Coastal Hazards and Development Setbacks in Nigeria: Implications for Physical Development Planning.
Ekong, F. U. (Ph. D.) and Atser Jacob 1-16

Impact of Inter-Governmental Relations in the Execution of Physical Development Plans in Enugu State of Nigeria.
Iyi, Edmund Amuezuko (Ph.D.) 17-30

Factors that Influence Choice of Urban and Regional Planning Undergraduate Course in South East Nigeria.
Jiburum Uloma (Ph. D.) 31-44

Policy Incentives for Sustainable Housing Investment in Urban Nigeria.
Abotutu Ahi Abel (Ph. D.) 45-63

The Challenge of Violent Behaviour to Urban and Regional Planning Practice in Nigeria: A Case for the Personal Safety and Security of the Practitioner
Kefas G. Jiriko (Ph. D.) 64-84

Challenges to the Sustainable Implementation of the National Building Code in Nigeria.
Ogboi, Kingsley C. (Ph. D.) 85-98

Reviewer: M. O. Lawal 99-104
The Nigerian Institute of Town Planners
ISSN 0189-8859
Vol. XXII, October, 2013

All rights Reserved
No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval, system or transmitted in any form of any means, electronics, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without the prior permission of the copy right owners.
EDITORIAL BOARD

Editor-in-Chief: Tpl. Dr. Kefas G. Jiriko fnitp, mrtpi, rtp.
Associate Editors and Members of the Editorial Board:
  Tpl. Prof. C. Ugwu FNITP, RTP
  Tpl. Prof. F.A. Ilesanmi MNITP, RTP
  Tpl. Dr. K.C. Ogboi FNITP, RTP
  Tpl. Prof. Oyekunle

Editorial Advisers:
  TPL. Chief D.C. Obialo PPNITP, FNITP, RTP
  TPL. Dr. C.L. Odimuko PPNITP, FNITP, RTP
  TPL. Jehu Gwani, PPNITP, FNITP, RTP
  TPL. Remi Makinde, PPNITP, FNITP, RTP
  TPL. Moses B. Ajayi, PPNITP, FNITP, RTP
  TPL. Isah U. Ichaba, PPNITP, FNITP, RTP
  TPL. S. I. Onu (current President NITP), FNITP, RTP, npom.

Published by: The Nigerian Institute of Town Planners

Corporate Head Office:
NITP BAWA
BWARI HOUSE
Michael Okpara Street,
Wuse, Zone 2, Abuja,
P.M.B 9012, Garki Abuja.
Tel/Fax: 08023260134
Website: www.niitp.ng.org

Lagos Liaison Office:
12, Seidu Jibowu Street,
off Toyin Street, Ikeja, Lagos
Tel Fax: 08028326491
E-mail: niitp@yahoo.com
info@nitpng.com

VOL. XXII  October, 2013
EDITORIAL

The Editorial Board of the Journal of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners expresses its deep-hearted gratitude to TETFUND of the Federal Government of Nigeria for its support. The Board also thanks the National President of NITP, Tpl. S. Onu, for being able to link the Board with ETF. The Board congratulates NITP for the meritorious recognition of its Journal among others.

The problem of the Journal is the lack of immediate availability of money to process submitted papers for publication. Another problem is that it is not easy to secure a national coverage of papers submitted each time for publication. The requirement for national coverage in terms of distribution of the papers to be published in the Journal is virtually impossible to meet as it is always extremely difficult to get balanced submissions from all parts of the country.

The editorial board is working diligently to streamline the standard of papers submitted to meet international standard. To meet international standard, the research must be empirical and must apply theories and methods in the analysis of urban and regional planning problems. The Board, therefore, calls on scholars and professionals to avail themselves of this unique opportunity to publish papers on urban and regional planning entrepreneurship. The Editorial Board suggests that a processing fee should be charged for all papers/manuscripts submitted for publication in the Journal to ease and fasten their processing, especially payment of paper reviewers, and then non-professional town planner contributors pay a publication fee in addition to the processing fee, if their papers/manuscripts are found publishable.

The Editorial Board has resolved that as part of the ways to improve the quality of the Journal, GIS-based maps, multi-colour land-use maps and similar others should be in colour (not white and black). Finally, and for the first, comprehensive guidelines to contributors (fler) has been provided containing all the necessary details paper contributors need to know and follow to get their manuscripts accepted and published.

Tpl. Dr. K. G. Jiriko fnitp, mrtpi, rtp.
Editor-in-Chief.

VOL. XXII

iv

October, 2013
# TABLE OF CONTENT

| Title page | i |
| Publisher/Copyright | ii |
| Editorial Board/Editorial Advisers/NITP Corporate & Liaison Offices | iii |
| Editorial | iv |
| Table of Contents | v-vi |
| Forward | vii |

   - Ekong F. U. (Ph. D.) and Asier Jacob,
     Department of Urban and Regional Planning, University of Uyo, Uyo.
     1-16

2. Impact of Inter-Governmental Relations in the Execution of Physical Development Plans in Enugu State of Nigeria.
   - Iyi, Edmund Amuzuoke (Ph.D.) Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Enugu State University of Science and Technology (ESUT).
     17-30

3. Factors that Influence Choice of Urban and Regional Planning Undergraduate Course in South East Nigeria.
   - Jiburum Uloma (Ph. D.),
     Department of Urban and Regional Planning, University of Nigeria, Enugu Campus.
     31-44

   - Abotutu Ahi Abel (Ph. D.), Department of Geography and Regional Planning, Delta State University, Abraka, Nigeria.
     45-63

   - Kefas G. Jirko (Ph. D.), Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Kaduna Polytechnic, Nigeria.
     64-84

   - Ogbui, Kingsley C. (Ph. D.),
     Department of Urban and Regional Planning, University of Nigeria, Enugu Campus.
     85-98

   - (Paperback).
   - Price: N1,000.00; approximately USD6.66
     - Reviewer: M. O. Lawal,
       Department of Geography and Planning,
       Faculty of Social Sciences,
       Lagos State University, Lagos.
     99-101

8. Guidelines for Contributors (JNITP) | 102-105 |
9. Correspondence | 106 |
10. Subscription Rates | 106 |
11. Advertisements | 106 |

**VOL. XXII**  
/ October, 2013
FOREWORD

The Journal of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners provides a good professional premise for discourses and discussions and information dissemination on all issues relating to human settlements and environment in Nigeria and beyond. Twenty-two volumes of the journal have been published within the forty-seven years of the existence of the institute. The Journal has served as a good reference material for researchers in academics and professionals in the entire building industry.

Our purpose here is to direct our resources, through this journal, to challenges and needs of time, to research, educate and promote the use of relevant urban and regional planning knowledge in concert with the total knowledge of our peers in the building industry and the environment in general. We also seek to encourage the effort of many others outside our profession who seek to share ideas with us to improve the urban and regional human environment.

In summary, the Journal of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners is on the verge of an epoch, making leap in its history of ever changing and advancing pursuit of furthering urban and rural planning and development in Nigeria through knowledge and professional advancement. I believe that the present edition has been rightly focused in this direction. Judging by the thought provoking, stimulating and well researched articles that are packaged, I wish to appreciate the effort of the Editor-in-Chief and Members of the Editorial Board for their careful review and selection of the papers here published.

The Nigerian Institute of Town Planners is also grateful to the TETFUND for the support it afforded the Institute in this edition. We count on you for continued support.

Tpl. Steve L. Onu
President: Nigerian Institute of Town Planners.
1. COASTAL HAZARDS AND DEVELOPMENT SETBACKS IN NIGERIA: IMPLICATIONS FOR PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

Ekong, F. U. (Ph. D.) and Atser Jacob, Dept. of Urban and Regional Planning, University of Uyo, Uyo, Akwa Ibom State
ABSTRACT

The inadequacy of coastal development setbacks from rivers and oceanfront is a problem in Nigeria. This study assessed development setbacks in Nigeria with implications for physical development planning in the Niger Delta region. Data were collected and analysed over a period of twenty-three years (1986-2008) using satellite imageries, Landsat Thematic and Enhanced Thematic Mappers. Aerial photographs were used to validate and evaluate the history of coastal hazards to lives and properties in the region. The result of the study revealed the extent of change and the number of coastal communities that are vulnerable to natural hazards due to inadequate land use development setbacks. The future development setbacks guides and maps were prepared using ArcGis 9.2.

Keywords: coastal area, physical development, setbacks, Niger Delta, shoreline change, climate change
Introduction

The inherent natural systems of the coastal zone and examples of changes in their state, at least at local levels, are recognized in the scientific arena. The entire spectrum of coastal habitats such as mangroves, tropical wetlands, coastal forests, and estuarine communities are subject to pressures from human and natural changes. Thus, the world's coastal zone is under extraordinary and increasing pressure from human use and habitation and from changes in global climate. The resources and amenities of the coastal zone are crucial to the society and economic needs of the global population. Although the coastal zone occupies less than 20% of the land surface, it is presently a major food source; a focus of transport and industrial development; a source of minerals and geological products such as oil and gas; a location for most tourism; and an important repository of biodiversity and ecosystems that support the function of the earth system (World Research Institute, 2000).

New commercial and socio-economic benefits and opportunities continue to be developed from the use of coastal resources, products, infrastructure and amenities. However, the issues of environmental management and sustainability have become challenging to planners and policy makers. Since the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, there have been numerous advances in both the understanding and approach to coastal zone and the issues of its dynamics and climate changes.

In recent times, regional and global programmes for coastal zone management have been developed. While some of these programmes are being implemented in developed countries, some are in the pipeline to be implemented in developing societies. Political, institutional and management initiatives applied in exploitation of the coastal services and resources imply that humans are an integral components of the ecology and function of ecosystems (Von Bodnugen and Turner, 2001) and thus an ecosystem approach is required for coastal zone management (Wulff and Larsson, 2001).

Nigeria has a total coastline of about 853km. The coastal environment consists of rich and diverse ecosystems, natural resources and large human population. Besides, some of the major urban settlements which include Lagos, Port Harcourt, Warri, Calabar, Eket, Oron, Ikot Abasi, etc. are directly located along the coast. Many coastal activities are becoming more and more vulnerable to climate change effects. In recent times, heavy rainfall has led to serious flooding that consequently triggered destruction of coastal settlement, infrastructure and loss of lives. It is observed that there are no development setbacks for most wetlands especially coastal areas, thereby increasing the vulnerability of developmental activities to climate change impact. Thus, economic losses associated with coastal flooding, landslides and gullies could be reduced if coastal development setback standards are evolved and implemented in coastal areas. This is the main thrust of the paper.

The environmental problems of the world's coastal zones are varied. In Nigeria, the problems which degrade the coastal areas include marine incursion and coastal erosion, flooding, and adverse effect of global climate change. These problems affect the coastal habitats in several ways such as destruction of coastal settlements, coastal infrastructure and amenities, and biodiversity loss in coastal area. Most developed countries of the world affected by these problems have explored measures of reducing damages to coastal development infrastructure and enhancing shoreline protection practices through the concept of coastal development setbacks. This concept has been in use in most of the Caribbean states and the United States.
Often, an objective of this approach is to develop a setback for developments that take into account the natural processes, thereby exposing them to the lowest risk. Locating developments in stable, non-hazardous areas is a way to minimise the impact of coastal erosion and flooding on coastal properties. Putting up developments in areas away from coastal hazards allows the natural erosion process to continue without placing human developments in danger (Etuonovbe, 2006). On the other hand, continued destruction of this environment spells doom for its inhabitants. It is, thus, appropriate to study the spatial and temporal changes taking place in this coastline with a view to proposing adequate development setback to properties and development infrastructure in the Niger Delta region. This study, therefore, makes a case as well as provides a contextual framework for incorporating coastal development setback requirements into local subdivision ordinances in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria with comments on its benefits and values.

**Aim and Objectives of the study**

The aim of this study is to determine appropriate development setbacks for part of the Niger Delta coastal area within the context of the global climate change. The objectives of this study are to:

- Examine the net shoreline changes in the area;
- Calculate the rate of change over time;
- Propose development setbacks for the region based on shoreline change; and
- Examine the implications of this change for physical development planning in the Niger Delta region.

**Methodology**

This study required, at least, two large data sets to allow for comparability across time and space. Such data sets needed to be sufficiently detailed to show coastline and land cover/land use within the area. To achieve this, a Landsat TM and ETM images captured in December 1986, January 2003 and January 2008 were acquired from the US Geological Surveys (USGS) with a spatial resolution of approximately 30m². For ancillary data (training sets and accuracy assessment) an existing land cover map of the zone was also acquired from the Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) and the Federal Ministry of Lands and Urban Development. Large scale aerial photos of 1982, 2002 and 2007 were also acquired from the Ministry. These were used to assist in the selection of study areas and accuracy assessment of the three period's classified image. In order to assess the accuracy of the coastline change, classification was carried out on the Landsat images. GPS was used to acquire ground truth data at some selected villages. These villages served as Ground Control Points (GCP).

Image interpretation processing were carried out using Erdas Imagine 9.2 software while change detection and mapping were completed by using Spatial Analyst extension with ArcGIS 9.2. Erdas Imagine was used due to its robust and advanced image analysis functionalities (Ituen, Whyatt, Blackburn and Inyang, 2006), while the use of ArcGIS was prompted by its flexibility in spatial handling and analysis.

Information derived from the analysis was supplemented with findings from studies within the coastal areas of the country such as (Ekong and Atser, 2011) and (Etuonovbe,
2006). Also some settlements between one to five kilometers from the Atlantic coastline or around the major estuaries were visited. The rationale for the use of this primary information was to observe and gain from the inhabitants any change noticed by them in recent times whether this is threatening their livelihood or not, and if it is, what they think should be done to ameliorate the adverse effects. These findings assisted in the final determination of the actual setback for each of the locations studied.

To determine the actual setbacks three components are normally looked for. These include changes in coastline position to show historical and recent changes; changes in the position of the dune line/coastline resulting from a major tropical storm or hurricane; and changes in the position of the coastline resulting from coastal recession as a result of predicted sea level rise over the next 30 years. However, most development setbacks use the High Water Mark (HWM) as the baseline for measurement (Wason and Nurse, 1994).

The study used the HWM because it was easily distinguishable on the imageries as a wet/dry line especially on the IKONOS imagery (Fig. 4a & b). Also HWM as the legal shoreline of the U.S represented National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) nautical charts, and is considered the most consistent reference feature (Parker, 2003). The contrast between wet/dry sand varied over distance in the IKONOS making delineation very simple and correct. In the shoreline extraction, features from the satellite imagery of 1986, 2003 and 2008 Landsats and 2009 IKONOS were digitized along dry/wet boundary which could be recognized from the different zone in the sand beach.

To determine the rate of shoreline change, a 600m buffer in ArcMap environment around the selected shorelines (about six of them) were imported together with the baseline into a geodatabase in order for Digital Shoreline Analysis System (DSAS) to recognize the data. The DSAS was launched thereafter in ArcMap environment. This is an extension of the ArcGIS. The intent was to measure historic shoreline changes by creating perpendicular transect to be used as measurement locations across multiple shorelines (Theiler Martin and Ergul, 2003).

Fig. 4a The High Water mark from Photo taken in the field
Fig.4b: The High Water Mark from Ikonos Imagery

The spacing between transects along the baseline as well as the length of transects were specified (Fig.5). The DSAS generated transect lines were created at each 100m segment perpendicular to the baseline and drawn to intersect all the six extracted shorelines. Transect/shoreline intersections are used to calculate the rate of change statistics. DSAS can compute the shoreline rates of change using four different methods.

Fig.5: Transect Lines
i. Endpoint rate (EPR);

ii. A linear regression rate-of-change statistic (LRR);

iii. Jackknife method (JKM); and

iv. Weighted linear regression (WLR)

In this study the End Point Rate method was used to calculate the distance of shoreline movement by subtracting the earlier from the latest measurements, i.e., the oldest from the most recent shoreline. The advantage of EPR is its ease of computation and minimum requirement for shoreline data. The rate of change method, the Linear Regression Rate of change statistic which is determined by fitting a least squares regression to all shoreline points for a particular transect. The rate is the slope of the line. The advantage of linear regression is that all the data are used, regardless of changes in trends or accuracy and the method is purely computational.

Literature Review

Conceptual Explanation

The concept of coastal development setbacks relates to features within which all or certain types of development are prohibited (Cambers, 1997). The setback provision ensures that development is prohibited in a protected zone adjacent to the water edge in order to protect development from the potential coastal hazards relevant to the community. The setback establishes in an area a certain distance from the edge of the water within which certain land disturbing activities such as development infrastructure are limited. Actual setback distance varies from country to country and from community to community within a country and from urban to rural. In most urban areas, a setback distance of 8 metres is established while in rural areas, it may vary from one to many kilometers. Some states in the US utilized variable setbacks which make allowance for natural variations in shoreline trends from one beach to another. For effective control, setbacks are given public ownership (Clark, 1996). The purpose is to prevent private development from encroaching into the hazardous coastal edge zone. In Western Australia, buffer areas (setbacks) are held in reserves—a type of protected area with a major purpose of keeping development back from erodible and floodable shore areas and to protect edge zone natural resource values.

In the Niger Delta region of Nigeria where shoreline recession is being experienced, it is important to incorporate coastal development setback requirements in local subdivision ordinances to help identify those coastal areas that are not suitable for certain developments. Thus, a development could become a non-conforming structure subject to complex non-conforming rules. Many coastal communities in developed countries applied a setback that required that new facilities such as houses and infrastructure be located within a predetermined fixed distance from the ordinary high water mark. The community applies the same setback along the entire coastline within the community.

Coastal development setbacks prescribe distances to coastal features, such as the line of permanent vegetation, within which all or certain types of development are prohibited (Cambers, 1997). The setback provisions ensure that development is prohibited in a protected zone adjacent to the water edge. Setbacks have several functions which include:

- Provision of buffer zones between the ocean and coastal infrastructure,
within which beach zone may expand or contract naturally without the need for seawalls or other structures, which may imperil an entire beach system—meaning that setbacks may actually reduce erosion hazards.

- They reduce damage to beachfront properties during high wave events. That means they will actually safeguard settlements from flooding.

- They provide privacy for the occupiers of coastal property and allow persons to enjoy the beach as a recreational resource.

- They protect water quality and hence enhance public health by filtering out pollutants from water.

Setbacks are the major control measures used in most coastal countries especially small island states and the United States of America. Setbacks can either be fixed or varied. They must be determined individually on a beach—by—beach basis due to complexity and change pattern and their importance for tourism, recreation and development. This will allow for conservation of the beaches, protection of beachfront property and the reduction of erosion caused by certain beach protection structures (Cambers, 1997).

The Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law, 1992, and other especially planning control regulations make provisions prohibiting developments in areas liable to flooding/erosion and setbacks of developments.

The Setting of the Study

Nigeria, the most populous country in Africa with a total coastline of about 853km, is located between latitudes 4° and 14° N and Longitudes 2° 30' and 14° 30' E. The coastal environment consists of rich and diverse ecosystems, natural resources, and a large human population. The coastal area is composed of three distinct units with different configurations namely: the beach—lagoon complex, the mud coast and the arcade Niger delta (Ibe, 1988).

The Niger Delta alone has a total landmass of 36,000km² of the total land area of the country. It is made up of the marshland, creeks, tributaries and estuaries which drain the River Niger into the Atlantic Ocean. The region is made up of nine states of Abia, Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Delta, Edo, Imo, Ondo and Rivers as recognized by the Federal Government of Nigeria (Fig.1). These are oil producing states in the country.

The region is made up of three broad ecological zones—western (Delta, Edo and Ondo), central Niger Delta (Bayelsa and Rivers) and the eastern (Akwa Ibom, Abia, Imo, and Cross River). The varied ecological setting of this region, together with the biological richness of the coastal waters, present varied opportunities and potential for resource use and development (Agbola and Olurin 2001). Given the regional and global biodiversity significance the region was accorded one of the highest conservative priorities in Africa by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) in 1995.

The eastern zone covered by this study falls within the freshwater forest and the mangrove forest belt. This belt extends between 20-40kms inland from the coast. It has 137kms or 18% of the Nigerian coastline and stretches from the mouth of the Imo River (west) to cross river (Fig.2).

Three rivers drain the area into the Atlantic Ocean within the Bight of Bonny. These three estuaries are characterized by brackish water with thick mangrove swamp forest on tidal mudflats. The bottom is generally of mixed deposit of sand and mud with abundance of silt, rich organic matter
Fig.1: NIGER DELTA REGION

transported by the rivers thereby making these estuaries some of the richest fishing zones in Nigeria and indeed west African region (Moses, 2000). As part of the Niger Delta, a major geomorphic feature in the region's coastal zone is the huge deposits of oil and gas which is the nation's main source of foreign exchange. The operational base of Mobil Producing Nigeria Unlimited; a subsidiary of ExxonMobil (the second largest crude oil producer and the largest condensate producer in Africa) is located within this zone.
Fig. 2: The three Estuaries.

