

Chapter 12:	Climate Change and the Challenge of Flood Risk Management in Nigerian Cities - <i>Felix Olorunfemi</i>	229
Part Three - Geography and Regional Development		257
Chapter 13:	Urban Development: The Perspectives of Urban Geographers <i>N. A. Malik, O. Y. Yahya, E. E. Adeniyi and A. D. Azeez</i>	259
Chapter 14:	Rural Development Planning: Trends, Challenges and the Geographers' Mandate - <i>R. A. Olowopo</i>	275
Chapter 15:	Rural Development and Geography of Development: The Future of Agro-rural Livelihood under Increasing Rururbanization - <i>R. O. Yusuf</i>	295
Chapter 16:	Resource Mobilization for Rural Development <i>M. O. Abdulraheem, J. F. Olorunfemi and I. O. Orire</i>	307
Chapter 17:	Balanced Regional Development: Some Imperatives <i>G. P. Afelayan and A. M. Tunde</i>	319
Part Four - Geography and Socio-cultural Development		329
Chapter 18:	Population Impact on Socio-Economic Development: Fertility in Focus - <i>I. O. Orire and J. F. Olorunfemi</i>	331
Chapter 19:	Population and the Economy: The Challenges of Economic Development in Nigeria <i>J. F. Olorunfemi and I. Fasigba</i>	343
Chapter 20:	Health and Development: A Geographical Perspective <i>U. A. Raheem and O. T. Adetunde</i>	361
Chapter 21:	Rural Road Transport and Socio-economic Development in Developing Countries: A Geographer's Viewpoint <i>B. A. Usman</i>	377
Chapter 22:	Translating Gender Policies into Practice: Exemplified by Research in Sri Lanka - <i>R. Lund and F. Azmi</i>	405
Chapter 23:	Some Critical Insights towards Development as a Cultural Engagement - <i>Nalini Hennyayake</i>	423
Chapter 24:	Contemporary Perception of Crime in a Geographical Space - <i>Y. A. Ahmed and A. A. Salami</i>	441
Chapter 25:	Municipal Waste Generation and Management: An International Perspective <i>U. A. Raheem, Ademola A. Adenle and S. L. Tilakasiri</i>	465

CHAPTER 13

URBAN DEVELOPMENT: The Perspectives of Urban Geographers

N. A. Malik, O. Y. Yahaya, E. E. Adeniyi and A. D. Azeez

Introduction

The world's population was estimated to be 7.4 billion based on mid-2016 population figure out of which 54 per cent live in urban areas (Population Reference Bureau, 2016). Recent projections indicate that by the middle of this century, about 66 per cent of the world's total population will be residing in cities, and that majority of the increase in population in the next three decades will occur in low and middle income countries (Peters, 2000, p.2; UNFPA, 2007; UN-HABITAT, 2016). For instance, the average annual rate of change of the urban population between 1995 and 2015 for the high-income, middle-income and low-income countries was 0.88 per cent, 2.63 per cent and 3.68 per cent respectively. With this, urban growth rates have been much faster in the middle and low-income countries than the high-income countries. However, continents like Europe and the Americas have to a great extent regulated their population growth and economy, whereas most countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America have not been able to adequately improve the unstable state of living environment of their citizens (UN-HABITAT, 2003).

Globally, Africa is generally assessed as the most urbanized continent with increasing high rate of slum development, crime,

in non-agricultural sectors; the presence of infrastructure such as paved roads, electricity, piped water or sewers; and the presence of education or health services (UN, 2014). For instance, roughly half of the 228 countries for which the United Nations (UN) compiles data on urban definitions use administrative considerations - such as residing in the capital of the country or of a province - to designate people as urban dwellers. Among the other countries, 51 distinguish urban and rural populations based on the size or density of locales, 39 rely on functional characteristics such as the main economic activity of an area, 22 have no definition of "urban," and eight countries define all (Singapore, for example) or none (several countries in Polynesia) of their populations as living in urban areas (UN, 2000).

According to Aluko (2010) urban refers to an agglomeration of people that are organized around non-agricultural activities. It may also be areas that contain a settled population which are not directly involved in primary production of food and other materials. This implies that urban areas are characterized by secondary, tertiary and quaternary services. The indices for measuring urban area include: population size, population density, administrative or political boundaries or economic function (Cohen, 2005). For example, population size was used to define an urban centre ranging from 30,000 people in Japan; 2500 in United States; 20,000 and above in Nigeria. Some countries have much lower figures such as France which uses 2000 and above, Democratic Republic of the Congo (formerly Zaire) include all areas with 2,000 residents or more as urban while in Canada it is 1000 and above (UN, 2000 and Aluko, 2010).

