

BUILT ENVIRONMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

**FACULTY OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES
IMO STATE UNIVERSITY OWERRI
CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS SERIES
(1st Edition)**



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Published in Nigeria by:

Faculty of Environmental Sciences

Imo State University, P.M.B. 2000, Owerri, Nigeria

Website: www.imsuonline.edu.ng

E-ISBN: 978-978-778-659-8

Preface

We are delighted to present the Proceedings from the International Conference on the Built Environment and Sustainable Development hosted by the Faculty of Environmental Sciences (FESICON 2024), Imo State University, Owerri. The conference aims to provide a platform for researchers to discuss novel ideas and share their areas of interest with delegates worldwide. The paper presented in the conference cut across a broad spectrum of issues challenging the environment, particularly in emerging nations.

They are chronicled in 8 parts with 40 chapters. Part I was on Architectural Design and Practice; Innovation and Technology in Architecture; Part II on Greening Building, Innovative Materials and Technology; Skills Development and Labor Output in Construction; Part III on Housing Affordability; Climate Change and Property. Others are Part IV which was on Conceptual and Theoretical Issues; Teaching and Learning Methods; Gender Issues; Environmental Resources Development; Sustainable Development Goals; Plastics and the Environment; Health, Safety and Well-being; Building Codes and Practices; Projects Procurement Processes; Indoor Environment; Artificial Intelligence; Building Information Modelling (BIM); Part V on Physical and Social Environment; Climate Change and Human Ecology; Part VI on Infrastructure Development, Construction and Project Management; Cost and Financial Management; Part VII on Geospatial Information Technology; Remote Sensing Application in Environmental Management, and Part VIII dwelt on Urban Service Delivery; Social Injustice, and Land use and Land Market.

The conference was held for two days, during 29 and 30 October 2024 via both online and onsite modes at the Leo Stan Ekeh Foundation ICT Centre. About 53 papers were selected for presentation after the abstract review process. Out of which, 40 full papers were selected for inclusion in this book of proceedings.

We are grateful to the presenters and the participants for their thoughts-provoking advancement of the frontiers of knowledge in the built environment, and we hope that this book will be exciting, fulfilling and useful.

Arc. Prof. Marcellinus U. Okafor FNIA

On behalf of the FESICON 2024 Editorial Subcommittee

Foreword

It is with great pleasure that we present this Book of Proceedings for the conference on *The Built Environment and Sustainable Development*. This conference, which took place 29 -31 October 2024, served as a crucial platform for scholars, practitioners, policymakers, and industry experts to engage in meaningful discussions on the challenges and opportunities surrounding sustainability in the built environment.

The built environment plays a pivotal role in shaping societies, economies, and ecosystems. As urbanization accelerates and climate change intensifies, the need for sustainable design, construction, and management has never been more urgent. This conference has brought together diverse perspectives to explore innovative solutions that balance development needs with environmental responsibility, resource efficiency, and social well-being.

The papers and discussions captured in this volume reflect a broad spectrum of themes and sub-themes, including sustainability and building development, sustainable architecture, green infrastructure, energy efficiency, cost management, housing, artificial intelligence, urban service delivery, urban resilience, property valuation, geospatial information technology, Eco Art, human ecology, climate change, land use planning, and related policy frameworks. These contributions not only advance academic discourse but also offer practical insights for real-world applications.

Planning for this conference required several months of hard work by dedicated staff. We extend our sincere gratitude to all authors, reviewers, and organizers whose dedication and expertise have made this conference a success. We hope that the knowledge shared here will inspire further research, collaboration, and action towards a more sustainable future.

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Contents

.....	1
Preface	3
Foreword.....	4
Contents	5
PART 1: Architectural Design and Practice; Innovation and Technology in Architecture.....	9
Chapter One	10
Interrogating the Epistemology of Sustainable Built Environment Research in Developing Countries	10
Chapter Two	31
Systematic Review on the Effect of Indoor Thermal Comfort Conditions on Academic Performance of Students	31
Chapter Three	46
Examining the Architectural Services Delivery Stages of a Mixed-use Development in Bayelsa State, Nigeria	46
Chapter Four	57
Reviewing Architectural Technology Curriculum of Polytechnics in Southeast Nigeria: Trajectories towards Sustainable Development	57
PART 2: Greening Building, Innovative Materials and Technology; Skills Development and Labor Output in Construction	68
Chapter Five	69
Influence Of School Built Environment, Study Habits and Peer Pressure on Academic Performance among Junior Secondary School Students in Gwale Local Government Area of Kano State, Nigeria.....	69
Chapter Six	78
Sustainable Building Maintenance Model for Accreditation in Public Polytechnics in South-East, Nigeria ..	78
Chapter Seven.....	89
Safety and Security of College Buildings in Public Universities in Rivers State Nigeria.....	89
PART 3: Housing Affordability; Climate Change and Property.....	96
Chapter Eight.....	97
The Impact of Economic Downturn on Affordable Housing Provision in Imo State.....	97
Chapter Nine.....	105
Impact of Building Design Defect on Real Estate Project Management in Port Harcourt, Nigeria.....	105
Chapter Ten.....	110
Addressing Housing Affordability Sustainability in Nigerian Built Environment.....	110
Chapter Eleven	118
Examination of the Challenges of Insecurity on Residential Properties in North Central Nigeria	118
Chapter Twelve.....	126
Assessment of Factors Affecting the Implementation of E-Land Administration and Management in Imo State, Nigeria	126

Chapter Thirteen	140
Understanding Green Building, Innovative Materials, and Technologies in Enhancing Sustainable Development.....	140
Chapter Fourteen	151
The Impact of Climate change on Property Valuation and Sustainable Development	151
Chapter Fifteen	162
Evaluating the Economic Implications of Local Content in Nigeria's Sustainable Housing Development Mantra: A Cost-Benefit Approach	162
Chapter Sixteen	170
Analysis of Factors influencing Rental Value of Shops in Plazas in Owerri Urban, Nigeria	170
PART 4: Conceptual and Theoretical Issues; Teaching and Learning Methods; Gender Issues; Environmental Resources Development; Sustainable Development Goals; Plastics and the Environment; Health, Safety and Well-being; Building Codes and Practices; Projects Procurement Processes; Indoor Environment; Artificial Intelligence; Building Information Modelling (BIM).....	177
Chapter Seventeen	178
Impact of Science Education on Environmental Awareness and Attitude among Secondary School Students in Selected Schools in Tarauni Local Govt. Area, Kano State.....	178
Chapter Eighteen	185
Effect of Steam Learning Approach on Gender Differential and Academic Performance among Basic Science Students in Nassarawa Local Government Area, Kano State.....	185
Chapter Nineteen	190
Six Vertex Model: Gaining insights into Atmospheric Dynamics	190
Chapter Twenty.....	210
Formwork Waste in Building Construction in Rivers State: An Analysis of Causes, Impacts and Mitigation Strategies	210
Chapter Twenty-One.....	219
Women Participation in Sustainable Development Initiatives: Implication for the Niger Delta Built Environment	219
Chapter Twenty-Two	233
Water Resources: Need For Sustainability in Nigeria	233
Chapter Twenty-Three	241
Evaluation of Plastic Waste Disposal in Water Bodies and Awareness of the Effects on.....	241
Chapter Twenty-Four.....	249
Environmental Impact of Climate Change on Sustainable Development: Focus on Gender Vulnerability in Nigeria	249
Chapter Twenty-Five	259
The Legend of Nwakpuda: Quixotic Environmental Chivalry or Crusading Environmentalism Arriving Before its Time?	259
Chapter Twenty-Six	266
Evolution of the Gambling Space in the Context of the Urban Built Environment. Insights from Owerri Metropolis.....	266

Chapter Twenty-Seven.....	276
Studio Ceramic Art: The Panacea for Change towards Sustainable Development.....	276
Chapter Twenty-Eight.....	282
Effect of Drug Abuse on the Academic Performance of Undergraduate Geography Students in Kano State, Nigeria	282
PART 5: Physical and Social Environment; Climate Change and Human Ecology	288
Chapter Twenty-Nine.....	289
Effects of Artisanal Refining Activities on Property Development among Communities in South-South, Nigeria: An Environmental Perspective	289
Chapter Thirty.....	300
Bush Burning Effects on the Physical Properties of Soil in Omuma, Oru East Local Government Area of Imo State	300
Chapter Thirty-One.....	314
Analysis of the effects of rainfall and temperature variation on crop yield across agricultural lands in Imo State, Nigeria	314
PART 6: Infrastructure Development, Construction and Project Management; Cost and Financial Management.....	326
Chapter Thirty-Two	327
Construction Scheduling Technique and Inventory Management Model: Panacea for Sustainable Public Building Project Delivery.....	327
PART 7: Geospatial Information Technology; Remote Sensing Application in Environmental Management.....	340
Chapter Thirty-Three.....	341
Assessment Of Land Use / Land Cover Changes in Mbaise, Imo State From 2013 to 2023	341
Chapter Thirty-Four.....	356
GIS Evaluation of the Physical Terrain-Induced Flooding Incidence in Owerri Metropolis and its Human Health Implications	356
PART 8: Urban Service Delivery; Social Injustice, Land use and Land Market	365
Chapter Thirty-Five	366
Strategic Planning Towards Developing a Sustainable City: Lessons for Lagos, Nigeria	366
Chapter Thirty-Six.....	373
Developing a Platform for Safer Alternatives to Public Water Supply in Owerri Urban	373
Chapter Thirty-Seven	385
Addressing Skill Gaps and Enhancing Productivity: The role of Artisans in Sustainable Urban Development	385
Chapter Thirty-Eight.....	398
Theoretical and Conceptual Perspectives on the Awareness and Perception of Urban and Regional Planning Among Students in Owerri Municipal.....	398
Chapter Thirty-Nine	406
Analyses of Domestic Water Demand and Supply in Okigwe Town, Imo State	406

Chapter Forty	415
Technological Innovations and Strategies for a Sustainable Built Environment.....	415
Chapter Forty-One.....	427
The Evolution of Medical Geography in Egypt and Nigeria: A Comparative Review of Developmental Trends	427
Chapter Forty-Two	436
Remote Sensing Application in Environmental Management.....	436
List of Contributors	444

PART 1: Architectural Design and Practice; Innovation and Technology in Architecture

Chapter One

Interrogating the Epistemology of Sustainable Built Environment Research in Developing Countries

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ABSTRACT

This keynote lecture interrogates the epistemology underpinning sustainable built environment research in developing countries, emphasising the need for context-specific solutions. The construction industry's significant environmental impact necessitates a transformation towards sustainability. Key pathways for achieving this objective include circular economy, sustainable design and construction, digitalisation and automation, sufficiency, smart cities and net-zero carbon strategies. However, the success of these pathways depends on addressing contextual factors such as economic conditions, policy frameworks, cultural values, resource availability and technological readiness. The non-consideration of these contextual variables has culminated in many solutions from the Global North failing to achieve sustainable built environments in the Global South. To resolve this imbroglio, this lecture advocates for the integration of indigenous knowledge systems, participatory approaches, and inter- and transdisciplinary methods towards developing knowledge and solutions for facilitating sustainable built environments in the Global South. This lecture underscores the importance of developing and implementing inclusive and contextually relevant methodologies using an appropriate epistemology to achieve long-term sustainability and resilience in the built environment, contributing to the global sustainability agenda. It is expected that this lecture will stimulate an intellectual debate among scholars in the Global South on the need for appropriate epistemologies for knowledge production as it pertains to the quest for a truly sustainable built environment in those contexts.

KEYWORDS: Epistemology; Digitalisation; Built environment; Sustainability

INTRODUCTION

The construction industry's reputation as a domicile for anthropogenic activities that undermine society's sustainability aspirations has continued to resonate globally (Awuzie & Monyane, 2020; Awuzie et al., 2021; Gunawansa & Kua, 2014). Similarly, the built environment, which is a product of construction-related activities, has also been identified as a major emitter of greenhouse gases and a significant contributor to the unsustainable consumption patterns prevalent in society (Awuzie et al., 2024; Camarasa et al., 2022; Collings, 2020; Yu et al., 2020). Accordingly, the industry has come under immense pressure to transform its approach to the delivery of the built environment towards ensuring a reduction of these anthropogenic activities during the construction project lifecycle whilst improving the sustainability performance of the built environment (Awuzie et al., 2024; Sbahieh et al., 2023; Teh et al., 2019). This situation has led scholars worldwide to increasingly focus on research aimed at finding ways to create sustainable built environments in different geographic regions (Moghayedi & Awuzie, 2025). Scholars from developing countries (Global South) have not been left out of this quest (Abam et al., 2023; Emodi et al., 2022; Keena et al., 2023; Moghayedi & Awuzie, 2023). This quest has yielded publications articulating a multiplicity of solutions for tackling the negative impacts of the unsustainable production and consumption patterns associated with the construction industry and, by extension, the built environment (Abam et al., 2023; Aghimien et al., 2024; Awuzie et al., 2024; Emodi et al., 2022; Joshi et al., 2023; Keena et al., 2023; Moghayedi et al., 2021; Olawumi & Chan, 2020; Tantiyaswasdikul, 2023; Timm et al., 2023). These studies have resulted in concepts like sustainable design and construction, responsible procurement, net-zero carbon buildings, lean construction, circular construction, construction digitalisation, nature-based solutions, smart construction, sustainable business models, circular economy business models, regenerative supply chains, etc.

Whilst some of these concepts have gained maturity in developed countries, others remain either in embryonic phases or are steadily evolving (Keena et al., 2023). Also, the development and application of these concepts have been predicated on a variety of theoretical lenses and multi-, inter- and transdisciplinary (MIT) research

endeavours (Awuzie, 2021; Butt & Dimitrijević, 2022; Petrișor, 2013). Although most of these concepts have emerged from research projects executed in developed countries, they have also informed attempts by scholars in developing countries to interrogate the incidence of these unsustainable production and consumption patterns within their respective contexts and to proffer solutions accordingly (Keena et al., 2023). However, despite the rise in scholarly publications elucidating solutions for tackling these challenges in developing countries, these challenges persist. Whereas some scholars have harped on the need for continuous improvement of these solutions, citing the ‘wicked’ nature of these challenges (Goel, 2019; Lönngren & Van Poeck, 2021; Niskanen et al., 2021; Omotayo et al., 2023), others have attributed the seemingly ineffectual nature of these solutions to the non-consideration of contextual peculiarities during the developmental phases (Istiadji et al., 2018; Lazar & Chithra, 2022). Scholars in the latter category, argue that whereas these solutions might have performed creditably in other contexts due to the ability of research participants to contribute towards the co-creation of relevant knowledge underpinning them, this was not likely to be the case in other contexts such as countries in the Global South where research participants might struggle to comprehend the nexus between the theoretical lenses being deployed, the challenge being tackled and the suitability of the solutions being proffered for their context (Conte, 2018; Istiadji et al., 2018; Lazar & Chithra, 2022). Suffice to state that there are doubts regarding the utility of the knowledge production process (epistemology) underpinning the development of the solution.