The coastline stretches from the eastern border with the Republic of Cameroon in Cross river estuary to the western border with Rivers state along Imo river estuary. The terrestrial zone is about 10,400kms² in Area while the surface area of the continental shelf is about 18,500kms² (Ekong, 2005). The region especially the swamps have low elevation of not more than 3.0m above sea level and its elevation increases from the coast inland. Calabar river swamp elevation is as low as 0.15 to 0.25m above Mean Low water mark in its northern ranges while the Imo river swamps are between 0.11 to 0.15m in the most southern part (Moses, 2000).

Rainfall in the region follows the typical tropical rainforest climate. There is no month without rainfall. Usually the relatively dry part of the year is from December to February when monthly rainfall is low. In recent times, there has been increase of rainfall during the rainy season and a decrease during the dry season months showing a probability of the dry season becoming drier and rainy season becoming wetter (Atser, Etim, Ofem, and Ekong, 2010). High concentration of rainfall, according to this study, occurs during the months of May to October with July to September having the highest rainfall totals. The study (Atser, et al. 2010) equally shows that the mean annual rainfall total of 1904.2mm in 1986 rose to 2,378.4mm in 1996 and 3, 373mm in 2006. This changing pattern has resulted in increased erosion and flood disaster in the area. It is now common to see trees uprooted by fierce erosion along the coastline, as in Figure 3, sacking small fishing communities.

The changing pattern of rainfall in terms of annual rainfall totals and intensity in the study area is consistent with predictions of climate change. Studies reveal that several areas of the Nigerian coastal zone are highly vulnerable to climate change and sea level rise.
For instance, Awosika et al. (1992) predicted that the Niger Delta could lose well over 15,000km² of land by 2100. Other disasters resulting from this sea level rise in the study area as reported in these studies is increased salinisation of both ground and surface water leading to death of plants and animals that may not be able to tolerate high salinity. This will adversely affect coastal agriculture, water supply and industrial installations.

This scenario will adversely affect the teeming population as the region is one of the most densely settled areas in Nigeria (NPC, 2007). Population is everywhere high (urban and rural) ranging from 620 to 1000 people per square kilometers and contains 25% of the nation’s total population.
Result and Discussion

The total length of the extracted shoreline from 1986-2008 Landsat imagery was 137kms while the 2008 Ikonos imagery showed 45.942kms. The net change was measured as the distance between the most recent and earliest shoreline using 1986, 2003 and 2008 periods. The year 1986 was selected as the earliest date for comparison. In some locations, overall accretion was observed in transects numbers 1 to 11, transects 130 to 147, 359 to 365 and finally transects 377 to 381; while a net erosion was observed in all other transects. The shoreline of the study area has shown considerable changes over the twenty-one years covered by this study. The total area of observed coastline changes was 137km. The result shows an observed total change of 25.14km. In the course of the extraction work and other computations some margins of error may not be totally ruled out but which may not affect the outcome in any significant way. Of this, erosion accounted for 99.5% (13.07km) with less than 1 percent (0.066km) sediment deposit (accretion). This gives an annual rate of 0.625km.

A detailed analysis of the result for each segment shows the following:

- Section A: Imo River estuary (Figure 6)

This segment starts from Imo river estuary eastward along the coastline and terminates at Uta Ewa in Ikot Abasi L.G.A. High percentage of erosion than accretion was observed. A total of 7.5km of change was observed. Erosion accounted for 5.66km (96.3%) while accretion accounted for 1.84km.

Fig. 6: Erosion and Accretion Sites/Areas.
SECTION B: QUA IBOE RIVER ESTUARY

This portion of the coastline recorded massive accretion. The total change in this stretch amounted to 0.64km. Out of this accretion was responsible for 0.51km (79.7%) while only 0.13km (20.3%) was erosion's share. We observed that the accretion sediments were mainly around, Iko fishing ports, Mkpanak, Oponkang and Okoroutip with massive sand beaches.

SECTION C: CROSS RIVER ESTUARY

The last section was 0.5m after Qua Iboe river estuary to Cross river estuary, the southern part of the study area. This portion has about 17.077km of coastline. This segment recorded massive erosion with some remarkable accretion at few spots especially along Ibaka and smaller fishing ports of James Town, etc. A total coastline change of 11.167km was observed in this stretch. Of this, erosion accounted for 8.443km (75.6%) and accretion accounted for 2.725km (24.4%).

Determining the development setbacks

Taking into account the dynamic nature of the coastline under study, the estimates were on the projected recession or accretion rate and the expected lifespan of a concrete building in the area (ordinance Language). This method estimates the recession rate to account for the horizontal distance the shore is expected to recede during the useful life of a structure. The rate (erosion or accretion) was then projected into the future based on the estimated useful life of 30-30 years of a structure (Keillor, 2003). Though most of the structures along shoreline are built with concrete materials with good lifespan but due to the unstable nature of the soil here, a minimum of 30 years was used in the estimation of the setbacks. Thus, the following development setbacks are proposed:

- for all the eroding coastline within the area 19.5km should be allowed for all structures except those facilities which by their functions require coastline vicinity. This was arrived at by multiplying the annual erosion rate of 0.65m by the thirty years lifespan of structures (0.65x30), that is, 19.5m.

- also for all accreting coastline a 7.5km setback should be allowed i.e. accretion rate of 0.25m multiple by thirty years lifespan of structures (0.25x30), which yields 7.5m.

Implications for Physical Development Planning

Physical development planning is undertaken, in part, to prevent the occurrence of environmental development problems. An environmental problem is taken to mean either an inadequate supply of a resource essential to human health and well-being or the presence of pathogens/toxic substances and natural/human induced hazards in the environment which can damage human health or physical resources. To avoid environmental problem, part of the solution is adequate physical development planning, which would lead to sustainable environment and sustainable environment connotes the use of environment by man without undue adverse environmental consequences.

Physical development planning starts with man and his creative ability to develop possible strategies for solving environmental problems. Implicit from this study, therefore, is the need to embrace the following:

- legislation on the control of coastal
hazards from natural processes and their implementation to save the coastal environment and its rich resources;

- land use demarcation and planning control should include zoning ordinances for various coastal activities;

- as a matter of fact there is need for putting in place effective legislation. Currently, there is no existing legal framework for development setbacks at the coastal or any waterfront in Nigeria. There is also the need to enhance the monitoring of development activities so as to ensure the fuller enforcement of development setbacks regulations. To effectively implement this, there is need for the creation of Coastal Area Planning Commission (CAPC) proposed by Ekong and Ugwu (2010) or create a coastal area planning unit under the NDDC. This is because looking at the state of affairs in our coastal environment, there would not be a better coastal environment without a vibrant coastal planning and management commission;

- there is need for adequate coastal land use demarcation, planning and control. Coastal areas, noted for volatile natural processes, should be appropriately demarcated and regarded as fragile zones. In this respect developmental activities in such zones would be regarded an endangering natural resources/processes that would demand fuller attention and monitoring.

- public participation in policy formulation. As much as possible the people in coastal waterfront environment should be involved in policies affecting them to ensure fuller compliance when the policies are finally adopted. Considering the restive nature of people in the riverine areas of Nigeria, the involvement of the affected citizens in policies would make them safeguard and protect their environment considering that they would bear the pain in the event of environmental degradation from associated activities;

- environmental education and enlightenment in coastal development setbacks. The public needs to be extensively educated on the gains of coastal development setbacks. They should also be educated on the danger of tampering with development setbacks standards. Environmental education and public participation can give increasing awareness of environmental precaution as far as environmental resource protection is concerned.

Conclusion
This paper has unraveled the need for development and integration of development setbacks into Urban and Regional Planning legal framework with a view to protecting and preserving development infrastructure, human lives and volatile environments such as waterfronts and wetlands environments in Nigeria.
References


2. IMPACT OF INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS IN THE EXECUTION OF PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT PLANS IN ENUGU STATE OF NIGERIA.

By:
Iyi. Edmund Amuezuoke (Ph.D.)
Department of Urban and Regional Planning,
Enugu State University of Science and Technology (ESUT).
ABSTRACT

This study investigated the place of intergovernmental relations in revitalizing physical development efforts in Enugu State of Nigeria. It was with a view to finding out if the failure and/or abandonment of physical development projects is as a result of not maintaining intergovernmental relations. The sample frame of the study included officials in town planning matters, relevant ministries and parastatals, communities and other concerned international agencies. Proportionate stratified random sampling was used in selecting the various populations studied. Data collected were based on agencies involved in projects execution, the number of projects executed as well as the funds released for such projects for the period under study. The study revealed that intergovernmental relations in implementation of physical development projects do facilitate achievement of objectives. The study advanced measures for efficiency, chief of which is the institution of intergovernmental co-operations in the state at state, regional and local levels.

Key words: Intergovernmental relations, development project, fund release, regional level.
INTRODUCTION

The problem addressed in this study was that despite well articulated and goal oriented physical development plans specified in the yearly budgets of Enugu State, there was scarcely physical manifestation of the projects. Some of the projects are either commenced or abandoned or are never commenced at all after approval. Few completed ones are never realized within target periods. For example, Udi local government area, initiated a regional market at 9th Mile corner of Enugu state but this has been long abandoned. Furthermore, some office blocks in the development centres created by the state government in 2004 are yet to be completed. At state level, such state roads as Ukehe-Aku-Nkpolougu and Enugu-Mbu-Opi roads are yet to be completed after several years of commencement. This appears to be an indication of lack of vertical intergovernmental relations. That is a situation where a project that was initiated and commenced by any existing administration lacked continuity by a succeeding administration. This phenomenon was more prevalent among the local governments in the state. Furthermore the low pace of implementation of physical development programmes at local level negates the purpose of the third tier of government.

There appears to be lack of adequate alliance and coordination among the government and other agencies charged with the responsibility of physical development planning in the State. It is the desire for progress and the need to address this problem of development that has led to the urge to carryout regional physical development planning of the state alongside a model of interrelationships of these relevant government agencies and other stakeholders.

It is the assumption of the paper that interrelationships among these stakeholders did facilitate achievement of objectives. The intergovernmental relations are adjudged by the level of involvement of different tiers of government that ordinarily should work together to execute a project. Extent of implementation of physical development projects was the yardstick used to determine the number of physical development projects implemented. This was with a view to providing a clear basis for drawing a conclusion on the functioning of intergovernmental relations in Enugu State.

Review of Related Literature

Intergovernmental relations (IGR) are defined as an important body of activities or interrelations occurring between or among governmental units of all types and levels within the Federal System (Anderson, 1960). This definition is very expansive when one looks at what led to the emergence of the term in physical planning. For example, Sandford (1967), in his study of American states, made a set of propositions, namely:-

a. The national government cannot effectively reach its goals without the power of the states;

b. The states cannot serve all their people without the power of the national government;

c. The city/local government cannot overcome its problems without the power of the national government plus the power of the state;

d. The national and state governments cannot perform their duty through the city residents without the power of the city/local government.

Not long after Sandford's propositions, the interrelatedness of Federal,
State and Local governments came to the attention of the American government. President, Richard Nixon, had in 1969, remarked that the country could no longer have effective government at any level unless it has it at all levels; and that there was too much to be done for the cities to do it alone, or for Washington to do it alone, or for the states to do it alone (Wright, 1978).

The foregoing reveals the importance of governmental interdependence, which is the theme of Intergovernmental Relations (IGR). Even though, in the literature, IGR is not presented as a policy making body, it is, according to Wright (1978), a somewhat hidden dimension of governance whose impact on the society can be enormous.

The historical account of IGR is best grasped when viewed from the experience of the United States of America (USA). According to Wright (1978), IGR originated in America in the 1930s with the advent of the Federal Governments massive efforts to combat the then great depression and its economic and social havoc. The term was then concerned with choosing causes of action and assessing their practical effects. Such courses of action were in respect to the delivery of public services to particular groups in the society or the entire population.

In the 1950s the American Congress on two occasions employed the term in statutory language and, precisely, in 1950 created the temporary (1953 – 1955) Commission of IGR. In 1959 it created the permanent Advisory Commission on IGR (American Council on Intergovernmental Relations, 2003).

The Commission was called the American Council on Intergovernmental Relations (ACIR, 2003). ACIR was to be a permanent, independent, bipartisan agency established under Public Law 86-380 to study and consider the federal government's intergovernmental relationships and America's intergovernmental machinations. IGRs are characterized by certain important features, which makes them more comprehensive. Wright (1978) identifies and distinguishes five of such features. In the first place, IGR encompasses all combinations of relations among the units of government in a given system, such as National-State, Interstate, National-Local, State-Local, National-State-Local and Inter-local relations. This permutation of relations reveals the jurisdictional diversity and complexity associated with IGR.

The second feature concerns the activities and attitudes of personnel in the units of government under consideration. The argument here is that the individual actions and attitudes of public officials in government units are the core of IGR. This means that the relation is, as a matter of fact, simply human; and is dependent on how the officials perceive each other's actions and attitudes. For Pressman and Wildausky (1979), for example, what the initiators of a programme think are at stake may differ from the programmes of other participants or stakeholders. Securing of meeting-of-the-mind of the officials, as to the importance of a proposed programme, is therefore, important. Thirdly, IGR include day-to-day patterns of contacts and exchanges of information and views on the part of the concerned officials. The participants are concerned with goal-oriented arrangements that can be realized within each participant's formal, legal and institutional context.

The fourth and fifth features of IGR centre on participatory and policy components, respectively. Conventionally, all public officials, mayors, town and city council members, governors, state legislators, and members of congress, presidents and appointed administrators) participate in IGR arrangements. All policy components, core of which is fiscal, revolve around the interrelations among all public officials...
involved.

A good number of authors have discussed physical development planning as an activity under urban, regional or town planning. Urban planning, according to Basorun (2004), is conceived to be a product of the problems associated with the emergence of industrial towns and cities, both in the developed and developing nations.

By definition, it is an application of scientific methods of policy-making, with a view to increasing the validity of planning concerned with the present and anticipated future of the urban environment (Faludi, 1973). From Faludi's definition and from the planning literature, the outstanding issue is how best to allocate land resource for the diverse activities that take place on land, in order to achieve environmental harmony, sustainability and aesthetics. When this is done at the urban level, it is urban planning. The Urban Planner is variously referred to as Town Planner, City Planner or Land Use Planner. This suggests that planning at such other levels as town and city can be referred to as town or city or urban planning.

'Regional planning' as a concept has attracted more contributions than 'urban planning'. According to the Encyclopedia Britannica, regional planning is a term used by community planners, engineers and geographers to describe a comprehensive ordering of the natural resources of a community, its material equipment and its population for the purpose of laying a sound physical basis for the good life.

Planning efforts in Enugu State vis-à-vis pure physical arrangements as noticed from the studied Budget Estimates, are replete with mere financial allocations for development projects without plans to guide such projects. This is irrespective of the fact that objectives are often specific enough to stand formulation of physical development plans in good stead. There has never been a constituted intergovernmental approach to planning efforts nor a study carried out in that respect. This, therefore, indicates a gap, which this study addresses.

The Study Area

Enugu State is one of the thirty six states into which the country, Nigeria, is currently divided. It came into existence out of the old Enugu State in 1996. The name "Enugu" is derived from Enugu City, the State Capital. It is made up of seventeen local government areas. It is represented by eleven elected members in the National Assembly, that is, three in the upper house (Senate) and eight in the lower house (House of Representatives). In the State House of Assembly, there are twenty four members representing the seventeen local government council areas of the State. There are three political zones in existence, namely, Enugu North, Enugu West, and Enugu East, and three corresponding urban centres - Nsukka, Oji-River and Enugu. Furthermore, each government council area is a political unit that is divided into council wards. There are a total of three hundred and sixty wards in the State. Three tiers of government are in existence in the state, namely, Federal, State and Local. Several agencies of these governments are charged with physical planning development responsibilities in the State.

Methodology

Survey-research method was adopted for the study. The study was carried out in 2009 and the sampling frame included officials in town planning matters, relevant ministries and parastatals, the local government councils, communities and their leaders and other concerned international agencies. Proportionate stratified random sampling was used in selecting the various populations of study. The sample sizes of the various populations are shown in Table 1.
Table 1: Population of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No.</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Town Planners</td>
<td>Not certain</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ministries/Parastatals (Personnel)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Local Government Chairmen or Representatives</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Communities (Leaders)</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Cognate Professions</td>
<td>Not certain</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Other Government Agencies(Personnel)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Questionnaire was administered alongside interviews to gather data on involvement of different tiers of government in the implementation of projects, number of projects implemented and the finance released for the projects during the period under study, projects abandoned and the preferred option for management of intergovernmental relations.

Data Presentation and Analysis

Efforts were made to understudy the intensity of carrying out of physical development projects by concerned agencies. This was in order to establish a bases for appraising possible interrelationships among levels of government and other stakeholders in executing the projects. The agencies were asked to list physical development projects executed within the past ten years. Projects of substantial size were subjectively determined and rated. The responses were rated as follows:

- 4 Projects and above - very high
- 3 Projects - high
- 2 Projects - low
- 0-1 Project - very low
Table 2: Implementation of Projects by Physical Development Agencies in Enugu State.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>Agency</th>
<th>Number of projects</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Major Project</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>United Nations Dev. Programme</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Water Supply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Department for International Dev.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Solid Waste Mgt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Federal Ministry of Works</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Roads Construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Federal Ministry of Housing and Urban Development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Site and Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>State Ministry of Works &amp; Transport</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Roads Construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>State Water Corporation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ext. of Water Mains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>State Rural Electrification Board</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Rural Electrification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>State Town Planning Department</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Preparation of Layouts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Average = 2.44</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Level of Relations among Levels of Government:

The responses got from respondents to questions on involvement and level of participation of other related agencies in projects execution have been rated as follows:

4 – Very high; 3 – high; 2 – low; 1 – very low.

The criteria for rating are as indicated below:

(i) Very High - when, from review of method of operation, all supposed agencies were involved in execution of listed projects.

(ii) High - when 50% or above of the supposed agencies were involved in execution of listed projects.

(iii) Low - when less than 50% of the supposed agencies were involved.

(iv) Very Low - when none of the supposed agencies was involved.

The outcome of the rating in respect of the selected agencies involved in physical development in the study area is as shown in Table 3.
Table 3: Rating of Intergovernmental Relations in Enugu State.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Agency</th>
<th>Major listed Project</th>
<th>Number of other supposed Agencies</th>
<th>Number Involved</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
<td>Water Supply</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Department for International Development</td>
<td>Solid Waste Management</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Federal Ministry of Work</td>
<td>Roads Construction</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Federal Min. of Housing and Urban dev.</td>
<td>Site Services</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>State Min. of Works &amp; Transport</td>
<td>Roads Construction</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>State water Corporation</td>
<td>Extension of Water Mains</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>State Rural Electrification Board</td>
<td>Rural Electrification</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>State Town Planning Department</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s Survey, 2009

From Table 3 the average rating of 1.44 indicates a very low level of interrelationship among the agencies. There was only one case of a situation where all the supposed agencies were involved in the implementation of listed projects. This is inadequate and indicates a gap in the intergovernmental relations in the area.

Effective Financial Allocation

The study of the effectiveness of financial allocation was based on three considerations, namely, the amount of money appropriated for carrying out physical development and other related projects by relevant agencies, the actual amount recorded as spent and the observed physical manifestations of proposed projects. The observation was based on the project targets for each period as stated in the budget estimates for three consecutive years. The physical manifestations were subjectively rated as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Very high: very significant manifestation of overall project targets on ground and in conformity to appropriated amount.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VOL. XXII

October, 2013
3  - High: significant manifestation but not in all target projects.

2  - Low: insufficient manifestation as compared to amounts appropriated.

1  - Very poor: replete with commenced and abandoned projects; and cases of target projects not commenced.