At times, national definitions of urban areas often encompass populations in relatively small settlements. This explains the reason for country of small or relatively rural population to simply declare one or more settlement as urban, regardless of the size or function. Uganda, for example, classifies locales with as few as 100 residents as urban (UN, 2000; Drescher & Laquinta, 2002).

Mabogunje (1980) posited that urban areas are more populous and more complex in terms of socio-economic activities and opportunity. This implies that urban area is an

area where there are varieties of opportunities resulting from rural-urban migration. Urban area is characterized by increased population density and vast human features comparison to areas surrounding it. The view of Oyesiku, (1997) is that an urban area is a place of economic strength, power development, innovation and modern culture.

Countries sometimes change their definitions of urban places over time, which also makes precise measurement of urban populations problematic. China is a notable example. Since the 1980s, China's urban population figures have been distorted by the establishment of hundreds of new cities and thousands of new urban towns with extensive boundaries. Such reclassification of rural places as urban implausibly raised the official level of urbanization in Fujian Province, for instance, from 21 per cent in 1982 to 57 per cent in 1990 and to 84 per cent in 1995. For a more realistic picture of the urban population, China's State Statistical Bureau applied a second, more limited definition of urban to 1990 census data. Under this definition, Fujian Province was 21 per cent urban in 1990, as it was in 1982. Yet the practice of urban redefinition continues in provincial China, challenging demographers and statisticians to track urban population change across time. The United States has also modified its definition of urban over time. The earliest classification, published in 1874, was based on incorporated places (cities, towns, boroughs, and villages) of 8,000 or more residents. This limit was lowered to 4,000 in 1880 and to the present minimum size of 2,500 in 1906. In 1970, unincorporated places and settlements of less than 2,500 people in "urbanized zones" on the fringes of extended cities were officially included as part of the urban population. This definition was applied to the 1990 Census (UN, 2000). In essence, from the different perspectives of urban geographers, there is no universally agreed standard in the classification of urban area.

Urbanization and Urban Population Trends

The extension of the urban environment in terms of territorial coverage and population has remained a common experience all over the world only that the rate of urbanization varies across the globe. This rapid urbanization is occurring because there

is a large pool of potential migrants to the cities, and because rates of natural increase (an area's birth rate minus its death rate) are not substantially lower in urban than in rural areas (Martin, 2000). The process that defines the rapid extension of urban environment is known as urbanization. Hence, Urbanization is defined as the agglomeration of people in relatively large number at a particular spot on the earth surface (Olotuah, 2005). It could also be viewed not only in terms of population size, but as satisfying certain conditions like modernization, physical and economic development, as well as heterogeneity in occupation (Harvey, 2000).

According to Mabogunje (1985), urbanization is a "process of human agglomeration in multi-functional settlement of relatively substantial size". Ujoh et al. (2010) sees it as the process that refers to the growth both in size and numbers of urban centres. Urbanization in Nigeria like most other developing nations is a consequence of the "push" of the rural area and the "pull" of the urban centres. Therefore, Shisay (2011) sees it as the rapid development and transformation of region including increase in the size, population and human activities at a given period of time, the expansion of a city into surrounding agricultural or peri-urban lands and massive growth of, and migration to large cities (Aluko, 2010). This rapid growth result from natural increase and rural-urban migration, high demand of urban land and other reason that results in urban physical/horizontal built-up area expansion into the surrounding agricultural land (Shishay, 2011).

Urbanization as used in this work simply refers to the process of increasing agglomeration of people in cities such that as the urban population increases, the land area occupied by cities also increases at an even higher rate, and that the city graduates from a lower level of complexity (economic, social, institutional, political, etc) to a higher level.

The trend of urbanization has continued all over the world although there is still substantial variability in urban population change across countries. Urban population change is most commonly described by two measures: (1) the level of urbanization, and (2) the rate of urban growth. The level of

urbanization represents the share of a country's total population that lives in urban areas while the rate of urban growth is commonly used to compare countries over time and among each other. The rate of urban growth indicates the number of persons added to an urban population during a year per 100 urban dwellers.