Such doubts are exacerbated by the limited number of scholarly works seeking to investigate the utility of extant knowledge production structures for the development of relevant knowledge and associated solutions for improving the sustainability performance of built assets and the ancillary features within the Global South context (Brenner & Schmid, 2015; Koch, 2021; Parnell & Robinson, 2012; Zapata Campos et al., 2022). This is the knowledge gap that this lecture seeks to address. It is expected that this lecture will stimulate further discussions among scholars carrying out studies concerning the built environment in the developing country context regarding the suitability of extant epistemological structures for the production of nuanced and relevant solutions for their respective climes. Subsequent sections of this lecture will focus on the following: a definition of the sustainable built environment concept; a categorization of extant studies focusing on the sustainable built environment research; a review of extant pathways (solutions) for improving the sustainability performance of the built environment; an elucidation of the contextual factors influencing the prioritization of sustainability dimensions in built environment research; a critique of the extant epistemological platforms used for the development of sustainable built environment knowledge in the Global South and; finally a presentation of different epistemological praxes that should be prioritized in the Global South to engender the production of relevant knowledge for achieving sustainable built environments therein.

DEFINING SUSTAINABLE BUILT ENVIRONMENTS

The contemporary built environment plays a pivotal role in the global natural and man-made resource consumption landscape. For instance, the built environment, encompassing buildings, infrastructure, transportation systems, land use and public (green) spaces, is a significant emitter of global greenhouse gases, accounting for roughly 40% of all emissions, with the production and use of materials like cement and steel having a substantial carbon footprint (Chen et al., 2023; Ürge-Vorsatz et al., 2020). In addition, buildings are responsible for consuming 40% of natural raw materials globally (Omer & Noguchi, 2020). Also, the impact of the built environment on the health, safety and well-being of building occupants and indoor environmental quality, on water usage, and mobility, among others, enjoys broad reportage in the corpus of relevant literature (Kumar et al., 2023; Nicolini, 2022; Ramohlokoane et al., 2024). These data elucidate the adverse effects of the plethora of anthropogenic activities which occur within the built environment value chain on society’s quest to achieve sustainable futures. This reality has resulted in heightened advocacy for the transformation of the construction industry, leveraging innovative technologies and practices to facilitate improved sustainability performance of the built environment by relevant stakeholders. The sustainable built environment connotation was born out of the industry’s response to this advocacy.

Although scholars indicate the absence of a commonly accepted definition of the sustainable built environment concept (Loftness, 2020; Pearce & Vanegas, 2002), there appears to be a consensus among these scholars about its core principles. According to these scholars, a sustainable built environment will result from an integrative, human-ecological design approach, modifications to current land use patterns and community fabric, effective

use of natural, local and globally occurring resources to minimize infrastructure loading whilst maximizing infrastructure use; increased flexibility and integration of urban infrastructure systems for comprehensive performance, increased use an assembly of regenerative materials, prioritization of design for lifecycle costs instead of initial costs, and increased connectivity of water, energy, transportation infrastructure to sustainable neighbourhood amenities (Loftness, 2020:3). In another study, Pearce and Vanegas (2002) alluded to the need for sustainable built environments to cater to the satisfaction of relevant stakeholders whilst posting minimal impact on the resource and ecosystem base. Based on the foregoing, this lecture considers a sustainable built environment as consisting of buildings and infrastructure designed, constructed, and operated in ways that minimize their environmental impact, promote resource efficiency, and enhance the health and well-being of occupants. As mentioned previously, a multiplicity of studies seeking to facilitate sustainable built environments have either been conducted or are presently ongoing across the world. A perusal of the extant literature highlights a subtle delineation of these studies into five distinct yet interrelated clusters. See Figure 1.

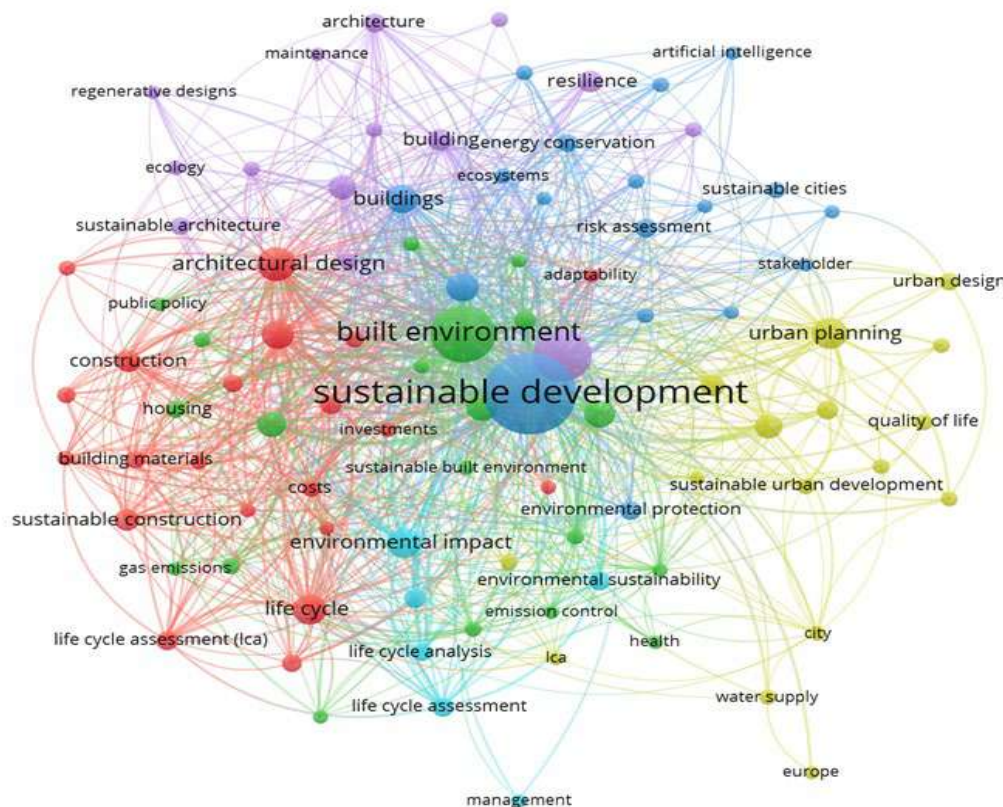


Figure 1: Sustainable Built Environment Research Focus Areas (Author's compilation, 2024).

From Figure 1, five (5) different clusters can be observed. These clusters are briefly described below:

1. The Blue Cluster

Studies in this cluster primarily focus on discussions related to costs, necessary investments, and protective measures required to maintain desired levels of sustainability performance within the built environment. These discussions often emphasise the financial aspects of implementing sustainable practices, including the initial investments needed for sustainable technologies and materials, as well as the long-term cost savings associated with energy efficiency and reduced environmental impact. However, it is evident from Figure 1 that the emphasis of these studies lies predominantly with environmental sustainability, giving less attention to economic and social sustainability. Themes such as environmental protection, risk assessment, and energy conservation are central to this cluster. Environmental protection involves strategies to minimize the ecological footprint of construction

activities, while risk assessment focuses on identifying and mitigating potential environmental risks associated with building projects. Energy conservation is another critical theme, exploring ways to reduce energy consumption through efficient design and the use of renewable energy sources. Overall, while the cluster provides valuable insights into the financial and environmental aspects of sustainability, there is a need for a more balanced approach that also considers the economic and social dimensions to achieve comprehensive sustainability in the built environment.

2. *The Red Cluster*

Studies in this cluster are dedicated to understanding and implementing sustainable construction practices and architectural design, with a strong emphasis on minimizing greenhouse gas emissions within the built environment. These studies explore various strategies for integrating sustainability principles into architectural designs and construction processes, ensuring that buildings are not only functional and aesthetically pleasing but also environmentally responsible. A significant focus is placed on establishing frameworks for the optimal selection of sustainable building materials. This involves identifying materials that have a lower environmental impact, are renewable and reusable, and can be sourced and processed in ways that reduce the built environment's carbon footprint. Additionally, the research in this cluster delves into the pathways for processing these materials, aiming to develop methods that are energy-efficient and environmentally friendly. By comprehensively addressing both the selection and processing of sustainable materials, these studies aim to create a holistic approach to sustainable construction. The overarching goal is to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, contribute to the broader efforts of mitigating climate change and promote environmental sustainability in the built environment. Through these efforts, the cluster provides practical solutions and guidelines that can be adopted by industry stakeholders to enhance the sustainability performance of construction projects.

3. *The Purple Cluster*

This cluster of studies primarily focuses on the building sector and addresses several core issues critical to sustainability and environmental stewardship. In terms of energy conservation, research in this cluster explores methods to reduce energy consumption through improved insulation, energy-efficient appliances, and advanced HVAC systems, as well as integrating renewable energy sources like solar panels and wind turbines. Water conservation efforts include the development of water-saving technologies, rainwater harvesting systems, and greywater recycling to reduce usage of potable water. Other resource conservation strategies involve the use of sustainable building materials, waste reduction through better planning and recycling, and lifecycle assessments to minimize environmental impacts. Sustainable design and construction practices are also emphasized, with research examining green building standards, passive design strategies, and innovative construction techniques such as modular and prefabricated methods. Additionally, increasing building and surrounding ecosystem resilience is a key focus, with studies exploring climate resilience, biodiversity enhancement through green spaces, and sustainable urban planning to promote overall sustainability and quality of life. These comprehensive approaches aim to develop innovative solutions that enhance the environmental performance and resilience of buildings and their ecosystems.

4. *The Yellow Cluster*

Studies in this cluster focus on urban planning and the development of sustainable cities, addressing several critical facets. One key area of research conducted is the investigation into the degree of stakeholder involvement in urban planning processes. These studies examine how various stakeholders, including government agencies, private sector entities, community groups, and residents, participate in planning decisions and the impact of their involvement on the outcomes. Another important aspect is the prescribed quality of life, where research explores how urban planning can enhance living conditions by providing access to essential services, green spaces, and recreational facilities, as well as ensuring safety and inclusivity. Additionally, these studies investigate approaches for engendering efficient sustainable resource management, such as optimizing the use of energy, water, and materials in urban settings. This includes the implementation of smart technologies, sustainable infrastructure, and policies that promote

resource conservation and reduce environmental impacts. By integrating these facets, the research proposes or develop comprehensive strategies for creating resilient, livable, and sustainable urban environments.

5. *The Green Cluster*

Studies in this cluster emphasize the importance of life cycle analysis (LCA) and the assessment of environmental impacts throughout the entire lifecycle of construction and development projects. This approach involves evaluating the environmental effects associated with all stages of a building's life, from raw material extraction, manufacturing, and construction, to operation, maintenance, and eventual demolition or recycling. By adopting LCA, researchers aim to identify and quantify the environmental impacts, such as greenhouse gas emissions, energy consumption, water usage, and waste generation, at each stage of the building's lifecycle. This comprehensive assessment helps in understanding the cumulative environmental footprint of construction activities and informs the development of strategies to minimize negative impacts. Additionally, these studies explore the potential for integrating sustainable practices and materials that can reduce the overall environmental burden. The ultimate goal is to promote sustainable construction practices that not only meet current needs but also preserve resources and protect the environment for future generations. Through detailed LCA, stakeholders in the construction industry can make informed decisions that enhance sustainability and contribute to the broader goals of environmental stewardship and sustainable development.

From the list of clusters, the focus of the extant corpus of sustainable built environment research can easily be discerned.

PATHWAYS FOR ACHIEVING SUSTAINABLE BUILT ENVIRONMENTS

Extant literature is replete with a number of veritable pathways for achieving a sustainable built environment. These pathways are discussed further below.

a. Circular Economy

The circular economy is a regenerative system which is aimed at eliminating waste and ensuring the continued use of resources by creating closed-loop systems (Figge et al., 2023; Kirchherr et al., 2023). In the built environment, this involves designing buildings and materials for longevity, using modular construction for easy upgrades, and prioritizing the reuse and recycling of materials (Osobajo et al., 2022). It also emphasizes resource efficiency, waste reduction during all phases of a building's lifecycle, and adaptive reuse of existing structures (Abdullahi et al., 2023). It focuses on business model innovation, especially as it concerns sharing or leasing of built assets and spaces (Nemakhavhani et al., 2024). By applying cradle-to-cradle design principles, materials can be continuously cycled through biological or technical loops without becoming waste. These practices are expected to help create a sustainable built environment by reducing resource consumption and waste.

b. Sustainable Design and Construction

Sustainable design and construction practices focus on creating environmentally responsible, resource-efficient, and healthy buildings and infrastructure throughout their lifecycle (Goel, 2019; Olawumi & Chan, 2020; Timm et al., 2023; Wu & Zhang, 2022). Key principles include energy efficiency through renewable sources and improved insulation, water conservation via water-saving fixtures and rainwater harvesting, and the use of sustainable, non-toxic, and locally sourced materials. Additionally, ensuring good indoor environmental quality with natural lighting and air quality, and selecting sites that minimize environmental impact while integrating green spaces are essential. The goal is to balance environmental, economic, and social factors to create resilient and sustainable built environments.

c. Digitalization and Automation

Digitalisation and automation in the sustainable built environment involve integrating advanced technologies to enhance efficiency, reduce resource consumption, and minimize environmental impact (Aghimien et al.,

2022; Begić et al., 2022; Nikmehr et al., 2021; Olawumi & Chan, 2020; Yevu et al., 2021). Key principles include using Building Information Modeling (BIM) for precise planning and resource management, employing smart sensors and IoT devices to monitor and optimize energy use, and automating construction processes with robotics to reduce waste and improve precision. For example, digital twins can simulate building performance to identify areas for improvement, while automated systems can manage lighting, heating, and cooling to ensure optimal energy efficiency. These technologies not only streamline construction and operational processes but also support the creation of resilient, sustainable buildings that adapt to changing environmental conditions. Other technologies that have gained prevalence in this space include blockchain (distributed ledger) technology, big data analytics and Artificial Intelligence (AI).

