



The shift in the architecture of the Nigerian cities: the case of rural to urban migration and the consequences in the Built Environment

Obiadi Bons,

Department of Architecture, Faculty of Environmental Sciences Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Anambra State, Nigeria

Onuorah Ikenna,

Department of Architecture, Faculty of Environmental Sciences Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Anambra State, Nigeria

Mba Paschal,

Department of Architecture, Faculty of Environmental Sciences Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Anambra State, Nigeria

Okafor Calistus,

Department of Architecture, Faculty of Environmental Sciences Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Anambra State, Nigeria

Kikanmen I. Emmanuel

Department of Architecture, Faculty of Environmental Sciences Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Anambra State, Nigeria

samplefiye@gmail.com

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Abstract: Nigeria has in existence, adverse economic inequality and injustice within the cities and they are affecting the areas built environment and resulting in urbanization. Nigerian urbanization is growing more than the country's urban development vis-à-vis housing and economic resources, hence 'spatial dialectics'. Within every Nigeria's city space is the spatial housing characterized by informal volumetric and unvolumetric combination now called the 'spatial house', 'open house' or 'house without limit. Almost all the Nigerian city's Master Plan was poorly implemented and that resulted in urban development embarrassments. This paper investigated and documented the problems associated with inappropriate

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implementation of the communities Master Plans and adopted content base analysis that emphasized the opinions of others. It is common in most Nigerian planning and regulatory office to see nonprofessional used in implementing the Master Plan and it is the recommendation of this paper to disallow that. The poor implementation of the cities Master Plans, led to dismal miscommunication problems and economic divide within the cities and the cities lacked integrity, inclusion of all and shared prosperity. They lacked inclusive economic growth incentives and not sustainable.

Introduction

Looking at cities can give a special pleasure, however commonplace the sight may be. Like a piece of architecture, the city is a construction in space, but one of vast scale, a thing perceived only in the course of long spans of time. At every instance, there is more than the eyes can see, more than the ear can hear, a setting or a view waiting to be explored. Nothing is experienced by itself, but always in relation to its surroundings, the sequences of events leading up to it, the memories of past experiences. Every citizen has had long association with some part of his city, and his image is soaked in memories and

meanings (Lynch, 1985: 1). A good example is the Vatican City (plate 1) that is located at the banks of the Tiber River, on a hill and has remained a major landmark, a center and a tourist attraction. The City is very influential and rich in history. Although a religious center, Vatican City's paintings, sculpture and architecture, created during the Golden years by revered artists, people such as Raphael, Sandro Botticelli and Michelangelo still remain attractive (Vatican City, 2015) and the attractions could be seen from the gravitations by visitors to the Sistine Chapel and St Peter's basilica. The city is an enclave linked with urban armatures and has served for centuries as a heterotopia.

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Plate 1. The Vatican City

Source: Vatican city Images, Stock Photos & Vectors | Shutterstock (June 17, 2022)

Moving elements in a city, and in particular the people and their activities, are as important as the stationary physical parts. Not only is the city an object which is perceived (and perhaps enjoyed) by millions of people of widely diverse class and character, but it is the product of many builders who are constantly modifying the structure for reasons of their own (Lynch, 1985:2). The modifications would include the mental image of the city as held by the users and according to Lynch (1985), it will concentrate especially on one particular visual quality: the apparent clarity or "legibility" of the cityscape. The case with which its parts can be recognized and can be organized into a coherent pattern, can be visually grasped as a related pattern of recognizable symbols, so a legible city would be one whole districts or landmarks or pathways are easily identifiable and are easily grouped into over-all pattern.

Within the past decades, the architecture of different cities have gone through changes and according to Shane (2011), different urban actors

in different periods during the last 60 years worked to create different urban models, using the basic urban elements of enclaves, armature and heterotopias. A beautiful and delightful city environment is an oddity, some would say an impossibility (Lynch (1985:2). Although clarity or legibility is by no means the only important property of a beautiful city, it is of special importance when considering environments at the urban scale of size, time, and complexity. To understand this, we must consider not just the city as a thing in itself, but the city being perceived by its inhabitants (Lynch, 1985:3). The lasting impressions of the people living in cities come in different ways. In Nigeria, cities and their communities are filled with filthy environments, leaving lasting and negative impressions on the inhabitants (plates 2 to 7). Virtually every Nigerian city has one or more negatively created areas, creating unpleasant impressions on the people. The changes in that architecture of the streets of Onitsha, Lagos, Ekiti and a list of others

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(plates 2 to 7) are challenging to the residents and negatively affecting their living in the urban areas. The uses of wastes in defacing the architecture of the cities are becoming unbearable, a common practice and the citizens are accepting that as part of their community living.