The findings in this respect are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Effectiveness of Financial Allocations for Target Projects in Enugu State

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Project Area and Implementing Agency</th>
<th>Appropriation Year</th>
<th>Planned (NM)</th>
<th>Actual (NM)</th>
<th>% Actual</th>
<th>Examples of Target Projects</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Land &amp; Transport (Ministry of Works &amp; Transport)</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>744.00</td>
<td>392.83</td>
<td>52.80</td>
<td>Ukche – Aku – Mkpologwu Road (Igbo-Eiti &amp; Uzo Uwani LGAs)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>711.00</td>
<td>1026.99</td>
<td>144.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>1318.50</td>
<td>332.54</td>
<td>24.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub - Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>2773.50</td>
<td>1752.39</td>
<td>63.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Water Supply (Water Corporation)</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>1142.20</td>
<td>466.18</td>
<td>40.81</td>
<td>New water supply from Oji-River (Oji-River &amp; Enugu Urban)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>961.78</td>
<td>726.16</td>
<td>75.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>1170.00</td>
<td>296.45</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub - Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>3274.97</td>
<td>1488.79</td>
<td>45.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Rural Electrification (Rural Électrification Board)</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>245.00</td>
<td>361.07</td>
<td>147.38</td>
<td>Phase II of Rural Electrification (70 communities involved)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>313.50</td>
<td>38.24</td>
<td>12.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>404.46</td>
<td>5176.10</td>
<td>1279.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub - Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>962.96</td>
<td>5575.99</td>
<td>578.99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Town &amp; Country Planning (Lands, Survey &amp; Town Planning)</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>254.00</td>
<td>299.73</td>
<td>118.00</td>
<td>Master Plan for urban Areas (Enugu,Nsukka &amp; Oji-River)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>499.00</td>
<td>21.87</td>
<td>64.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>476.00</td>
<td>965.22</td>
<td>202.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub - Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>1229.00</td>
<td>1586.82</td>
<td>129.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>8240.43</td>
<td>10403.38</td>
<td>126.24</td>
<td>Average Rating = 1.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 4, the average rating is 1.75. This indicates insufficient financial allocation for target projects on the ground for the period investigated. The cumulative percentage actual expenditure of 126.24% and the corresponding rating of 1.75 suggest dearth of more effective approach to physical development actions in the study area. The amount recorded as actual expenses are inclusive of grants and loans from international bodies, the Federal Government and banks. Examples include the UNICEF Grant for Water and Sanitation (WATSAN) Projects and the Agricultural Development Bank (ADB) loan for Rural Infrastructure projects.

In a section of the questionnaire, the opinions of the respondents were sought as to whether separate bodies should be constituted to oversee interrelations in the execution of physical development projects. The opinions have been shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Opinion of Respondents on Having Separate Body for Management of Intergovernmental Relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Respondent (Agency)</th>
<th>Total No.</th>
<th>Opinion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Local Government Council</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Planning Authority Chief/Executive</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Community Leaders</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Town Planners</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Other Related Professional</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>244</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: cher’s Research, 2009Research

Table 5 indicates that out of 286 respondents, 244 or 85.32% were of the opinion that separate bodies should be set up to oversee intergovernmental relations in the state. 42 or 14.68% were of the opinion that there is no need for such.
Discussion of Findings

Attempt was made to bring the discussion to bear on the data presented and analyzed. Tables 2 and 3 have two principal revelations. Firstly, there is low level of projects implementation in the State. Secondly, intergovernmental relationship among the agencies that are charged with the responsibility of physical planning and development in Enugu State was not established. To this end, the advantages of intergovernmental relations cannot be effectively tapped. Such advantages, among others, include:

(a) Concord of purpose among major stakeholders.

(b) Elimination of waste and duplication of labour and materials

(C) Existence of cooperation rather than competition among physical planning and development agencies

(d) Sustainability of development programmes through succeeding governments

(e) Improvement of employment opportunities through enlarged physical development programmes.

(f) Raising the potential for tapping the economic base of the state

(g) Ensuring good utilization of the state political structure in initiating, funding and implementing target projects.

(h) Arousing the interest of the political office holders in delivery of physical development programmes

(i) Ensuring fair spread of physical developments in the state.

However, the study on existing intergovernmental relations in the state was not absolutely decisive, as deduced from literature. For example, for the fact that the international agencies concerned with physical development in Enugu state have specified areas of operation, it was difficult to deduce specific areas of interdependence. But since there appeared not to have been clearly espoused deliberate attempt at institutionalizing coordinating bodies for intergovernmental relations at any level of governance in Nigeria, not much efforts were found to be in line with the quest of this study in Enugu state. It is believed that a deliberate attempt at creating good intergovernmental relations among levels of government would bring about their concord of purpose. In this case, a positive and significant relationship would exist among them. This would, in turn, create a positive and significant relationship among them and effective utilization of funds released for physical development projects.

Another crucial dimension of the findings, inference and observation is that the rate at which project are initiated and abandoned was also found to be high. This phenomenon was more prevalent among the local government councils in the state. Furthermore the low pace of implementation of physical development programmes at local level negates the purpose of the third tier level of government. Ideally the creation and recreation of local government areas were aimed at facilitating development to reach the people at the grassroots, make rural life more meaningful and thus reduce rural-urban gap. For the fact that, despite these local government creations, and the yearly state budget proposals to tackle physical development problems at all levels, some
areas still exhibit lack of basic infrastructure, an interdependence of actions by stakeholders is desirable. In this case, a coordinating team would be mandated to keep track of major developments among planned programmes and respond accordingly for overall efficiency. If this is done, it will be in tune with Olumese’s (1987) opinion that the existing administrative structure of our economy (i.e. Nigerian economy) should be modified to the maximum advantage to facilitate the integration of development planning for overall national development. The modification, to him should be along functional institutional arrangement or organizational structure, which emphasizes interrelationship among all government agencies.

However, for intergovernmental relations efforts to thrive there should be some enabling opportunities. It is on such enabling opportunities and how best to utilize them that planning for good intergovernmental relations among levels of government are based. Such opportunities for intergovernmental relations in Enugu State revolve around the resources available and the political structure. Some of the international agencies in Enugu state deal specifically with physical developments. Examples include the United National Development programme (UNDP) and the Directorate for International Development (DFID). Federal agencies include such federal ministries as Works, Housing and Urban Development. The state government also has ministries and parastatals charged with physical development programmes. Examples include the Ministry of Works and Housing and Ministry of Public Utilities.

The resources include human resources in form of labour availability, natural resources in form of forest resources, solid minerals and tourist attractive areas; and man-made resources in form of physical infrastructure. Furthermore, the existing senatorial zones form a strong base for functional regional arrangement since the political structure (local, state and national governments; the three arms of government—the executive, the legislature, the judiciary, etc) has already taken that shape. Any effort, therefore, put towards emplacing any intergovernmental structure would thrive with minimal difficulty.

**Recommendations**

Having assessed the level of intergovernmental relations and the opportunities thereof in physical planning and development in Enugu state, on one hand, and the need to constitute separate bodies to oversee the relations on the other hand, the following recommendations are made for efficiency.

a. Intergovernmental co-operation should be deliberately constituted at state, regional, sub regional and local levels in Enugu State.

b. A constituted body for intergovernmental relations in the State should be made to ensure preparation of and judicious implementation of integrated physical development plans by making sure that the stakeholders co-operate in contributing resources (money, labour and materials).

c. The existing three political zones of Enugu North, Enugu West and Enugu East should be adopted as the three regions of development planning, and using each of the three respective urban centers of Nsukka, Oji-River, and Enugu as regional centers.

d. Funding physical development programmes should be a collective responsibility of the three levels of government (Federal, State and Local) in the state. With special
arrangements, the interest of international agencies and other stakeholders will be aroused, in so far as there is apparent transparency in the scheme of operation.

Conclusion

In this study, the level of and opportunities for intergovernmental approach to physical planning and development in Enugu state have been highlighted. The net finding is that, since there has not been any deliberate arrangement for intergovernmental relations among concerned agencies, the level of physical development has remained insignificant. That is, there is less vigour in interdependence among agencies involved in initiating, funding and implementing development programmes.

The study revealed that what would stand any intergovernmental arrangement in good stead in the state, especially in relation to the fiscal aspect, would be the representative structure at federal, state and local levels. It is a structure whose potentials are virtually untapped. If the officials of the structure are galvanized in accordance with the roles expected of them in service delivery and other stakeholders are brought together, efficiency would be achieved in tune with the quest of this study. As also gathered in the course of the study, communities are willing to work together. Local governments, ministries, parastatals, international and federal agencies in the state are also willing to work in partnership with others in executing physical development programmes. More so, constituting separate bodies for the management of the interrelationship was a preferred option.

The regional arrangement in Enugu state has potentialities for centrally directed allocation of resources between and among them to achieve desired regional, state and national objectives.

This is so since such arrangement is a handiwork of the state government in which case the regions can be said to be essentially concerned with defining areas for intermediate level of government and administration. As a major contribution, therefore, this study stands out as both descriptive and prescriptive document for intergovernmental approach to physical planning and development.

References


Encyclopedia Britanica. Installment 18, University of Chicago, pp. 71-72.


FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE CHOICE OF URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING UNDERGRADUATE COURSE IN SOUTH EAST NIGERIA

Jiburum Uloha (Ph.D.) RTP, MNITP
Department of Urban and Regional Planning,
University of Nigeria, Enugu Campus.
Abstract

Enrollment into the urban and regional planning undergraduate programmes in Nigerian Universities has not shown commensurate growth despite the level of importance attached to the profession. This paper examines why many candidates do not choose urban and regional planning as their first choice of course in the university entrance examination. It also ascertained the willingness of urban and regional planning students to recommend urban and regional planning to other prospective candidates. A descriptive design was employed as survey methodology. A sample of 398 students was drawn from five universities in South East Nigeria using stratified random sampling technique. A total of 335 responses were analyzed. The results show that majority of the students did not choose urban and regional planning as a first or second choice course because of ignorance about the profession. Information about urban and regional planning was got by candidates during admission on campus. People in the profession, school teachers and principals were the least source of information to candidates. Interest was not a strong reason for choosing to study urban and regional planning but failure to secure admission into other preferred courses. The results of the three hypotheses suggest the following: first, significant relationship exists between students studying URP and their willingness to recommend the programme to other candidates; second, significant relationship exists between the desire of student to change to preferred course and university and third there is no significant relationship between the university of students and willingness of students to practice the profession on graduation. This study recommends among others that efforts on creating awareness about the profession should be redoubled.

Key words: urban and regional planning, career, undergraduate programme, profession.
INTRODUCTION

Rapid city growth in Nigeria has given rise to many urban development problems. Some of the problems are slum development, traffic congestion, among others. These problems have brought urban and regional planning profession to the fore front in urban management. The need for proper planning and guided development necessitates the use of professional town planners. Prospective urban planners who choose to go to university undergo a five year tertiary education programme from approved universities to obtain the professional bachelor's degree in urban and regional planning in the country. Despite the need and importance of the planning profession, admission records show that many secondary school leavers do not initially indicate they want to study urban and regional planning in their university entrance examination. Enrollment into the course by merit therefore has remained low when compared to other disciplines. This situation is not good for the development and practice of the urban planning profession in the country. Reduction in enrollment is not peculiar to only the planning profession but also other allied disciplines. Palmer (2005) observed that there was a reduction in the number and calibre of students seeking admission into engineering education in Australia. Poor image of the engineering profession and poor understanding of engineering in schools were attributed to the situation. Dunnion and McBride (2010) also observed a decline in nursing enrollment in Ireland.

Urban and regional planning (URP) degree programme was started in the southeast of Nigeria by the University of Nigeria in September 1982. The programme began with 20 students and in the 1986/87 academic session when it graduated its first set of students, it had a total student population of 200.

Presently, five universities in the South East offer the course at undergraduate level. One federal, three state and one private university, the youngest being the private university (Caritas University Amorji Nike). The programme is accredited for these universities by two bodies viz., the Town Planners Registration Council (TOPREC), the professional body that regulates the training and practice of urban and regional planning in Nigeria and the National Universities Commission (NUC) which is the academic regulatory body. Caritas University and Federal University of Technology Owerri are yet to be accredited. Urban and Regional Planning in all the accredited universities in Nigeria is a standard five year programme leading to a Bachelor of Urban and Regional Planning (B. URP) degree. Entry requirement (subjects) into URP is broad and post secondary school leavers with diverse backgrounds are qualified for admission. The programme is aimed at providing the students with a sound and broad based education in Urban and Regional Planning with particular reference to Nigerian situation. This is with a view to equipping the students adequately for a career in professional practice not only as generalist planners but also as experts in specific areas of planning. The programme is also aimed at preparing students for a career in planning research and in other planning related activities. Practical training through attachment to professional planning firms and government departments is an essential prerequisite for graduation (Ucheogbu, 2010)

In the South East as it is elsewhere, high school students usually face difficulties when choosing a career. Understanding post secondary school enrollment behavior is necessary, but also a complex and dynamic process influenced by many factors that needs to be understood. Career interests are patterns of like, dislike, and indifference regarding career relevant activities and occupations. Career interests predict course choices and performance. Choosing a career is
one of the most important life decisions because of its impact in the future. Several researches have been carried out on factors which influence choice of course by high school students into different disciplines; accountancy (Ahmed et al 1997), dentistry (Mugonzibwa Ahmed, Alam and Alam, 2000), engineering (Ferry 2006; Dick and Rallis, 1991) and library science (Barakuttu et al, 2008; Issa and Nwalo, 2008). Some of the studies tried to establish the reasons for increase in choice in particular profession (Hagerty, 1964; Emenyonu, 1991; Young et al, 1997; and Gul et al, 2009). These studies concluded that the Image and poor understanding of profession were some of the reasons for decline.

In Nigeria, Salami (1999) noted that many youths make wrong career choice due to ignorance, inexperience, peer pressure, advice from friends, parents and teachers or as a result of the prestige attached to certain jobs without adequate vocational guidance and career counseling.

However, it is evident from existing literature that no study yet has empirically investigated the factors which affect the choice of urban and regional planning as an undergraduate course in Nigerian Universities. This paper is based on a study of South East Nigeria is focused on investigating the issue by ascertaining the reasons why Urban and Regional Planning appears unpopular among prospective students and why only few undergraduate students make Urban and Regional Planning their preferred course of choice and future career.

METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out using survey research method to collect information from undergraduate students of Universities offering URP in South East Nigeria. Five Universities were used in the study. They are: University of Nigeria, Imo State University, Abia State University, Enugu State University of Science and Technology and Caritas University. The five URP schools had a student population of 796 undergraduates at the time of survey.

A sample size of 398 (50%) students was drawn using stratified random sampling technique. Each planning school was stratified into 5 levels (corresponding to year of study). Fifty percent of population at each level was drawn as sample size (see table 1). The study employed the use of standardized questionnaires, comprising both open and closed question style. The questionnaire was used amongst other things to get information on the students' willingness to continue with the programme, practice the profession on graduation and recommend URP to other candidates. Students were assured that their response will not be against them. Names and registration numbers of respondents were not required in the questionnaire, only year of study was required which was to ensure anonymity. Questionnaires were distributed in each class randomly just before lecture and were collected after the lecture. Descriptive statistics such as tables and frequency are used in the study. Statistical package for social science (SPSS) was used to analyze the raw data. The study used Chi square to test three research hypotheses stated as follow: (i) there is no significant relationship between university of student and student's willingness to recommend URP course/programme to other candidates. (ii) There is no significant relationship between university of student and student's readiness to change to a preferred course and (iii) there is no significant relationship between university of student and student's willingness to practice URP profession on graduation. These tests will be used to further validate the findings from the questionnaire on how students of URP view urban and regional planning practice and profession. It will throw some light on future growth and dissemination of information about planning.
ANALYSIS

Table 1: Questionnaire Distribution Among the Universities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>100</th>
<th>200</th>
<th>300</th>
<th>400</th>
<th>500</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Student population</th>
<th>Number returned and used (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABSU</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>61 (18.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caritas</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8 (2.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESUTH</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>130 (38.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMSU</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>62 (18.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNN</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>73 (21.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>398</td>
<td>796</td>
<td>335 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source Field survey 2010
* No student for the level

Choice of Urban and Regional Planning: The Indicators

Out of 398 copies of the questionnaire administered to students in the five universities, 335 (84.2%) were completed and returned. These were used in the analysis. The number of respondents were 335, comprising of 204(61%) males and 131(39%) females. A breakdown of their age brackets indicates that majority of the students 251 (74.9%) are in the 21 to 25 years age bracket, those above thirty years are 5(1.5%).

The general secondary school subject background of the respondents revealed that majority of the students are science inclined 220 (65.7%) followed by social science 70 (20.9%) and arts 45 (13.4%). The Ordinary Level (O level) subject background of the respondents was very diverse. All the respondents (100%) studied English, biology (97%), economics (95%), mathematics 93%, agricultural science (73%), geography (70%), physics and chemistry (64% and 65%) respectively. Some others include technical drawing (6.3%), history (7.8%) and literature in English (23.3%). This shows that students studying URP have broad secondary school subject background.

The respondents had a wide range of first and second course choice as shown in table 2. The table revealed that only (15% and 14.6%) of the respondents made URP their first and second choice course respectively in their admission form. Courses in engineering faculty had (13.4%, and 12.3%), business administration (13.1% and 18.6%), medical and health sciences (16.4% and 9%). Courses in the environmental studies/sciences such as
(85\%) first choice preference for courses other than URP by the respondents.

Table 2: First and Second Choice of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/no</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>First Choice</th>
<th>Second Choice</th>
<th>S/no</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>First Choice</th>
<th>Second Choice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Business Administration</td>
<td>44 (13.1%)</td>
<td>62 (18.6%)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Medical sciences</td>
<td>55 (16.4%)</td>
<td>30 (9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Engineering courses</td>
<td>45 (13.4%)</td>
<td>41 (12.3%)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Computer science</td>
<td>4 (12%)</td>
<td>9 (2.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>1 (0.3%)</td>
<td>1 (0.3%)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>3 (0.9%)</td>
<td>3 (0.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>architecture</td>
<td>23 (6.9%)</td>
<td>17 (5.1%)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Mass comm.</td>
<td>4 (4%)</td>
<td>4 (1.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Biological Sciences</td>
<td>12 (3.5%)</td>
<td>25 (7.5%)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>3 (0.9%)</td>
<td>5 (1.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>22 (6.6%)</td>
<td>24 (7.2%)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3 (0.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Estate Management</td>
<td>11 (3.3%)</td>
<td>13 (3.9%)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>geography</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4 (1.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Law</td>
<td>12 (3.6%)</td>
<td>8 (2.4%)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Other courses</td>
<td>32 (9.6%)</td>
<td>35 (10.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Surveying</td>
<td>3 (0.9%)</td>
<td>2 (0.6%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>URP</td>
<td>51 (15.2%)</td>
<td>49 (14.6%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>335 (100%)</td>
<td>335 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey 2010
The study showed that many respondents 161 (48%) got information about URP as a course and career when they came to the university during admission. Another source of information about URP for the students is from parents and relatives 61 (18.2%) and from JAMB brochure 57 (17%). Only 44 (13.1%) of the respondents learnt about URP from people in the profession. Least source of information about URP to the respondents came from school teachers and principals. It is note-worthy that people in the profession did not lead in awareness creation (See table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/no</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>S/no</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>S/no</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>On campus during</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>URP</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Peers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>admission</td>
<td>161 (48%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15 (4.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Guidance and</td>
<td>12 (3.6%)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Through</td>
<td>7 (2.1%)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Adverts</td>
<td>11 (3.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>counselor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>5 (1.5%)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Parent/Teacher/principal</td>
<td>61 (18.2%)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>UME/JAMB</td>
<td>57 (17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Relations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>brochure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source Field survey 2010
The result on when respondents became aware of URP indicated that awareness about the profession came after secondary education when respondents failed to gain admission into their preferred course in the university 220 (65.7%). Awareness about URP during primary and post-primary education is very low with only 7 and 30 (1.4% and 9%) respectively (See table 4). This is again an indication that awareness about URP is still very low. Ignorance about URP thus appears a key factor for the low level preference and popularity amongst secondary and post-secondary school leavers in the South East. With many other professions such as medicine, pharmacy engineering, accountancy and architecture, awareness and interest on choice of career is developed before students are ready for tertiary level education (Young et al 1997).

Table 4: When Respondents became Aware of URP Course/Profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/no</th>
<th>Awareness</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>In primary school</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>In secondary school</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>After secondary school</td>
<td>23.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>When I could not get admission into my preferred Course</td>
<td>65.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: Field survey 2010**

The result concerning reasons for studying URP is shown in table 5. The reasons were scored 1 to 4 (4 being very strong reason, and 1 not a reason at all). The table revealed that interest in URP practice was not a very strong reason for choosing to study URP as only 98 (29.3%) of the respondents choose URP because of the interest they had in the course. Most of the respondents whose first and/or second choice was URP indicated that interest in the course was a strong reason for their choice of course. It was disappointing to note that failure to secure admission into other preferred courses was a very strong reason to study URP for 183 (54.6%) of the respondents.

Advice of parents, friends, job opportunity, prestige and confidence in URP profession were not very strong reasons for choosing the course for many of the respondents with 24.8%, 12.8%, 28.4%, 23.6% and 29% respectively. Career counseling was also not a strong reason for choosing URP course.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/no</th>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>RATING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not a reason at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Interest in URP</td>
<td>20.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Job opportunity</td>
<td>12.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Confidence in URP</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Interest in URP education</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Prestige in URP profession</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Advice of teachers</td>
<td>33.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Advice of parent</td>
<td>25.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Advice of relatives</td>
<td>32.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Advice from friends</td>
<td>35.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Easy to do course</td>
<td>49.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Career counseling</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Failed to gain admission into other Courses</td>
<td>19.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey 2010
Majority of the respondents (88.1%) agree that URP has good career prospects. Although only 15% of the respondents choose URP as a first choice course while the remaining (85%) did not choose URP as a first choice course, (77.5%) of the respondents are happy and like the course now that they have started the programme. A major drawback of the course as observed by respondents (90.5%) is the stressful and time consuming nature of the courses studied in URP when compared to other courses in the university, especially studio courses. This was a repeated reason for wanting to leave the programme for the respondents.