d. Net Zero Carbon Built Environment

A Net Zero Carbon Built Environment represents a crucial pathway for achieving sustainability by addressing both operational and embodied carbon emissions throughout a building's lifecycle (Moghayedi & Awuzie, 2023; Moghayedi & Awuzie, 2025; Rauniyar et al., 2024; Ürge-Vorsatz et al., 2020). This approach aims to balance carbon dioxide emissions with equivalent sequestration or offsetting, leading to a net-zero carbon footprint. Key components include reducing operational carbon through energy-efficient designs and renewable energy integration, and minimizing embodied carbon by selecting sustainable materials and adopting efficient construction practices. A whole lifecycle approach, involving comprehensive lifecycle assessments (LCA) and carbon offsetting, ensures that environmental impacts are evaluated and mitigated at every stage, from material extraction to end-of-life disposal. The benefits of this approach include significant contributions to climate change mitigation, enhanced energy independence, improved health and wellbeing for occupants, and long-term economic savings. Implementation strategies involve supportive policies and regulations, industry collaboration, and raising awareness about the benefits and feasibility of net-zero carbon buildings. Overall, this pathway not only promotes environmental sustainability but also offers economic and social advantages, paving the way for a more resilient and sustainable future.

e. Sufficiency Principles

Sufficiency principles, which focus on reducing resource consumption and environmental impact to levels that are within the planet's ecological limits, remain another veritable pathway for achieving sustainable built environments (Jungell-Michelsson & Heikkurinen, 2022; Lall & Sethi, 2024; Ness & Xing, 2017). Unlike efficiency, which aims to do more with less, sufficiency emphasizes consuming less in absolute terms and prioritizing essential needs over excessive wants. Sufficiency principles involve the optimization of the use of existing buildings, repurposing unused spaces, and prioritizing multi-family homes over single-family dwellings to maximize resource efficiency. It advocates the downsizing of living spaces to match the evolving needs of households, thereby reducing the demand for materials, energy, and water. By setting clear consumption limits, these principles ensure equitable access to resources and promote social equity. This systemic approach not only mitigates greenhouse gas emissions but also fosters a more resilient and sustainable urban landscape, aligning with global efforts to address climate change and promote environmental stewardship.

f. Smart Cities

The concept of Smart Cities revolves around leveraging technology and data to enhance urban living, making cities more efficient, sustainable, and livable (Omotayo et al., 2021; Silva et al., 2018). By leveraging a coterie of digital technologies, particularly the Internet of Things (IoT), smart cities can collect and analyze real-time data to optimize the performance of city services and infrastructure. This includes smart grids for energy, intelligent transportation systems, and smart water management. Additionally, smart transportation systems reduce congestion and emissions, while environmental initiatives like waste-to-energy programs and air quality monitoring promote sustainability. The benefits of smart cities include a reduced carbon footprint, improved resource management, enhanced quality of life, and economic growth. Examples of successful smart city initiatives can be seen in cities like Barcelona, Singapore, and Amsterdam, where technology has been used to create more sustainable and efficient urban environments. Overall, smart cities represent a

holistic approach to sustainable urban development, aiming to create a healthier and productive future for residents.

These pathways have resulted from an extensive exploration of the knowledge domain or study field by scholars seeking to proffer solutions towards curbing the unsustainable production and consumption patterns associated with different phases of the built environment lifecycle. These pathways are not context-specific, implying their applicability across multiple contexts.

However, as highlighted previously, literature has attributed the varied performance of these pathways across different geographic and sectoral domains not just to the existence of certain contextual peculiarities but more importantly, the inclination of stakeholders in these contexts to prioritize particular sustainability dimensions over others during implementation of these pathways (Arinabo, 2022; Haswell et al., 2024; Keena et al., 2023; Marino & Pariso, 2022). Such a skewed approach to implementation undermines the need for effective and equitable integration of these sustainability dimensions, a major determinant of improved sustainability performance. The factors responsible for the prioritization of sustainability dimensions during the operationalization of these pathways are outlined in the next section.

CONTEXTUAL INFLUENCES ON THE PRIORITIZATION OF SUSTAINABILITY DIMENSIONS

a. *Economic Factors*

Economic factors significantly influence the prioritization of sustainability dimensions by scholars and funders (Salvia et al., 2019). Scholars often prioritize research areas that align with available funding opportunities, which are influenced by economic conditions and policy priorities. Funders, including government agencies, private foundations, and international organizations, allocate resources to sustainability projects that promise significant economic benefits, such as cost savings, job creation, and economic growth. Funding availability and economic incentives play a crucial role in shaping research agendas. Scholars are more likely to pursue studies that have a higher likelihood of securing grants and financial support. Additionally, funders may prioritize projects that align with broader economic goals, such as promoting green technologies, enhancing resource efficiency, and supporting sustainable development. Market demand and global economic trends also impact the prioritization of sustainability dimensions. Funders may focus on areas with high market potential and emerging economic opportunities, such as renewable energy, sustainable agriculture, and circular economy practices. This alignment with market demand ensures that funded projects have practical applications and can contribute to economic resilience and competitiveness. By understanding these economic factors, scholars and funders can strategically prioritize sustainability dimensions that offer the greatest potential for economic and societal impact.

b. *Policy and Regulation*

Scholars and funders often prioritize research and projects that align with these regulatory requirements to ensure compliance and support policy implementation. Government policies, including subsidies for renewable energy and tax incentives for green technologies, further influence the focus of sustainability initiatives by providing financial advantages and aligning with national or regional policy goals (Biermann et al., 2022). For instance, regional, national and international policy goals, such as the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), guide the prioritization of sustainability dimensions. Scholars and funders align their research agendas with these overarching objectives to contribute to global sustainability efforts. Effective policy implementation and evaluation are deemed critical, prompting scholars to study the effectiveness of existing policies and funders to support projects that offer innovative solutions for better policy outcomes. The political and economic context, including changes in government leadership and shifts in political priorities, further impacts the focus and funding of sustainability initiatives, requiring scholars and funders to navigate these dynamics to ensure their work remains relevant and impactful.

c. *Cultural Values:*

Cultural values significantly influence the prioritization of sustainability dimensions by shaping the beliefs, norms, and practices of societies (Lazar & Chithra, 2022). These values determine how communities perceive

and interact with their environment, influencing their commitment to sustainable practices. Cultures that emphasize harmony with nature and collective well-being are more likely to prioritize environmental sustainability and social equity. Conversely, cultures that prioritize economic growth and individual success may focus more on economic sustainability. The integration of cultural values into sustainability efforts ensures that initiatives are contextually relevant and resonate with the local population, enhancing their effectiveness and acceptance. Moreover, cultural values impact the development and implementation of sustainability policies and practices. Policymakers and funders often consider cultural contexts when designing and supporting sustainability projects to ensure they align with local traditions and values. This alignment can lead to greater community engagement and support for sustainability initiatives. Additionally, cultural values can drive innovation in sustainability by inspiring unique and culturally relevant solutions to environmental and social challenges. Recognizing the importance of cultural values in sustainability efforts helps create more inclusive and effective strategies that address the diverse needs and priorities of different communities.

d. Geographical and Climatic Conditions

Geographical and climatic conditions significantly influence the prioritization of sustainability dimensions in built environment research (Vera et al., 2022). In arid regions, where water scarcity is a major concern, the focus often shifts towards water conservation and efficient usage, incorporating technologies like greywater recycling and drought-resistant landscaping. Conversely, in tropical climates with high humidity and rainfall, the emphasis might be on managing moisture and preventing mold growth, alongside harnessing solar energy due to abundant sunlight. Coastal areas, vulnerable to sea-level rise and storms, prioritize resilient construction techniques and flood defenses to protect infrastructure. In colder climates, energy efficiency becomes paramount, with research directed towards improving insulation, heating systems, and utilizing passive solar design to reduce energy consumption. Urban areas with high population densities might prioritize reducing air pollution and enhancing green spaces to improve air quality and residents' well-being. Thus, the unique geographical and climatic conditions of each region dictate which sustainability dimensions are most critical, guiding researchers to develop tailored solutions that address specific environmental challenges and opportunities.

e. Availability of Technology

The availability of technology plays a crucial role in determining which sustainability dimensions are prioritized in built environment research (Yevu et al., 2021). In regions with advanced technological infrastructure, there is often a greater emphasis on integrating cutting-edge solutions such as smart grids, renewable energy systems, and advanced building materials that enhance energy efficiency and reduce environmental impact. These areas can leverage technologies like IoT, AI, and big data analytics to optimize resource management and improve urban planning. Conversely, in regions where technological resources are limited, the focus may shift towards more accessible and cost-effective sustainability measures, such as passive design strategies, local materials, and community-based initiatives. Any disparity in digital technology availability or readiness will undoubtedly influence the implementation of sustainable practices; for instance, areas with limited access to renewable energy technologies might prioritize energy conservation and efficiency over generation. Thus, the level of technological advancement in a region shapes the feasibility and implementation of various sustainability strategies, guiding researchers to develop context-specific solutions that align with the available resources and capabilities.

f. Social Equity

The prioritization of social equity varies across different contexts. Accordingly, this reality significantly influences the choice of what sustainability dimensions are emphasized by scholars (Marais et al., 2020; Zallio & Clarkson, 2021). In areas with high levels of social inequality, researchers may focus on creating inclusive urban spaces that address the needs of underserved and vulnerable populations. This could involve prioritizing affordable housing, ensuring equitable access to public services, and developing community spaces that foster social integration. Conversely, in regions where social equity is less of a pressing issue, the

focus might shift towards other sustainability dimensions such as energy efficiency, environmental conservation, or technological innovation. The varying emphasis on social equity across different contexts shapes the research agenda, guiding scholars to tailor their sustainability strategies to address the unique social dynamics and needs of each community. This approach ensures that sustainable development efforts are both contextually relevant and effective in promoting overall well-being and resilience.

g. Historical Built Environment Context

The historical features of built environments across different contexts play a pivotal role in shaping the sustainability dimensions prioritized by scholars in the field (Hakiminejad et al., 2015; Tweed & Sutherland, 2007). In cities with rich architectural heritage, the focus will often lie with the need to preserve historical structures while integrating modern sustainable features and practices. This might involve retrofitting ancient buildings with energy-efficient technologies or using traditional materials and techniques that have stood the test of time. The challenge here is to balance conservation with innovation, ensuring that the cultural and historical integrity of these sites is maintained while enhancing their environmental performance. In contrast, regions with a more recent urban development history may prioritize different sustainability dimensions. Here, the emphasis might be on addressing urban sprawl, improving energy efficiency in newer buildings, and developing green infrastructure. The lack of historical constraints allows for more flexibility in implementing cutting-edge sustainable technologies and urban planning strategies. In post-industrial cities, the focus might be on repurposing old industrial sites into sustainable, mixed-use developments. The historical context of these cities drives a unique set of sustainability priorities aimed at revitalizing and transforming the urban landscape. Overall, the historically built environment features of a region significantly influence the sustainability dimensions that scholars prioritize. Whether it is about preserving ancient architecture, addressing the challenges of modern urbanization, or revitalizing post-industrial landscapes, the historical context provides a framework that guides sustainable development efforts, ensuring they are both contextually relevant and effective.

h. Resource Availability

The availability of resources across different contexts significantly influences the sustainability dimensions prioritized by scholars in the built environment field (Zahoor et al., 2022). In resource-rich regions, where materials and energy sources are abundant, the focus often shifts towards optimizing the use of these resources to enhance efficiency and reduce waste. Scholars in these areas might prioritize the development of advanced technologies, such as renewable energy systems, smart grids, and high-performance building materials, to leverage the available resources effectively. Conversely, in resource-scarce regions, the emphasis is on maximizing the use of limited resources and finding innovative solutions to overcome shortages. Here, sustainable built environment research might prioritize water conservation, energy efficiency, and the use of locally available materials. Strategies such as rainwater harvesting, passive solar design, and the use of recycled or low-impact materials become crucial in these contexts. The goal is to create sustainable solutions that are both affordable and practical given the resource constraints. In regions where certain resources are particularly scarce, such as water in arid areas or energy in remote locations, the prioritization of sustainability dimensions is even more pronounced. Scholars might focus on developing technologies and practices that specifically address these critical shortages, such as desalination plants, off-grid renewable energy systems, and energy-efficient building designs. Overall, the level of resource availability in a region shapes the sustainability priorities of built environment scholars. Whether it is about optimal use of abundant resources or innovating to overcome scarcity, the context-specific availability of resources guides the research and development of sustainable practices that are both effective and relevant to the local conditions. This tailored approach ensures that sustainability efforts are practical, impactful, and aligned with the unique challenges and opportunities of each region.

THE ROLE OF EPISTEMOLOGY

Epistemology, derived from the juxtaposition of the Greek words “epistēmē” and “logos,” is a term that delves into the philosophical study of the nature, origin, and limits of human knowledge (Audi, 2010). “Episteme” can be translated as “knowledge,” “understanding,” or “acquaintance,” while “logos” can be translated as “account,”

“argument,” or “reason” (Woozley, 2020). Often referred to as the theory of knowledge, epistemology explores how we come to know what we know and the validity of that knowledge (Rescher, 2012). Epistemology seeks to comprehend the fundamental and widespread aspects of human inquiry, like perceptual knowledge and inductive reasoning, whilst exploring particular areas of knowledge or rational belief (Cruz, 2006).

In the context of Sustainable Built Environment (SBE) research, epistemology examines the origins and nature of knowledge specific to this field. It focuses on how knowledge is constructed, validated, and applied concerning sustainable concepts, practices, and technologies in the built environment (Brenner & Schmid, 2015). This involves critically questioning the methodologies, assumptions, and biases that influence research outcomes to ensure credibility, relevance, and applicability of emergent knowledge. By doing so, epistemology in SBE research helps create a robust foundation for policy-making, implementation, and innovation, ultimately leading to profound impacts on sustainable development practices.