The rush from the rural areas to the urban areas in Nigeria without adequate infrastructure to support the surging population is putting reasonable pressure on the existing infrastructure. The cities already lacked housing, no municipal water supply, electricity supply, inadequate and poorly equipped schools and

hospitals. With all these, comes urbanization and urbanization has its consequences among which are over crowding residential areas, slumps, indiscriminate dumping of municipal waste on the streets corners and in the water ways as seen detailed on plates 1 to 7. The consequences of these wastes dump sites on the streets of the Nigerian cities are overwhelming and leaving negative impression on the people, giving credence to Lynch (1985:3) that, we must consider not just the city as a thing in itself, but the city being perceived by its inhabitants.



Plate 2. Onitsha Street Garbage dump site

Source: CNN.com, <https://www.legit.ng/1199548-top-ten-dirtiest-states-nigeria.html> Retrieved August 12, 2021

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Plate 3. Onitsha Street Garbage dump site

Source: CNN.com, <https://www.legit.ng/1199548-top-ten-dirtiest-states-nigeria.html> Retrieved August 12, 2021



Plate 4. Onitsha city garbage

Source: Cnn.com, <https://www.legit.ng/1199548-top-ten-dirtiest-states-nigeria.html> Retrieved August 12, 2021

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Plate 5. Lagos garbage

Source: Opinion.premiumtimesng.com, <https://www.legit.ng/1199548-top-ten-dirtiest-states-nigeria.html> Retrieved August 12, 2021



Plate 6. Ekiti State waste dump site

Source: CLTS organization (Community-Led Total Sanitation) Retrieved August 12, 2021

Environmental images are the result of a two-way process between the observer and his environment (Lynch, 1985:3). There seems to be a public image of any given city which is the

overlap of many individual images. The content of the city images, which are referable to physical forms, can conveniently be classified into five

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types of elements: paths, edges, districts, nodes, and landmarks (Lynch, 1985:46)

Understanding the city is a fundamental and universal human creation. It is a unique center for social life as well as individual and collective fulfillment. The frantic, irreversible urban growth that societies throughout the world have experienced over the past few decades has caused a transformation of cities and agglomerations, which rarely correspond to inhabitants' legitimate needs, expectations and aspirations (Lerner, 2003). Various current movements in urban design seek to create

sustainable urban environments with long-lasting structures, buildings and a great livability for its inhabitants. In Nigeria and especially in the cities, the reverse appears to be the case. Plates 2 to 7 are typical big Nigeria cities' streets with waste covering the areas and huge impediments to free flow of traffic and at the same time, defacing the architecture of the areas. Rapid growth of the cities and the consequences of urbanization are hampering the areas sustainability, both economically and environmentally.



Plate 7. Oguta Road, Onitsha waste collection center

Source: Obiadi (January 28, 2021)

Sustainability has been defined in many different ways however, according to the United Nations 2005 World Summit on Social Development, it is the potential for long-term maintenance of wellbeing, which has ecological, economic, political and cultural dimensions that require the

reconciliation of environmental, social equity and economic demands. It is further indicated that sustainability is studied and managed over many scales (levels or frames of reference) of time and space and in many contexts of environmental, social and economic

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organization. The focus ranges from the total carrying capacity (sustainability) of planet Earth to the sustainability of economic sectors, ecosystems, countries, municipalities, neighborhoods, home gardens, individual lives, individual goods and services, occupations, lifestyles, behavior patterns and so on.