Among the respondents, (69.3%) are likely to recommend the course to other persons. When asked if they would want to change their course to their preferred course now, only (23.2%) of the respondents indicated in the affirmative. It was surprising to note that (23.3%) of the respondents in 500 level indicated that they are still willing to change course.

The result on respondents' willingness to practice the profession after graduation as shown in table 6 indicates that (72.9%) will be willing while (13.5% and 13.7%) are unlikely and undecided respectively.

### Table 6: Acceptance of Profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Most likely</th>
<th>likely</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Unlikely</th>
<th>Most unlikely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recommend course to others</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
<td>42.7%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to change course</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>19.4%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to practice after graduation</td>
<td>43.9%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>13.7%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source Field survey 2010
The result of the first $X^2$ analysis showed that there is a significant relationship between university of respondent and willingness to recommend the programme/course to others candidates. The analysis gave $X^2 (12) = 34.56, p < .001$. (See Table 7) The second analysis on Table 8 also suggests that there is a significant relationship between university of respondent and readiness to change to preferred course $X^2 (12) = 20.98, p < .05$. The third analysis suggests that there is no significant relationship between respondents university and whether the respondent will practice the profession on graduation $X^2 (9) = 10.37, p > .05$. (See Table 9).

### Table 7: Chi-Square Output on Students Willingness to Recommend Course to Other Candidates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>34.562</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>34.560</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cramer's V</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source SPSS Analysis 2010

### Table 8: Chi-Square Output on Students Readiness to Change to Preferred Course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>21.304</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>20.98</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cramer's V</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td></td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source SPSS analysis 2010

### Table 9: Chi Square Output on Students Willingness to Practice the Profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>9.727</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>10.371</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cramer's V</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td></td>
<td>.237</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source SPSS Analysis 2010

VOL. XXII 41 October, 2013
DISCUSSION

The findings of this study have shed some light on the wrong impression that URP schools in the South East are dumping grounds for students who cannot secure admission into preferred courses. The finding that only (15%) of the respondents made URP their first choice course is not a good sign for growth and progress of the profession. For the growth of the profession it is hoped that in future more than (50%) of the students studying URP will be those that chose it as their first choice course. The study also revealed that a key factor to this problem is ignorance about the course. This agrees with findings of other scholars (Issa and Nwalo, 2008; Emeyeconu, 1991; Young et al, 1997 and Salami, 1999). Career interest, image of the profession, advice from friends and teachers were found not to be determinants of choice for URP as is observed for some other courses (Salami, 1999; Ferry, 2006). The study also revealed that most respondents became aware of URP after secondary education instead of during senior secondary education as is the case in studies on other professions (Lubben et al, 2010).

The late awareness of URP as a course of choice may influence the number of candidates applying for the course. The study also brought out that parents and/or relatives have little influence on choice of career. This does not agree with findings from other studies (Issa and Nwalo, 2008; Dick and Rallis, 1991), where parental influence on choice of career of post-primary school students was found to be high. Although this study did not look into the reasons for this, it may not be unrelated to ignorance about URP on the part of parents. Decision to study URP by respondents was not based on perceived prestige, understanding of profession, peer pressure, career counseling and type of work as is the case with studies of some other professions (Young et al, 1997, Emeyeconu, 1991 and Gleich, 1987). This again could be attributed to ignorance and poor understanding of the profession (Palmer 2005, Gul et al, 2009). A reason for not wanting to continue with the course as revealed in this study is the stress and time spent on design works (studio).

The result of the three analyses showed that willingness to recommend the programme to others and readiness to change course is related to the University of respondent. This might mean that the general environment, method of lectures and the way students are made to see the profession differ in the universities studied and may have a lot of influence on them. That most of the respondents now like the course and will be willing to practice when they graduate is a plus for the profession. The more the people practicing the profession, the more the public will be aware of it.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Ignorance about the course and the profession of urban and regional planning is a major factor for lack of popularity. Publicity about the profession must be encouraged. Publicity should be through enlightenment by Guidance Counselors in secondary schools and organized interactions between professionals, students and teachers in senior secondary schools. Professionals should portray the profession in good light whenever the opportunity arises. The role of planners in city development should be made known to the general public, to reduce ignorance, improve image and create better understanding about the profession. This can be achieved through the use of electronic and print media and workshops.

Most of the students complained about URP studio courses which they claim is very stressful and time consuming. To reduce the stress and time, the use of teaching and
learning aids like electronic devices in design should be helpful. Lecturers in URP departments should also show more understanding about the stressful nature of studio courses. This can be achieved by their devoting more time and patience in supervision and correction of studio courses. These will reduce students viewing the course as stressful and time consuming and encourage them to recommend URP to others.

CONCLUSION

The main reason for the unpopularity of URP as first course choice among university undergraduates is ignorance of the course and career prospects. Most students who are admitted into the programme get to like it and are willing to practice the profession on graduation. As such greater knowledge of the course URP by secondary school guidance counselors will expose the students early enough to make informed choices. Additionally, greater knowledge of the public of the role of planners as professionals will assist parents/guardians in guiding their children/wards about URP as a veritable course choice, with rich career prospects.

REFERENCES


Dunnion, M.E., Dunnion, G. and McBride, M. (2010) “Do I want to be a nurse? What influences students to undertake a BSc in n u r s i n g p r o g r a m m e: A preliminary study”, Journal of Research in Nursing 15(5), 457 – 468


Policy Incentives for Sustainable Housing Investment in Urban Centres in Nigeria

Abotutu Ahi Abel (Ph.D) GNITP
Department of Geography and Regional Planning,
Delta State University, Abraka, Nigeria.
Abstract
The paper developed macroeconomic models that permit analysis of the determinants of housing investment behaviour in Nigeria, using three (3) groups of investment data in the housing sector. These include: fixed capital formation in the residential property / non-residential property and land improvement, financial sector loans to the real estate investors and foreign direct investment in the real estate. In addition, four (4) explanatory variables were utilized namely: (i) interest rate, (ii) price of real estate output (price index of accommodation), (iii) per capital income, and (iv) exchange rate. Data was derived from reports of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), while the log-linear and normal-linear investment functions were statistical techniques used in the analysis. Findings revealed that three (3) variables-exchange rate, per capital income and price of accommodation are very important policy variables. The paper recommends that these variables can be adopted to significantly influence housing investment behaviour in the Nigeria economy.
Introduction

As we approach the year 2015, urbanization has and will become a powerful force throughout the world. This development has taken place very quickly and by historical standards comparatively recently in Asia, Africa and Latin America. While the developed world will become predominantly urban sometime between 2015 and 2025, the developing world will become predominantly urban by about 2050 (Abotutu, 2009).

High and sustained urban growth rates in these major world regions are super-imposed on existing urban populations that were until recently modest in size. As United Nations statistics indicate, the aggregate increase in urban population in the developed countries between 1960 and 2005 was approximately 450 million, in the developing countries the population increased by 1.06 billion, almost threefold in absolute numbers (UN-Habitat, 2008). But absorptive capacity is related to resources as well as population growth. Because of extreme limitations in real income, the increases in population especially in the developing countries have created enormous problems of infrastructure and service provision (UN-Habitat and Department of International Development, 2002). These problems have most acutely impacted on the lives of the urban poor, whose numbers have swollen, and whose households—at least in Africa, Latin America and South Asia—suffered a deterioration in standard of living during the 2000s (UNFFA, 2007 and IMF, 2009). Hitherto, the dearth of “affordable” housing and the consequent lack of access to decent housing by the urban poor is one of the most pressing problems confronting the governments of most Third World nations including Nigeria (Abotutu, 2009).

Housing is a basic need in the socio-economic life of individuals and the society as a whole. This underscores the prioritization of housing as an important indicator of welfare level. The quality and quantity of housing facilities available to households and organizations partly determine the level of health, productivity, longevity of life and the quality of environment in any society. In Nigeria, compared to rural areas, urban housing problems tend to be more acute in qualitative terms than quantitative. The nature of environmental problems resulting in the two areas is different and reflective of the housing needs.

In Nigeria, government has responded to the housing needs of the citizens in diverse ways with little success. (See Table 1) A whopping 72.3 percent of urban households in Nigeria are crowded in single rooms with attendant health implications.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Single room</th>
<th>Flat</th>
<th>Duplex</th>
<th>Whole Building</th>
<th>Other Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abia</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>56.9</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adamawa</td>
<td>77.3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akwa Ibom</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anambra</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>55.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bauchi</td>
<td>98.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bayelsa</td>
<td>69.0</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benue</td>
<td>69.6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borno</td>
<td>91.6</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross River</td>
<td>81.7</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delta</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ebonyi</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>77.7</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edo</td>
<td>64.4</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ekiti</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enugu</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>61.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gombe</td>
<td>78.1</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imo</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jigawa</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaduna</td>
<td>74.3</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kano</td>
<td>96.7</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katsina</td>
<td>98.7</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kebbi</td>
<td>93.8</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kogi</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, Abuja
The country is confronted with severe housing needs as only 10 percent of the urban population is adequately housed (Abotutu, 2009). The report of the Special Committee on National Housing Policy (1985) reveals that by government estimate, Nigeria requires about 5 million housing units in the urban areas by the year 2000 and 32 million houses by the same time in the rural areas. Government also pointed out that the 32 million houses in the rural areas may be approximated to the equivalent cost of producing about 3 million housing units, and that the said cost is the projected estimate required for the qualitative improvement in terms of sanitation and infrastructure for the existing housing stock in rural Nigeria. This brings the total housing needs of the country (urban and rural) to some 8 million housing units as at the year 2000.

Prior to the projected housing needs above, the United Nations (1967) in recognition of the housing needs in developing countries estimated that in order to provide for present and future needs, an annual rate of housing construction of 8 to 10 housing units per 1000 persons is needed. Based on this, Adeniyi (1981) estimated that taking a population of 75 million for Nigeria in 1975 and using the lower estimates of 8 housing units per 1000 persons, the country needed from 1975 to construct 18,000 housing units every year in order to meet the present and future housing needs of its citizen. These estimates underscore the magnitude of the housing needs in Nigeria. It is, however, disappointing to note that over the years, efforts by the governments at the Federal, State and Local levels in Nigeria, to provide affordable housing for the people have witnessed monumental failures with the attendant acute housing shortages especially in major urban centres, some of which are depicted in Figure 1.

![Map of Nigeria showing a few of the Urban Centres.](image-url)
Access to decent rental housing in urban Nigeria demands as much as 60 percent of the monthly household income (Abotutu, 2009) contrary to the 20 percent recommended by the United Nations.

Currently, it is estimated that over 60 percent of Nigeria's 160 million population is required to be housed while home ownership rate is put at not more than 25 percent of the total population. This translates to over 84 million people that are either not housed or living in unbefitting places such as slums, market places, motor parks etc. Most of the under-housed are the poor and the low income, some of whom have migrated from the rural to urban centres in search of jobs and better living conditions. With an assumption of an average low income family population of six (6), Nigeria's current demand for mass housing is estimated to be about 13 million housing units (FMBN, 2007).

A major concern presently in both the public and private sectors is, therefore, how to increase the tempo of housing investment in order to ameliorate the housing malaise in major urban centres in Nigeria. Thus, besides their theoretical relevance, studies are required to provide information that may also aid the articulation of strategies to increase public and private investments in housing in Nigeria.

The government has demonstrated its concern for the housing situation in Nigeria in various ways. First, there have been many instances of government's direct participation in housing investment through the construction of many government housing estates across the country since the pre-independence era till now (Abotutu, 2006). Second, government has set up mortgage finance organizations to mobilize savings and supply funds for housing development. Also, it has set up the National Housing Fund scheme for workers to contribute savings for housing development. The governments at various levels in the country have adopted strategies including direct government investment in housing development, housing soft loan schemes to government employees and establishment of mortgage institutions. The most significant problem of housing investment has been inadequacy of private savings to the real estate investors since the interest rate payable to savers in the real estate industry is lower due to the long-term nature of the investment. The situation is worsened by rent regulation in some cases. The watershed period and programme in private sector financing of housing investment has been the 1977-1993 establishment and restructuring of mortgage banking. However, the major problem in housing investment still persists: lack of funds still limits investment in the real estate industry.

The acute nature of housing problem in Nigerian cities is to the extent that the average monthly rent for a bed seater in Lagos and Abuja is now about 80% of the national minimum wage (N18,000), as against 20 percent target set by the United Nations'(FRN, 2010). The result of the urban housing problem has been the creation of shantytowns, slums and squalor, which increase human discomfort through pollution and debilitating human health with aggravating effect on productivity. The situation in the rural area is not any better. The only difference is that the housing problem here is more of the quality than quantity, which also has its peculiar environmental pollution problem. Nevertheless, the health hazard of the poor quality of housing and near-absence of modern infrastructural amenities in the rural areas are comparable to, and sometimes worse in spread than, the health effects of urban pollution.

A more disappointing effect of public sector direct participation in housing investment has been the general complaint and observation that the method of allocating
government constructed houses is always against the poor since they neither can buy nor afford to rent those houses. The scope of this work covers the poor and middle income group. The positive effect of private sector investment in housing development is more widespread and evenly distributed. This is because market factors are the primary determinants of both the production and acquisition of housing in the private sector. It is expected that if the private sector can efficiently supply housing, the government should therefore concentrate in the provision of investment incentives to cushion risks and encourage private long-term investment required in the development of real estate property.

For such incentives to work, the government should identify the right target variables and adopt the correct policies. This paper shall attempt to identify the relevant determinants of housing investment so as to subsequently answer the question: in what ways can economic policies be used to stimulate and sustain private investment in housing in the Nigerian economy? Answering this question entails an empirical analysis of the explanatory variables for housing investment in order to establish major target variables. Sustainability of housing investment is that which continuity is guaranteed without any direct government intervention.

**Theoretical Framework and Literature Review.**

The general theory of investment suggest in the existence of positive relationship between investment and growth development (Hayashi, 1982; Henry, 1984). The classical theory defines investment as an increase in capital stock in a production system. For the purpose of this paper the definition of investment adopted refers to it as the growth in physical stock of capital in the housing sector. Investment can be classified by degree of risks and by generation of pay-back of investment costs (Tobin, 1969; Summers, 1981). Thus, we may have high-and low-risk investment going by risk classification, or short- and long-term investment according to pay-back period of the investment. Most high-risk investments fall into short-term with very high returns while low-risk investments are mostly long-term and attract low-returns.

Real estate investments generally are long-term, low-risk with low-returns. In the risk and amortization spectra, therefore, real estate investments are almost risk-free and accordingly with long period of amortization. Under the commercial (or market) evaluation of investments, Marginal Efficiency of Capital (MEC) – the rate of interest that will discount the present value of the project to zero and pay-back period, are the major criteria used for project consideration (Rosethl, 1999; Lee, 2008). MEC internalizes both the internal rate of returns and the costs of an investment in its consideration. MEC as a criterion is weak in that sources of investible funds with lower rates of interest will make the project under evaluation more attractive since the opportunity costs of investible funds are not brought into consideration. Pay-back period criterion is weak in that projects with long-term gestation period and higher net returns can be rejected in preference for short-term investment with lower returns (Ekpeyong, 1993; Ahlgren, 1999).

Since 1980s, there had been rapid spread of deregulation policies among the developing economies. In Nigeria, the deregulation of the economy that started in 1986 emphasised appropriate pricing in most of the markets, including money, foreign exchange, capital, and goods markets. This has resulted in rapid increase in interest rates, excessive devaluation and double-digit inflation rates. This combination of high interest rate and rising inflation apparently
would provide a conducive condition for growth in investment generally. But growth in long-term investment under such conflicting policy situation alongside an unstable socio-political environment can only make investment in long-term projects forlorn.

Long-term investment, as Akpan (1998) noted, requires stable rate of interest and exchange rate, predictable economic policies, and stable political and social environment in addition to any policy incentive for enhancement of investment.

However, the reviewed theories of investment do not consider the existence of various inefficiencies in both the supply and demand sides of capital markets, which ultimately lead to increase in the user cost of capital (Auerbach, 1992; Bruggeman and Fisher, 2008). The inefficiencies can be in the form of inadequacies in the flow of investment market information, malfunctioning of adjoining factor and/or output markets, or inefficient infrastructural supply (Chua, 1999; Falkenbach, 2009). The situation in developing economies is characterized by various levels of inefficiencies leading to rapidly increasing costs of investment awash in volatile socio-political environment, all of which are repulsive to long-term investment. Since the social gains from long-term investments are greater than those from short-term investments, and long-term investments are less attractive in the short-run, there is therefore justification for government intervention to reduce the risks in long-term investments. The most market favoured option for such intervention, which will not negate the objectives of deregulation, is the provision of policy incentives. The basis of policy incentives is mainly to sensitize market mechanism in a way that will increase the profit margin for targeted investments that could have been relatively less profitable without the incentives (Akpan, 1998). Policy incentives, by passing through the market mechanism to reduce risk and increase relative profitability, allow for government positive influence and neutrality required by structural adjustment and deregulation programme.

In Nigeria, the government seems to be more committed to direct investment in housing than giving incentives to the private sector. The objective statement in the 1991 National Housing Policy, for instance, lays more emphasis on public sector direct participation in housing investment than on incentive to private sector. The four cardinal objectives are to:

(i) Encourage and promote active participation of all tiers of government in housing delivery;

(ii) Strengthen institutions within the system for more responsive service and operations;

(iii) Emphasise housing investments that satisfy basic needs; and

(iv) Encourage greater participation of the private sector in housing development.

Apart from the last objective, the housing policy is pro-government and the role of the market mechanism is not given a place in this policy. The strategies set out to achieve these objectives are equally dominated by government direct involvement. Only one of the eleven strategies is directly concerned with the private sector, that is, to mobilize private sector participation in the provision of housing. Mobilization of savings through the establishment of a National Housing Fund (NHF) has to do with public establishment and control of NHF than the mobilization of savings for investment. The National Housing Policies (especially the extant Policy) did not addressed the issue of incentives for housing investment in our urban area. However, in a deregulated economy, there is need to emphasize reliance on market forces and the
private sector for investment in industries that can efficiently be operated under the price system (World Bank, 1991; IMF, 2009; Abasinezhad and Yari, 2009).

**Methodology of Study**

The specification of housing investment model in this section relies on the theoretical inferences in the theory of investment. The model is a multiple regression equation. Three groups of investment in the housing sector were considered separately with four explanatory variables. The three investment variables are the fixed capital formation in the residential property/non-residential property and land-improvement, financial sector loans to the real estate investors, and foreign direct investment in real estate. Data on fixed capital formation are derived from the national income accounting data and should therefore represent a macro-economic position of investment in the housing sector. Since gross fixed capital formation draws up funds from the economy as a whole, it is necessary to investigate the characteristics of different sources of investment funds to the housing sector. Thus, the loanable fund investment is intended to capture the behaviour of the banking public with regards to investment in housing and the foreign direct investment is directed at analysis of foreign interests in real estate development in Nigeria. The factors explaining the private sectors investment behaviour are: (1) interest rate, (2) price of real estate output (price index for accommodation), (3) per capita income, and (4) exchange rate.

In the choice of explanatory variables for this study, consideration was given to their macroeconomic relevance and their importance as policy variables or target variables. Interest rate is very important in investment analysis generally because its level determines availability of funds and profitability of investment. Per capita income is an important policy target variable whose level affects demand for and supply of goods and services, level of savings/investment, and many other economic activities. Again, in considering investment decision for any project, it is necessary to consider the returns on such investment, thus, making the consumer prices very relevant. The consumer price is a composite function of cost of production and a profit margin. Hence, inclusion of consumer prices for accommodation connotes the composition of producer’s prices of materials and some profit margin for the investment. (Topel and Rosen, 1988; Kasparova and White, 2001; Judd, Winger and Winker, 2006).

Foreign exchange rate – defined as naira to a dollar rate – is also considered to be an important determinant of housing investment given the devaluation of naira and the high import content of materials used in the building and construction sector.

A priori, the expected direction of relationship between interest rate and investment demand is negative, while that between income and investment is positive since at higher income more will be demanded (making prices and profit margin to rise) and more savings will be generated leading to increase demand for investment. The normal relationship between consumer price and investment is positive since higher prices will increase profitability position of a project (Branson, 1989; Dipasquale and Wheaton, 1994). The relationship between exchange rate and investment will depend on the source of investible funds. The funds from non-banking internal sources will not respond to changes in exchange rate in the same way as banking sector and the external sources. For the housing sector as a whole, it will depend upon the level of its dependence on foreign inputs. Where the major source of funds is external (like the foreign private investment), depreciation of domestic currency will attract more investible funds. On the other hand,
higher imported content of investment goods will create a negative relationship between exchange rate and investment.

