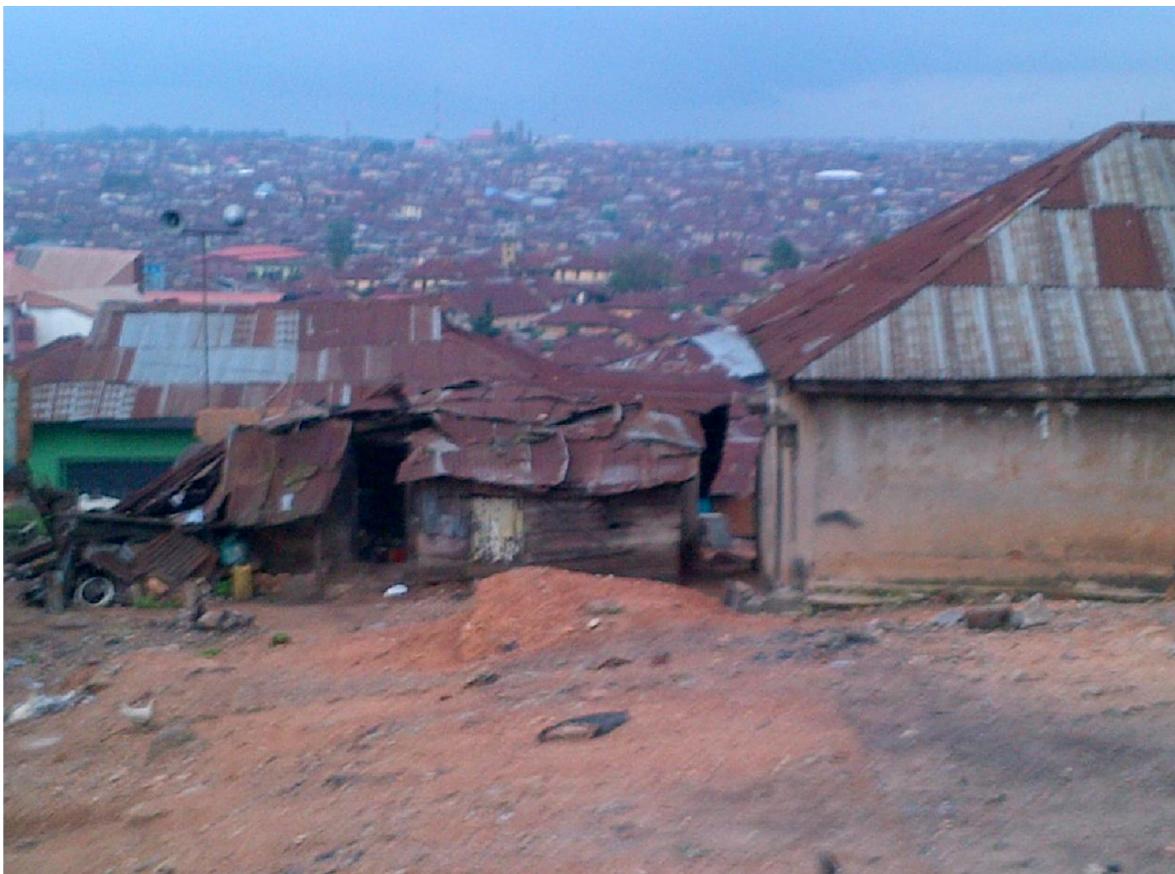
Challenges of Urban sector in Less developed countries (LDCs)

However, the emerging urban sector of the Less developed countries (LDCs) is led instead into disproportionate metropolitan growth, converging in relative size but diverging in pattern to that of developed countries (Acquaye 1987). Rural- Urban drift has been observed to be the major cause of the phenomenon, which is occasioned by the lack of employment opportunities, adequate infrastructural facilities and services, schools and industrial establishments in the rural areas. Population shift from rural to urban areas is accompanied by social and economic changes. The urban cities offer many amenities and economies of scale that lowers the cost of providing public services and urban residents normally have better and higher educational levels, higher income, lower fertility, better health and longer life than the rural dwellers. Stearns and Mabogunje (2004) posits that because of the uncontrolled density of the urban city, the urban environments seem unable to support the healthy human population at tolerable levels of stress and the provision of rich social and cultural opportunities. Furthermore, man has created urban complexes at odds with his behavioral and perceptual patterns which are increasingly dependent on it.



Source: Authors field observation (2013).