More than 5,000 years have passed since the Urban Revolution and about 180 generations separate us from the origins of the first cities. But neither the purpose nor the structure of cities has changed basically in the five millennia. What have undergone transformation are the complexity of city life and the size of urban communities. When men first cut out a little space from the surrounding land, enclosed it with a wall, and formed a place where they could live without tilling the soil themselves, they gave up their intimate solidarity with nature. A new type of human being was born and with it, from the very beginning, began the antagonism between the country people and the town people. The first cities were small enclosures with small numbers of inhabitants. They were limited in conception and size and reflected on earth man's vision of a limited universe that, like his city, sheltered him (Okonkwo, 2006).

The first root of urbanization could be located at the point when man's conception of the universe changed from the limited geocentric one to the still limited heliocentric ideas of Copernicus, so over the centuries, the urban scale has widened and the limitations have disappeared. Now that the universe is conceived of as unbounded yet not infinite, something similar has happened to our cities: their scale and their size have grown

beyond all expectations into the open country. The old scale has lost its meaning. The first cities arose where and when agriculture was sufficiently advanced to supply food, not alone for the actual producers, but also for those who were not engaged in agriculture. This was the basic prerequisite, for artisans, craftsmen, soldiers, and traders who congregated in the cities. And even if they owned fields outside the city or gardens without it, they produced hardly more than a welcome portion of the food they needed in addition to the supply from full-time farmers (Gutkind, 1964).

In all, the roots of urbanization go deep into human history. The conventional theory was well stated by Lewis Mumford (1961). He identified the first germ of the city in the ceremonial meeting place that serves as a goal for pilgrimage, a site to which early man with his family or clan group is drawn back from his wanderings at seasonable intervals because it concentrates, in addition to any natural advantage it may have, certain spiritual or super natural powers. From periodic meetings a few steps lead to settlement and agriculture, to villages and finally, to a differentiation of villages in terms of concentration of technical and religious power, the seats of power becoming towns' vis-à-vis the villages. In a counter thesis, Jane Jacobs (1969) advanced the claims of the city above those of the village. She argues that historically it was the development of cities that made possible and necessary the development of satellite agricultural villages; that agriculture was indeed "farmed out" from the city to the countryside.

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Whatever its origins and individual peculiarities, an urban center is distinguished most fundamentally by its functions. It is essentially a central place, a center for the mobilization and organization of services for an area. The “basic” urban functions, which generally have to do with administration, commerce, industry, transportation, are facilitated by aggregation. This is in marked contrast to primary production-agriculture, forestry, fishing, mining, extraction and the like – which, spread over favorable sites tied to available sources, is necessarily dispersed (Ukwu, 1980).

Walter Christaller (1966), the pioneer urban theorist whose formulation of the problem remained the most elegant, in modern times, in its logic and simplicity, has likened the process of town formation to “the crystallization” of mass about a nucleus”. The number, scale and variety of facilities and services concentrated about a given nucleus determine its status as a town and reflect the size and character of its hinterland.

For a given region, the historical process of urban development does not depend on a steady uni-directional pattern of concentration and coalescence of urban facilities and services about a number of given centers. Rather it hinges on a series of critical events in the socio-economic organization of the communities, events which create new nuclei or enlarge, change the character, diminish or destroy pre-existing ones, hence, the development of towns or systems of towns tends to be episodic and it is often possible to identify the key events and the phases of urban development associated with them.

Each key event imposes a new set of area relationships and a new functional ordering of centers thereby setting the scene for a new phase in urban development. This phenomenon has underscored urban development processes in Nigeria, more than ever since the colonial period (Okonkwo, 1993). The first new towns were created in Nigeria during the colonial period; and they were not created to absorb population over-spill from oversized urban centers, but rather to satisfy the economic and administrative interests of the colonial masters. It was in this way that Enugu and Jos were founded essentially for the exploitation of coal and tin resources, respectively, and Kaduna for administrative convenience (Mabogunje, 1968). Consequently, in its post-colonial period, many urban centers have come into existence while others have received more growth impetus under the political instrument of state and local government area creation, as well as the reallocation and redistribution of resources under the process of socio-economic restructuring in the country.

Taking Abuja for example, the latest city created in Nigeria that would have adopted urban design principles, Adeponle (2013), observed “that Abuja city is growing faster (13%) than the provisions of its Master Plan.” It is fast turning into an environmental embarrassment, with developments springing up in gross isolation of zoning and other planning codes. Abuja, which was supposed to be an epitome of beauty and an enlightened vision of city development, has suffered over the years from unnecessary

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distortions in the implementation of its Master Plan.