Components of SBE epistemology

Components of an epistemology as elucidated by Audi (2010), Cruz (2006) and Rescher (2012), albeit with a focus on the sustainable built environment, knowledge domain are presented below.

a. Sources of Knowledge

Sources of knowledge are fundamental to the epistemology of sustainable built environments, shaping how scholars understand and approach sustainability challenges. These sources can be broadly categorized into empirical, rational, and indigenous knowledge systems. Empirical knowledge, derived from observation and experimentation, provides data-driven insights into environmental performance, resource usage, and the impacts of various building practices, which are crucial for developing evidence-based strategies and technologies. Rational knowledge involves logical reasoning and theoretical frameworks that help in understanding complex systems and predicting outcomes, including mathematical models, simulations, and theoretical constructs that guide sustainable practices. Indigenous knowledge encompasses the traditional wisdom and practices of local communities, which have evolved over centuries to adapt to specific environmental conditions, offering context-specific insights and sustainable practices often overlooked by modern science. By integrating these diverse sources of knowledge, scholars can develop a more holistic and effective approach to sustainability in the built environment, ensuring solutions are scientifically sound, culturally relevant, and practically applicable, leading to more resilient and sustainable urban and rural spaces.

b. Nature of Knowledge

The nature of knowledge in sustainable built environment epistemology encompasses the understanding of how knowledge is created, validated, and applied within the field. It involves recognizing the interdisciplinary nature of sustainability, which draws from various domains such as environmental science, engineering, social sciences, and humanities. This multifaceted approach ensures that knowledge is comprehensive and considers multiple perspectives. Additionally, the nature of knowledge in this context emphasizes the importance of both quantitative and qualitative data, integrating scientific measurements with human experiences and values. It also acknowledges the dynamic and evolving nature of knowledge, where continuous learning and adaptation are crucial in responding to new challenges and discoveries. By appreciating the diverse and evolving nature of knowledge, scholars can develop more robust and adaptable strategies for creating sustainable built environments that are responsive to both current and future needs.

c. Scope of Knowledge

The scope of knowledge in sustainable built environment epistemology encompasses the breadth and depth of information and understanding required to address the complex challenges of sustainability. It includes a wide range of topics such as energy efficiency, resource management, environmental impact, social equity, and economic viability. This broad scope ensures that all relevant aspects of sustainability are considered, from the micro-level details of building materials and construction techniques to the macro-level implications of urban planning and policy-making. Additionally, the scope of knowledge extends to understanding the interactions between natural and built environments, recognizing the interconnectedness of ecological

systems and human activities. By embracing this comprehensive scope, scholars can develop holistic and integrated approaches that address the multifaceted nature of sustainability, ensuring that solutions are effective, inclusive, and resilient. This wide-ranging perspective is essential for creating built environments that are not only environmentally sustainable but also socially and economically viable.

d. Justification

Justification is a critical component of sustainable built environment epistemology, as it involves providing sound reasoning and evidence to support the validity of knowledge claims within the field. This process ensures that the strategies and practices proposed for sustainability are based on credible and reliable information. Justification requires rigorous scientific methods, including empirical research, data analysis, and peer review, to validate findings and conclusions. It also involves ethical considerations, ensuring that the proposed solutions are not only effective but also equitable and socially responsible. By emphasizing justification, scholars can build a robust foundation of knowledge that is transparent, accountable, and trustworthy. This, in turn, fosters confidence in sustainable practices and policies, encouraging their adoption and implementation across various contexts. Ultimately, justification helps to ensure that the pursuit of sustainability in the built environment is grounded in well-substantiated and rationally defensible principles.

e. Skepticism

As a vital component of sustainable built environment epistemology, skepticism encourages researchers to critically examine and interrogate existing knowledge, assumptions, practices and ground norms. This epistemological facet ensures that proposed solutions and strategies are rigorously evaluated for their validity, effectiveness, and resultant unintended consequences. By fostering a culture of skepticism, scholars and practitioners are prompted to continuously seek evidence, challenge prevailing paradigms, and remain open to new ideas and innovations in their drive for context-relevant solutions to the problems, negating the attainment of sustainable built environments. This critical mindset helps scholars to identify and address any flaws or limitations in existing sustainability initiatives, hence leading to more robust and resilient outcomes. In addition, skepticism promotes transparency and accountability, as it prioritizes the use of credible and verifiable evidence to substantiate assertions and decisions regarding relevant phenomena. Ultimately, skepticism in sustainable built environment research drives the pursuit of excellence and continuous improvement, ensuring that sustainability efforts are grounded in sound reasoning and empirical evidence.

f. Truth

Truth is a fundamental component of sustainable built environment epistemology, as it underpins the integrity and reliability of knowledge within the field. Pursuing truth involves commitment to accuracy, honesty, and objectivity in research and practice. Scholars and practitioners strive to uncover and present factual information, free from bias or distortion, to ensure that sustainability strategies are based on solid evidence and sound reasoning. This dedication to truth helps build a trustworthy foundation for decision-making, fostering confidence in the proposed solutions and their potential to achieve genuine sustainability. Moreover, the pursuit of truth encourages transparency and accountability, as it requires that all claims and findings be open to scrutiny and verification. By prioritizing truth, the field of sustainable built environments can develop more effective, credible, and ethical approaches to addressing the complex challenges of sustainability, ultimately leading to more resilient and sustainable communities.

Accordingly, the epistemology of contemporary sustainable built environment knowledge is predicated upon the consideration of the abovementioned components and any or a combination of the following:

Theory (Theoretical Lens): A theory is a well-substantiated explanation of some aspects of the natural world that is based on a body of evidence and repeatedly tested through observation and experimentation(Weick, 1995). It is a framework for understanding how certain phenomena work, allowing predictions and further investigation(Abend, 2008). A cursory review of the theories underpinning research into the sustainable built environment knowledge domain reveals the prevalence of four main clusters (see Figure 2). These clusters are discussed below.

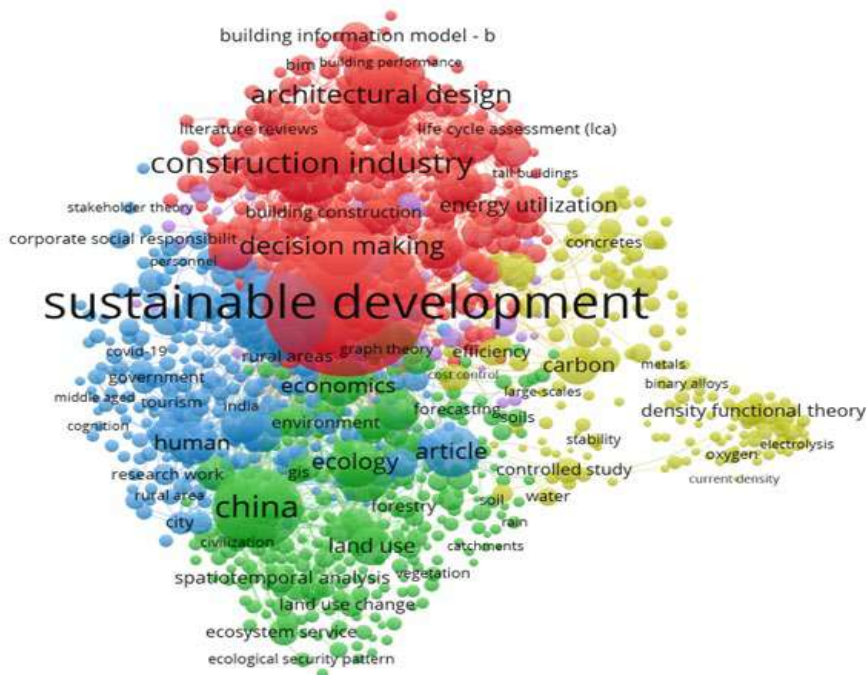


Figure 2: Popular Theories in Sustainable Built Environment Research

a. *The Red Cluster*

This cluster encompasses a range of studies related to Construction and Architecture, focusing on key areas such as architectural design, the construction industry, decision making, energy utilization, and building information modeling (BIM). These studies are driven by several foundational theories. Decision Theory is employed to guide the complex decision-making processes involved in construction projects, ensuring that choices are made based on a balance of cost, quality, and sustainability. Sustainable Design Theory (SDT) underpins efforts to create buildings that are not only aesthetically pleasing but also environmentally responsible, emphasizing energy efficiency and minimal environmental impact. Building Information Modeling (BIM) Theory supports the integration of digital tools to create detailed representations of buildings, facilitating better planning, design, and management throughout the construction lifecycle. By leveraging these theories, researchers in the Red Cluster investigate and exemplify the phenomena associated with the keywords, advancing knowledge and practices in sustainable construction and architecture.

b. *The Blue Cluster*

Studies in this cluster focus on Sustainable Development and Environmental Economics, addressing key areas such as sustainable development, government, tourism, rural areas, environment, economics, and ecology. These studies are driven by several fundamental theories. Sustainability Theory provides a framework for understanding how to meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs, emphasizing long-term environmental stewardship and social equity. Ecological Economics integrates ecological and economic principles to evaluate the sustainability of economic activities, ensuring that economic growth does not come at the expense of environmental health. Stakeholder Theory highlights the importance of considering the interests and impacts on all stakeholders, including governments, communities, and businesses, in the pursuit of sustainable development. By leveraging these theories, researchers in the Blue Cluster investigate and exemplify the complex interactions between economic activities, environmental health, and social well-being, advancing knowledge and practices that promote a more sustainable and equitable world.

c. *The Green Cluster*

With a focus on Spatial and Environmental Sciences, studies and theories in this cluster address key areas such as human interactions, land use, spatiotemporal analysis, and ecosystem services. These studies are driven by several fundamental theories. Spatial Analysis Theory provides tools and methods for examining the spatial distribution of various phenomena, enabling researchers to understand patterns and processes related to land use and human activities over time. Ecosystem Services Theory emphasizes the benefits that ecosystems provide to humans, such as clean water, air, and food, highlighting the importance of preserving and managing these natural resources sustainably. Human Ecology Theory explores the relationships between humans and their environments, examining how cultural, social, and economic factors influence land use and environmental impact. By leveraging these theories, researchers in the Green Cluster investigate and exemplify the complex interactions between human activities and the environment, particularly in the context of China. This comprehensive approach advances knowledge and practices that promote sustainable land use, enhance ecosystem services, and foster harmonious human-environment interactions.

d. *The Yellow Cluster*

The studies in this cluster focus on Material Science and Environmental Chemistry, addressing key areas such as carbon sequestration, electrolysis, metals, oxygen, and current density. These studies are driven by several fundamental theories. Density Functional Theory (DFT) provides a quantum mechanical framework for investigating the electronic structure of materials, enabling researchers to predict and understand the properties of various substances at the atomic level. Electrochemistry Theory explores the chemical processes that occur at the interface of an electrode and an electrolyte, which is crucial for understanding and optimizing electrolysis and other electrochemical reactions. Materials Science Theory encompasses the study of the properties, performance, and applications of materials, guiding the development of new materials with enhanced characteristics such as higher strength, conductivity, or reactivity. By leveraging these theories, researchers in the Yellow Cluster investigate and exemplify the complex interactions between materials and their environments, particularly focusing on processes like electrolysis and the behavior of metals and carbon-based materials. This comprehensive approach advances knowledge and practices in material science and environmental chemistry, leading to innovations that improve energy efficiency, reduce environmental impact, and enhance the performance of various technologies.

THE NATURE OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS/ HYPOTHESIS/PROPOSITIONS

Another facet into which these components of epistemology must be incorporated is the nature of the research questions, hypotheses or propositions which are expected to guide such knowledge production processes. According to the dominant research methodological frameworks, these questions or propositions are usually predicated on a variety of facets such as the researcher's philosophical worldviews or paradigms, the approach to theory development or reasoning logic, the methodological choice, research strategy and the time horizon within which the study is expected to be conducted (Saunders et al., 2009). These facets have impacted the knowledge production process over an extensive period of time. Notably, no consideration has been explicitly given to context-dependent variables in these research methodological frameworks.

Although recent attempts by scholars to develop frameworks for research question formulation have fared better than the extant methodological frameworks regarding the consideration of context-based variables, they appear to have towed a similar trajectory regarding the approach adopted. For instance, Robinson et al. (2011) suggest the use of a 5-point theoretical model to articulate the research gap and question. This 5-point model labelled PICOS comprises the following components: population, intervention, comparison, outcome and setting.

Within the PICOS model, population refers to the segment of the population that is the focus of the research, intervention focuses on the primary intervention, such as a treatment or procedure, being considered, comparison is the alternative against which the intervention is compared, outcome details the effects of the intervention or comparison, including the measurement of these effects and the setting relates to the context in which the research is conducted, which can include the location or specific conditions (Robinson et al., 2011). On the surface, this

model allows for a consideration of contextual peculiarities. However, a downside is the focus on testing interventions which have been developed for other contexts within contexts for which these interventions and their alternatives can be considered alien. Although available evidence suggests that this model has been deployed mostly in the health and mainstream sciences, existing research into the actualization of sustainable built environments in the Global South has followed this pathway. Sustainable built environment research in the Global South remains focused on evaluating the applicability or utility of design and construction-related interventions or theories which enjoy provenance in the Global North, in the former. This has undermined the ability of scholars and practitioners alike in the Global South to craft context-specific and relevant knowledge and interventions towards engendering a sustainable built environment.

This observation has heightened the clamour for a renewed inclination towards the prioritization of the context-focused epistemologies, particularly those relating to the Global South (Epistemologies of the South).

A Global South Approach to Sustainable Built Environment Knowledge

The concept of Epistemologies of the South, introduced by Portuguese sociologist Boaventura de Sousa Santos (de Sousa Santos, 2015; de Sousa Santos & Meneses, 2019), critiques the dominance of Western-centric knowledge systems while championing the diversity of knowledge originating from the Global South. Santos's framework highlights the limitations of Eurocentric epistemologies, which often overlook and marginalize non-Western forms of knowledge. By emphasizing Indigenous, local, and subaltern perspectives, this concept advocates for cognitive justice—the recognition and validation of diverse knowledge systems and their crucial role in understanding the world. de Sousa Santos (2015) calls for a critical examination of the relevance and suitability of established epistemological constructs, including theories, research questions, and methodological choices, urging scholars to embrace a more inclusive and pluralistic approach to knowledge production. This shift is essential for addressing global challenges in a way that respects and incorporates the rich tapestry of human experiences and wisdom.

Such a shift will involve key changes to the current epistemologies. Some of these changes are discussed below.