As for the first measure of urban population change, the world's urbanization level increased steadily throughout the 20th century. After 1950, the first year for which the UN provides urban data for all countries, the percentage urban rose from 30 per cent of world population to an estimated 47 per cent in the year 2000. The urban share is projected to reach 58 per cent by 2025. The population of the more developed world was already 55 per cent urbanized in 1950, reached 76 per cent in 2000, and is expected to be 82 per cent in 2025. In contrast, the level of urbanization in the less developed countries was just 18 per cent in 1950, but it neared 40 per cent in 2000, and is projected to be 54 per cent in 2025. The less developed world is urbanizing as quickly now as was the United States and other more developed countries during the first half of the 20th century (UN, 2000). In addition, increases in urbanization will be almost entirely attributable to sub-Saharan Africa and Asia over the next quarter century. Urbanization is projected to increase from 34 per cent to 49 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa and Nigeria has the largest share of rising urbanization in Sub-Saharan Africa (UN-HABITAT, 2005b; UNDP, 2002).

The rate of urban growth being the second measure commonly used to describe urban population change has been much faster in some regions than others. For example, the highest growth rate between 1995 and 2015 was clearly in the least developed parts of the world with Africa being the most rapidly urbanizing. The urban growth rate of Africa (3.44%) is almost 11 times more rapid than the growth rate in Europe with 0.31 per cent (UN, 2014b). It has been projected that by 2030, the urban population of developing countries will double, while the area covered by cities would triple (Angel et al., 2011). Similarly, urban growth in less developed countries will account for a large majority of world population growth in coming decades (UN, 2000). On the other part, the most developed regions in the world,

led by Europe saw their cities growing the least between 1995 and 2015 (UN, 2014b). The average annual rate of urban growth has fallen precipitously in more developed countries, from 1.99 per cent between 1950 and 1975, to 0.83 per cent between 1975 and 2000. The average rate is projected to fall to 0.41 per cent during the first quarter of the 21st century (UN, 2000).

Urban Growth Model

Geographers have contributed greatly to the organization of space in the urban environment. The Burgess concentric zone theory was the first to give the explanation of distribution of social groups within urban areas. This concentric ring model depicts urban land use in concentric rings. However, the Central Business District (or CBD) was in the middle of the model, and the city expanded in rings with different land uses. Despite various criticisms generated, this theory has been used by scholars in various urban studies. For instance, Malik (2013) adopted this theory and relate the transition zone to the slum areas in Lagos metropolis where urban renewal (through slum upgrading) was used to provide facilities to improve the living conditions of slum dwellers.

The Hoyt sector model theorized that cities would tend to grow in wedge-shaped patterns, or sectors, emanating from the CBD and centered on major transportation routes. Therefore, higher levels of access translate to higher land values. Thus, many commercial functions would remain in the CBD, but manufacturing activity would develop in a wedge surrounding transport routes. Residential land use patterns also would grow in wedge-shaped patterns with a sector of lower-income households bordering the manufacturing/ warehousing sector (traffic, noise and pollution making these less desirable locations to live) and sectors of middle- and higher-income households located away from industrial sites.

Harris & Ullman still saw the CBD as the major center of commerce. They suggested that specialized cells of activity would develop according to specific requirements of certain activities, different rent-paying abilities, and the tendency for some kinds of economic activity to cluster together. At the center of their model is the CBD, with light manufacturing and wholesaling located along transport routes. Heavy industry was

thought to locate near the outer edge of city, perhaps surrounded by lower-income households, and suburbs of commuters and smaller service centres would occupy the urban periphery. For examples, rapidly-growing, newer, modern cities, large-land-area cities like Houston and Los Angeles.

The concentric zone theory, the sector theory, and the multiple nuclei theory was also used by Mabogunje to explain the internal structure of cities which focuses on the pattern of urban land uses in Nigeria and the problems associated with them. In the literature, the concentric zone and sector theories are described as monocentric because they assume that cities have only one activity centre, the central business district. The multiple nuclei theory is described as a polycentric theory, because it assumes that cities have multiple activity centres. Although these theories propose different locational arrangements of different land uses (commercial, residential, industrial), the forces that produce these arrangements are essentially the same-accessibility and land values. However, he notes that "there are, of course, other factors such as ownership, zoning regulations and taxation as well as non-economic considerations of sentiment and satisfaction which enter into the matter" (Mabogunje, 1968, p.204).