As a result of these changes in the Abuja Master Plan and policy inconsistencies, the Abuja Central City designed to be a model city is not sustainable. It is divided between success and failures, rich and poor. It has potentials to flourish, but in most part, impoverished. The Central City is characterized by urban dialectics, dualistic living and infiltration of the formal settlement areas by informal settlers because of provision of services to the inhabitants of the formal settlement areas. There exist, a clear disparity in the socio-economic base of the two settlements yet, they co-exist. The two settlements co-existing within the formal settlement areas of the Central City are not integrated yet, because of nearness to their jobs and survival, the informal settlers infiltrating the formal settlement areas characterized as the urban poor, find their ways into the formal settlement areas of the Central City. In order to provide services and earn their living, the urban poor, through self-efforts, provide their shelters on government vacant lands, abandoned buildings and on city side-walks. The informal settlement areas within the Central City of Abuja are not integrated into the Central City infrastructure and that is one of the major challenges of the city as a result, promoting urban poor growth that resulted in squatter settlements, infrastructure indistinct, environmental embarrassment as even, is the case in almost all the Nigerian cities, Enugu, Lagos, Kano, Kaduna, Port Harcourt, Awka, Ibadan, etc.

In most cases, these spaces are without spatially distributed objects yet, they are side by side with formal settlements without proper links and visually acceptable urban objects, elements and qualities. The nature of the socioeconomic complexity of these informal spaces, which analysis is shown in paragraph above, constitute a strongly identifiable character which is in this work christened *Spatial Housing*. It is so termed because of the assumption of the public/open space into the provision of the basic (spatial) socioeconomic, psychological, shelter, etc. needs of the urban poor.

Theoretically, this phenomenon is different from those of the destitutes/homeless people in the city. The informal inhabitants are more or less fixed in location (even though improper location) and actively dependent on the socioeconomic activities of the urban economy. To that effect, Nigerian urbanization is growing more than the country's urban development vis-à-vis housing and economic resources. In the formal sense, spaces can be defined and differentiated, however same cannot be said in the informal, hence 'spatial dialectics'. Within the space is the spatial housing characterized by informal volumetric and unvolumetric combination now called the 'spatial house', 'open house' or 'house without limit'.

Abuja been the latest Nigerian city to be established, it will be appropriate and worthy, using the city in buttressing the urban environmental failures of the cities in Nigeria. As it is the case with development implementation in most developing nations, Abuja Master Plan was distorted, following different policy changes

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that affected the city. According to Jibril (2006), “between 1976 and 2003, (a period of 27 years) there had been about four major policy changes affecting resettlement within the FCT.” They are: (1), It was the original intent of the Abuja Master Plan to relocate the inhabitants, occupying the Federal Capital Territory area, however, careful enumeration later revealed that the figure was not ‘few’ – about 150,000 – 300,000 people. Uprooting such a huge population was thought to be unwise and could have delayed the take-off of the project. It was then decided to allow the inhabitants to remain, but could be resettled within the territory, should their places of abode

be affected by city development projects. (2), in some cases, at the time of relocation, plans were canceled for political reasons. While the people affected were fully prepared for movement to the new location, another policy change happened. (3), in preparation for the 2003 general election, the additional security personnel brought into the Federal Capital Territory occupied the buildings under the resettlement scheme (plate 8). These major shifts in policy direction can be said to be the root cause of problems of squatters and Land Administration within the Federal Capital Territory (FCT).



Plate 8. Resettlement village taken over by the Nigerian Police Force (fieldwork 2005)

Source: Jibril (2006)

(4). The derail and distortion of the Abuja Master Plan was also attributed to lack of professional personnel managing and planning the development of Abuja Master Plan. According to

Jibril (2006), "the main cause of the distortions of the Master Plan was the creation of the Ministry of the Federal Capital Territory (MFCT) in 1980 and its being super imposed on the

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Federal Capital Development Authority (FCDA). The Ministry lacked the professional personnel to understand the philosophy of a Master Plan and the need for detailed planning and design to be carried out before the Master Plan could be transformed into construction activities in any part of the City.