The model used for the analysis is the log-linear investment function, except for foreign direct investment analysis where the normal linear form yielded better result. The coefficients estimates in the log-linear model directly provides us with the elasticity coefficients. Data used in this study span between 1990 - 2010 for equation (1), 1990 - 2010 for equation (2) and 1990 - 2010 for the last equation (see appendix). The models are of the form listed below. Each is a single equation technique.

\[
\begin{align*}
\log(INV) &= \alpha + \beta_1 \log P + \beta_2 \log R + \\
&\quad + \beta_3 \log PY + \beta_4 \log FXR + \mu_i \\
\log(BINV) &= \alpha + \gamma_1 \log P + \gamma_2 \log R + \\
&\quad + \gamma_3 \log PY + \gamma_4 \log FXR + \mu_i \\
FPINV &= a_j + \zeta_1 P + \zeta_2 R + \zeta_3 PY + \zeta_4 FXR + \mu_j \\
\end{align*}
\]

Where:

\[\begin{align*}
INV &= \text{Investment in housing in the economy, derived from gross fixed capital formation in the housing sector.} \\
BINV &= \text{Loan investment in the sector derived from aggregation of bank (commercial; merchant, mortgage) credits, and insurance companies investments in real estate.} \\
FPINV &= \text{Foreign private investments in the real estate sector.} \\
P &= \text{Consumer's price index for accommodation} \\
R &= \text{Lending rate} \\
PY &= \text{Per capita income} \\
FXR &= \text{Exchange rate} \\
\mu &= \text{Residual, unexplained variation in the model.} \\
\end{align*}\]

The results are presented in Tables 2, 3 and 4 below.
Table 2: Estimates for Equation (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanatory variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Other Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Log P</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td>0.639</td>
<td>$R^2 = 0.829$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log R</td>
<td>-1.037</td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td>-1.666$^a$</td>
<td>adjusted $R^2 = 0.798$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log PY</td>
<td>1.903</td>
<td>0.334</td>
<td>5.7$^a$</td>
<td>$F$-Statistic = 26.66 DW = 1.817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log FXR</td>
<td>-0.838</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td>-3.558$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_1$</td>
<td>-2.233</td>
<td>1.376</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Estimates for Equation (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanatory variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Other Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Log P</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>5.851$^a$</td>
<td>$R^2 = 0.97$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log R</td>
<td>0.485</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>1.232</td>
<td>adjusted $R^2 = 0.965$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log PY</td>
<td>1.138</td>
<td>0.199</td>
<td>5.709$^a$</td>
<td>$F$-Statistic = 119.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log FXR</td>
<td>-0.739</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>-5.258$^a$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_2$</td>
<td>-4.547</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td></td>
<td>DW = 1.478</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Estimates for Equation (3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanatory variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Other Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

- t-value with $a = \text{significant at } 1\% \text{ level; } b = 5\% \text{ level; } c = \text{significant at } 10\% \text{ level.}$
- either drawn directly or computed from the CBN and NBS publications referenced below.

Note: all data used in this study are
Research Findings

The results in Table 2 suggest that per capita income, exchange rate and, to some extent, interest rates are significant determinants of housing investment in Nigeria. Investment in housing development is income and interest elastic since their coefficients of elasticity are 1.903 and 1.037, which are greater than unity in absolute term. The price index of accommodation is an insignificant determinant of investment in housing. Housing investment is price-inelastic with a coefficient of 0.15. This is not so far from economic reality because housing investment is a long-term pay-back project whose current investment decision hardly reflects current period prices of accommodation. (Even when lag and forecast values were used in the analysis, the performance of price as a determinant of housing investment did not improve.) This also has serious policy implications for the government rent control as mentioned below.

In Table 3, the activities of pure economic portfolio investment via interest-attracting loans are captured. The overall regression performance is higher here (with 97.0 percent R²) than any of the other estimated equations. The explanatory variables yield statistically significant regression coefficients except for interest rate. The consumer price exerts positive influence on investment in housing that employs loanable funds, although it has inelastic coefficient of 0.822. This is because of the need to ascertain the loan amortization feasibility while embarking on the investment. Again, with regression/elasticity coefficient of 1.138, income per capita is still a very volatile factor in the determination of housing investment.

The inflow of foreign private investment to the real estate development also presents very interesting results to policy formulation (see Table 4). The performance of domestic level of rent is very important in the determination of foreign investment in real estate property. Since such investments are basically for pure economic gains, the prices (rents) of real estate property have to be attractive for easy recovery of costs of capital. The per capita income, which determines domestic savings, has a negatively elastic (but statistically insignificant) relationship with inflow of foreign private investment to real estate sector. The reason is that foreign direct investment is only a supplement to the domestic investment (saving). With low income, there will be lower savings and higher need for investible funds, which will then attract more foreign investment to bridge the gap. Domestic interest rate is positive, elastic and significant determinant of foreign private investment to the sector. The reason is that foreign private investments often come in form of loans, hence, higher interest rates will attract more foreign lenders/investors to the real estate sector.

Interestingly, the autonomous investment in housing using loanable funds is negative, showing the disinvestment, sales of real estate property, and diversion of loans to other sectors if the expected returns on investment is approaching zero. This demonstrates the dominance of profit motive in investors who use loanable funds for real estate development. It also shows that if no return is expected from real estate investment or if it is too low, there will be disinvestment by way of sales of the existing real estate property.

In all the three cases, foreign exchange rate is an important inverse determinant of housing investment. It is very significant and elastic in the foreign direct investment model. This is due to the high import requirement of housing construction, which requires low exchange rate for successful and sustainable investment.
The treatment of the three explanatory variables, price of accommodation, interest rate, and per capita income, together shows that introduction of exchange rate brings about some policy disturbances. This is marked by change in predicted signs from the expected direction of relationship. Given the results in Tables 5, 6 and 7 below compared with those in Tables 2 to 4, it can be noticed that there have been interactions of exchange rate with some of the explanatory variables, especially interest rate. (From the computed correlation matrix, the level of relation between interest rate and foreign exchange rate is 0.92.) When exchange rate and interest rate are used together, it causes change in signs of coefficient estimates of interest rate. This is informative to the effect that both exchange rate and interest rate policies need to be combined with caution.

Though not tested in this study, it is suggested that there are important socio-cultural determinants of housing investment in the Nigerian economy. These factors include social status of individual (determined by such variables as position in the community, educational status, etc.), occupation, marital status, family size, social prestige, mode of settlement and communal requirements on housing. Some of these factors are however absorbed in the economic variables analyzed above.

Table 5: Estimates for Equation (1): Dep. Variable = log(INV)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanatory variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T-Statistic</th>
<th>Other Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Log P</td>
<td>-0.284</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>-1.273</td>
<td>R² = 0.733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log R</td>
<td>-2.591</td>
<td>0.526</td>
<td>-4.925*</td>
<td>Adjusted R² = 0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log PY</td>
<td>2.159</td>
<td>0.385</td>
<td>5.611*</td>
<td>F-Statistic = 21.92 DW = 1.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>α₁</td>
<td>1.212</td>
<td>1.128</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6: Estimates for Equation (2): Dep. Variable = log(BINV)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanatory variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T-Statistic</th>
<th>Other Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Log P</td>
<td>0.406</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>2.513</td>
<td>$R^2 = 0.935$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log R</td>
<td>-0.901</td>
<td>0.381</td>
<td>-2.365*</td>
<td>Adjusted $R^2 = 0.927$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log PY</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>4.987*</td>
<td>F-Statistic = 116.03 DW = 0.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_2$</td>
<td>-1.565</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Estimates for Equation (3): Dep. Variable = log (FPINV)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanatory variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T-Statistic</th>
<th>Other Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>331.289</td>
<td>43.157</td>
<td>7.676*</td>
<td>$R^2 = 0.794$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>-803.057</td>
<td>3717.99</td>
<td>-0.216</td>
<td>Adjusted $R^2 = 0.766$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PY</td>
<td>-28.517</td>
<td>29.891</td>
<td>-0.954</td>
<td>F-Statistic = 28.34 DW = 2.234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_3$</td>
<td>1576.07</td>
<td>25994.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These are the estimates that are significant at least at 5% level.
For sustainable housing investment to take place, government needs to focus on policies that will feed back positively into the investment function of the housing sector. As noted earlier (in section 2), it is more cost-efficient for government to offer policy incentives to investment that can be carried out efficiently in the market place than to get involved directly in such activities. Given the object of reduction in the size of government associated with deregulation, and the fact that housing investment can be efficiently undertaken in market environment, there is over-riding need for the private sector to be encouraged to increase investment in the real estate sector.

Arising from the results discussed in the preceding section is the issue of policy implications of the study. Three variables, namely, exchange rate, per capita income and price of accommodation, are very important policy variables. Policies based on these variables can be adopted to significantly influence housing investment behaviour in the Nigerian economy. However, policy mix involving exchange rate should only be adopted with intensive caution due to its high level interaction with other variables, especially with interest rate whose correlation coefficient is 92.5 per cent.

For pure private investment outlays captured by equation (2) and (3), price indices for accommodation are good determinant and, therefore, can be effective policy instrument. However, since domestic investments in housing are generally inelastic to accommodation prices, increase in these prices will add more pressure to the costs of living than ease housing problem. Conversely, decrease in prices of accommodations will have less than proportionate decrease in housing supply. However, since rents are determining factor for commercial investors (those investing with loanable funds and foreign investors), and ceiling on rents will be a disincentive to some of these investors, the government should rather introduce rent subsidy policy, since that will serve the dual purpose, as income and rent policies. This will be more beneficial to the economy since the virtuous forces of increase in income will be setup.

There is a clear proof that per capita income is a very important direct determinant of domestic investment in housing. Government must incorporate income policy into its housing policy. Truly, the level of income directly determines the level of savings (part of which is investible funds) available for investment projects in an economy. It is misleading for the National Housing Policy to emphasize mobilization of savings without addressing the fundamental problem of low worker’s pay in the economy. Even with the new minimum wage of N18,000.00 monthly, no public servant will be able to save enough to build his own modest house, when rents alone gulp 60 per cent of an average (low and middle) worker’s earnings. Policies aimed at increasing per capita income and improving income distribution will drastically lead to increase in housing investment.

Income policy is also the most sustainable in bringing about continuous growth in housing investment. This is because of the virtuous cycle which increases in income per capita and equitable income distribution will bring. For example, increased income will lead to increased savings, leading to higher investment activities (in housing and other sectors), as most Nigerian households prefer home ownership incentives to rental housing.

As income policy is pursued, it is necessary to manage the rate of interest in the economy to make long term investment profitable. In a deregulated economy, however, it is the market forces that should determine price in all sectors, including
money and capital markets. Nevertheless, the Central Bank of Nigeria still has a role in the control of money supply and determination of prime rates on which hinge the market rates of interest. Allowing for availability of funds in mortgage institutions, at over 20 per cent interest rates, there is bound to be diversion of loans to short-term investment opportunities in order for the borrowers to service the loans. Therefore, the Central Bank of Nigeria should manage the monetary variables within its control to ensure stable interest that will make long-term investment attractive.

Although there are laudable goals on the provision of rural infrastructures to encourage rural housing development, little have been achieved in this direction. Housing policy that will evolve sustainable housing development requires supportive policies such as rural infrastructural, employment and income policies. There is need for siting of government core companies in the rural areas so as to generate linkage effects in employment and income generation in such areas with attainable positive effects on housing needs and investment in the neighbourhood. Also, government-owned mortgage institutions should give concessions to rural customers in their loan schemes. In all these, there is need for effective information dissemination on the housing incentives and opportunities offered by the government and its agencies using media (such as radio and television) that are accessible both to the rural and urban dwellers.

Conclusion

Housing investment is very responsive to economic principles of investment. The private sector investors can adequately undertake housing investment if economic incentives are given to reduce long-term risks and losses. The government should use policies that will encourage private sector to increase the proportion allotted to housing in their investment portfolio.

Particularly, there is need to embark on a policy that will not only increase the per capita income but also improve income distribution to a virtuous cycle for sustainable investment. Given the long-term nature of real estate investment, it is necessary to manage interest rates to encourage long-term investment, of which housing is part. Besides, increase in rent subsidies of workers will have far-reaching effects as income policy and as price incentive to commercial investors in housing.

References


IMF (2009). World Economic Outlook
Update April 2009: Crises and Recovering, Washington DC, IMF.


Appendix I.

Aggregated Economic Indices (1990 – 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Interest Rate</th>
<th>Price Index of Accommodation</th>
<th>Per Capita Income</th>
<th>Exchange Rate</th>
<th>Fixed Capital Formation in Residential Property</th>
<th>Financial Sector Loans to Real Estate Investors</th>
<th>Foreign Direct Investment in Real Estate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>8.57</td>
<td>10,642,324</td>
<td>11.21</td>
<td>6.92</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>1,482,634</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>2,028,848</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td>10,986,463</td>
<td>9.97</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>571,998</td>
<td>10.03</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>4,428,707</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>8.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>3,003,087</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>13.46</td>
<td>13,693,616</td>
<td>18.10</td>
<td>10.70</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>10.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>40,498,184</td>
<td>9.72</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>15,177,854</td>
<td>24.46</td>
<td>14.10</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>21.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>3,171,027</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>11.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>5,862,721</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>8.10</td>
<td>1,552,103</td>
<td>9.05</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>9,678</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1,925,075</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>8.37</td>
<td>4,130,007</td>
<td>16.94</td>
<td>8.30</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>3,181,920</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1,416,883</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>3,616,617</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>14.70</td>
<td>7,190,526</td>
<td>19.96</td>
<td>11.21</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>11.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CBN and NBS reports, 2011
THE CHALLENGE OF VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR TO CONTEMPORARY URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING PRACTICE: A CASE FOR IMPROVED PERSONAL SAFETY AND SECURITY OF THE PRACTITIONER

Kefas G. Jiriko (Ph. D.) fnitp, mrtpi,rtp
Department of Urban and Regional Planning, College of Environmental Studies, Kaduna Polytechnic.
ABSTRACT

Urban and Regional Planning generally, and Development Control and enforcement in particular, can be a dangerous profession or practice, at times. This is because planning by its very nature generates conflicts or disputes that could breed aggression. This situation has made many a planner to regard planners as an “endangered specie” among other professionals and employees in general. The paper examines the root causes and impacts of violent behaviour on the personal safety and security of practicing Planning officials—both in office, on site visit, and at home—in a comparative analysis between Britain and Nigeria. Data for the paper were sourced from both primary and secondary sources. The paper outlines efforts made so far to forestall or reduce aggression towards practicing planners. These include provision of legitimate legal and constitutional national-level framework and international safety conventions for redressing aggression as well as establishment of bodies to shoulder this responsibility. It is found that development control and enforcement, especially, site patrols and meetings with defaulting developers are key aspects of planning practice that generate aggressive behaviour on the part of developers. Major causes of aggression found include refusal to grant development permit, delays in granting the permit and demolition exercises—including maladministration in the process of administering planning, or in urban management generally. Effects of aggressive behaviour on planning officials range from mere verbal abuse to extreme incidents of shooting and killing. Efforts made so far to redress the situation have been found to be inadequate and there is apathy on the part of many aggrieved parties utilise the available avenues for seeking redress for their grievances. Security-conscious building designs, improved public enlightenment and education, more research, use of modern communication technology, good governance in administering planning and the roles of all stakeholders in the business of safety and security, as it relates to planning practice are among the suggested solutions.

Keywords: Challenge, violent behaviour, contemporary planning, personal safety/security, planning practitioner.
Introduction

Planning (Urban and Regional or preferably Spatial Planning) henceforth also simply called 'planning' can be a dangerous profession at times. This is because planning often involves and is concerned with conflict-resolution. (Royal Town Planning Institute, 1992; Nigerian Urban Regional Planning Law, 1992 and its amended version, 1999; provision for appeals (S. 86/ establishment of Urban and Regional Planning Tribunal). The resolution of conflicts can create tensions which negatively affect personal behaviour especially of those not favoured by such resolutions. It can also create an adversarial feeling in the clients and members of the public towards planners, culminating in aggressive attitudes.

The study is a comparative treatment of the British and Nigerian situations. Several planners will not only experience some form of threatening behaviour during their careers but will find themselves the very target of violent behaviour from angry or aggrieved members of the community (Royal Town Planning Institute-PAN 11, 1992). This is more so in the face of increasing complexity (high rate of population growth, unprecedented rates of urbanisation of the Nigerian society and rising levels of human rights campaigns (Jiriko, 2004). These factors, partly fuelled by poverty and awareness, can induce aggressive tendencies in the public. On poverty index, Nigeria is ranked 39th in Africa and 14th out of 16 countries in West Africa making it one of the poorest in the continent (The Market, March 12-15, 2009). This situation has made many planners, especially those employed by the public sector and are engaged in planning control and enforcement, to consider themselves as an “endangered specie” in society.

It is on record that planned urban growth, urban productivity, and violence are related. While planned urban growth and urban productivity are positively correlated, the correlation between urban productivity and urban violence is negative (Obateru, 1994). This means well planned, i.e. highly productive cities, are less characterized by urban violence and vice versa. While urban violence may not be synonymous with violence in planning, violent behaviour in planning practice can be considered as an aspect of urban violence. It is, therefore, a fact that planned cities function more efficiently, are more economically productive, and their residents enjoy higher levels of non-violent behaviour: this because they experience reduced levels of violent behaviour.

The practising planner is a key facilitator of the planned city with its attendant benefits. For this reason, an ensured physical, mental, and emotional well-being of the practitioner (planner) is non-negotiable if he is to persistently play his role, and as a motivation to higher productivity both of which are pre-conditions for the success of the planning endeavour. It is a common saying that if you want your child to be well cared for, then you must take adequate care of the mother. In the same vein, the personal safety and security of the practicing planner must be fully ensured for him/her to give his/her very best. However, currently the personal safety and security at work, home, on site visits, are of great concern to the practising planner. Jiriko (1991, 1999, & 2004), Dung-Gwom (1993), and Obateru, (1994) are among the very few that have done some work related to just some
aspects of the subject of personal safety and security problems at work and elsewhere of the practising planner in Nigeria. The lack of available in-depth, and holistic empirical work in this area has created a gap that needs to be filled, hence, this study. The study is a comparative analysis of the situations in Britain and Nigeria with the object of learning from experiences.

2.0 Goal and Objectives of the Paper:

The goal of the paper is to comparatively study the personal safety and security challenges posed to practising planners in both Britain and Nigeria with a view to learning from experiences and making recommendations to improve the situation in Nigeria.

The paper is set to attain the above target by achieving following objectives:

a) to examine the sources or roots of violence in planning practice in Britain and Nigeria;

b) to investigate the incidents and types of violent behaviour experienced in planning practice in Britain and Nigeria;

c) to explore the rights and privileges of an employee;

d) to identify and outline the roles of the stakeholders in the personal safety and security of practicing planners and/or planner-employees;

e) to examine the attempts or measures put in place to redress disputes and resolve conflicts in planning practice in the two countries; and

f) to recommend measures that will enhance the personal safety and security of the practising planner-both at work, on site visits and at home.

3.0 Methodology of the Study:

The paper is based on information sourced from extensive review of literature, based on a surveyed conducted in the case of Britain and complemented with observations, and primary data from Kaduna metropolis (with respect to Nigeria).

4.0 Definition of Terminologies:

"Violent behaviour" refers to the collectivity of all the threatening or aggressive actions, attitudes or behaviour experienced in the course of practising Urban and Regional Planning (RTPI PAN 11, 1992).

5.0 Scope of the Study

The study is a comparative analysis of the challenges of the personal safety and security of practising planners in office, at site visits, and at home in Britain and Nigeria only. It deals with practising planners in both public and private sectors in the case of Britain, and only those in public sector in the Nigerian situation. The violent behaviour considered are verbal (phone) abuse, harassment, insults, threats, physical assaults, and extreme cases of shooting and killing of practicing planning officials. The British experiences cited in this write-up are essentially those of the pre-David Cameron's era as the British Prime Minister.

5.0 Roots/Causes of Violent Behaviour or Aggression in Planning Practice:
Although the entire planning endeavour can be a hazardous professional undertaking at times, certain stages in the planning process or in the course of administering planning tend to be more hazard-prone than others. This is because the nature or demands of the planning activity or process tend to generate negative feelings, disputes or conflicts between the developers, the /planned and the practising planners. The dispute- or conflict- or litigation-prone hot spots include development control and enforcement, meetings, exhibitions, site visits or patrols, and demolition exercises (Jiriko, 1991; PLANNING, 1994; PLANNING WEEK, 1996). Specific examples include refusal to grant applications for development permits or conditional grant of such permits; delays in considering applications for development permits; revocation of development permits; lack of adequate payment of compensation; assurances or pieces of advice given to clients by planning officials which were acted upon but which turned out later to be wrong or misdirected; demolition exercises and other actions and decisions which may constitute maladministration in the process of administering planning (RTPP PAN 11; NURP Law, 1992). Ignorance of the existence of planning laws and regulations is another cause of aggressive behaviour witnessed in planning practice in Nigeria (Jiriko, 1991; 1998; 2008).