Geographers Contribution to Urban Development

Geographers of various climes have contributed immensely to the geography of development especially to urban development. Professor Professor Akinlawon Ladipo Mabogunje is recognised as one of the best geographers and social scientist in Africa, and, indeed in the world at large whose launching pad was urban geography. Mabogunje's works on African cities and some theoretical underpinnings in Urban Geography and Urbanization in Nigeria consider African urbanization as an outgrowth of the same processes that produced cities in other parts of the world. His concern about the role of cities in regional development, urban environmental problems, housing and housing finance, and the weak administrative capacity of municipal governments still persists today. For this reason, geographers' contribution to urban development to be discussed here will focus mainly on some of his work.

rate at which social services and infrastructural amenities are provided. The result has been a gradual decline in the quality of the environment and in the quality of life. One of the resultant declines in the environment is the growth and development of slums in urban areas. These slums are viewed as manifestations of spatial and environmental inequalities with features of deprivation, unemployment, social exclusion, crime and insecurity (Francoise, 2006).

Another geographical contribution to urban development is the work of Yahaya & Ishiak (2013) in their study of the constraint to effective urban land use planning in Nigeria. They advocate the adoption of structure plan instead of master plan in order to remedy the problems associated with urban growth. Structure planning is considered a more appropriate and dynamic planning tool for developing countries like Nigeria. According to Dowall et al. (1997), structure planning provides a broad framework for local decision-making and it involves public participation. It sets out a framework for the development of a community. It also entails projection of future demands and needs of the community such as housing, infrastructure, employment, transport, local market etc. and also environmental aspects like waste management. As for master plan, the long-term planning is a disadvantage in rapidly growing cities of Nigeria.

Conclusion

The way cities are shaped, their form and functionality have been the concern of urban geographers over the years. Many of these changes have been for the better, but others for the worst. The causes of these changes may vary according to different contexts, but uncontrolled growth, lack of regulations and institutions as well as forms of collective indolence are often the key factors behind a model of urbanization that is becoming highly unsustainable. However, while cities face major problems, from poverty to pollution, they are also the power house of economic growth and catalyst for inclusion and innovation. While many disciplines must have contributed to urban studies, geographers were not left out and had contributed immensely at

enhancing the contribution of cities to sustainable development, and at ensuring that cities are inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable.

References

- Adedayo, A. (1983). Spatial dimension of rural development project in Kwara State. *Proceedings of Annual Conference of the Nigerian Geographical Association*, 110-114.
- Adedayo, A. (2012). How the other half lives. 119th Inaugural Lecture, University of Ilorin, 8-9.
- Aluko, O. E. (2010). The impact of urbanization on housing development: The Lagos experience, Nigeria. *Ethiopian Journal of Environmental Studies and Management*, 3.
- Choguill, C. L. (1994). Crisis, chaos, crunch? Planning for urban growth in the developing world. *Urban Studies*, 31(6), 934 - 945.
- Dowall, David & Clark Giles (1997). Urban land policies for the UN initiated.
- Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP). Retrieved from: http://www.unescap.org/huset/land_policies.
- Drescher, A. & Laquinta, D. (2020). Urbanization - Linking development across the changing Landscape. FAO, Rome.
- Harvey, D. (2000). Urban land economic, Fifth Edition. Palgrave Publisher Ltd, 270 - 275.
- International Monetary Fund (IMF) (September, 2006). Finance and development (F&D), BPA International, Washington, DC.
- Kivell, P. (1993). Land and the city: Pattern and process of urban change, London, Routledge.
- Kjellstrom, T. & Mercado, S. (2008). Towards action on social determinants for health equity in urban settings. *Environment and Urbanization*, 20 (2), 551-574.
- Mabogunje, A. L. (1965). Urbanization in Nigeria: A constraint on economic development. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 13(4), 413-438.