In 2003, a Ministerial Committee on Illegal Structures in the FCT was constituted to collate a list of all illegal structures in the FCT and present a strategy for demolition. Interestingly, most of the members of the committee were not professional planners.

(5), The unplanned territorial growth and developments occurring in the Central Area of the City could also be traced back to the governments rush to relocate the government workers from Lagos to Abuja. These problems are as a result of the rushed movement of workers from Lagos to Abuja without adequate provision for accommodation. The result was the emergence of a number of shantytowns and squatter settlements occupied by workers and the growing service population in such places as Karu, Nyanya, Karmo and Gwagwalada. These settlements have grown rapidly and are generally unplanned, overcrowded and lacking basic amenities and infrastructure. Although, many of the rushed housing developments within the city area have had to be demolished, the shanty developments persist in the periphery of Abuja especially as there is still little provision for housing accommodation for the low-income workers within the city (Olaitan, 2004). There are the problems with poor policy implementations in Nigerian cities.

In Nigeria, practically all the government's housing programmes have failed.

- The housing provided by different state governments failed because of inadequacy of housing and good access to the central facilities through a corridor of open spaces and lack of economic connectivity (secondary employment).
- Most of the Nigerian state's Master Plans were prepared such that land use, infrastructure, housing, transportation, recreation, economic and social services were to be coordinated and inter-related (Olaitan, 2004, citing Abba, 2003), but that was not the case during the implementations.
- Much of our daily experience of the city occurs within the collectively shared public spaces, or the public domain. Not only does the public domain provide for most basic of the city's functions, access, but it also provides for and contains many other functions and activities synonymous with urban life. These are lacking and the problems with the Nigerian cities environmental and urban developments.
- Prior to 1973, government activities in public housing had been quite sectional and favored only the working class elites in the society. The poor and low-income were relegated to the background (Olu-Sule, 1988).
- The Nigeria governments housing programmes have not worked. The provided Federal Housing units were developed without adequate economic and municipal service facilities as a result, the housing units are not sustainable and also, inadequate for the Nigerian steaming population. The government's approaches to solving the problems of urban environmental development

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failures and housing inadequacy in Nigeria have not yielded any reliable solution; especially in the area of urban spatial distribution being created by the invasion of the formal by the informal urban dwellers and the abuse of public spaces and urban infrastructure. The major offenders are mostly, the the urban poor without adequate resources to secure decent homes in well surveyed estates, motorist and motorcycle operators; and to start solving them, this work explored sustainable spatial integration and restoration of the urban environmental fronts that will architecturally bridged the gap (spatial solution) between the urban settlers (place of abode) and place of work; implementation of and establishment of workable urban built environmental laws for sustainable spatial built environments in the Nigerian cities.

The Problems with the Nigeria Cities Urban Development and Built Environments

The stampeded relocation of Nigerians from rural to urban areas in search of greener pastures resulted in the dislocation of different states' Master Plan in terms of organized implementations. The consequence of this was the distortion in the planned housing development and lack of adequate urban infrastructure, necessary support facilities and amenities for the surging relocated population. This phenomenon engendered unplanned rapid urbanization which resulted in spontaneous growth of slums, shanty towns and ghetto settlements in the cities and surrounding territories, because no provisions were made for

housing the urban dwellers that surged into the cities. This equally, resulted in informal settlements that consisted partly of the original indigenes of the cities and partly of the new settlers, who were cut up by the urbanization process.

What should be Every Nigerian City's Urban Built Environment Development Aim

To ascertain the extent of distortion in their Master Plans with regards to housing provisions for the urban dwellers, with a view to evolving modalities for sustainable housing provisions, urban environmental design capable of adopting and embracing urban design principles in bridging the gap between the inhabitants of the cities and the city's amenities (infrastructure).

Research Methodology

The authors were careful with the analytical instrument and tools used. The disciplinary area of focus is architecture, or better said, urban development and environmental decay in the Nigerian communities. As a result, this paper investigated and documented the problems associated with inappropriate implementation of the communities Master Plans that resulted in urbanization, housing inadequacy and decay in urban built environment facilities. It adopted content base analysis that emphasized the opinions of others, qualitative research method investigates the *why* and *how* of decision making, not just *what*, *where*, *when*, or "who" was used.