Plate 2. Showing views of urban complexes in Ibadan (bere Area)



Source: Authors field observation (2013).

Plate 3. Showing views of urban complexes in Ibadan (bere Area)

Generally, urbanisation is characterized as a phenomenon at which changes occur in the proportion of the population of a nation living in urban places. It refers to the process of settlements becoming urban and thus ceasing to be rural (Olotuah, 2009). Therefore, urbanisation results from the multiplication of points of concentrations on the other hand and an increase in the number of concentration points on the other. The most notorious example of urban growth in Nigeria has undoubtedly been Lagos, its most important commercial center. The city has shot up in size since the 1960s; its annual growth rate was estimated at almost 14 percent during the 1970s, when the massive extent of new construction was exceeded only by the influx of migrants attracted by the booming prosperity. Acknowledged to be the largest city in sub-Saharan Africa (although an accurate count of its population must await census results), Lagos has become legendary for its congestion and other urban problems. Essentially built on poorly drained marshlands, the city commonly had flooding during the rainy season, and there was frequent sewage backup, especially in the poorer lowland sections. Aside from Lagos, the most rapid recent rates of urbanization in the 1980s were around Port Harcourt in the Niger Delta region, which was at the heart of the oil boom, and generally throughout the Igbo and other areas of the southeast. These regions historically had few urban centers, but numerous large cities, including Onitsha, Owerri, Enugu, Aba, and Calabar, grew very rapidly as commercial and administrative centers. The Yoruba southwest was by 1990 still the most highly urbanized part of the country, while the middle belt was the least urbanized. The problems of Lagos, as well as the desire for a more centrally located capital that would be more of a force for national unity, led to the designation in 1976 of a site for a new national capital at Abuja.

The dynamics of urbanisation is seen as a state of urban squalidness and over crowdedness, characterized by dilapidated structures, poor sanitary conditions, and inadequate provision of amenities and general deterioration of urban environment. The planning for urbanisation has practically become a misnomer. In these cities, planning has been lagging behind the rate of urban developments' (Kok and Gelderblom, 1994: 1-3). Fadamiro and Atolagbe,(2005:9) concluded that urbanisation as a complex process of social change and a recent phenomenon in the history of man has overtime had devastating consequences on human lives and environment in general. Diogu and Onibokun (1992) opined that urbanisation involves the concentration of population, lost of natural space and expansion of living spaces. However, with the growth of architecture came also the growth of urban areas. Urban areas have become very complex and difficult to control having been characterized by a variety of functions associated with social, cultural, industrial, religious and administrative activities (Okpoechi, 2005).

Above all, urban cities have been defined by various researchers on the basis of its size, legal status or socio-cultural characteristics. Some definitions include:

- A community with a population of 200 or more in Denmark, 1000 in Canada, 2000 in France, 2500 in the USA, 3500 in Britain, 5000 in India, 20,000 in Nigeria,

10,000 in Spain and Switzerland, 30,000 in Japan and 40,000 in South Korea (Fadamiro and Atolagbe, 2005)

- A relatively large dense and permanent settlement of socially heterogeneous individual (Diogu and Okonkwo, 2005)
- A community of substantial size and population density that shelter a variety of non- agricultural specialties, including literate elite.
- An administrative, religious, political and economic center of all the territory of the tribe whose name is customarily toot (Okpoechi, 2005; Mabogunje, 2004).

The problems and challenges posed by the rapid urban growth in Nigeria are immense. More easily observable and perhaps very frightening are the general human and environmental poverty, the declining quality of life and the underutilized as well as the untapped wealth of human resources. Housing and associated facilities (such as water, electricity, waste disposal) are grossly inadequate. Millions live in substandard environments called slums, plagued by squalor and grossly inadequate social amenities, such as, a shortage of schools, poor health facilities and lack of opportunities for recreation among others. Juvenile delinquency and crime have become endemic in urban areas as a result of the gradual decline of traditional social values and the breakdown of family cohesiveness and community spirit.