All these, in one way or another, generate grievances or dissatisfaction in the clients or members of the public which lead to aggressive behaviour towards planners.

6.0 The Challenge of Violent Behaviour to Planning Practice and the Grounds for the Guarantee of the Personal Safety and Security of the Planner-Employee:

An employee of any organisation, like every member of a community or society, has his rights and privileges or certain requirements that must be met for him to give his best. He needs motivation, i.e. the energising force that arouses, induces, channels, sustains and maintains a worker's behaviour, purpose and direction (Obayi, 1998). A planning official, thus, needs to be motivated to greater performance. Motivation is imperative in promoting productivity on which the success of a planning authority's goals, in turn, hinges. The International Labour Organisation (I.L.O.) Convention 155 concerning Occupational Safety and Health and Working Environment Action at the level of the undertaking (Thakur, 2007) requires employers to:

i. ensure that the work places, machinery, equipment and process under their control are safe and without risk to health;

ii. provide adequate protective clothing and protective equipment to prevent risk of accidents or adverse effects on health (Article 16).

iii. Provide for measures to deal with emergencies and accidents, including adequate first-aid arrangement (Article 18).

iv. Those workers and their representatives are given appropriate training in occupational safety and health (Article 19).

v. That occupational safety and health measures shall not involve any expenditure for the worker (Article 20)

Workers or their representatives, on their part, are obliged by the Convention to:

I. Cooperate in the fulfillment by their employer of the obligations placed upon him and in the field of occupational safety and health, respectively; report forthwith to their immediate supervisors any situation which they have reasonable justification to believe presents an imminent and serious danger to their life or health until the employer has taken
remedial action, if necessary, the employer cannot require workers to return to work situation where there is continuing imminent and serious danger to life or health (Article 19).

The Nigerian Institute of Town Planners' objectives include "the protection of the practice of the profession and the promotion of the welfare of those practising it", and "the advancement of public awareness of the importance of the living and working environment and the necessity for its protection" (Nigerian Institute of Town Planners' Constitution, 1994, p. 1). Also, NITP/Town Planners Registration Council- TOPREC- published the "Code of Professional Conduct and Ethics" to regulate and control the practice of the profession.

In Maslow's five-step hierarchy of human basic needs, safety need (to feel secure, safe and out of danger) comes second only to physiological needs for food or sex drives (Obayi, 1998). The third is belonging-ess and love needs to affiliate with others, to be accepted, and belong. Esteem needs (for achievement, be a potential, gain approval and recognition) and Self actualisation needs (to fulfill one's unique potentials) come fourth and fifth, respectively. The practising planner has all these fundamental needs. By implication, what all these mean is that if the security, safety and freedom from danger needs of a practising planner are met or guaranteed, he will be highly motivated, expected to perform maximally and, hence, become very productive. Ultimately, planning practice becomes better for it. The next subsection treats incidents of aggression and threatening behaviour experienced in Britain and Nigeria.

7.0 Incidents of Violent Behaviour Experienced in Planning Practice in Britain and Nigeria:

7.1 The British Experience:

A publication by the Professional Practice Board of the RTPI in The Planner (1988) requesting members and readers to state what they knew about the problems arising in the profession regarding personal safety of planners in office, on site visits etc., and a research which the Scottish Branch of the Royal Town Planning Institute commissioned the Centre for Planning Research, University of Dundee, to conduct in 1996, (PLANNING WEEK, 1996) came out with the following findings:

i. Almost two-thirds of public and private sector planning personnel interviewed had experienced incidents of harassment, verbal or physical abuse at work;

ii. The commonest incident was verbal abuse: 323 such cases were noted by 46 planning personnel respondents;

iii. More than 33.33% of the respondents who indicated they had experienced violent behaviour of some sort did not provide statistics: some indicated they had encountered incidents "too numerous" to count;

iv. The son of a man who kept 130 cars near his property on one occasion threatened South Norfolk Planning Enforcement officers with a flame thrower; on another visit he threatened the officers with a crow bar by smashing it in front of the Chief Planning Officer (which implied the officer might be next); furthermore, the son caused criminal damage to the Chief Planning officer's office;

v. Between 1989 and 1992 some of the extremely difficult threatening cases encountered by the Team Leader and/or Members of Enforcement Team, of Canterbury City Council included: a man knocked at the door and pushed into the house of a family (whose wife was a town planner) one evening, shouting abuses; on another
occasion, her husband (a non-planner) was punched in the stomach; threatening notes were also posted through their letter box together with pamphlets advertising wheel chairs; a quarry owner in a Scottish District assaulted a planning technician and an enforcement officer who went to serve him with an enforcement notice to stop work at the site; he also drove a mechanical shovel at head height (a hazardous act) at them in rage; next, the quarry owner blocked their path with the vehicle to prevent them from driving away (PLANNING WEEK, 1995).

Further findings on aggressive behaviour experienced in planning practice in Britain (PLANNING, 1994) involved:

a. Pushing a planner downstairs;

b. Throwing a VDU at a planner in anger;

c. A Manchester planner bitten by a (developer's) dog;

d. Violently pushing a planner off a bike; and

e. The brutal shooting to death of a planning enforcement officer, Harry Collins, while carrying out his enforcement duties in Darwin side near Durham, by a member of the public;

f. Verbal or sexual harassment by landlord or tenants while inspecting a house in multiple occupation or on site visits to scrap yards; and

g. Problems that arise if a planner on a solo visit has an accident (e. g. a broken ankle).

7.2 The Nigerian Situation:

Literature on urban violence generally (e.g. religious, ethno-religious, and partisan political violence appear to be more readily available than on violent behaviour encountered in planning practice in Nigeria (Albert et al, 1994; Obateru, 1994; Jiriko, 1991). Available literature on the subject of aggressive behaviour in planning practice in Nigeria, therefore, tends to be either scanty or may exist but unpublished.

One good example of publicised case of aggressive behaviour from members of the public comes from the Daily Champion of July 23, 2002. The paper reports of the aggressive steps taken by indigenes of the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) to prevent the FCT authorities from further demolition of structures in some areas. These include physical assault on the officials of the authority. One of such attacks involved armed youths in Durumi Village of Abuja City where they captured and manhandled three enforcement officials of the Development Control Department who were on official assignment to mark illegal structures built in the area for possible demolition. The enforcement officers were physically assaulted, thoroughly beaten, had their clothes torn, and the paint they were using for the exercise poured on them. In another development, This Day of September 28, 2000, reports the violent protests which rocked Abuja over the demolition of Church buildings. Still on the very issue of demolition, Abuja Today of May 15-21, 2002, carries a report on a protest letter written by ethnic leaders of Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo communities in Abuja. In the said letter, addressed to the authorities concerned, they called for caution in the demolition exercise. Protest letter-writing may be considered as a subtle way of threatening the authorities in question.

Aggressive behaviour has also been experienced in other urban centres in the country. This, in Kaduna Metropolis, for example, includes manhandling of development control and enforcement
officers. Manhandling takes diverse forms—verbal abuse, physical assault and/or beating, arrest and locking up of the planning officers. The last violent behaviour, for example, is more prevalent in the so-called “Mammy Markets” (commercial slums) in Military Cantonments where military officers further subject the enforcement officials to “frog jump” and other unpleasant drills (Jiriko, 1999).

In certain situations, the obstinate developer stations or threatens to station armed guards to stop any enforcement action against him. These guards may be asked to threaten the life of the enforcement officer should he insist on taking the enforcement action.

Demolition exercises normally generate violent reactions. Still on experiences in Kaduna metropolis, Jiriko (1991; 1998) found that some years past, due to threats to their life, the enforcement officers adopted the guerrilla warfare tactics when carrying out demolition exercises. Sometimes these exercises were carried out just before dawn, or at other times when the defaulting developer least expected, therefore, taking him by complete surprise. This implies the enforcement officers were not protected under the law.

Demolition exercises effected using this strategy came under increasing attack by the victims. They (victims) accused the planning officers or authorities for pursuing cases of personal vendetta against them while the enforcement officials complained of the extreme danger the continued use of that strategy posed to their lives. This led to the change of the strategy. Currently, demolition exercises are carried out in broad daylight and under official police protection (Kaduna State Urban Planning and Development Authority, 2009). Site visits for the purposes of routine development control checks in Kaduna Metropolis are always a team work. However, if it is undertaken for purposes of performing one’s normal duties, the enforcement officer goes alone. It is to be noted, though, that whenever the patrol vehicle is functional, the planning officer is accompanied by the driver of the vehicle that carries him or her to the site.

Ignorance of the existence of planning laws and development control regulations requiring approved building plans before undertaking land development is also said to be a cause of some aggressive behaviour witnessed in planning practice. This is often manifested when the ‘ignorant’ land developers are asked to produce, on site, approved building plans or permits and other necessary documents that make their development legitimate.

Another factor is attitudinal, i.e. flagrant disregard or refusal to obey the laws and regulations on account of one’s personality (e.g. position or connection to a personality in power hierarchy, influence of affluence, etc) (Jiriko, 1998).

8.0 Analysis of the Primary Survey Conducted in Kaduna Metropolis:

A primary survey was conducted in Kaduna Metropolis in March, 2009 in which twenty-five questionnaires were addressed to all Development Control and Enforcement Officers (both those who are currently directly involved and those that were previously directly involved). Four out of these questionnaires were found to be invalid because the respondents either did not follow the guidelines given or provided wrong answers, etc. The twenty-one valid questionnaires responded to (constituting 84% success rate) were, thus, used for this analysis.

Out of the 21 respondents, 33.3% indicated they had spent less than 5 years in this area of planning practice; 42.9% from 5 to 10 years while 23.8% had spent over 10 years in the business of Planning Control and Enforcement. This would seem to be a fairly good representation of the cross-section of the respondents. The summary of the analysis is as shown on the table that follows:
Table 1: Areas in Planning Practice generating Aggression/Violent Behaviour from Developers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>Area/Source of Aggression/Violence</th>
<th>No. of Responses</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Gen. Dev. Contr./Enforcement</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii</td>
<td>Serving of Stop work Notice</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii</td>
<td>Request to provide approved Bldg. Plans on Site</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iv</td>
<td>Refusal to grant Dev. Permit</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Delays in granting Dev. Permit</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vi</td>
<td>Granting Dev. Permit with Conditions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viir</td>
<td>Demolition Exercises</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viirr</td>
<td>Missing Files of Applicants for Bldg. Plan Approval</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX</td>
<td>Others: (a) Settling disputes on encroachments, (b). Punching/Marking ‘X’ on illegal Structures</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>53</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2009

From the table development control and enforcement generally (24.5%), service of stop work notices (15.2%), demolition exercises (22.5%) and settling disputes on encroachments/punching or marking ‘X’ on unauthorised structures (11.2%) constitutes 73.4% of the areas that generate aggressive/violent behaviour from developers in Kaduna Metropolis.

The next table indicates the type and frequency the respondents experienced violent/aggressive behavior in the course of effecting development control and enforcement.
Table 2: Type of Aggressive/Violent Behaviour and Number of Times Experienced by Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No.</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency (a)</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Frequency (b): Numerous/Uncountable</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Verbal Abuse</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>82.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Physical Assault</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.46</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Verbal threat to harm you</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>Physical punch/beating</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14.28</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Threatened your life with weapon</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17.14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Pushing you off motor bike/stairs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>Actual shooting at you</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>Shooting your colleague to death</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX</td>
<td>Others: Phys. Assault on colleagues</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|             |                              | 35            | 100.00 | 17                                  | 100.0 |

Source: Field Survey, May, 2009

The analysis from the above table shows that Verbal Abuse, Physical Assault, Verbal threat to harm, physical punch/beating and threatening one's life with weapon constitute 81.45% of the aggressive/violent behaviour meted to planning officials involved in development control and enforcement in Kaduna Metropolis.
With respect to the aggressive/violent behaviour experienced shown on the above table, 42.85\% indicated they experienced Verbal Abuse on site only, 23.80\% experienced physical punch/beating on site only while 14.28\% experienced physical assault and threats to their life with weapon on site only.

In the same vein, 87.50\% of the respondents indicated they received verbal abuse on both site and (in) Office, while 42.8\% and 57.1\% experienced verbal abuse and Verbal Threat to harm them both in site and in Office in that order.

In terms of response provided by the Planning Enforcement Officers to the aggressor, 51.74\% indicated they tried to explain the Development Control Regulations, 41.34\% reported the incident to their superior Officers in the office while 3.46\% reported the issue to the nearest Police Station. None of the cases was ever reported to NITP/TOPREC at State or National Level. One of the Planning Enforcement Officers indicated that whenever the developers were meting out their aggressive or violent behaviour towards him, he would keep silent or maintained his composure – an effective strategy of calming tempers.

On steps taken by the superior Officers/employer, the respondents indicated that only on seven occasions did their superior Officers called for Police action/protection, and only on three occasions that the defaulting developers were penalised. Sadly enough, one of the respondents indicated that his superior Officer simply consoled him. One of the enforcement officials reported of a pathetic situation when he carried out “punching” of an illegal building exercise and the developer took him to court but his employers abandoned him and he was made to bear the cost the ‘punching’.

9.0 Litigations on Planning Control and Enforcement:

On litigations consequent upon development control and enforcement activities, Jiriko’s (1991) case study findings covering 60\% of the Northern States and Abuja are illustrative. The situation as it relates to five of those States is as shown on Table 3 below.
## Table 3: Litigations on Breaches of Planning Control Regulations and Enforcement Actions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Planning Authority/Division</th>
<th>No. of Court Cases/Date</th>
<th>Nature of Court Cases</th>
<th>RULING No. in Favour</th>
<th>RULING No. Against</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jos Metropolitan Development Board</td>
<td>10 Since 1987</td>
<td>Demolition; Access Roads (joined).</td>
<td>1 on Demolition</td>
<td>Joined Cases</td>
<td>N.R.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sokoto Urban Development Authority</td>
<td>100 so far</td>
<td>Contraventions; Illegal Developments</td>
<td>Majority</td>
<td>Minority</td>
<td>N.R.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borno Town Planning Division (Min. of Land, etc.)</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>Land Matters; Illegal Developments; Change of Use</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.R.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaduna State Urban Planning Authority</td>
<td>Uncountable</td>
<td>Violations; Claims on Demolitions.</td>
<td>All except one</td>
<td>1 Pending Case.</td>
<td>Being true cases of violations-Defaulters defenseless.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwara Town Planning Authority</td>
<td>84 Contravention Notices since 1986</td>
<td>79 Demolition Cases since 1986.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.R.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N. A. Not Available, N.R. No Response

**Source: Jiriko (1991).**

From the table, for example, the Jos Metropolitan Development Board, as at the end of 1990, recorded up to 10 appeals and won only one. The Sokoto Urban Development Authority recorded 100 litigations and won most of them. The Kaduna State Urban Planning and Development Authority, on its part, had “uncountable” appeals to the courts and won virtually all the cases. The table further reveals, generally, that most of the court rulings that were not in favour of the Planning Authorities were those which involved the Authorities and one or more other agencies.
10.0 Respondents' Suggested Solutions to Aggressive/Violent Behaviour in Planning Practice in Nigeria:

The results of the analysis of respondents’ views on the sort of solutions that could eradicate or reduce the incidents of aggression/violence experienced in planning practice is as shown on the next table.

**Table 4: Suggestions for Eradicating/Reducing Aggressive/Violent Behaviour from Developers toward Planning Enforcement Officers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No.</th>
<th>Type of Suggestion</th>
<th>Frequency of Responses</th>
<th>% of Total Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>Public Educ./Enlightenment</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii</td>
<td>Create conducive operating environment for planners (e.g. proper protection, Police cover, etc)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii</td>
<td>Orientation of traditional leaders on planning/land matters</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv</td>
<td>Formulation of law against aggression towards planners</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Planners to practice according to professional ethics</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vi</td>
<td>Public participation in planning</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vii</td>
<td>NITP/TOPREC to take reported cases to court</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viii</td>
<td>Reduction in processing fee requirements</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ix</td>
<td>Production of clear layouts/beacons in all development areas</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>Planning Authorities to be more effective</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xi</td>
<td>Serve Stop Work/other Notices before demolition, punching exercises</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xii</td>
<td>Engage more professionals with high integrity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xiii</td>
<td>Provide protective gear for enforcement Officers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xiv</td>
<td>Full Control of emotion</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey May, 2009
From the table, the suggestions have been arranged according to respondents' priorities. In the light of this, suggestions (i) to (ix) constitute 81.44% of the responses. These suggestions would appear to require special attention, particularly suggestions (i) to (iii).

8.0 The Rights of the Employee and the Obligations of the Employer:

Individual citizens and employees have rights and privileges that must be guaranteed or met by government or met by government and/or employers. These rights and privileges are enshrined in divine books, constitutions of various countries, universal declarations or charters on human rights, the International Labour Organisation's provisions, health and safety regulations and laws, the objectives of professional bodies, to name but some. The Bible forbids the taking of the life of a fellowman: “You shall not murder” (Exodus 20:13) or kill. Taking the Constitution as an example, some of the relevant provisions under the Chapter on Fundamental Human Rights of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria include the right to life, the right to the dignity of the human person, the right to personal liberty, the right to fair hearing, the right to private and family life and the right to freedom of movement (Sections 32-41).

In Britain, under the 1983 Management of the Health and Safety Regulations, for instance, employers are required to carry out risk assessment as the first step to producing “safe working environments” (PLANNING WEEK, 1996). Similarly, one of the cardinal objectives of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners is the promotion of the welfare of its members (N.I.T.P. Constitution, 1994). These provisions, among others, take care of the safety, security and other rights and privileges of workers and members of the public in general. Governments, employers and professional bodies are, therefore, obliged to guarantee them.

11.0 Stakeholders in the Personal Safety and Security of the Planning Practitioner:

From the above premises for guaranteeing the personal safety, security and other rights and privileges of a worker or member of the public, the actors in this business are discernible. Every person is a stakeholder in the business of security. So also are the employer, the government (local, regional, national), the community and the international community and organizations, and the N.I.T. P/TOPREC. All these stakeholders have vital roles to play.

12.0 Efforts towards Addressing Problems Affecting Personal Safety and Security of Workers/Employee-Planners:

The human rights enunciated earlier are man's property. Neither the state nor its agencies have any 'locus standi' to arrogate these rights, talk less of denying them to the citizenry. Rather, it is the prerogative of the state and other relevant bodies to ensure that they are seriously observed, respected, expanded, protected and advanced (Chukwudzie, 1999). This will go a long way in reducing the personal safety and security problems of workers and citizens in general. Apart from these provisions, other efforts have also been made. In Britain for instance, regulations for the management of health and safety are produced e.g. the 1983 Regulations. By these, employers are required to carry out risk assessment studies as the first step to providing safe working environments for their workers. The Royal Town Planning Institute of Britain also made efforts towards addressing the problems plaguing the profession in connection with the subject matter. It invited submissions or contributions from members of the public on the nature and
intensity of the problems and to suggest the way forward. The outcome necessitated the production of advice notes to guide planning officers in their work and site visits. Moreover, Chapters of the R.T.P.I. also contracted out studies on the subject matter.

The Scottish Branch, for example, commissioned researches into problems encountered in the process of enforcing planning control. The findings were revealing and culminated in fruitful suggestions on how to improve the situation.

In Nigeria rules and regulations regarding the safety, security and health of workers are also in place. These and those on occupational hazards provide direction as to what to do to either prevent or handle the aftermaths of job hazards. Moreover, in Nigeria, some governmental establishments e.g. Ministries, Departments, and Agencies (MDAs) pay workers some hazard allowance. Kaduna Polytechnic, for example, pays less than N3000.00 per month as hazard allowance to its employees; but this amount is too meager.

One or two questions that need answering are: i) Why does violent behavior continue to be experienced in planning practice? ii) Is it that there are no avenues for appeal by aggrieved persons or ignorance about the existence of the avenues, if they are available? The first question will be answered much later in the discussion. Meanwhile, the next subsection explores the second.

13.0 Media of Appeal for Redressing Grievances Arising from Planning Practice:

A number of avenues have been created for persons aggrieved by decisions or actions and other matters that constitute maladministration on the part of planning authorities. Some of these media of appeal in both Britain and Nigeria are outlined below.