1. **Recognition of Diverse Knowledge Systems:** Researchers are encouraged to value and integrate Indigenous, local, and subaltern knowledge systems, which have often been marginalized or overlooked by traditional Western methodologies. Examples of some of these indigenous knowledge systems and philosophies are articulated below:

I. Indigenous Knowledge/Philosophies/Theories

African philosophies and theories offer a valuable framework for sustainability, particularly through Indigenous knowledge, ethical perspectives, and community-centered approaches. One notable example is the philosophy of Ubuntu, which translates to "*I am because we are*" (Lutz, 2009). This philosophy highlights the interconnectedness of all people and the importance of community and mutual care. In the context of sustainable built environment research, Ubuntu can guide the development of inclusive and community-focused urban planning and architectural practices. It encourages the creation of communal spaces that foster social interaction and collective well-being, such as shared gardens, community centers, and public spaces. Additionally, Ubuntu promotes the use of local materials and labor, ensuring that development benefits are distributed within the community and cultural heritage is preserved. By integrating Ubuntu principles into sustainable built environment research, scholars can develop approaches that prioritize social equity, community engagement, and environmental stewardship (Ojiako et al., 2014; Rwelamila et al., 1999). This leads to more resilient and harmonious communities, reflecting the core tenet of Ubuntu: interconnectedness and communal well-being.

II. African Indigenous Knowledge System (AIKS)

This system encompasses traditional practices and wisdom passed down through generations, often rooted in a deep understanding of local ecosystems. An example of an African Indigenous

Knowledge System (AIKS) in the context of sustainable built environments is the traditional practice of agroforestry in Africa (Ntawuruhunga et al., 2023; Santoro, 2023). Agroforestry involves integrating trees and shrubs into agricultural landscapes, which has been practiced for centuries by local communities. This system is rooted in a deep understanding of local ecosystems and offers numerous sustainability benefits. For instance, the trees provide shade and windbreaks, reducing soil erosion and improving microclimates for crops. They also enhance soil fertility through nitrogen fixation and organic matter addition, reducing the need for chemical fertilizers. Additionally, agroforestry supports biodiversity by creating habitats for various species and contributes to carbon sequestration, helping to mitigate climate change. This traditional practice exemplifies how indigenous knowledge, passed down through generations, can contribute to sustainable land use and environmental stewardship, ensuring the resilience and productivity of agricultural systems while preserving ecological balance.

III. *Holism*

This is a dominant feature in African philosophies, which often view the world as a complex, interconnected system. Within the context of sustainable built environment research, this feature envisions the built environment as an intricate tapestry of interdependent systems, seamlessly integrating ecological, social, economic, and cultural dimensions to create a harmonious and sustainable whole (Booth, 2008; Farid et al., 2017). This philosophy advocates synergistic ecosystems where natural and built environments coalesce, fostering biodiversity and ecological balance (Booth, 2008). It promotes symbiotic economies that are deeply intertwined with local communities and natural resources, creating economic models that sustain and regenerate local economies and ecosystems (Fowler et al., 2024). Holism emphasizes interwoven social fabrics, cultivating communities where social structures are linked with the physical environment to enhance social cohesion and collective well-being. Additionally, it underscores the importance of cultural continuity, preserving and integrating cultural heritage within the built environment to ensure that development respects and enhances cultural identities (dos Santos, 2023; Naudé, 2024). By adopting a holistic approach, sustainable built environment research transcends traditional boundaries, fostering a comprehensive and interconnected vision of urban development that is resilient, equitable, and harmonious.

IV. *Pan-Africanism and Decolonial thought*

This concept advocates for the unity and self-determination of African nations, has evolved to address contemporary challenges, including sustainable development (Kessi et al., 2021). Pan-Africanism and Decolonial thought offer profound insights for sustainable built environment research by emphasizing the reclamation and integration of African identities, knowledge systems, and cultural practices. Pan-Africanism advocates for unity and solidarity among African nations and peoples, promoting the use of Indigenous knowledge and local resources in urban planning and architecture. This approach fosters self-reliance and resilience, ensuring that development is rooted in the continent's unique cultural and environmental contexts. Decolonial thought, on the other hand, challenges the dominance of Western paradigms and seeks to dismantle colonial legacies in the built environment. It encourages the adoption of alternative, locally-informed practices that prioritize social justice, equity, and environmental sustainability. By integrating Pan-Africanism and Decolonial thought, sustainable built environment research can create inclusive, culturally resonant, and ecologically sound urban spaces that reflect and celebrate African heritage and values.

V. *Afrocentric Environmental Ethics and Justice*

This principle is rooted in traditional spiritual beliefs and emphasizes the sacredness of nature (Ssebunya et al., 2019). Afrocentric Environmental Ethics, within the context of sustainable built environment research, emphasizes the intrinsic connection between humans and nature, rooted

in African cultural and philosophical traditions. This ethical framework advocates for a harmonious relationship with the environment, recognizing the interdependence of all living and non-living elements (Manzini, 2019). It promotes the use of Indigenous knowledge systems and practices that have sustained African communities for generations, such as sustainable agriculture, water management, and construction techniques (Manzini, 2019; Ssebunya et al., 2019). By valuing and integrating these traditional practices, Afrocentric Environmental Ethics seeks to create built environments that are not only ecologically sustainable but also culturally resonant and socially equitable. This approach challenges the dominance of Western paradigms, advocating for development that respects and enhances local ecosystems and cultural heritage, ultimately fostering resilient and thriving communities.

2. Cognitive Justice

Cognitive justice is a concept that emphasizes the importance of recognizing and validating the legitimacy of diverse ways of knowing. It advocates for research methodologies that respect and incorporate the perspectives and experiences of various communities, particularly those that have been historically marginalized or overlooked (Odora Hoppers, 2021). This approach ensures that the knowledge and insights of Indigenous, local, and subaltern groups are valued and integrated into the research process. By doing so, cognitive justice promotes a more equitable and inclusive understanding of the world, challenging the dominance of Western-centric epistemologies and fostering a richer, more diverse tapestry of knowledge (Rodriguez, 2017). This shift not only enhances the relevance and impact of research but also empowers communities by acknowledging their contributions and ensuring their voices are heard.

3. Contextual Relevance

Contextual relevance in research methodologies involves adapting research questions, methods, and interpretations to align with the specific cultural, social, and environmental contexts of the communities being studied (Sabuj et al., 2021). This approach ensures that the research is not only accurate but also meaningful and applicable to the local context. By grounding methodologies in the unique characteristics and needs of the community, researchers can gather more relevant and insightful data (Flynn et al., 2021). This leads to findings that are more likely to be accepted and utilized by the community, as they resonate with their lived experiences and realities. Additionally, contextually relevant methodologies help to avoid the imposition of external perspectives that may not be suitable or effective in the local setting, thereby promoting more sustainable and impactful outcomes.

4. Participatory Approaches

Participatory approaches emphasize the active involvement of community members in the research process, transforming them from passive subjects to active participants (Fraser et al., 2006). This collaborative method ensures that the research is more equitable, as it respects and incorporates the knowledge, experiences, and perspectives of the community. By engaging community members in the design, implementation, and analysis phases, participatory approaches foster a sense of ownership and empowerment. This not only enhances the relevance and accuracy of the research but also ensures that the outcomes are directly beneficial to the communities involved. Ultimately, participatory approaches promote social justice and inclusivity, leading to more meaningful and impactful research. Participatory approaches improve data quality by actively involving community members in the research process, which enhances the accuracy, relevance, and reliability of the data collected (Vaidya & Mayer, 2014). When community members participate, they bring valuable local knowledge and insights that help ensure the data reflects the true context and experiences of the community. This fosters a sense of ownership and trust, leading to more honest and comprehensive data collection. Additionally, participatory methods often involve continuous feedback loops, allowing for real-time verification and correction of data, which enhances its precision and integrity (Fraser et al., 2006). By engaging diverse stakeholders, participatory approaches also help identify and address potential biases, ensuring that the data is more inclusive and

representative. Overall, these methods create a more robust and credible data set that better informs research outcomes and policy decisions.

5. Interdisciplinary and Transdisciplinary Methods

Interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary methods involve integrating knowledge and perspectives from multiple fields to address complex issues comprehensively (Butt & Dimitrijević, 2022; Schneider et al., 2023). These approaches break down traditional academic silos, fostering collaboration among diverse disciplines such as sociology, ecology, economics, and cultural studies. By drawing on a wide range of expertise and viewpoints, researchers can develop a more holistic understanding of the problems they are studying. This not only enriches the research process but also leads to more innovative and effective solutions that are better suited to the multifaceted nature of real-world challenges. Ultimately, interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary methods promote a more inclusive and nuanced approach to knowledge production, reflecting the diverse realities and experiences of different communities. Interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary methods have a profound impact on policy-making by promoting a more integrated and comprehensive approach to tackling complex issues. By breaking down traditional academic barriers, these methods encourage collaboration across various fields and incorporate diverse perspectives, including those from outside the academic sphere. This holistic approach ensures that policy decisions are informed by a broad spectrum of knowledge and expertise, leading to more innovative and effective solutions. The involvement of these multiple stakeholders, such as community members, policymakers, and experts from different disciplines, fosters inclusivity and ensures that policies are more relevant and responsive to the needs of diverse populations. Ultimately, these methods enhance the quality and impact of policy-making, resulting in more sustainable and equitable outcomes.

By embracing these principles, researchers can develop methodologies that are more inclusive, equitable, and capable of addressing the diverse realities and challenges faced by communities around the world, including experiences in the Global South, which negate the actualization of sustainable built environments therein.

CONCLUSION

This study has critically examined the epistemology of sustainable built environment research in developing countries, highlighting the unique challenges and opportunities within this context. The construction industry, a significant contributor to unsustainable practices, faces immense pressure to transform and align with global sustainability aspirations. Despite the proliferation of concepts such as sustainable construction, net-zero energy buildings, and circular economy models, their application in developing countries remains limited and often ineffective due to contextual peculiarities. The analysis revealed that many solutions developed in the Global North do not seamlessly translate to the Global South, primarily due to differences in socio-economic, cultural, and environmental conditions. This underscores the necessity for context-specific research and the development of tailored solutions that consider local realities. The study advocates for a renewed focus on the epistemologies of the South, emphasizing the integration of indigenous knowledge systems, participatory approaches, and interdisciplinary methods to create relevant and sustainable built environments.

Furthermore, the study elucidated key pathways for achieving sustainable built environments, including circular economy principles, sustainable design and construction, digitalization, and the adoption of net-zero carbon strategies. However, the success of these pathways is contingent upon addressing the contextual factors that influence the prioritization of sustainability dimensions, such as economic conditions, policy frameworks, cultural values, and technological availability. Summarily, the pursuit of sustainable built environments in developing countries requires a paradigm shift towards inclusive and contextually relevant research methodologies. By embracing diverse knowledge systems and fostering collaborative approaches, scholars and practitioners can develop innovative solutions that are not only environmentally sustainable but also socially equitable and economically viable. This holistic approach is essential for achieving long-term sustainability and resilience in the built environment, ultimately contributing to the global sustainability agenda.

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Chapter Two

Systematic Review on the Effect of Indoor Thermal Comfort Conditions on Academic Performance of Students

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ABSTRACT

Thermal Comfort is associated with health, cognitive ability, and academic performance of students. Environmental parameters, human physical and psychological parameters constitute factors that influence indoor thermal comfort, and consequently, the academic performance of students in educational buildings. Hence, academic performance portrays the degree to which a student has met set short- or long-term educational goals, which is essential for career development. This study reviews indoor thermal comfort conditions and associated academic performance of students in articles published between 2013 and 2023. The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis review methodology was used to select the 14 articles for this study. The findings from the selected articles were synthesized and discussed using a narrative approach. The study captured comfort limits to vary based on sundry factors such as: air and radiant temperature, relative humidity, clothing, physical activity and metabolic rates, perception / thermal sensation, climatic factors, characteristic seasons, ventilation modes, and physical condition of learning spaces. This review revealed that academic outcomes, study-related attitudes and perceived learning of students varied significantly with indoor thermal comfort conditions. Furthermore, the review found out dearth in studies investigating the relationship between indoor thermal comfort conditions and academic performance of architecture students, hence, the study recommends more research focus as it pertains to universities in south-eastern, Nigeria.

KEYWORDS: Academic performance; Educational buildings; Indoor Thermal Comfort; Students; Systematic Review

INTRODUCTION

Global climate change is increasing according to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [IPCC] Fifth Assessment Report [AR5] (IPCC, 2015). The global temperature increased from 0.56°C to 0.92°C between 1906 and 2014 (IPCC, 2015). Until the end of this century, the planet's temperature is predicted to rise by an average of 0.2°C per ten years (Abdussalam, 2014). Therefore, all life on Earth faces an existential threat from a globe that is warming quickly. The way and time at which we respond will determine how severe it gets (Abdussalam, 2014). More so, a 2017 World Bank study found that rising temperatures and humidity levels can trigger numerous degradation processes and material damage and pose a risk to health and indoor thermal comfort [ITC]. Hence, thermal comfort has always been linked with health and overall well-being and significantly impacts students' performance, productivity, and concentration in educational buildings (Lamberti, Salvadori, Leccese, Fantozzi, & Bluysen, 2021). The thermal environment of learning spaces [Ls] directly impacts students' mood, concentration, physical and mental health, and learning efficiency (Zhang et al, 2022). Of all the parameters related to Indoor Environmental Quality (IEQ) in a building, such as the thermal, visual, and acoustic environment, air quality, and building characteristics, thermal comfort is ranked as having a greater influence on overall indoor satisfaction than impact of other parameters (Zagreus, Huizenga, Arens & Lehrer, 2004; Frontczak & Wargocki, 2011). Specifically, ITC is one of the primary IEQ indicators that could impact students' academic performance and health (Sarbu & Pacurar, 2015). According to Bloyssen (2018) and Corgnati, Filippi, and Viazso (2007), inadequate thermal environment design in Ls can lead to a rise in thermal discomfort and health issues, such as headaches, dizziness, and muscle soreness. According to Zomorodian, Tahsildoost, and Hafezi (2016), it might also increase the amount of energy used for heating and cooling. Additionally, studies have shown that ventilation and thermal comfort levels have an impact on reading accuracy, academic performance [AP] and learning abilities, cognitive functioning, stress and mental exhaustion, productivity, absences due to illness, and attention (Karjalainen, 2012; Abdallah, 2015; Indraganti, Ooka, & Rijal, 2015; Mishra & Ramgopal, 2015; Bajc, Banjac, Todorovic, Mishra, & Ramgopal, 2015; Jiang, Landoli, Van-Dessel, Liu, & Whitehill, 2019; Fabozzi & Dama, 2020; Fazio, Ge, Rao, & Desmarais, 2020; Sun, Luo, & Ming, 2022). According to the American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air Conditioning Engineers [ASHRAE], thermal comfort is the mental state of a person

that reflects contentment with his/her surroundings, and several factors can affect the comfort of occupants (ASHRAE, 2017). The surroundings on which the person reflects his/her contentment can be outdoor or indoor, thus, when indoor is referred to as "Indoor Thermal Comfort". The drive for improved levels of thermal comfort in the built environment has seemed to be further delineated among scholars as it concerns ITC and outdoor thermal comfort [OTC] (Masmoudi & Mazouz, 2004). According to Arup and Design genre (2016), the ITC conditions can be influenced by environmental, human physical factors, or psychological factors. Hence, the most influential parameters in the study of ITC remain environmental factors [E_F]; air temperature [T_A], radiant temperature [T_R], air velocity [A_V], and relative humidity [Rh] (Ogunsote, 1990; Odum & Onyegiri, 2008; Alozie, 2014) while the human physical factors [HP_F] are clothing [Clo], physical activity [Pa], and metabolic rate [Met], in addition, psychological factors [P_F]; human perception, seasonal expectations, and control capacity (Arup & Design genre, 2016). ITC is achieved when occupants can pursue their daily endeavors without any hindrances for which the building is intended (Aminu, Bello, Mbasumai, & Danladi, 2023). Hence, ITC varies from person to person and is generally measured through subjective assessment (Moktan & Uprety, 2023). Izobo-Martins, Aboderin, Abah, and Ilolo (2017) also found out that both internal and external areas of L_s impact students' creativity. Also, sundry studies conducted on the effect of ITC conditions on academic performance [AP] of students in educational buildings have shown to vary due to factors such as climate, environment, building materials and services, furniture, and personal factors (Izobo-Martins *et al.*, 2017; Bena, Gillott, & Boukanouf, 2023; Nordin *et al.*, 2019).