- Mabogunje, A. L. (1967). African cities and some theoretical underpinnings in urban geography. In D. Brokensha & M. Crowder (Eds.) *Africa in the wider world*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Mabogunje, A. L. (1968). *Urbanization in Nigeria*. London: University of London Press, 1968.
- Mabogunje, A. L. (1975). Prolegomenon to urban poverty in Nigeria. Paper Presented at the Annual Conference of the Nigerian Economic Society, Bagauda Lake Hotel, Kano. April 16-19, 1975.
- Mabogunje, A. L. (1980). *The development process: A spatial perspective*. Second Edition. London: Unwind Harman Ltd, 189-193.
- Mabogunje, A. (1985). Towards an urban policy in Nigeria. In P. Onobokun (Ed), *Housing in Nigeria*. A book of reading. Ibadan, Nigeria, NISER.
- Mabogunje, A. L. (2002). Lessons of experience in housing low-income groups in Sub-Saharan Africa. Text of a Presentation at the International Conference on Housing and Urban Development for Low-Income Groups in Sub-Saharan Africa, Organized by the European Network for Housing Researchers (ENHR) Working Group on Housing in Developing Countries in Collaboration With the Institute of Local Government Studies in Accra, Ghana and With the Support of the UN Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat) Held in Accra, Ghana from July 22-26, 2002.
- Malik, N. A. (2013). *The effects of urban renewal on the slum residents of Lagos metropolis, Nigeria*. Ph.D. Thesis, Department of Geography and Environmental Management University of Ilorin, Nigeria.
- Martin, P. B. (2000). An urbanizing world. *Population Bulletin*, 55 (3), 1-45.
- Mba, H. C., Ude, B. C., Ume, L. C. & Uchegbu, B. (eds) (2004). *Management of environmental problems and hazards in Nigeria*. Hants: Ashgate Publishing Ltd.
- Naomi, O. (1995). Towards an integrated view of human rights. *Hunger Teach Net*, 6(3), 6-7.
- Olotuah, A. O. (2005). Urbanization, urban poverty and housing inadequacy. *Proceeding of African Union of Architect Congress*, 23-28, May, Abuja Nigeria, 185-199.
- Oyesiku, O. O. (1997). The new cities as a physical planning strategy: The conceptual understanding of Nigeria. *Journal of Social Management Science*, 1, 76-101.

- Peters, William (ed.) (2000). Green cities: Urban environmental solutions, global issues. *An Electronic Journal of the U.S Department of State*, March 5(1), 1-39.
- Population Reference Bureau (2016). *World population data sheet with a special focus on human needs and sustainable resources*. Population Reference Bureau, Washington D.C. USA.
- Seers, D. (1977). The meaning of development. *International Development Review*, 3 (5).
- Shishay, M. (2011). *The impact of urban built-up area expansion on the livelihood of farm household, in the peri-urban of Mekelle city: The capital of Tygray Regional State*. M.A. Thesis, School of Graduate Studies of Addis Ababa University.
- Tannerfeldt, G. (1995). *Towards an urban world: Urbanization and development assistance*. Stockholm: Swedish International Development Agency.
- Ujoh, F. Kwabe, I. D. & Ifatimetion, O. O. (2010). Understanding urban sprawl in the
- Federal Capital City, Abuja: Toward sustainable urbanization in Nigeria. *Journal of Geography & Regional Planning*, 3(5), 106-113.
- United Nations (2007). Achieving the millennium development goals in Nigeria. How far now? UN-Habitat United Nations Week, Abuja, Nigeria.
- United Nations (2000). *World urbanization prospects: The 1999 revision*. New York.
- United Nations (2014). *World urbanization prospects: The 2014 revision*. New York.
- United Nations (2014b) *World urbanization prospects: The 2014 revision (CD-ROM Edition)*, New York
- UNCHS (2007). *Urbanization: A turning point in history*. Global Report on Urbanization. Retrieved from: www.unhabitat.org.
- UNFPA (2007). *State of the world population 2007: Unleashing the potential of urban growth*. New York: United Nations Population Fund.
- UN-HABITAT (2003). *The challenge of slums - 2003*. Global Report on Human Settlements, Nairobi: United Nations Centre for Human Settlements.

UN-Habitat (2005). *Cities-Engines of Economic Development*. Report on a parallel event held at UNCTAD XI-URBIS 2004, Sao Paulo, Brazil, Nairobi: UN-Habitat

UN-HABITAT (2016). *Urbanization and development: Emerging futures*. World Cities Report 2016. United Nations Human Settlements Programme, UN-Habitat, Nairobi, Kenya.

Yahaya, O.Y & Ishiak, Y. (2013). Effective urban land use planning in Nigeria: Issues and constraints. *Journal of Environmental Management and Safety*. A publication of the Centre for Environment and Population Activities (CEPA). 4(2), 103-114 Retrieved from: www.cepa-journal.com.

CH

RU

PL

Tre

Ge

R. A.

Intro

T

the im
large p
the en
the run
built u
and th
well as
terti-