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Urban Design and Architecture in Perspective and the Nigerian Situation

Architecture, urban development and settlements cannot be reasonably discussed without fundamentally, understanding the history of urban design, which ties architecture and urban planning. According to Dalley (1989:120), the history of urban planning focuses on the people, places, concepts, and practices of planning of urban development over time. In the Neolithic period, agriculture and other techniques facilitated larger populations than the very small communities of the Paleolithic, which probably led to the stronger, more coercive governments emerging at that time. The pre-Classical and Classical periods saw a number of cities laid out according to fixed plans, though many tended to develop organically.

Planning and architecture went through a paradigm shift at the turn of the 20th century. The industrialized cities of the 19th century had grown at a tremendous rate, with the pace and style of building largely dictated by private business concerns. The evils of urban life for the working poor were becoming increasingly evident as a matter for public concern. The laissez-faire style of government management of the economy, in fashion for most of the Victorian era, was starting to give way to a New Liberalism that championed intervention on the part of the poor and disadvantaged. Around 1900, theorists began developing urban planning models to mitigate the consequences of the industrial age, by providing citizens, especially factory workers,

with healthier environments (Hall and Tewdwr-Jones, 2010).

The first major urban planning theorist was Sir Ebenezer Howard, who initiated the garden city movement in 1898. This was inspired by earlier planned communities built by industrial philanthropists in the countryside, such as Cadburys' Bournville, Lever's Port Sunlight and George Pullman's eponymous Pullman in Chicago. All these settlements decentralized the working environment from the center of the cities, and provided a healthy living space for the factory workers. Howard generalized this achievement into a planned movement for the country as a whole. He was also influenced by the work of economist Alfred Marshall who argued in 1884 that industry needed a supply of labour that could in theory be supplied anywhere, and that companies have an incentive to improve workers living standards as the company bears much of the cost inflicted by the unhealthy urban conditions in the big cities (Hall and Tewdwr-Jones, 2010).

Howard's ideas, although utopian, were also highly practical and were adopted around the world in the ensuing decades. His garden cities were intended to be planned, self-contained communities surrounded by parks, containing proportionate and separate areas of residences, industry, and agriculture. Inspired by the Utopian novel *Looking Backward* and Henry George's work *Progress and Poverty*, Howard published his book *Garden Cities of To-morrow* in 1898, commonly regarded as the most important book in the history of urban planning (Howard, 1898). His idealized garden city would

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house 32,000 people on a site of 6,000 acres (2,428 ha), planned on a concentric pattern with open spaces, public parks and six radial boulevards, 120 ft (37 m) wide, extending from the center. The garden city would be self-sufficient and when it reached full population, another garden city would be developed nearby. Howard envisaged a cluster of several garden cities as satellites of a central city of 50,000 people, linked by road and rail (Goodall, 1987). In North America, the Garden City movement was also popular, and evolved into the "Neighbourhood Unit" form of development. In the early 1900s, as cars were introduced to city streets for the first time, residents became increasingly concerned with the number of pedestrians being injured by car traffic. The

response, seen first in Radburn, New Jersey, was the Neighbourhood Unit-style development, which oriented houses toward a common public path instead of the street. The neighbourhood is distinctively organized around a school, with the intention of providing children a safe way to walk to school (Christensen, 1986 and Schaffer, 1982). In the 1920s, the ideas of modernism began to surface in urban planning. The influential modernist architect Le Corbusier presented his scheme for a "Contemporary City" for three million inhabitants (Ville Contemporaine) in 1922. The centerpiece of this plan was the group of sixty-story cruciform skyscrapers, steel-framed office buildings encased in huge curtain walls of glass (plate 9).



Plate 9. Partizánske in Slovakia – an example of a typical planned industrial city founded in 1938 together with a shoemaking factory in which practically all adult inhabitants of the city were employed.