Rural-Urban Linkages

Cities in Nigeria, as elsewhere, have historically exerted potent influences on the countryside. The northern city-states played a major role in the distribution of human population and economic activity throughout the savanna region. As citadels and centers of power and conquest, they caused depopulation in some regions, notably those subject to conquest and raiding, and population concentration in other areas. The low populations of the middle belt savanna probably resulted from the raiding and the conquests of the Hausa and Fulani city-states. The subsequent regrowth of bush land is thought to have led to a resurgence of tsetse flies and other disease vectors, which inhibited attempts to repopulate the region. The complementary effect was to increase population in zones of relative security, either areas under the protection of the dominant political states or areas of refuge, such as hill masses, which were difficult for armed horsemen to conquer. The areas under the control or influence of major city-states would have been economically oriented toward those centers, both through the coercive exaction of taxes or tribute and through the production of food and manufactured products for the court and urban population. Many of these economic factors were replicated in the modern experience of urbanization, although one major change, dating from the imposition of British colonialism in the north, was the removal of the insecurity caused by warring polities.

Although there are similarities to this northern savanna pattern in the historical impact of Yoruba urbanization, the very different nature of the Yoruba cities led to a distinctive pattern of rural interaction. Yoruba cities traditionally had attached to them satellite villages or hamlets, the inhabitants of which considered themselves as belonging to that city, although most

of their lives were spent outside the cities and their livelihoods derived from farming or other rural activities. The resulting close connection between urban dwellers and the surrounding farmers, indeed the fact that they were often identical in that urban dwellers also had farms in which they lived for much of the year, was noted by early European travelers to Yorubaland. Even in 1990, many Yoruba urban dwellers owned farms within a reasonable distance from the city and worked them regularly. Moreover, many villagers owned houses, rooms, or partly completed structures in nearby towns or cities and divided their time, investments, and activities between urban and rural settings. Thus, the traditional pattern of urban-rural interconnections continued to be a deeply rooted facet of Yoruba culture.

Among the most important interactions between rural and urban areas through the 1980s in Nigeria and most other parts of Africa were the demographic impacts of urban migration on rural areas. Because the great majority of migrants were men of working age, the rural areas from which they came were left with a demographically unbalanced population of women, younger children, and older people. This phenomenon was not new to Nigeria and had been evident in parts of the country since long before independence. The 1953 census showed that the crowded rural regions of Igboland, among other areas, had already experienced a substantial migration of men, leaving a large preponderance of women in the prime working ages. In what is today Imo State, for example, the sex ratio (i.e., the ratio of men to women, multiplied by 100) for the zero to fourteen age-group in 1953 was 100.2, but for ages fifteen to forty-nine, it fell to 79.1, indicating a large surplus of females. Many of the male Igbo migrants left to work in the cities of the north and southwest. Although the civil war subsequently caused many Igbos to return to the southeast, the overall scale and geographic extent of rural-urban migration in the country had increased steadily after the war. Urban population growth can actually be disaggregated into three categories: natural growth, domestic migration and international migration. But for the purpose of this paper, concentration is on the domestic migration which involves the movement of people within the country and mostly the rural-urban migration. Most Nigerian cities face the problems of not properly planned and not prepared for urbanization (Aluko, 2010).

Migration was strongly stimulated by the oil boom of the 1970s, with all of the opportunities that era brought for making one's fortune in cities such as Lagos, Port Harcourt, and Warri, as well as others that were indirectly affected by the oil economy. Since then, migration has waxed and waned with the state of the economy. In the late 1980s, many young people were compelled by the sharp downturn of the economy and the shortage of urban employment to return to their home villages. As a longer-term phenomenon, however, migration from the rural areas, especially by young men, was expected to be an accelerating and largely irreversible social process. This process affected the rural economy in the areas of migration by creating marked changes in the gender division of labor. In most of Africa, agricultural labor 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 left the rural areas, the resulting labor gap

was met by others, usually wives or children, or by hired labor--or the tasks were modified or not performed. The departure of men helped to generate a lively market for rural wage labor. In many areas in 1990, male and female laborers were commonly hired to perform agricultural tasks such as land preparation, weeding, and harvesting, which in the past were done either by household labor or traditional work parties. In turn, the growth in demand for hired labor fostered an increase of seasonal and longer term intrarural migration. The improvement of roads was also extremely important in stimulating the scale of seasonal labor migration. It became feasible, for example, for Hausa and other northern workers to come south to work as hired laborers in the cocoa belt and elsewhere at the onset of the rains and later return to their home villages in time to plant their own crops.

In more remote areas, however, finding hired workers was often difficult. The absence of men 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 was much male migration, thickly overgrown land that had been left fallow for extended periods would not be cleared for cultivation; instead, the same parcels were used repeatedly, leading to rapid declines in soil fertility and yields. As a result, land degradation also occurred in these low density areas.