13.1 In Britain:

13.1.1. Secretary of State Medium of Appeal:

The British Town and Country Planning Acts provide for appeals by aggrieved parties in connection with certain actions or decisions taken or not taken by local planning authorities. The (Office of the) Secretary of the State is the first authority to whom such appeals are to be directed. Section 36 of the 1971 British Planning Law, for example, provides for appeals to the Secretary of State against a refusal, or grant subject to conditions, of planning permission whereby the applicant is aggrieved (Carnwath, 1982). The law also empowers the Secretary of State to "call-in" an application (i.e. request that an application be brought to him) for decision by him.

13.1.2. The "Inspectors" Medium:

Decisions on the normal appeals are made by a body of independent town planning "judges" known as "inspectors". They follow more or less a judicial or quasi-judicial approach. This system provides a model form of administrative tribunal or administrative "court". Planning inspectors make decisions based on the facts of a given case as adjudged by them. The appeals can lead to an inquiry or decided on written representation. While common sense outweighs "policy" circulars, Structure and Local Plans' issues are applied with extreme rigidity (Carnwath, 1982). The inspector's findings and recommendations are packaged in a report and then submitted to the Secretary of State for final decision.

13.1.3. Court of Law Medium:

The decision of the Secretary of State could be challenged in a High Court.
13.1.4. The Ombudsman Medium:

The Ombudsman medium of appeal—exemplified in the Parliamentary Commission for Administration (PAC) - was set up in a 1967 Act. The Act empowers the Commissioner to investigate a complaint referred to him by a Member of Parliament from "a member of the public who claims to have sustained injustice in consequence of maladministration" (Ngu, 1992). The Commissioner was also given discretionary powers, e.g. to define "mal-administration", to find out whether a departmental rule considered to have harsh effects was revised, etc. The more common forms of maladministration are making mistakes, losing the files, defects in administration in reality, Department's failure to reply to a letter, loss of case papers, bias, delays, failure to correct an error by a department, ambiguity in circulars or instruction, misleading statements by a department and so on.

13.2 In Nigeria:
13.2.1. Minister/Commissioner Responsible for Planning Matters Medium:

Planning (Development Control) Authorities take decisions as to whether to grant or refuse to grant development permit, grant development permit with conditions (i.e. conditional grant) that may be considered as unreasonable, delays in the granting or refusal and revocation of a development permit, among other things. Developers or holders of development permits who may not be satisfied with at least some of these decisions can appeal, in the first instance, to the Minister (Federal level) or Commissioner (State level) for matters relating to planning (Urban & Regional Planning Act, 1992, S. 40.2).

13.2.2. The Urban and Regional Planning Tribunal Medium:

An aggrieved person who is not satisfied with the decision of the Minister or Commissioner on a case of maladministration by a Planning Authority can then appeal to the Urban and Regional Planning Tribunal established by law in each State of the Federation and the Federal Capital Territory (URPAct, 1992, S.40.2).

13.2.3. The Governor Medium:

The Land Use Act, 1978, and the Urban and Regional Act, 1992, give the Governor a lot of powers. These include management and control of urban land, establishment of planning authorities, designation of "urban" areas, appointment of Land Use and Allocation Committee (L.U.A.C.), granting and revocation of statutory rights or certificates of occupancy and so forth. The Governor is empowered to entertain petitions from aggrieved members of the public on certain actions or decisions of, say, Ministry of Land through LUAC or Commissioner for land matters, etc., pertaining to land issues.

13.2.4. The Ombudsman Medium:

The institution of the ombudsman was established in Nigeria in 1975 in the form of the Public Complaints Commission (PCC). This was necessitated by a) complaints by a number of persons that they had suffered one form of injustice or another in the hands of public officers. b) Absence of avenues open to citizens to seek redress of genuine complaints about maladministration and, c) many instances of dereliction of duty or abuse of office by public officers do not constitute criminal offences for which redress could be sought in a court of law. These complaints needed to be impartially investigated and redressed. The PCC ensures for the citizen an impartial review of administrative decisions which appear to him unjust and protects him from injustices arising from abuse of power, neglect of duty, or errors of judgment on the part of people in authority (Ngu, 1992).
13.2.5. The Courts of Law Medium:

The media of appeal outlined above are legitimate but administrative or quasi-judicial in nature. The courts of law constitute the highest media for legal redress. Section 46 (1) of the 1999 Nigerian Federal Constitution states that “Any person who alleges that any of the provisions of this Chapter [Fundamental Rights] has been, is being or is likely to be contravened in any State [or the Federal Capital Territory] in relation to him may apply to a High Court in that State [or Federal Capital Territory] for redress”.

Planning Authorities can similarly appeal to the courts of law to enforce breaches of planning control, e.g. to stop an illegal use of land or to demolish an un-authorised development (URP Act, 1992, Sec.51 & 52; Dung-Gwom, 1993).

One of the most outstanding jurisdictional conflicts in Development Control in Nigeria was the Supreme Court case between Lagos State and Federal Government (inter-governmental dispute) in 2003: A-G of Lagos State v. A. G. of the Federation and Others. In that case, the plaintiff (Lagos State) made specific complaints that development control approvals granted by Federal Ministry of Works and Housing for shopping centre and filling stations, for greenery buffer, establishment of markets, development along the railways, construction of public toilets, among others, in different parts of the State and sought a declaration by the Supreme Court that by the virtue of the provisions of Sections 4 and 5 of the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria, Urban and Regional Planning as well as physical development is a residual matter within the exclusive legislative and executive competence of the States and Local Governments, and that the approvals, permits and licenses granted by the Federal Government from 1st June, 1999 for development of land within the territory of Lagos State without the consent of the plaintiff be declared illegal, null and void, among other reliefs sought. So the Supreme Court in its lead judgment ruled that since Urban and Regional Planning was not in the exclusive legislative list nor in the concurrent legislative list it is a residual matter within the exclusive competence and jurisdiction of State and Local Governments (further details in: Aduwo, 2004; Adeyeye, 2010).

Despite the existence of these ample media of appeal in both Britain and Nigeria, why does violent behaviour continue to be experienced some with fatal end results, in planning practice? The very nature of planning implies that conflicts will continue to arise in its practice. It would appear as if the available media of appeal are not being fully utilized (Dung-Gwom, 1993) due to lack of awareness or arrogance of the aggrieved persons. Similarly, government/private sector employers of labour seem to be found wanting in fulfilling their obligations to their employees in terms of implementing declarations, charters constitutional provisions, etc. on human rights including the personal safety and security of their workers at office and on site visits. Furthermore, the planning staff himself seems not to be doing enough to help safeguard his personal safety and security at work, home and on site visits. Moreover, some of the public sector planner-employees seem to be found wanting in living up to the expectations of the profession. Jiriko (2008) found that a number of cases of the distortions of the Abuja Master Plan were linked to instances of collusion of some planning officials with developers. The demolition of such developments usually generates violent reactions or grievances against the public sector planning practitioner. As regards the way forward, therefore, the next subsection charts some viable courses of action or strategies for enduring solutions to the problems of violence in planning practice.
14.0 SUGGESTED VIABLE STRATEGIES FOR ENDURING SOLUTIONS TO VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR IN PLANNING PRACTICE:

In order to overcome the challenges found in the study, eradicate or reduce aggressive behaviour experienced in planning practice, create a conducive working environment so as to motivate the planning practitioner to do his best in bringing about well planned and productive cities and regions and the attendant benefits, each of the various stakeholders must begin to properly play or intensify their efforts in fulfilling their roles. The following strategies and measures are, therefore, recommended:

14.1 The public sector Planning Authorities (PAs) should educate/enlighten the general public, corporate public and private organisations, especially land developers, on the existence and requirements of development control rules, regulations, and procedures as well as the available avenues of appeal when they are aggrieved in Nigeria;

14.2 The PAs should imbibe and institutionalise Good Governance principles of participatory democracy, transparency, and accountability, among others, in administering the development control and enforcement process;

14.3 The PAs should also organise regular workshops/seminars on personal safety and security of the planning practitioner at meetings, on site visits, and at home: these should involve issues that include handling aggrieved developers on site, communication and body language, mode of dress on site visits, entrances and exits situations on site to be visited, planning of meetings at sites for conflict resolution, carrying of official ID card, avoidance of sitting near scaffolding/foundation trenches or climbing onto scaffolding on site visits, carrying a GSM handset and a personal alarm to frighten aggressors when on solo site visit to hazardous sites;

14.4 Organising orientation exercises (by the PAs) for newly recruited staff on the nitty-gritty of development control and enforcement processes, procedures, and requirements;

14.5 Public Sector employers of urban and regional planning labour should fulfill their obligations to these employees by implementing the relevant Articles of the ILO Convention 55, the provisions of the Nigerian Constitution, and other National Health and Safety Laws and Regulations at the level of the undertaking;

14.6 NITP/TOPREC should institute regular researches into the personal safety and security aspects of the welfare of its practicing planners in both public and private sectors and based on the findings provide regular, formal practice guidance notes on personal safety and security for their practicing members and planner-employers;

14.7 There should be proper record keeping on all site visits: description of site to be visited, date, time, name(s) of officer(s) visiting the site, name(s) of developer(s) to be visited, contact GSM numbers, etc;

14.8 In all demolition exercises, prior local police support should be sought and actual presence obtained during the exercises;

14.9 NITP/TOPREC should enforce the provisions of the Code of Professional Conduct and Practice on their practicing members;

Building structures used as offices, conference/exhibition halls, residences, fences, for meetings, etc should be so designed that there is provision for entrances and
14.10 The planning and holding of exhibitions should ensure that the locations are free from potential problems for the duty staff. All staff should acquaint themselves with the exhibition arrangements before duty days; two members of staff, at least, should be on duty at a time; and

14.11. Parking of vehicles used on site visits should be done in a manner and in parts of the sites which facilitate quick exiting when the planning officials are threatened with aggressive behaviour.

14.12 Parking in office, meeting or conference premises should also be done with an eye on ease of exiting in situations of aggression or danger;

14.13 No employer should ask a member of his staff to attend an apparently hazardous (solo) site visit, meeting, etc., on his own (RTPI PAN 11, 1992);

14.14 All employers of planning labour should put in place clear procedures for reporting all cases of violence or aggression towards the staff in their organisation;

All employers should undertake appropriate and proper insurance cover against any risk to all their staff; and

14.15 Never deal with a customer/developer under the influence of alcohol or drugs; never reply in kind to abuse, rudeness or threats and; if your client, etc., produces a weapon or threatens to use violence, leave at once and report to your employer or police.

It is to be noted that some of the recommendations made above derive from the experiences of the British situation.

REFERENCES:


Consult, held at Sheraton Hotels and Towers, Abuja, June.


Dung-Gwom, J. (1993) "Avenues of Appeal: An Assessment and a


Kaduna State Urban Planning and Development Authority (Author’s discussion with Zonal Managers/Development Control Officials), 2009.


PLANNING WEEK (1995) “Perth pair have narrow brush with quarry owner”, Journal of the Royal Town Planning Institute, July 13, p. 3.


The Royal Town Planning Institute (1992) “Personal Safety at Meetings and Site Visits”, Practice Advice Note No. 11, September.
CHALLENGES TO SUSTAINABLE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NATIONAL BUILDING CODE IN NIGERIA.

By

Ogboi, Kingsley C. (Ph.D.)
Department of Urban and Regional Planning,
University of Nigeria, Enugu Campus.
Abstract

Enforcement of building regulations in Nigeria has become an issue for all stakeholders particularly the allied professionals in the building industry whom the NBC assigns responsibilities as the main actors in its implementation. The main objective of the code is to integrate public participation and multi-perspective approaches in the building industry for sustainable physical development in the country. The implementation of this code which contains the standards for the building industry in Nigeria is associated with some challenges particularly for these stakeholders. This paper examines the structure of the NBC and the challenges for the professionals in implementing the code given its social and legal circumstances. Findings include the fact that the necessary institutional framework provided in both the NBC and the Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law, 1992, for implementing the NBC and development control in general, have not been put in place. The study illuminates the perspectives of measures necessary for building a platform for the professionals for implementing the code, and they include understanding the code, team trust, communication and public participation.
Introduction

Enforcement of building regulations in Nigeria has become not just the town planners' affair but an overall societal role following the emergence of the National Building Code (NBC). It is now an issue for all stakeholders particularly the allied professionals in the building industry whom the NBC assigns some responsibilities as the main actors in its implementation. One major objective of the code is to integrate public participation and multi-perspective approaches in the building industry for sustainable physical development in the country. This document which has become the single most recently referenced regulation and contains a set of standards for the building industry in Nigeria has some challenges for the stakeholders. Some years after the approval of the NBC, Nigeria still operates a system of general development control based on the provisions of the Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning of 1992 rather than implementing the code that provides a structure and specifically identifies professionals in the building control activity areas. The power of building control has therefore, remained very broad and vague that there are no clear practices based upon definite principles.

When buildings collapse, professionals in the industry tend to throw blame at one another in attempts to avoid liabilities for the incidence. This prevailing situation has set a poor relation among the professionals, a situation that is not conducive for the building industry. As the NBC has set a new play ground for the allied professionals, the peculiar interests of these actors, defined through their professional knowledge and norms, must be properly harmonized. This paper therefore, examines critically the structure of the NBC and the challenges in implementing the code given its social, political and legal circumstances. The study describes how the challenges can be handled as the professionals come together for the implementation of the code. Reflecting on the underlying structures can make the actors conscious of the discourses that currently guide their day-to-day thinking, pave way for them to reposition their individual thinking and develop a more productive orientation.

Definition of Building Code

A building code is a set of standards that give detailed minimum specification with regard to materials and workmanship required in any structure or building project with a view to ensuring quality, safety and proficiency in the building industry (Southern Congress, 1976). A building code has a major objective of protecting public health, safety and general welfare with respect to construction of buildings and the occupation and use of such buildings (Planning Portal, 2007a; Snelling, 1997). It specifies the minimum acceptable standards for the building industry in the area concerned (Ogbonna, 2008). As defined in Section 1 of the NBC, the scope covers "control of all matters concerning the design and location, repair and use of any building or structure, for existing or proposed building works within the Federal Republic of Nigeria" (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2006). The Building Code sets the minimum standards on building pre-design, design, construction and post construction stages with a view to ensuring quality, safety and proficiency of our building industry.

In both developed and developing countries, building code is accepted as a tool for regulating and managing practices and services in the building sector and ensuring that the practice of construction is done properly for the security and safety of the public (Smith and Barrington, 1992). But its application and design vary from country to country depending on the prevailing local
circumstances. In some countries, the power to design and enforce a building code is vested in the hands of the central government, while in some countries the regional governments produce and enforce separate building codes (Adediran, 2007). Building code is generally applied in the activities of professionals such as architects, planners, civil engineers, estate developers, building material manufacturers, safety inspectors and insurance companies (Kaltho, 2007). According to Anderson et al. (2004) building codes are needed in every society to take care of risks posed by lack of uniformity, victims of poor construction, lack of enforcement of other legislations and annual losses, of which 24-40% could be avoided.

The Emergence of the National Building Code in Nigeria

In the last three decades, inadequate housing supply has been a major challenge to the Nigerian urban centres. The cities in particular have been experiencing rapid increase in population and housing demand but low rates of housing supply. Associated with the situation was poor housing environmental condition manifesting in form of overcrowding and poor sanitation (Abiola and Makonjuola, 2005). Consequently, development of slums and sub-standard houses increased. The most worrisome situations were structural failure of buildings and, in some cases, outright collapse of structures. The incessant collapse of buildings has become an embarrassment to the Nigerian government, its agencies charged with development control and professionals in the building industry (Financial Standard Magazine, 2007). Today, it is a common feature in Nigerian urban centres that buildings are erected on drainage channels and sewers, with their foundations poorly made. Houses are designed without the necessary official approval and are developed with sub-standard materials thereby leading to structural failure and collapse (Ogboi and Okosun, 2008).

The agitation for a national building code for Nigeria commenced in mid 1980s. Ademoroti (1992) emphasized the need for laws to control buildings in Nigeria, Bamisile (2000) and Abiola and Makonjuola (2005) on the need for National Building regulations in the country, and Ojambati (2001) on the need for code of conduct, building regulations and bye laws for the building industry. According to FGN (2006) in section 1.1 the major motivations for the NBC were basically the "incessant collapse of buildings, fire infernos, built environment abuse and other disasters" as well as "dearth of referenced design standards for professionals." Other factors include absence of planning in the cities, use of non-professionals and quacks in buildings, use of inferior and untested materials, lack of maintenance culture and poor management of buildings.

The preparation of the NBC started in 1987 with a directive from the defunct National Council of Works to the major stakeholders in the industry to initiate a building code. Through a number of meetings by the allied professional bodies between 1987 and 1990 a draft code was produced. The document passed through the processes of public debates, workshops, technical reviews, amendments and fine-tuning between 1990 and 2005. The NBC was eventually approved in 2006 by the Federal Executive Council of Nigeria and has been forwarded to the National Assembly to pass it into a law. With approval by the National Assembly it will become a statute for enforcement for building development activities in the country. The aim of the code, as stated in section 1.2.2 is "to set minimum standards on building pre-design, construction and post-construction stages with a view to ensuring quality and proficiency in the building industry".
Allied Professionals and Building Control

Before the NBC emerged, there was no regulation that identified individual professionals specifically to certain responsibilities and with penalties for misconducts. Design and construction standards were based on simple planning and building regulations and guidelines without professional liabilities for people involved in building construction and control. In actual practice till date, Nigeria operates a system of general development control rather than specific regulations for building and planning that identifies professionals specifically in their activity areas. Building control therefore, still remains very broad and vague that there are no clear policies based on definite principles.

In the NBC, there is a clear provision for responsibility for each professional that is involved in building production and control. By this, it removes partially the control and enforcement of building regulations in the country from the position where it was limited within the town planners' domain and where only the planners who issue approval officially take responsibility rather than all professionals involved in the building process. Thus the code integrates a multi-perspective approach into building control for its effectiveness. The advantages of the multi-perspective approach in the NBC are that it can improve performance in the industry; giving the professionals the opportunity to accept the code as their own instrument, and thus willing to contribute meaningfully to its success. It will be a means for mobilizing support for the NBC and a tool for the professional bodies in controlling the activities of members in their respective areas.

The Administrative Structure of the National Building Code

For effective implementation of the NBC, provision is made for the establishment of Building Code Enforcement Division/Section/Unit which shall comprise the following: Architect, Engineer, Town Planner, Public Health Officer, Land Surveyor and Valuer; and the Enforcement Division shall implement the provisions of the code (Section 13.1). The enforcement unit is vested with the following duties:

1. To implement the provisions of the code to secure the intent thereof (13.1.1.3.1)

2. To enforce the provisions of the code through the appropriate registered professionals (13.1.1.3.2)

3. To use the assistance and co-operation of other government agencies and law enforcement agencies in the discharge of their duties (13.1.1.3.3)

4. To access any or all premises or building at all reasonable times to inspect same or to perform any duty imposed by the enforcement of this code (13.1.1.3.4)

5. To issue all necessary notices or orders to remove illegal or unsafe conditions to require the necessary safeguards during construction and to ensure compliance with all the code requirements for health, safety and general welfare of the public.

6. Order to vacate a building structure when in the opinion of the Code Enforcement Division/Section/Unit there is actual and immediate danger of failure or collapse of a structure or any part thereof which would endanger life (13.1.1.3.6)

7. Responsible for inspections
throughout the life of a building or engage approved agencies or individuals to carry out the inspection and submit reports in writing.

It provides also for the composition of Building Code Advisory Committee which "shall consists of duly registered practitioners of not less than 10 years post-registration experience in the following professions: Architecture, Building, Engineering, Urban and Regional Planning, Estate Surveying and Valuation, Quantity Surveying, Land Surveying; and a representative of Federal Ministry of Housing and Environment; Federal Ministry of Health; Federal Fire Service; Standard Organization of Nigeria; and Six State Representatives (in building industry) each from the six geopolitical zones of the country ... (section 3.1.1). The functions of the committee are:

1. periodic review of the code and other functions incidental thereto assigned to it by the minister from time to time

2. to recommend for the minister's approval, members of the Technical Sub-committee established under the code.

These bodies, made up of experienced professionals, form the key instruments in the institutional framework for the implementation of the code. While the committee is charged with policy making and advisory roles, the enforcement unit performs the day to day implementation and enforcement of the code. The code in assigning functions to the various professions considered relevant in its implementation recognised their specific professional domains, which are different in scope and content. For example, in a building project, the architect examines the designs of the building, issues instruction, supervises or inspects work and approve materials for work. The structural engineer supervises and inspects structural works, approves materials and components for structural works, and approves the test procedures and result. The service engineers (mechanical and electrical) supervise and inspect mechanical/electrical work, approve materials and components for service work, and approve test procedures (Chubb, 1993; Woodward, 1998; Seeley, 1996; Ron-Baden, 1993; Zack, 2004; Royal Institute of Chartered Surveyors, 2001).