In 2016, the trending issues of global warming and climate change heightened the need for improved ITC conditions in educational buildings and has in turn sparked further interest in investigating environmental factors of ITC - T_a , T_r , V_a , and Rh (Alozie, Alozie & Fenibo, 2016). According to Chenvidyakarn (2007), ITC depends on weather, environment, and design of the building which contributes 75% to its comfort level. Hence, there comes the challenge of achieving thermal comfort in indoor educational spaces due to extreme weather conditions (Chenvidyakarn, 2007).

Thereto, it becomes critical to embark on this study to stimulate awareness on improving the design and management of L_s to ensure thermal acceptability among students. In particular, this study provides insight into the relationship between ITC conditions and AP of students with special emphasis on the need for stakeholders and players in the education sector to prioritize the provision of comfortable learning environments for students. To the best of our knowledge, there is a limited study that provides an overview of both ITC conditions and related AP of students in one study. Hence, this systematic review was aimed to provide evidence about ITC conditions of learning spaces relative to AP of students/pupils unraveling a gap in the research focus. Hence, it explored and compared the ITC conditions of classrooms, lecture rooms, design studios, lecture theatres/halls, and dormitory rooms in respect to the performance of users. Lastly, the findings from the review can be used to understand how attaining thermal comfort influences the AP of students in educational buildings [Eb].

Methodology

The study adopted "PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) review methodology", which was particularly designed for systematic reviews and meta-analyses (Page *et al.* 2021). This review methodology has been proven to be efficient in carrying out analysis in environmental sciences.

Inclusion criteria

This study includes research-based articles (field study), peer-reviewed, human participants, study findings comprising ITC conditions (any of its parameters), and AP of students in educational buildings. The extant articles reviewed in this paper span from 2013 - 2023.

Exclusion criteria

Excluded from this study are review articles, and studies on non-learning environments. Also, studies on OTC, and Semi-Outdoor Thermal Comfort (STC) conditions were not considered.

Study selection and data search

Articles selected for this study were drawn from: ScienceDirect, Semantic Scholar, Google Scholar, and ResearchGate databases. The search string was deduced while utilizing Boolean operators and keyword search as highlighted in Table 1. Also, titles and abstracts of all studies traced to be identical were examined to know those that satisfied the selection criteria.

Table 1: Keyword search used in the screening process

Database	Search string
ScienceDirect	TITLE-ABS-KEY (("indoor thermal comfort" OR "indoor thermal discomfort") AND ("academic performance" OR "performance" OR "thermal sensation") AND ("students" OR "educational buildings"))
Semantic Scholar	TS = (("indoor thermal comfort" OR "indoor thermal discomfort") AND ("academic performance" OR "performance" OR "thermal sensation") AND ("students" OR "educational buildings"))
Google Scholar	((("indoor thermal comfort" OR "indoor thermal discomfort") AND ("academic performance" OR "performance" OR "thermal sensation") AND ("students" OR "educational buildings"))
ResearchGate	((("indoor thermal comfort" OR "indoor thermal discomfort") AND ("academic performance" OR "performance" OR "thermal sensation") AND ("students" OR "educational buildings"))

Quality assessment

The quality of the selected articles was evaluated utilizing the "Navigation Guide Systematic Review framework" (Woodruff & Sutton, 2014).

Data extraction and synthesis

After the primary search, a standardized form to extract required data from identified studies via the research databases was created. This was presented in tabular format with the following field: Author(s) of the study, Country where the study was carried out, Climate of the study area, Season and duration of field study, Type of educational building or learning space, Ventilation type utilized, Study population (age and sample size), Physical condition of building/space, Clothing, Physical activity and Metabolic rate of students, Comfort level and model used, Perception/psychology of the students, Relative humidity, Air velocity/speed in the learning spaces, and Comfort temperature. These parameters and features were selected since they constitute the principal factors that affect the ITC condition of *Ls*.

This systematic review utilized a narrative synthesis encompassing descriptive data analysis. It generated relevant themes accordingly through familiar data, code generation, theme search, theme review, theme definition, and write-up (Clarke & Braun, 2013). Additionally, both the ITC conditions and AP were separately explained. In summation, the study findings were discussed using a narrative approach.

RESULT

Basic description

A total of 14 articles were selected based on the pre-determined inclusion criteria to identify the ITC conditions and associated AP of students (Fig. 1). The included articles represented 4 continents in the world: Africa (4 articles), Asia (6 articles), Europe (3 articles), and North America (1 article). The articles cut across different climatic and geographical zones: Cold (2 articles), Temperate (3 articles), Tropical (4 articles), Arid (4 articles), and Hot Desert (1). The sample size of the studies reviewed ranged from 42 - 1973. The studies were carried out in classrooms ($n = 6$), lecture rooms ($n = 2$), dormitory rooms ($n = 1$), and design studios ($n = 7$). The age of the sample sizes ranged from 18 to 30 years old. Hence, Table 2 summarizes the properties and key findings of the articles included in the review.

Indoor Thermal Comfort conditions

The ITC conditions is described according to; Climatic conditions, Season and duration of field study, Type of educational building or learning space, Ventilation type, Study population (age and sample size), Physical condition of building/space, Clothing, Physical activity, and Metabolic rate of students, Thermal comfort index/model, Comfort limit / level, Perception/psychology of the students. The Thermal Comfort Model [TCM] used in all the articles varies between the Predicted Mean Votes [PMV] and the Adaptive model.

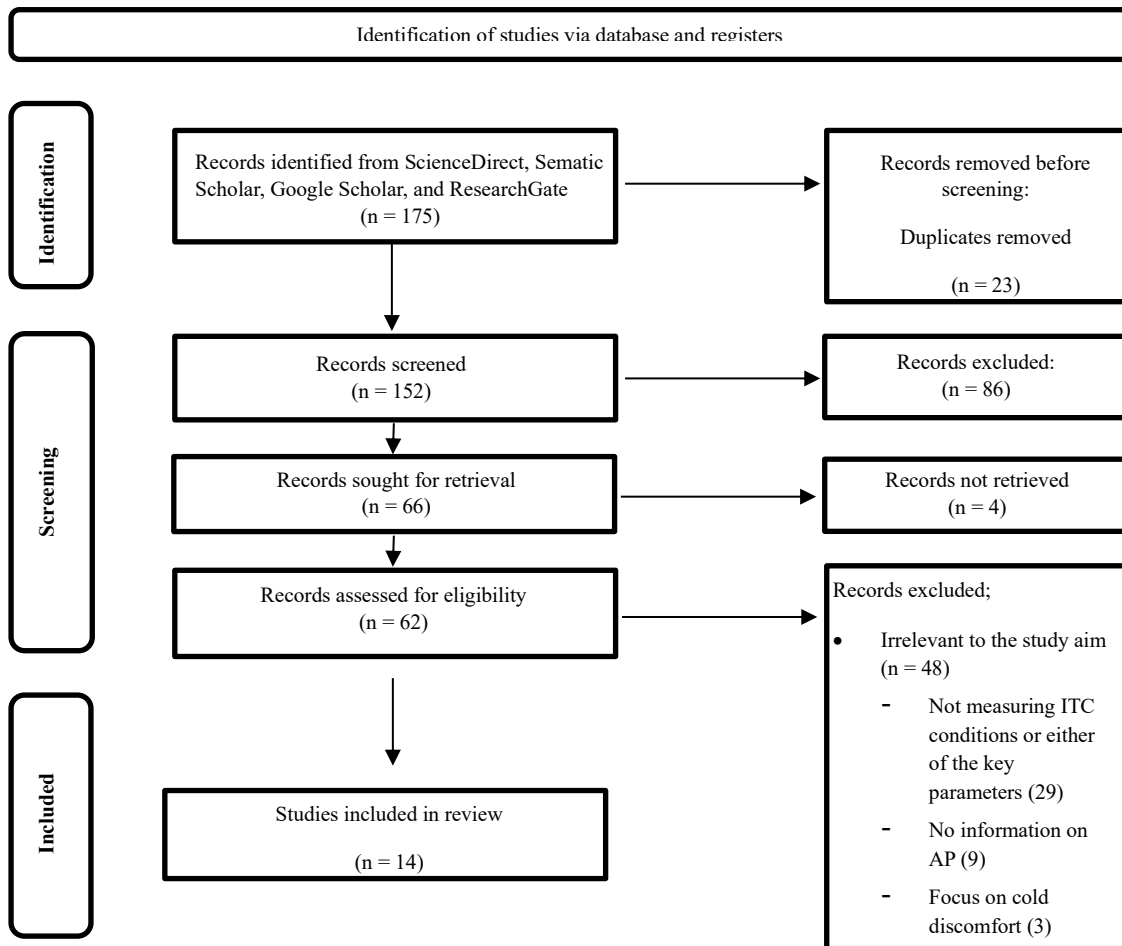


Fig. 1: The PRISMA flow diagram

Climate

The included studies in this review capture thermal comfort levels within cold, temperate, tropical, arid, hot desert, and continental monsoon climates in classrooms, dormitory rooms, lecture rooms, and design studios across different countries. For a long-year study in a cold climate, neutral temperature varies seasonally: summer - 26.2°C, winter - 22.4°C while average Indoor Relative humidity (IRh) - Spring: 66.1%, Summer: 68%, Autumn: 72.8%, Winter: 65%. In temperate climates, a lower number of students were found within the thermal comfort zone defined by national regulations in the studied educational buildings. In tropical climates, the comfort range for operative temperature ranges from 19.4–27.7 °C. An average of 58% of students' votes were within the ASHRAE 55-2107 recommended comfort zone. One of the studies within the middle belt tropical savannah climate shows that the mean of thermal sensation votes is 0.6 at 25.6°C and 2.4 at 34.5°C. The study by Ifebi, Olotuah, and Ezeji (2019) in southeastern Nigerian universities found that 17.0% of architecture students felt comfortable with the sampled design studios. In the Continental monsoon climate, 63% of students were within the comfort limits for Design classrooms, and 79% for Dormitory rooms.

Season, duration of study, and educational spaces

All the studies were carried out in varying seasons across corresponding climatic zones. However, only one of the studies in the cold region of China was a Year-long field study, others were done in varying duration in a year. These conditions affected the ITC of the lecture halls/theatres, classrooms, lecture rooms, dormitory rooms, and design studios selected in the respective studies. In addition, Students felt more uncomfortable during lesson hours than at lower activity levels.

Study population, age, and ventilation type

The sample size from the studies spans from 42 - 1973 students between the ages of 18 – 30 years in different *Ls*. The population of males was from 44% – 63% while females ranged from 40% – 55% on average. One of the

studies incorporated 16 instructors as part of the study population. The ADS selected spans from 1 – 8. Another worked with 407 Junior Secondary School [JSS] students within 13 years in 11 schools. Significant differences in thermal sensation votes between female and male students ($p < 0.001$) show a neutral temperature one degree higher for females. The ventilation types recorded were NV, MM, MV, and AC. Most studies in cold and temperate regions evidenced the use of NV and MV, with radiators for heating in winter while in hot deserts and arid climates, *Eb* relied on AC. In the tropical climate especially in developing countries NV classrooms, lecture rooms, and design studios were featured. In general, 36% of the studies worked on *Ls* in NV while 14% in MV and AC with 50% on MM. Notably, students in NV classrooms were more tolerant of high temperatures.