Some of the most profound impacts of urban areas on the rural economy derived from the vast increase in food demand generated by the growth of cities. Both the amounts and types of foods consumed by urban populations helped to transform agricultural systems and practices. Cassava, corn, and fresh vegetable production especially benefited from the expansion of urban demand. Cassava tubers can be processed by fermenting, grating, and drying to produce a powdered product known as *gari*, which can be stored and is very suitable for cooking in urban settings. Especially throughout the southern parts of the country, *gari* demand grew rapidly with the expansion of urban populations, causing a large increase in cassava planting and processing, largely done by women as a cottage industry. Demand for and production of corn also increased significantly. In the early portion of the harvest season, fresh corn sold as roadside "fast food" became a highly profitable endeavor, especially in cities. Throughout the northern areas of the country, corn production for dried grain--most of which was grown for sale to urban areas--also expanded rapidly through the 1980s, supplementing or replacing some of the traditional sorghum and millet production. The expansion of commercial chicken and egg production, also largely for the urban market, further raised demand for corn as feed.

The expansion and improvement of the transport network in the 1970s and 1980s played a key role in tying urban markets to rural producing regions. This linkage was most critical for fresh vegetable production, which previously was very limited in geographical extent but became feasible and profitable in many areas once efficient transport connections to urban areas were established. The continued growth of urbanization and expansion of transport capacity were likely to be the major driving forces of agricultural production and modernization through the 1990s.

However, the unprecedented population growth in urban areas resulting from rural-urban migration and relatively reduced mortality over the past 50 years strained the capacity of these LDCs to provide basic services and infrastructure for all, but the most privileged residents. As a consequence of this inability and the unrestricted rural –urban migration, UN-HABITAT research in 2004 noted that nearly 1 billion people or 32% of the global urban population languish in slums which are mostly LDCs. (Tibaijuka 2004:3). In 1931 for instance, less than 7 per cent of Nigerians lived in urban centres, that is settlements with populations of 20,000 and above. The proportion rose to 10 per cent in 1952 and to 19.2 per cent in 1963 (see Tables 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3).

The unusual process of urbanisation and the inability of the system to control the process promoted the insurgence of slums and their gradual developments in all the cities of these LDCs. (Mabogunje, 2004; Olotuah, 2000; Diogu and Okonkwo 2005).

Table 1.1 Population of Nigeria, 1921-2020

Year	Total Population (000's)	Total Urban Population (000's)	Percentage of Total Population	No. of Cities with Population 100,000	No. of Cities with Population 200,000 and above	No. of Cities with Population 500,000
1921	18,720	890	4.8	-	10	-
1931	20,056	1,343	6.7	2	24	-
1952/54	30,402	3,701	10.2	7	54	-
1963	55,670	10,702	19.2	24	185	2
1972	78,924	19,832	25.1	38	302	3
1984	96,684	31,902	33.0	62	356	14
2020	160,000		68.0	132	680	36

Source : Adapted from <http://books.openedition.org/infra>. (Federal Office of Statistics (1952, 1963) and projections by Onibokun based on 5 % annual growth rate for urban areas, 2.5 % for rural areas, and 10 % for state capitals).

Table 1.2 Nigeria's Rural and Urban Population, 1950-2025

Year	Rural Population	Urban Population	Urban Population as % of Total
1950	29,595,000	3,340,000	10.1
1955	32,605,000	4,489,000	12.1
1960	36,220,000	6,058,000	14.3
1965	40,396,000	8,280,000	17.0
1970	45,252,000	11,319,000	20.0
1975	50,835,000	15,511,000	23.4
1980	57,188,000	21,242,000	27.1
1985	63,448,000	28,568,000	30.9
1990	70,383,000	38,159,000	35.2
1995	77,533,000	50,162,000	39.3
2000	84,853,000	64,768,000	43.3
2005	91,960,000	82,347,000	47.2
2010	98,435,000	102,831,000	51.1
2015	103,411,000	125,343,000	54.8
2020	106,458,000	148,935,000	58.3
2025	107,758,000	173,135,000	61.6

Source : Adapted from <http://books.openedition.org/infra>. (Federal Office of Statistics (1952, 1963) and projections by Onibokun based on 5 % annual growth rate for urban areas, 2.5 % for rural areas, and 10 % for state capitals).