The functions of the various professionals are well specified but in carrying out the functions they depend on one another for successful accomplishment of their work (Onyeado and Anikwe, 2008). For instance, in a building project the estate valuer and architect liaise with the town planner to know the land use designation of the area to ensure conformity with the approved scheme. The architect needs the town planner's land use plan and site analysis for consideration of a building design and standard. On this note the code tries to integrate the activities of the professionals through provision for Certification of Use and Habitation to be issued by the enforcement unit. According to the NBC "a building erected shall not be used or occupied in whole or in part until the certificate of use and habitation shall have been issued by the Code Enforcement Unit of the Development Control Department". The certificate is to be issued after confirmation by all the professionals in the unit that the building is fit for use and habitation. Each stage in building construction therefore, from design to post construction stage, requires confirmation by one professional or the other for the issuance of the certification.

Challenges to the Implementation of the National Building Code

Presently, there are some challenges to the implementation of the code. The machinery for the implementation of the code is not yet in place. The necessary framework as provided in the NBC and the Urban and
Regional Planning (URP) Law (FGN, 1992) has not been provided. The planning agencies/units are not established in some states in compliance with the URP Law. Similarly, there are no functional local planning authorities (LPAs) in the Local Government Areas.

Section 4 of part 11 of the code classified buildings according to types and physical use. Though this classification shares some similarities with land use classification in urban and regional planning, the two differ. In practice, recognizing the differences is an inherent challenge. While the land use classification is used by planning agencies for planning schemes, the classification in the code is applicable at the time of approval of building, its construction or rehabilitation. But it is argued that while building code ensures safety and habitability, it is also an instrument for achieving the general goal of land use planning and development control (Onu, 2007). The code being a veritable tool for development control enforcement in urban planning, the two classifications need to be streamlined. In practice, an approval is issued for development of a building only when it meets all planning standards and the application is accompanied by required documents such as location plan and site analysis report.

The placement of the Code Enforcement Unit in the Development Control Department of the planning agency gives conflicting impressions between planners and other professionals. To some of the professionals, this places the implementation and administration of the code under the town planners. But in the arrangement, the Code Enforcement Unit includes professionals such as architects, builders, engineers, land surveyors, and estate valuers. Perhaps, many of these professionals are yet to understand what their duties are in the system as the scope of activities in the planning office is still limited to development control (Ogbio, 2010). This situation therefore, requires a streamlining of the building control activities at all levels with the control of building operations provided for in the Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law of 1992. Areas of the NBC to be streamlined with URP Law (1992) incorporate the implementation of the code include the standards for renewal, repairs, new buildings and redevelopment of buildings.

Another major challenge is the anticipated conflicts that may arise from the alliance of the allied professionals with regard to the discharge of their duties in implementing the code. Allocation of responsibilities to the professional bodies is well structured but not without some unreflected overlaps that may generate conflicts among them and among agencies that are identified with building development control. As Nigeria has over the years practiced a system in which town planners have traditionally performed the functions of development approval and control, it therefore becomes imperative that the functions of these professionals in the code have to be properly streamlined.

FGN (1992) in the URP Law assigned the responsibility of control of physical development to the Development Control Department in the Urban and Regional Planning Commission, Board and LPA as the case may be. Presently there is a view among some planners that the fundamental role of the town planning department on issuing development permit based on planning standards should not be sacrificed to the board of professionals in the bid to enforce building control. To them, planning standards should be upheld and strictly maintained as usual and as such the standards should not be sacrificed in any circumstance with flexible alternatives from other quarters in the name of multi-perspective approach to planning and building
control. This impression may have been informed by the experiences of some states in the country in setting up planning boards and LPAs. These planners strongly hold on to the view that the power of control must not be made to sub-serve other ends. As such it is therefore, important not to attempt to make planning accept changes, which though may be desirable, but are located outside the traditional scope of planning or may water down the standards therein.

For clarity Adediran (2007, 42) and Planning Portal (2007, b) differentiates between development control and building control. According to them building control is the imposition of continuing requirements on the developers and occupiers of buildings including those, which were not, at the time of their erection, subject to building regulations. While development control deals with the process of securing compliance with standards developed by government or its agencies charged with such responsibility. Moreover, the provision in Section 4.1.2 of the NBC specified that the part should not be deemed to nullify any provisions of the relevant Urban and Regional Planning (URP) Law or any other statute of the jurisdiction pertaining to the location of building. The Code Enforcement Unit is expected to reside in the Development Control Department of the planning authority, but its presence there should not conflict with the functions of the department. The unit is expected to have staff that consists of various professionals for effective operation. In this case the planning authority where the Code Enforcement Unit is domiciled is expected to integrate the provisions of the code in its system.

The challenge of overlaps of functions can be examined in terms of the scope of work. Lamoreaux (2002) highlighted specifically on understanding building codes and housing codes. Adediran (2007) identified basically three areas of control in building development namely planning, environmental and building control. As presented in figure 1 the overlapping effects of these areas of control are imperative to realizing the objectives of the code. There may be peculiar sets of regulations within each of these areas of control but in practice they are related. This perhaps justifies why the code did not repeal existing planning regulations in the country.
Control in Building Development

Figure 1: Areas of Control in Building Development
More related works have been carried out by scholars. Jackson (2006) explained how the NBC will sanitize construction industry, Yusufu (2007) highlighted the future with building regulation while Dahiru, Abdulazeez and Abubakar (2012) assessed the adequacy of the National Building Code for achieving a sustainable built environment in Nigeria. Meanwhile other challenges to a sustainable implementation of the NBC include

1. High level of Poverty and low public investment on urban infrastructure

2. Low level of technical know-how in the industry in Nigeria

3. Lack of publicity of the code. The code is not popular among stakeholders particularly developers

4. Low level of interest by construction professionals and stakeholders in applying the code

5. Lack of enabling environment including the necessary institutional framework for its implementation

6. Low level of compliance with related statutory documents including the URPLaw

7. The inability of the code to incorporate the use of traditional construction methods and building materials

8. Lack of effective enforcement following the non-existing enabling environment

9. Social and economic development challenges

Platform for Effective Implementation of the National Building Code

Considering the challenges mentioned above, the implementation of the code can be effectively and efficiently achieved through the following:

1. In-depth Knowledge of the NBC: For successful implementation of the code, the professionals need to understand in detail the provisions of the code. An in-depth knowledge of the code and all its provisions will give them the opportunity to appreciate not only the extent of commitment required of them but also to appreciate one another in their respective areas. Moreover, there is need for capacity building on the part of the professionals to meet up with the emerging challenges that arise from time to time.

2. The Administrative Basis of the Implementation: The code provides for appointment of members of the allied professions in the technical committee and enforcement unit (FGN, 2006). The various governments should constitute the teams, technical committees and enforcement units as specified in the code.

3. Political Factor: The new concept of stakeholders’ participation in development control in the URP Law and NBC tends to expose the traditional roles of town planners to external influences. The experiences in some states where planning boards and authorities are in place have shown that the bodies have become domains where local politicians are settled with employment as members of boards. For instance, the chairman of the Urban and Regional Planning Board in Delta State in 2008 to 2011 was a nurse by profession and the board had no town planner or allied professional among its members. One can imagine the decision and policies that such a board saddled with planning responsibilities in a state can make in the absence of the relevant professionals. Such error should be avoided in the composition of the NBC teams.

4. Employment of Qualified Staff: The
problem of recruitment of appropriate personnel for the implementation of the code should be critically examined. One of the challenges in the industry in Nigeria is the employment of non-professionals in planning agencies to carry out building development control and monitoring. In many planning agencies in the country people from non-related disciplines are employed to work in building control units and are given the powers to grant development approvals. Politically motivated employment should be avoided; rather, technical need should be emphasised. The NBC and URP Law have been structured to minimize the intrusion of quacks into the industry.

5. Productive Communication and Team Trust: Good communication is a viable ingredient of teamwork (Handy, 1999). The allied professionals should be in productive communication with one another both within the team and outside. Through good communication members of the enforcement team can understand each other and areas of conflict, and mis-understanding can be reduced. Members of the team should see themselves as people with a common vision and out to achieve a common goal. With this at the back of their mind they can trust each other and work together (Munns, 1995). They should not limit themselves to recognizing only the roles assigned to them in their respective areas by the code but also that of the other professionals and to see them as people with special inputs to make in the team. A profession is a trade with a body of specialized knowledge (Garner, 1997). Understanding and accepting others as such can help professionals to position themselves well in the team and direct properly the areas of collaboration and cooperation as a team.

6. Integrity and Sense of Responsibility: It is in the interest of the professional bodies that they are represented in the enforcement unit by persons with good reputation and integrity. The representatives should be individuals who respect the code of conduct of their professions. They should be persons who place the interest of their professions and the public above their personal interests (MacBarago, 2005). Such professionals should be persons known for honesty, probity, incorruptibility, objectivity, competence and moral affection for the profession. In conducting their duties professionals should be guided by the code of conduct of their professions. In the code of conduct issues such as integrity, rights, professional obligations and penalties for misconducts are provided.

7. Promoting Public Awareness for the NBC: For the code to be useful and effective it must be well accepted by the people. The role of promoting public awareness and participation in the implementation of the code belongs to the allied professionals identified as major stakeholders and assigned responsibilities by the code. Public participation cuts across all the stages in the building process from planning and pre-design to post-construction stage. Public participation can be built through awareness creation, by making the public realize that the main aim of the code is to serve public interest by ensuring their safety in the living environment; and by ensuring that the public (as developers and users) is well informed about their roles in decision making, compliance, building control and management of the environment. It will also pave way for effective urban management through reduction of illegals in building development and public discontent associated with the code and related regulations.
Conclusion

One major objective of the NBC is to integrate public participation and multi-perspective approaches in the building industry for sustainable physical development in Nigeria. This document which contains a set of standards for the building industry in the country has some challenges for the stakeholders particularly the professionals in the building industry who are saddled with responsibilities for its implementation. Team trust, carefully sharing roles, communicating and resolving conflicts without putting personal interest above the overall interest of the public are the basic ingredients to effective implementation of the code. Above all there is need for in-depth understanding of the contents of the code by the public including developers and users of houses.

References


and Valuers Registration Board of Nigeria, Enugu. May 22.


Royal Institute of Chartered Surveyors (2001) “Performance Indicators for Consultants”. Chartered Surveyor vol. 7(3)


BOOK REVIEW:
THE CHALLENGES OF URBANIZATION IN NIGERIAN URBAN CENTRES: THE LAGOS MEGA-CITY SITUATION – A TOWN PLANNER’S PERSPECTIVE.

PRICE: N1,000:00; approximately $6.66
Reviewer: M. O. Lawal
Department of Geography and Planning,
Faculty of Social Sciences,
Lagos State University, Lagos.
This book is a 35-page publication, encapsulating and encompassing the morphology of Lagos as a city which is gradually evolving into a mega-city status over the years. The entire book can be regarded as just a mere chapter in any book form because it is very brief, short, concise, pungent and succinct. The language of expression is very simple and can be understood by a layman and even the non-planners. The various photographs and figures used are very illustrative as they portray what the author is trying to express or communicate to her readers.

As a preamble to the book the author traced the growth rate of urbanization in the world, vis-à-vis Africa and the consequences of this growth on the environment. Such consequences include pollution, environmental degradation, slum, housing shortages, and traffic congestion. The author was able to portray this by saying that the carrying capacity of the land will not be able to support its teeming population. Aggravating these problems are the number of inadequate professional and supporting technical staff as well as inadequacy of the current digitized data and information on urban conditions. Effective urban management strategies depend on comprehensive and up-to-date information base (page 2).

Section 2 of the book gives a brief history of the growth of Lagos metropolis which was first inhabited before the 15th century A.D. George was able to show us how Lagos has evolved over the years, first as a farming and fishing settlement on an island chosen primarily for its comparative safety from attack—a frequent feature of the then inter-tribal warfare. The author noted that the coming of the Portuguese in 1472 gave the island its present name of Lagos, (page 2). Lagos according to George was formally founded in the early 17th century A.D. by the Awori settlers. The population of Lagos was estimated to be about 5,000 in 1800. From this figure, Lagos can be regarded as an urban centre. This figure tends to conform with Mabogunje's (1968) definition of an urban area using population of the 1952/1953 population census as the yardstick or parameter. Mabogunje (1968) defines 'Urban' area as a place where there is an agglomeration of people of about 5,000. Apart from population, other parameters could have also been used to define an urban area, such as the functions which, according to Mabogunje (1968), an area is able to provide to its adjoining communities, e.g. banking institutions, industries, number of educational institutions, post offices and a host of other functions.

George was able to show us the phenomenal growth of Lagos over the years from a farming and fishing community to a big city with population increasing from 5,000 in 1800 to 20,000 in 1850 and was estimated to increase to 30,000 in 1861. Apart from the Portuguese that came to Lagos, we also have the Brazilians who came to Lagos, to trade and also settled there. It is important and also interesting to note that when the Brazilians were coming, they brought along with them their culture and architectural designs as mentioned by the author on page 2. The city of Lagos performed trade and commerce functions as well as administrative seat of Government both at the Federal and State levels before the Federal capital was relocated to Abuja in 1991. Because of the pull and push factors, people started migrating to Lagos for greener pasture which Lagos was able to provide to many migrants.

Table 1 illustrates the Lagos population and areal growth from 1866 - 1976, a period covering over 110 years. What happened then after 1976? The author should have been able to give us an up-to-date population figure of Lagos even up to the year 2006 when the last census was taken in which
the Lagos population census was put at over (9,113,605) according to the National Population Census of 2006. However, on page 6, the author was able to make an estimate that Lagos was attaining a population figure of 18 million which has really made and qualified her as a megacity. This population was viewed vis-à-vis the Nation’s population of 157 million. In terms of commerce and industries, Lagos is still leading and still the commercial nerve centre of the nation. George has really put this in a proper perspective by saying that:

“Locally, Lagos alone accounts for over 65% of Nigeria’s GDP and over 70% of national industrial investments” (page 6).

Apart from this, she attributes the spatial growth of the city as what qualifies the state as a megacity.

“Spatially, the Lagos megacity region, covering 154,540 hectares (2000) that is approximately 17 of the state’s Local Government Areas (LGAs) impinging on four Local Government Areas of neighbouring Ogun State. These are Ise- Odo, Ifo, Obafemi-Owode and Sagamu. The megacity which has an average population density of 20,000/sq. km against the national average of 1,308 (2005) serves as the springboard for innovation and development throughout Nigeria and West Africa” (pages 6-7).

The rapid urbanization of Lagos is not without its attendant problems as pointed out by the author. These include urban sprawl and encroachment on conservation zone, inadequate basic infrastructure and communal facilities, inadequate energy (electricity), inadequate potable water, slums, urban road transport problems, traffic congestion, problems of waste generation and disposal, urban crime and other social vices, pollution of the environment from the industries and urban traffic congestion, change of use and illegal development.

Pages 21 - 24 illustrate the efforts of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners, the role of the Government and their activities in town planning. The author has been able to go down to the grassroot in her effort in planning for the various communities in the state most especially the meeting of the Spectroplan Konsult’s stakeholders’ with the Ijede Community Development Councils on Ikorodu Master Plan. This is shown in photo (II) on page 8. The bottom-up planning approach has really demonstrated the planner’s association with the grassroots communities. Little wonder why Stohr (1981) describes this type of development planning approach as bottom-up, rather than top-bottom or centre. This can also be regarded as Town-Rural Relations in planning. These are sixteen (16) photographs in all and six (6) figures. These are all illustrated and they depict what the author is trying to say to readers/audience. Is small always beautiful...? (Schumacher E.F. 1975). The book, written by C.K. George, may be small but beautiful and has been able to provide information and education to all readers of planning as if people mattered. This book is hereby recommended for students, (undergraduate and postgraduate) as well as lecturers in the planning profession for reading. C.K. George has my enthusiasm.

NOTES:


Stohr, W.B. and D.R. Fraser Taylor (1981), Development from Above or Below? The Dialectics of Regional Planning in Developing Countries. John Wiley & Sons. Chichester, New York, Brisbane, Toronto.

Mabogunje, A.L. (1968)
Guidelines for Contributors (Flier):

JOURNAL OF THE NIGERIAN INSTITUTE OF TOWN PLANNERS (JNITP)

Urban and regional planning is the veritable tool for the planning, development and management of land/space and all other environmental resources as well as the protection and enhancement of the natural environment in a sustainable manner. Given the centrality of planning in defining the growth and development of urban and regional space, the indispensability of the centrality of research in planning cannot be over-emphasised.

The Journal of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (JNITP) is a peer-reviewed and professional journal. It is intended to help better underscore the problems arising from unplanned growth in human settlements, regional development disparities as well as how implementing better planning can help human settlements and regions to create and support continuous and equitable growth for present and future generations. Today, half of the world’s people live in towns and cities, and in the near future, two-thirds of the global population will be urban.

The main challenges confronting cities, towns, and regions across the world today include unemployment, social and economic inequalities, unsustainable energy consumption patterns, urban sprawl and housing shortage, slums, technological and natural disasters, inadequate urban basic services (water, sanitation, energy), poor mobility systems and increasing emissions of greenhouse gases and so on. Tackling these problems and turning the ideals of sustainable, inclusive human settlements and regions into reality makes the role of research more visible. The Journal of Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (JNITP) shines the spotlight on this role that planned development plays in the long-term sustainability of urban, rural and regional space. The scope/issues covered by the journal include:

- land-use planning and development;
- urban planning and development;
- regional planning and development;
- pollution (all types);
- waste management;
- climate change;
- disaster (risk) management;
- urban/regional infrastructure;
- housing;
- employment/unemployment;
- socio-economic/spatial inequalities;
- renewable energy
- urban sprawl/slums;
- traffic/transportation;
- urban management;
- infrastructure/utilities/services;
- planning/environmental laws and administration; EIA(Reports);
- entrepreneurship in planning;
leisure and recreation;
tourism; National Parks;
urban conservation/heritage;
planning/environ. Education; etc.

The aim of the journal is to publish world class and seasoned papers that chart ways for planning, development and management of livable, equitable, and prosperous cities and regions based on international best practices. The journal is geared towards providing opportunities to scholars, academics and professionals to offer their wealth of knowledge and experiences at exploring the challenges of spatial development and proffering pragmatic solutions. The Editorial Board of JNITP invites prospective authors to submit well researched papers for publication for the March and October editions.

Guidelines for Manuscripts --

1. Paper should be in English and submitted in soft copy

2. The length of the paper (including the references, tables, illustrations and figures) should not be more than 15 pages on A4 paper at 12 point front Times New Roman or within the range of 3,500 5,000 words.

3. Manuscript should be typed in double spacing and with margin of 2.0cm on the left, top and bottom, and 1.5cm on the right of each page

4. All the pages must be numbered consecutively and should be organised under headings and sub-headings

5. The cover page should contain the following
n A title of not more than 25 words or 70 characters
n The name(s) of the author(s) and their institutional affiliations
n The name, phone number and e-mail of the corresponding author.

6. The first page of the paper text should contain the title of the paper and must not contain the name of the author

7. Abstract- Authors are expected to include an abstract of the paper of not more than 200 words summarizing the purpose and objectives of the paper, methodology, major findings and recommendations

8. Key words - Authors are requested to provide 4-6 keywords that clearly describe the subject matter of the paper

VOL. XXII

October, 2013
9. Tables - Tables should be numbered consecutively and labeled as Table 1, Table 2, etc. Their exact locations in the text should be properly indicated.

10. Figures - Figures should be numbered consecutively and labeled as Fig. 1, 2, etc. Their exact locations in the text should be properly indicated.

11. In-citation: For single authors - only author's surname and date/page (in bracket), Jiriko (2013;15); for more than 2 authors - only surnames of authors and date/page for the first citation e.g. Babatunde, Chinedu, and Ebele (2010:20), but mention only surname of first author and add 'et al' and date/page in subsequent citations e.g. Babatunde, et al. (2010:25). In-citation for journals should follow same pattern.

12. References - the list of references should be in Harvard Style and in alphabetical order. The following order should be followed: for book - author's name (last name and initials but without title), the year (in bracket), the title of the book, place of publication, and publisher. If more than 2 authors,
CORRESPONDENCE:
Three hard copies and an electronic/soft copy of all papers/manuscripts should be sent to either:

1. The Editor-in-Chief,
   Journal of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners,
   Department of Urban and Regional Planning,
   College of Environmental Studies, Kaduna Polytechnic.
   E-mail: jirikokefas@yahoo.com
   OR

2. The Editor-in-Chief,
   C/O The Executive Secretary,
   Nigerian Institute of Town Planners,
   Bawa Bwari House, Plot 2047,
   Michael Okpara Street,
   Wuse Zone 6, Abuja.

SUBSCRIPTION RATES:
Individual/Personal: N1,000.00
Institutions: N1,500.00
Overseas: 100 US Dollars; £60.00

ADVERTISEMENTS:
Full Page: N50,000.00
Half Page: N30,000.00
Quarter Page: N15,000.00