Table 2: Properties and findings of the selected articles ($n = 14$)

S/N	Author / Country	Climate	Season and duration of field study	Type of educational buildings	Ventilation type	Study Population	Clothing, Activity, and metabolic rate of students	Perception/psychology of the students	Relative humidity & Air velocity	Comfort tempt. / Model
1	Wang <i>et al.</i> (2021). Xi'an, China	Cold	Year-long field study 12 months	University classrooms	Naturally ventilated [NV] with ceiling fans, and radiators for heating in winter (Nov. 15 - March 15)	1973 university students	Clothing insulation estimated based on EN ISO 9920–2007. 1.0 met.	Students in NV classrooms were more tolerant to temperatures deviating from neutral compared to AC classrooms.	Average IRh - Spring: 66.1%, Summer: 68%, Autumn: 72.8%, Winter: 65%.	Neutral temperature varies seasonally: summer - 26.2 °C, winter - 22.4 °C. (PMV)
2	Aguilar <i>et al.</i> (2022). Spain, Granada	CSA (Köppen–Geiger climate classification)	Cold season	University lecture rooms	NV	989 university students (84% aged 18–24, 91% aged 18–30)	Clothing insulation values were calculated based on ISO 7730; Students remained seated during lectures lasting at least one hour.	55% of students were dissatisfied with the thermal environment. Significant differences in thermal sensation votes between female and male students ($p < 0.001$). The neutral temperature is one degree higher for females.	Av. IRh: 37.9%, Std. Dev: 7.3%, Max: 50.1%, Min: 19.6%; Av. Air Velocity: 0.03 m/s, Std. Dev: 0.04 m/s, Max: 0.19 m/s, Min: <0.01 m/s	The T_a is generally in the range 0–34 °C, and rarely rises above 38 °C or drops below –4 °C during the year.
3	Jia <i>et al.</i> 2022. Hong Kong, China	Tropical (Specific classification not provided)	Not specified	University classroom	Mechanically ventilated [MV]	University students (Specific sample size not provided)	Not specified	Students prefer a relatively cold indoor environment to tolerate bad IAQ with high CO ₂ . Air sensation (AS) is the most critical comfort aspect (weight of 0.32), followed by thermal sensation (weight of 0.18).	Rh: 47–63.5%	5-min averaged comfort range for operative temperature : 21.5°C – 23.8 °C
4	Al-Jokhadar <i>et al.</i> (2023). Jordan	Arid	Autumn semester (October to February)	Architecture design studios and Classrooms	Mixed-mode [MM] (natural ventilation through windows + ceiling fans for cooling + radiators for heating)	16 instructors and 117 students (preliminary assessment), later focused on students in 4 studios - 173 architecture students	Metabolic rates are higher than students in regular classrooms due to design studio activities.	58% of students' thermal sensation votes were within the ASHRAE 55-2107 recommended comfort zone. In design studios, 53% of students felt warm, compared to 58.8% who felt cold in lecture rooms.	Design studio 3 had the lowest air temperature (17.3 °C) and the highest relative humidity (55.2%).	ASHRAE 55 Adaptive model
5	Heracleous & Michael (2020) Cyprus	East-Mediterranean	Winter and Summer	Secondary School classrooms	NV	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified
6	Shi, Liu, Zhang, & Yue (2022). China	Cold	Two months before and after heating (Specific months not provided)	Design classroom for teaching architecture and dormitory rooms	Not specified, but classrooms have radiators for heating.	89 architecture students	Students adjusted clothing, but not necessarily to adapt to the thermal environment.	Thermal acceptability is close to 100% in both classrooms and dormitory rooms . In the design classroom, PMV predicted the indoor thermal environment relatively accurately, unlike in the dormitory rooms.	Not specified	Thermal neutral TOP in the design studio: 23.1 °C. Students maintained a neutral-cool thermal sensation in the dormitory
7	Elnaklah <i>et al.</i> (2023). Jordan	Not specified	Heating season (November 2021–January 2022)	Architecture design studios and typical lecture rooms	MM (operable windows + 5 electrical fans + central heating system)	173 architecture students	Not specified.	In design studios, 53% of students felt warm, compared to 58.8% who felt cold in lecture rooms. Students heavily depended on behavioral adaptation strategies.	Average indoor relative humidity: Design studios - November:	Design studios: November - 29.4°C, December - 24.8°C, January -

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

									46%, December: 41%, January: 43%. Lecture rooms - November: 43%, December: 40%, January: 38%; Average indoor air velocity: <0.2 m/s	23.1°C. Lecture rooms: November - 24.1°C, December - 21.9°C, January - 20.8°C. ASHRAE 55-2107
8	Ifebi, Olotuah, and Ezeji (2019) Nigeria (South-east)	Wet tropical climate	The rainy season (April- October) of the year 2018, for seven months	Design studios of universities	MM	A sample size of 248 respondents	Not specified	Less than 20% were dissatisfied with the thermal conditions	Not specified	The average daily indoor air temperature readings of 28°C - 30°C. PMV
9	Shaqour, (2021) Egypt	Hot desert climate	Not specified	Architecture design studio	Air- conditioner [AC]	42 students of the Architecture Department who study the Architectural Design course at Nahda University	Not specified	The design studio's design on the students' psyche and their level of performance	Not specified	Not specified
10	Bena, Gillott, and Boukanouf, (2023)	Tropical wet and dry climate	hot/dry season	Architectural studio complex at Federal University Birnin Kebbi, Nigeria	MM	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified	RH: 49% - 13%	27°C - 32°C as Standard Effective Temperatur e (SET)
11	Shi, Liu, Zhang, and Yue (2022)	Continental monsoon climate	From 15 October to 31 December in 2020 for two months	Design classrooms, and dormitory rooms	MM	89 students (19-21years)	Not specified	The thermal sensation was maintained at neutral cool in the dormitory rooms. thermal acceptability was close to 100%.	Not specified	23.1 °C in the design classroom. PMV
12	Makun, (2019). Nigeria (Minna, Niger State)	Middle Belt tropical savannah climate	2016-2019	Classrooms	NV	11 schools – 407 JSS pupils within the age of 13	Mean clothing, activity, and metabolic rates for each classroom were captured..	89 % of the samples (pupils) were thermally comfortable at mean air temperatures of 25.6 0C when their thermal comfort was evaluated at the field experiments.	Variables measured – Indoor Thermal Temperature, Thermal comfort, Health, Academic performance	Air temperature levels of 25.6°C. and 34.5°C. PMV (ASHRAE, 2004)
13	Moktan, and Upreti, (2023). Nepal (Kantipur City College, Kathmandu)	Cool temperate climate	Summer (2 weeks in June)	Classrooms	NV	2 Classrooms (Field study), 84 students (Questionnaire survey – 44 males and 40 females)	Not specified	Students felt uncomfortable during lesson hours	Not specified	indoor temperature s were in the range of 27°C. - 32 °C. 7 Point ASHRAE (2017)
14	Mitkees, Stephens, and Heidarinejad (2018). United States of America (Chicago)	Temperate climate	A typical winter day in Chicago with a cloudy sky. (November 7, 2018; between 16:30 and 17:30 during the maximum student capacity	IIT's iconic Crown Hall (Design studio)	MM	. Out of 130 students in attendance on the sampling day, 118 students (63 male, 55 female) completed surveys, with a 90% response rate	Not specified	Not specified	Wind speed 8-10mph; Wind direction SSW	Outdoor temperature ranges between - 3°C and 3°C.

The physical condition of learning spaces in the educational buildings

Most of the spaces were rectangular with varying floor areas. Also, the walls of the classroom, lecture halls, and ADS studied in Nigeria were built with 225mm hollow concrete blocks, plastered with cement/sand and finished internally with a bright color (light cream color). Some *Eb* in other countries were framed with reinforced cement concrete with Celotex sheets as finishes for the interior spaces. As a barrier separating the external and internal environments of *Ls*, the physical features had some effect on the ITC conditions of the study spaces. Design

features such as form or size and orientation of space-building, about wind directions, size and position of space openings, vegetation, and other physical conditions greatly affect the thermal performance of *Ls*.

Environmental Parameters

The articles show that ITC conditions can be influenced by E_F , HP_F , or P_F . Hence, the most influential parameters in the study of ITC remained E_F which include T_A , T_R , A_V , and Rh with T_A posing the most significant impact. In the cold region, the neutral temperature in classrooms and design studios varies seasonally from 26.2 °C - 22.4 °C while 80% acceptable temperature range from 25.4°C - 29.6°C. The IRh is between 66.1% - 72.8%. Most of the studies in cold seasons of temperate regions show that NV classrooms exhibited average IRh of 19.6% - 50.1% (Std Dev: 7.3%) while average A_V : 0.01 m/s - 0.19 m/s (Std. Dev: 0.04 m/s). In tropical climates, the average comfort range for operative temperature [OP]: is 21.5–23.8°C with RH: 47–63.5%. In arid climates, T_A within the acceptable range for comfort conditions defined by ASHRAE 55 adaptive method during the cold season was between 19.4 – 27.7 °C. In *Ls*, only 58% of students' votes were within the ASHRAE 55-2107 recommended comfort zone. Nevertheless, the lowest air temperature recorded was 17.3°C, and the highest Rh : 55.2%. For design studios average IRh is 46% - 43% between November to January and that of lecture rooms is 43% - 38% respectively. In addition, the average A_V was <0.2 m/s. In a tropical climate, 27°C - 32°C was the limit for Standard Effective Temperature (SET) with Rh 13% - 49%. For a study carried out in classroom and dormitory rooms 63% and 79% of students expressed satisfaction with respective thermal environments in educational buildings while A_V <0.2 m/s (Wind speed 8-10mph). T_A levels of 25.6 and 34.5°C were captured while the mean of the Thermal Sensation Votes [TSV] is 0.6 at 25.6°C and 2.4 at 34.5°C. Also, providing insulation to the walls and ceilings, applying thermal mass, or changing the window glazing lowered temperatures by 2-4 °C. Table 3 provides a summary of comfort temperatures reported on *Ls* in the tropics.

Table 3. Thermal comfort temperatures identified by authors in educational buildings of tropical climates (Makun, 2019)

S/N	Author	Location	Comfort temperature
I.	Kwok (1997)	Hawaii (USA)	22-29 °C
II.	Wong and Khoo (2003)	Singapore	27.1 -29.3°C
III.	Hwang <i>et al.</i> (2009)	Taiwan	30 °C
IV.	Liang <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Taiwan	29.2°C
V.	Mishra and Ramgopal (2015)	India	31.5°C
VI.	Le <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Vietnam	29.9°C - 32.8°C.
VII.	Hamzah <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Makassar (Indonesia)	29°C
VIII.	Singh <i>et al.</i> (2018)	India	29.8°C

Human physical parameters

The HP_F that influenced ITC conditions of most of the studies in *Eb* were predominantly; *Clo*, *Pa*, and *Met* of students. During cold seasons, students wore clothing with relatively high *clo* values, serving as a thermal barrier to prevent cold air infiltration and minimize heat loss in their bodies, thereby maintaining thermal comfort within the *Ls*. In hot seasons as well as warm environments, students exhibited a preference for clothing featuring low *clo* values, facilitating heat dissipation from the body and promoting thermal comfort. The Clothing insulation estimated in the studies was based on EN ISO 9920–2007, and ISO 7730. More so, most students were sedentary with a metabolic rate of 1.0 met. Metabolic rates in ADS are higher than students in regular classrooms due to the level of activity rate in design studios. Lastly, none of the studies captured field measurements of the students *Clo*, *Pa*, and *Met*.

Psychological parameters

In cold regions, students in NV classrooms were more tolerant to temperatures deviating from neutral compared to AC classrooms. In AC classrooms and dormitory rooms, thermal acceptability was close to 100% despite significant differences in thermal environments. In classrooms, PMV predicted the indoor thermal environment relatively accurately, while in dormitory rooms, the PMV underestimated thermal sensations. Students showed adaptability to the environment and could tolerate lower temperatures. The 3 articles within temperate climate captured an average of 55% of students dissatisfied with the thermal environment in NV lecture rooms. Significant differences in thermal sensation votes between female and male students ($p < 0.001$) show a neutral

temperature one degree higher for females. One of the studies in the United States of America (USA) shows more students were dissatisfied (63%) than satisfied (23%), with only 13% of the students reporting neutral satisfaction levels while in the cool temperate of Nepal, Students felt uncomfortable during lesson hours in NV classrooms. In tropical climates, 6 articles reported students preferred relatively cold indoor environments to tolerate bad Indoor Air Quality [IAQ] with high Carbon [IV] Oxide [CO₂]. Air sensation [AS] was the most critical comfort aspect (weight of 0.32), followed by thermal sensation (weight of 0.18). Also, less than 20% of architecture students in MM design studios were dissatisfied with the thermal conditions as captured by one of the studies. Furthermore, 5 articles in Arid and Mediterranean regions highlighted that 58% of students' thermal sensation votes were within the ASHRAE 55-2107 recommended comfort zone. In design studios, 53% of students felt warm, compared to 58.8% who felt cold in lecture rooms. Students heavily depended on behavioural adaptation strategies, such as adjusting clothing and consuming hot/cold beverages. In a hot desert climate, the design of studios had an effect on the students' psyche and their level of performance.

Academic Performance

AP is described according to E_F , HP_F , or P_F and P_C of L_s . There are studies spanning over four decades with evidence to show that E_F especially T_A has an adverse effect on the thermal comfort, and AP of students in Eb . Against this background, Table 4 presents a summary of previous studies related to the effects of T_A on AP of students (from 1960 – 2010).

Table 4: Summary of studies on the effect T_A on thermal comfort and performance (Makun, 2019).

Reference / Country	Climate	Findings
Peccolo (1962). USA	Temperate	Students demonstrated superior AP within T_A range of 15-23°C compared to temperature [tempt] between 22-27°C.
Pepler and Warner (1971). USA	Temperate	Students' academic achievement, as measured by test scores were significantly enhanced at an air temperature of 23°C in comparison to 26°C.
Schoer and Shaffran (1973). USA	Temperate	Significant academic improvement was observed among the pupils at indoor air temperatures of 22.5°C in comparison to 26°C.
Wyon <i>et al.</i> (1975). Demark	Temperate	The authors found that cognitive performance among students stayed relatively consistent, with no statistically significant differences shown between T_A of approximately 18.7°C and 23.2°C.
Humphreys (1977). UK	Temperate	Thermal discomfort and increasing T_A featured a positive correlation, indicating that rise in temperatures were associated with rise of thermal discomfort among the sample population.
Jaakkola <i>et al.</i> (1989). Finland	Temperate	Positive correlation was found between increased T_A and the incidence of some symptoms associated with Sick Building Syndrome.
(Nelson <i>et al.</i> , 1984). Canada	Temperate	It was found that T_A of 30°C intensified feelings of fatigue and impair task performance among subjects, leading to significant decrements in productivity.
Kahl (2005). USA	Temperate	No significant performance decrement was reported amongst the subjects exposed to different T_A of about 15°C, 20°C, 22°C, and 26.6°C.
(Wyon <i>et al.</i> , 1979). Denmark	Temperate	The speed by which multiplication task was performed by the male subjects at the experiment was significantly reduced at 28°C.
Pilcher and Huffcutt (1996). USA	Temperate	T_A of about 32.2°C and low air temperatures of 10°C below have negative consequences on performance of cognitive tasks.
Mäkinen <i>et al.</i> (2006). Finland	Temperate	Exposures to cold T_A of about 10°C have negative effects on cognitive performance.
Wargocki and Wyon (2007). Demark	Temperate	Performance of school work by pupils was significantly higher at T_A of 20°C than at 25°C.