Table 1.3 Percentage of Population Residing in Urban Areas in the World, Africa and Nigeria, 1950-2025

Year	World	Africa	Nigeria
1950	29.2	14.5	10.1
1955	31.2	16.3	12.1
1960	34.2	18.3	14.4
1965	35.5	20.6	17.0
1970	36.6	22.9	20.0
1975	37.8	25.2	23.4
1980	39.5	27.8	27.1
1985	42.2	30.6	31.0
1990	45.2	33.9	35.2
1995	48.1	37.3	39.3
2000	51.1	40.7	43.3
2005	53.9	44.0	47.2
2010	59.3	50.7	54.8
2020	62.0	53.9	58.3
2025	64.6	57.1	61.6

Source : Adapted from <http://books.openedition.org/infra>. (Federal Office of Statistics (1952, 1963) and projections by Onibokun based on 5 % annual growth rate for urban areas, 2.5 % for rural areas, and 10 % for state capitals).

Mabogunje, (2004) emphasized that urbanisation in Africa countries has been so rapid in the last 50 years that it has defeated any attempt to control or direct it through the use of urban planning and concluded that by the year 2025AD, more than half of the population of African continent will be living in urban centers. Furthermore, by the year 2030AD, the number of slum dwellers in LDCs is projected to double today's figure of 1billion and hit the 2billion mark, making the cauldron of misery and the potentials for social unrest as twice as great as it is today. Therefore, there is a need to reinterpret housing and lifestyle requirements as dictated by the current dynamic or living, working and socializing situation of life even within the existing static city center, building and environmental conditions.

It is against this background that these prevailing urban situation call for urgent action as the urban centers suffer deterioration of infrastructure and services such as electricity, water, telecommunication, roads, sewerage and drainage. In order to arrest the drift from rural areas to urban centres, greater emphasis and a higher priority should be placed on the establishment of rural industries, the creation of other forms of employment and the provision of more adequate infrastructural and other services in the rural areas. In addition, there should be integrated national programmes for spatial distribution of population, and to this effect, priority consideration should always be given to the preparation of natural physical plan which will make provision for a more equitable system of distribution of development in all areas. Another way to avert the rural-urban drift is to eradicate the impression that rural dwellers are mainly farmers who cannot enjoy other basic facilities of life. Rural areas should be made attractive with incentives to site industries, provide conducive environment for the enjoyment of other basic necessities of life.

Architecture and Housing in the face of urbanization

The quality of the human habitat is the central issue in Architecture and the primary concern of Architecture is to promote an orderly development of human environment with a particular regard to the function of Architecture for effective shaping, re-ordering and articulation of the built environment. Thus, the goal of architecture is the provision of generational knowledge for research opportunities which is geared towards the improvement of quality of human environment. Research in Housing is very imperative since it is the total environment in which man lives and grows and is a sine qua non (essential condition) for his existence. **Olotuah (2009)** submitted that, Architecture should be based on the knowledge of people's needs and without research scholarship and a vigorous knowledge base, the profession (Architecture) cannot take stand on significant health, economic, social, political or ethical issues. Therefore, the incorporation of affordable housing is not an exception in the face of urbanization.

biological (clean air and water) psychological (satisfaction, contentment, prestige, privacy, choice, freedom, security) and social (interaction with others, human development and cultural activities) needs and is beneficial for his development in this regard. Housing transcends the physical dimension of shelter but includes the general environment within which the structure is located and the availability of essential social services and infrastructural facilities which ultimately ensure satisfaction of the user population. In view of the enormous importance of housing to man, it has been adopted as an unquestionable right of the individual by the United Nations (**UN, 1971**). In this regard, every citizen deserves access to adequate housing without hindrance whatsoever. The role of the state is to provide an enabling environment for housing provision, while ensuring that the right to adequate housing is respected and ultimately fulfilled (**Olotuah, 2009**).



Source: Authors field survey 2014.

Plate 4. A typical housing quality in one of the slum Area in Ibadan



Source: Author's field survey 2014.

Plate 5. A view of the slum area in Ibadan Nigeria

Housing growth and Quality in Nigeria

The rapid growth in population will create demand for shelter and efficient supply and distribution of basic utilities and services for the city dwellers. The effect of the explosion from the population growth will manifest in overcrowding in houses. Nigeria being one of the fastest urbanizing countries in the African continent faces a huge challenge of adequately providing affordable housing to its citizenry. As more and more Nigerians make towns and cities their homes, the resulting social, economic, environmental and housing need should be urgently addressed (**Olotuah, 2000**). A study of the housing situation in Nigeria put existing housing stock at 23 per 1000 inhabitants whilst housing deficit is put at 16 million houses, and about 12 trillion Naira will be required to finance the housing deficit.