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Source: Internet (September 2015)

These skyscrapers were set within large, rectangular, park-like green spaces. At the centre was a huge transportation hub that on different levels included depots for buses and trains, as well as highway intersections, and at the top, an airport. Le Corbusier had the fanciful notion that commercial airliners would land between the huge skyscrapers. He segregated pedestrian circulation paths from the roadways and glorified the automobile as a means of transportation. As one moved out from the central skyscrapers, smaller low-story, zig-zag apartment blocks (set far back from the street amid green space) housed the inhabitants. Le Corbusier hoped that politically minded industrialists in France would lead the way with their efficient Taylorist and Fordist strategies adopted from American industrial models to re-organize society (Norma. 1969:7).

In 1925, Le Corbusier exhibited his "Plan Voisin", in which he proposed to bulldoze most of central Paris north of the Seine and replace it with his sixty-story cruciform towers from the Contemporary City, placed within an orthogonal street grid and park-like green space. In the 1930s, Le Corbusier expanded and reformulated his ideas on urbanism, eventually publishing them in *La Ville radieuse* (The Radiant City) in 1935. Perhaps the most significant difference between the Contemporary City and the Radiant City is that the latter abandoned the class-based stratification of the former; housing was now assigned according to family size, not economic position (Fishman, 1982: 231).

Modernism also came with the decline in the quality of the architecture of public spaces as was the case in the eras past. As indicated by Curran (1983:5), directly related to the reduction of architectural structures to the status of objects, the most dominant characteristic of the modern tradition has been the deterioration and virtual disappearance of the public domain. No longer sustaining a range of activities traditionally associated with urban life, the public domain has been reduced to the exclusively use of the automobile, and the city, as a collection and system of spaces having multiple social as well as functional roles, was lost. This has paralleled the decline of public participation in government, industry, community affairs, etc., which represent the other vital dimension of the public domain. Accordingly, the city-making process has been fragmented into separate and specialized professions, including city and regional land-use planning, road and highway engineering, landscape architecture, architecture, etc. As in factory-line production, each is concerned with a single aspect of the process, while the effects of their input within the community has been lost to abstraction (Curran, 1983:5).

By the late 1960s and early 1970s, many planners felt that modernism's clean lines and lack of human scale sapped vitality from the community, blaming them for high crime rates and social problems. Modernist planning fell into decline in the 1970s when the construction of cheap, uniform tower blocks ended in most countries, such as Britain and France. Since then many have been demolished and replaced by

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other housing types. Rather than attempting to eliminate all disorder, planning now concentrates on individualism and diversity in society and the economy; this is the post-modernist era (Morris et al. 1997).

A global perspective tells the story of this global shift and transformation, highlighting the role of architects, urban designers, planners and their clients: central government, local governments, communities, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), developers and world institutions in city planning and development (Shane, 2011: 12). This is accomplished through the urban actors and the urban actors adopt urban design models and elements to achieve that goal in city planning, development and transformation. The first theme (model), in city transformation is that, the urban actors need to cooperate not only in building the city, but to maintain and regenerate it, to modify and transform it. Cities are about people living together, and this requires organization and skills in managing the affairs of the local community and larger city (Shane, 2011: 14).

Findings and the Nigerian Situation

The governments in Nigeria have in the past, developed housing programmes for the people without urban architecture or urban design attributes, contributions of the inhabitants and consideration of their interests and those are, part of the problems with the Nigerian housing and urban environmental development delivery programmes and needed to be changed. There is no strict adherence to the goals and objectives of their Master Plans, development laws, the use of professionally trained staff in the execution and

implementation of their Master Plan and integration of the informal settlements into the formal settlement areas of the cities. Adopting urban design principles, dealing with the density of the urban dwellers settlements, the aesthetics, urban amenities, well defined means of circulation, functional parks, how the urban dwellers settlements function and decongestion of the areas are some of the major challenges in the Nigeria's built environment. Housing programmes in Nigeria has always been for the privileged with enough resources and connections to acquire them.

The current Nigerian economic situation favors the rich and only through balanced economy can a better society be made of the Nigerian cities. Urbanization which occurs without adequate industrialization, sufficient formal employment or secure wages, has condemned burgeoning urban populations in the Third World to poor-quality housing. The problem has been compounded by a lack of government funds for housing subsidies, by inflated land prices boosted by housing needs and speculation, and by real-estate profiteering on the part of the upper and middle classes. The operation of the class structure of Third World cities nowhere more geographical explicit than in the composition and working of the housing market. Only the small upper and middle classes in Third World cities have income, job security and credit worthiness to purchase or rent houses in properly surveyed, serviced and legally conveyed developments (Dickenson, et al.1983).