According to **Aigbavboa (2013)**, Housing needs are considerable in Nigeria, the deficit is currently estimated at over 14 to 16 million units (**UN-Habitat, 2008**); if put in monetary terms, it will amount to four times the annual national budget of Nigeria Housing is a reflection of the cultural, social and economic values of a society. As a subset of traditional architecture, it evolves from the culture of a community in accordance with the life styles of its people, the materials of construction available and technical possibilities open to them (**Olotuah, 2009**). Therefore housing is a fundamental need for dignified living and it represents a major area of deprivation for the urban poor. The rate of population growth has evaded the rate of provision of new housing stock in Nigeria thereby, being responsible for the formation of slums, growth of squatter settlements and unaffordable high rent beyond the limit of the poor. Housing quality is often evaluated in terms of quality of design, building materials, standard of construction and the provision and performance of public amenities. The satisfaction of the user population with the housing stock and its environment exudes a general sense of well-being as an important determinant of housing quality. The evaluation of housing quality is determined by the extent at which it satisfies or frustrates the needs of its users. Deteriorating urban environmental conditions and their life-long implications on quality of life have become significant aspects of debates and discussions. Towns and cities in developing countries like Nigeria are growing rapidly (**World Bank, 2005**). In the urban areas, the pace and scale of growth have outstripped the capacity to maintain acceptable standards of public health, physical infrastructural development, environmental safety and sustainable economic growth, thereby, reducing housing quality and quality of life in general.

Quality of Life in the face of Urbanisation

The term 'Quality of life' is used to evaluate the general well-being of individuals and societies but its meaning is very complex, very comprehensive and varies with time and the person's beliefs. The quality of life has to do with how people live, feel and understand their daily lives. This includes aspects such as health, education, housing, employment and participation in decisions. **Mabogunje (2004)** notes that quality of life is a term that has emerged as a concept of living

conditions, health and physical safety, mental and social ability. However, definitions of quality of life have also been diverse. It has to do with how one sees himself and the community.

Nevertheless, the wide range of definition can be categorized into three major philosophical approaches to determining the quality of life (**Brock, 1993**). The first approach describes characteristics of the quality of life that are dictated by normative ideals based on philosophical, belief and other systems. This approach to quality of life depend neither on the subjective experience of people nor on the fulfillment of their wishes. The second approach to defining the quality of life is based on the satisfaction of preferences. Thus, in this tradition, the definition of the quality of life of a society is based on whether the citizens can obtain the things they desire. The third definition of quality of life is in terms of the experience of individuals. In this approach, factors such as feelings of joy, pleasure, contentment, and life satisfaction are paramount.

Indicators of Quality of Life

Quality is a product of subjective judgment which arises from the overall perception which the individual holds towards what is seen as the significant elements at a particular point in time. In assessing quality of life, social indicators such as health and levels of crime, subjective well-being measures (assessing people's evaluative reactions to their lives and societies), cultural and economic indices are very important. However, indicators of quality of life can be categorized as follows: land use and infrastructure, natural environment, health and wellness, economic wellbeing, education and lifelong learning, public wellbeing, arts and cultural vitality, civic engagement, enrichment and innovation.

Measurement of Quality of Life

Two new scientific approaches to measuring quality of life have been introduced as: objective or social indicators and the measurement of subjective well-being (SWB). Findings in social indicator and subjective well-being research have direct relevance to the fundamental concerns of societies and individuals. Therefore, Social indicators and subjective well-being measures are based on different definitions of quality of life.

Social indicators are societal measures that reflect people's objective circumstances in a given cultural or geographic unit. The symbol of social indicators is that, they are based on objective, quantitative statistics rather than on individuals' subjective perceptions of their social environment. Housing satisfaction is a vital indicator of quality of life. Objectivity is one of the strength of social indicators. These indicators usually can be relatively easily defined and quantified without relying heavily on individual perceptions. Also, strength of social indicators is that, they often reflect the normative ideals of a society.

Social indicators however, suffer from several weaknesses. Firstly, social indicators are fallible, although, they are thought to be objective. They are often contaminated by measurement

problems. Another limitation of social indicators is the inevitable role of subjective decisions in selecting and measuring the variables.

Housing Quality

Housing quality has to do with the physical conditions of the housing units in a particular area in terms of the structural soundness or fitness (Agbola, 2001). Ventilation as well as essential facilities such as water, electricity, telephone services, toilet, bathroom, and kitchen however, describes the state, nature or standard of housing with respect to minimum or acceptable standards (Onibokun, 1982). As a result of urbanization and lack of economic opportunities in rural areas, many people move to the cities. They move to the cities that are already dealing with issues of overcrowding, infrastructure and high cost of living. This forces them to seek shelter in slums. United Nation Habitat in 2006 found that 90% of slum residents are in the developing countries with struggling economies.

According to Agbola (2001), at least, four conditions must be satisfied before one can have a decent, safe, quality and habitable housing. These are:

- Physiological needs: This is the house environment; the house must particularly provide adequate privacy, clean air and adequate natural and artificial light as well as adequate space for playing and outdoor living.
- Psychological needs: The house must provide adequate opportunity for normal family and community life, easy movement within the house and outdoor living.
- Protection against accidents: The house must be properly constructed to prevent fire accidents, protection against electricity, defects and gas poison, injuries at home and traffic hazards.
- Protection against disease: The house must give protection against diseases through provision of pure water supply, toilet facilities, food storage facilities and sleeping spaces.

The problems of housing and its quality in Nigeria are enormous and complex, exhibiting apparent and marked regional differences. The quality of housing in Nigeria is said to be falling below the levels of norms, because of poor or lack of access to facilities. However, housing quality is determined by a number of factors, the most significant is income.

The level of income is one of the factors that determine the types and quality of housing a household obtains in any given housing market (Helibrum, 1981). Poverty is also, a major determinant in the provision of a house with good condition. For example, a low income earner is used to having a large family; the effect is that, so much is spent on feeding and clothing that nothing can be saved from the income for housing. Such household is known as cost burden household who cannot afford to pay for a decent accommodation and often pay through the nose to live in a substandard house (UNCHS, 1990).

On the part of the developer, landlord or the provider of housing, the type and quality of housing thus provided, depends on the vision, imagination, exposure and

enlightenment of such developer; his/her financial resources and perception of the minimum standard. Housing quality required for housing to be a conducive environment is another important factor. Many landlords in Nigeria do not care as to whether they provide good quality housing or not. For the greedy or shylock ones, what matters is the rent accruable from the properties; whether they are of high quality or not. That is why many still engage in the construction of rooming houses (face me I face you type of building) up till this day because housing quality means little or nothing to them.

Recommendation and Conclusion

The impact of rapid population growth on urban development and conditions is far more than merely a demographic or quantitative one. Whereas the urbanization process in the developed countries was the result of rapid industrialization. The urbanization in Nigeria like most other developing nations is a consequence of the "push" of the rural areas and the "pull" of the town. The majority of African urban centres developed and continues to develop as commercial-administrative and servicing entities. Therefore in order to arrest the drift from rural areas to urban centres, greater emphasis and a higher priority should be placed on the establishment of rural industries, the creation of other forms of employment and the provision of more adequate infrastructural and other services in the rural areas. In addition, there should be integrated national programmes for spatial distribution of population, and to this effect, priority consideration should always be given to the preparation of natural physical plan which will make provision for a more equitable system of distribution of development in all areas. Another way to avert the rural-urban drift is to eradicate the impression that rural dwellers are mainly farmers who cannot enjoy other basic facilities of life. Rural areas should be made attractive with incentives to site industries, provide conducive environment for the enjoyment of other basic necessities of life. The paper had examined the dynamics of urbanisation and development in Nigeria and further assesses the implications of these for their sustainable development. This paper discusses the incidence of poor housing quality in Nigeria and the negative effects emanating from it. It notes the occurrence of rapid rate of urbanisation occurring in the country, the consequences of which have been severely degenerated urban environment. The study is concerned not only with the causes, but also the effects and nature of urbanisation and development in the cities of Nigeria.

The need for this is evidenced in the widely held suggestions that urban populations will continue to grow much faster than rural populations, even if the urban bias in development strategies were reversed. Thus, the many implications of urbanisation and development, especially as authentic African experiences, should be examined for a deeper understanding of the challenges and proffering of creative solutions. It is my belief that if these recommendations are implemented that our cities will grow in an environmentally harmonious way. Further unplanned growth and decay would be checked and prevented. These measures would prevent poor housing quality, save our built environment and improve the life expectancy of the average Nigerian.

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