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The same small upper and middle classes in Third World cities have benefited from government sponsored housing programmes in the past. In his Housing and Environmental Planning, Olu-Sule (1988) indicated that, prior to 1973 government activities in public housing had been quite sectional and favored only the working class elites in the society. The poor and low-income were relegated to the background. For example, during the first Development Plan period, 1962 – 68, no attention was accorded housing generally. It was under the town and country planning. Government's policy to house the low-income and the underprivileged did not crystallize even during the Second National Development Plan of 1970 – 74. In spite of the N49 million allocated Town and Country Planning, housing was overshadowed by other priorities of the planning department.

Housing as major government social service venture did not receive any priority attention it deserved until the Third National Development Plan of 1975 – 80 when the Federal Government of Nigeria allocated the sum of N2.5 billion to housing for the creation of 202, 000 units mostly for low-income families. The defective and ineffective methods of allocating these houses to the low-income, the medium-income and under which the underprivileged masses received their shares is the bone of contention in the Nigeria public housing policy (Olu-Sule, 1988).

The 1980 – 85 Development Plan when N1.6 million was allocated to housing sector did not achieve any better success than its predecessor. The plan included the construction of 200, 000 housing units; provision of staff quarters and

staff housing loans; site and services programme and urban development in collaboration with the World Bank. In addition to Federal Government budgeting efforts, the state governments committed the sum of N1.1 million to the housing sector during 1980 – 85 Development Plan. The core of the problem in all these Development Plans -1962 – 68 to 1980 – 85 was not the financial allocation or the units completed, but who got the houses. Hard evidence exists that those who benefited from the general government financial capital investment in housing sector has been the upper-income families (Olu-Sule, 1988).

Recommendations

Distributions of housing and developable lands in Nigeria have always favoured the rich and people with connections to the few in favourable and influential government positions. Different Nigerian governments have not bothered reaching out to the poor urban dwellers regarding their housing and urban environmental needs rather; the government would rush into what is termed affordable housing that only favoured the rich and the privileged. These houses were in most cases, designed without urban design attributes. In most cases, those housing programmes would collapse, typical of the Nigerian housing delivery programmes and needed to be changed.

At the same time, this work recommends for the government to consult with the people for whom housing would be developed and address and incorporate their needs in the housing schemes. Markets, schools and religious centers are important to urban dwellers and should be part

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of any housing units developed for them. Industries and markets are important to urban dwellers for their survival as a result, this work recommends for the federal government to change the federal government laws as they pertain to commerce and industry to start accommodating and including articles mandating industries to hire a certain number of urban dwellers in the areas the industry is built and by so doing, the urban dwellers will be economically empowered.

Conclusion

The Nigerian government's urban development laws and implementation programmes were not able and have not been able to stop the uncontrolled population problems of the cities that resulted from rural to urban migration in search of greener pastures, industrial explosion in undesignated areas, expansion into and exploitation of agricultural lands by real estate developers. Urban Housing Built Environment in Nigeria is not sustainable and the settlements are not communicating because of the formal and informal settlement patterns that resulted from rural to urban migration without adequate housing provisions to accommodate the surging population. The urbanization and its consequences of the Nigerian urban areas have for a long time, resulted in housing inadequacy and pressure on the existing infrastructure of the communities, electricity, water supply, roads, markets, etc. They mostly resulted from poor implementations of the urban areas Master Plan largely because of the use of nonprofessionals who do not understand the fundamentals of the

Master Plan. Who in most cases, could not differentiate the difference between a current plan and a comprehensive plan? A current plan addresses day to day actions of the Master Plan while comprehensive plan are reviewed every 5, 10, 15 to 20 years to address the needs, changes and the situation of the area that needed attention. Not addressing these issues led to the Master Plan not addressing the growth and changing dynamics in the areas.

Equally, not addressing and changing the Master Plan to address the changing situations in every urban area leads to socioeconomic disarray and decay in the areas Urban Housing Built Environment. That gives rise to slums, shantytowns, mechanic villages in formal settlement areas and houses in the open fields yet, representing the architecture of the area and Nigeria.

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