Indoor environmental parameters

In a temperate climate with T_A : -40°C - 380°C , IRh : 19.6% - 50.1%, and A_V : 0.01m/s - 0.19m/s, 55% of students reported that the thermal environment of NV university lecture rooms affected by their AP, according to three articles. From 5 papers with study areas in the Arid and Mediterranean climates (lowest T_A : 17.3°C , greatest Rh : 55.2%), students evaluated their thermal environment as productive when they felt colder MM ADS. Furthermore, in four articles on cold climates and two on continental monsoon climates (thermal Neutral Operative Temperature in MM design studios and dormitory rooms is 23.1°C , $A_V > 0.2\text{m/s}$), 63% of students in design studios and 79% in dormitory rooms reported that the environment was comfortable for their AP. In a tropical climate, among six articles that highlighted SET ranging from 25.6°C to 34.5°C , one concluded that 17% of architecture students felt their MM design studio was comfortable for AP, while another discovered that the percentage decrease in academic performance of students in mathematics was estimated to be about 7% due to differences in SET but that of English language remained constant. This study examined the effect of ITC circumstances on students' academic achievement (articles from 2013 – 2023) as captured in Table 5.

Table 5: Summary of previous studies related to effect of ITC conditions on performance of students

Reference / Climate	Climate	Findings
Melikov <i>et al.</i> (2013). Denmark	Temperate	Health, comfort and performance of the samples significantly decreased at 26°C and 28°C in comparison to 23°C
Park (2016). USA	Temperate	Tempt. Above 26°C is detrimental to the performance of academics' task by students.
Mitkees, Stephens, and Heidarinejad, (2018). USA	Temperate	Wind speed 8-10mph; Wind direction SSW. The subjective survey investigated students' thermal sensation, thermal satisfaction, and perceived level of productivity using 7 Point scale by Fanger (1970).
Porras-Salazar <i>et al.</i> (2018). Costa Rica	Tropical	Reducing T_A in the classroom from 300°C to 250°C increased the performance of cognitive related tasks by pupils.
Choi <i>et al.</i> (2019) China	Sub-tropical	Relatively high T_A is unhealthy to the attention span of persons during the performance of academic task.
Ifebi, Olotuah, and Ezeji (2019). Nigeria	Wet Tropical Climate	The average daily indoor T_A readings of 28°C - 30°C . Less than 20% were dissatisfied with the thermal conditions.
Makun (2019). Nigeria	Middle belt Tropical Savanna Climate	T_A levels of 25.60°C , and 34.50°C . Mean of the TSV Is 0.6 at 25.60°C and 2.4 at 34.50°C . 89 % of the samples (pupils) were thermally comfortable at mean T_A 25.60°C when their thermal comfort was evaluated at the field experiments. The effect of T_A on the performance of academic task by pupils is not often straight forward, it could be influenced by the nature of task.
Shaqour, (2021). Egypt	Hot Desert Climate	The design studio's physical features have effect on the students' psyche and their level of performance.
Wang <i>et al.</i> (2021). China	Cold	Average IRh - Spring: 66.1%, Summer: 68%, Autumn: 72.8%, Winter: 65% affected the concentration level and performance of students in classrooms.
Shaqour, (2021). Egypt	Hot Desert Climate	The design studio's physical features have effect on the students' psyche and their level of performance.
Aguilar <i>et al.</i> (2022). Spain	Temperate	IRh : 37.9%, and Average IAV : 0.03 m/s. 55% of students were dissatisfied with the thermal environment. Significant differences in thermal sensation votes between female and male students ($p < 0.001$) shows neutral temperature one degree higher for females which impacted the AP of the students.
Jia <i>et al.</i> (2022). China	Tropical	Students prefer a relatively cold indoor environment to tolerate bad IAQ with high CO_2 . Air sensation (AS) is the most critical comfort aspect (weight of 0.32), followed by thermal sensation (weight of 0.18) amongst the factors that affected the ability of students to perform academic tasks.
Al-Jokhadar <i>et al.</i> (2023). Jordan	Arid	58% of students' TSV were within the ASHRAE 55-2107 recommended comfort zone. In design studios, 53% of students felt warm, compared to 58.8% who felt cold in lecture rooms. Students heavily depended on behavioural adaptation strategies, such as adjusting clothing and consuming hot/cold beverages in order to ensure optimal AP.

Shi, Liu, Zhang and Yue (2022). China	Continental Monsoon climate	<i>Rh</i> : 63% for Design classrooms, and 79% for Dormitory rooms. <i>AV</i> <0.2 m/s. 23.1°C in the design classroom. Thermal sensation was maintained at neutral-cool in the dormitory rooms. Thermal acceptability was close to 100% in both classrooms and dormitory rooms despite significant differences in thermal environments. In the design classroom, PMV predicted the indoor thermal environment relatively accurately, while in dormitory rooms, the PMV underestimated thermal sensations. Students showed adaptability to the environment and could tolerate lower temp.
Elnaklah <i>et al.</i> (2023). Jordan	Arid	Design studios: November - 29.4°C, December - 24.8°C, January - 23.1°C. Lecture rooms: November - 24.1°C, December - 21.9°C, January - 20.8°C. Average <i>IRh</i> : Design studios - November: 46%, December: 41%, January: 43%. Lecture rooms - November: 43%, December: 40%, January: 38%; Average indoor air velocity: <0.2 m/s. Students were more productive when they felt cooler.
Bena, Gillott, and Boukanouf, (2023). Nigeria	Tropical wet & dry climate	27°C - 32°C as SET, <i>Rh</i> : 13% - 49%. AP of students dropped when <i>Ta</i> and <i>Rh</i> increased.
Moktan, and Uprety, (2023). Nepal	Cool temperate climate	<i>TA</i> were in the range of 27°C -32°C. At high temperatures, students felt uncomfortable during lesson hours which caused a drop in their concentration levels.

Human physical parameters

The articles from the temperate region included in this study demonstrated that students remained sitting for lectures lasting at least one hour. Students' metabolic rates in conventional courses were often lower than those in design studios due to architecture students' higher activity levels. Some research indicated students modified clothing, but not necessarily to adapt to the thermal environment, possibly due to habituation. In the tropics, the results show that at lower indoor T_A of around 25.6°C, differences in the *clo* values of the uniform worn by classroom students and pupils had no significant effect on their thermal comfort. Overall, the result of the independent t-test reported in two articles shows that when students wearing school uniforms with clothing insulation values of 0.5 *clo* could be more desirable for the thermal comfort and AP of pupils in schools within the tropical climate, this is in comparison to the use of uniforms with *clo* value of 0.8.

Psychological parameters

A neutral temperature (NT) range of 23-26°C was indicated for improved working memory during learning. Cognitive assessments measure learning skills, including attention, perception, working memory, and thinking ability. The results revealed that psychological elements such as human perception/sensation, seasonal expectancies, and control capacity influence students' AP. However, all of the publications that grabbed P_F were focused on perception or experience. During hot seasons, over 55% of students in NV classrooms were displeased with the thermal environment at high temperatures, which hampered their short-term AP. Significant disparities in thermal sensation voting between male and female students revealed that male students outperformed their female counterparts at high OT, whereas females performed one degree higher at NT. Students preferred a relatively cold indoor environment in NV classrooms, lecture rooms, and design studios within Hot desert, Tropical, arid, Mediterranean, and parts of Temperate regions for improved AP. Also, in design studios, 53% of students felt warm, compared to 58.8% who felt cold in lecture rooms during classes. To maintain concentration, students heavily depended on behavioural adaptation strategies, such as adjusting clothing and consuming hot/cold beverages. Students in the tropics showed adaptability to their thermal environment and could tolerate lower temperatures during lectures. 89% of the samples (pupils) were thermally comfortable at mean T_A 25.6°C when their thermal comfort was evaluated, making them comfortable during lesson hours.

Physical condition of learning spaces in educational buildings

Design features and physical condition of buildings directly influence E_F (Fig. 2). In turn, the IEC created as a result of these factors influences the health, perception, and AP of students as uncovered by the reviewed articles. The mechanism behind how E_F of buildings affects the AP is collectively or individually by arousal, discomfort, distraction, fatigue and displeasure.

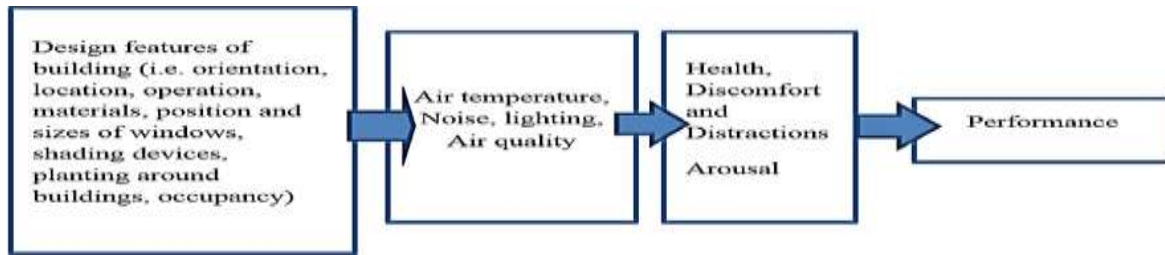


Fig. 2: Link between physical conditions of the learning spaces with comfort, health and academic performance. (Mendell & Heath, 2005).

According to the findings of the physical studies, classrooms in Nigerian educational structures are rectangular in shape, regardless of where the schools are located. The classrooms also depend mostly on NV in providing thermal comfort for the users. The findings from the physical surveys of 2 articles suggest that the window to floor ratio of the classrooms is relatively small in comparison the window to wall area ratio suggested by some authors in previous research. In the tropics, 3 articles studied showed evidence that the roof covering of the classrooms are metal sheets with no insulation panels, also the roofs do not also have vents for dissipation of heat. Also, walls of the Ls were built with 225mm hollow sandcrete blocks, plastered with cement/sand and finished internally with a bright colour devoid of further insulation leading to rise in SET.

Discussion

This review explored the literature on issues concerning ITC conditions and AP. As a result, the findings revealed a wide range of ITC circumstances and academic performance levels demonstrated by students / learners in Ls. Furthermore, the ITC conditions and AP in this review varied depending on the climate, seasonal changes, duration of field study, type of educational building, ventilation type, physical condition of spaces, students' clothing, physical activity, metabolic rate, and perception.

This study shows that students in Ls of educational buildings within cold and temperate regions found it difficult to acclimatize with higher comfort levels (+2 to +3) by PMV (Yan et al. 2016). More so, it was deduced that AP of students slightly declined during hot and warm seasons justifying increased demand on ventilating and air-conditioning systems to regulate the thermal sensation of students for enhanced performance (Lee and Tsai 2020). In tropical, arid, and hot desert climates, indoor OT gradually posed thermal discomfort to students in NV classrooms, lecture rooms, and design studios at varying levels owing to physical conditions of the spaces, climatic, and seasonal changes. In the tropical climate of Nigeria, Ls usually run on NV and MM, thus, students expressed low thermal acceptability at high OT under same physical conditions reducing the ability of students to perform different academic tasks. In addition, the AP of students significantly varies based on the type of Ls. To ensure comfortable design studio required higher thermal requirement and comfort level due to increased Pa of architecture students. This led to higher *met* of students in design studios compare to those in classrooms / lecture rooms of similar ventilation type, and physical conditions. More so, corporate uniforms worn by pupils / students of some schools reduced cloth adaptation in response to changes in ITC conditions while students / pupils with adaptive clothing exhibited higher AP.

Evidently, this review shows paucity in research pertaining to ITC conditions of architecture students in design studios. Therefore, suggests study on effect of ITC conditions on design performance of architecture students in warm humid tropical climate with reference to southeast geopolitical zone of Nigeria. This keen interest on design studios is evolved because architectural students have to perform intensive learning activities (e.g., designing, drawing, physical model making, research, and experimentation activities) with higher metabolic rates compared to students in typical lecture rooms, who usually have mild activities (i.e., passive sitting) with lower metabolic rates (EN ISO 8996, 2004).

To highlight the relevance of this recommended study, Ifebi, Olotuah, and Ezeji (2019) assessed the influence of indoor T_A on occupants' thermal sensation in ADS of universities in Southeast, Nigeria. The study revealed that many of the ADS in the South-East are NV, with fans installed and operated by users as the need arises, which predisposes the indoor environment to outdoor climatic factors. Due to this, architecture students especially in design studios, are forced to study in Ls with a difficult thermal environment. Such study should be aimed at evaluating the effect of ITC conditions on design performance of architecture students of universities accredited by National Universities' Commission [NUC] in Southeast, Nigeria with special reference to developing design criteria for maximizing the thermal performance of design studios.

The findings of the study will provide government, public organisations, and private bodies involved in the establishment and management of universities of the South East with a blueprint on how design studios should be developed to maximize the ITC conditions thereof. It will also equip the NUC, Architects Registration Council of Nigeria [ARCON], and allied associations with deliverables and frameworks desirable in the partial fulfillment of the requirements for establishment, accreditation, and management of design studios for enhanced academic experience among architecture students and lecturers.

Finally, the recommended study will provide architects, engineers, developers, quantity surveyors, facility managers, sponsors of academic programmes and other players in the built environment with design criteria and strategies to achieve ITC of architecture students in design studios of universities within the South-East. In addition, acquaint architecture students, and lecturers with adaptive ITC measures to ensure a comfortable thermal environment for educational activities in the design studios.

Limitation

There are some limitations to this study. The extant literature reviewed were drawn from four research databases; ScienceDirect, Semantic Scholar, Google Scholar, and ResearchGate of which most of the articles pertaining to ITC were domiciled, hence, the study findings may not be generalized. More so, this study focuses on ITC conditions and AP of students / pupils in *Eb*. It specifically reviews the effect of E_F , HP_F , P_F on AP of students. Also, the levels and effects of IEQ parameters such as noise, daylighting, ventilation, indoor air quality, CO_2 , ergonomic conditions, heat and light sources as well as human physiological conditions – body mass index, age, skin colour, health, and other non-environmental parameters were not considered in this study. Therefore, since this systematic review selected articles from the predetermined inclusion criteria which were screened, the included articles were adequate to fulfill the study aim.

CONCLUSION

The ITC conditions and AP of students in this study varied owing to plethora of factors such as climate, season, type / space of educational building, ventilation type / mode, age of study population, physical condition of building, indoor environmental factors, students' physical factors (clothing, physical activity, and metabolic rate), and students' psychological factors. All of these factors were related to each other. This review reveals ITC conditions of students in *LS* varied with the climatic zones and seasons of which the study was carried out. The students (between 17-27 years) within the warm humid climate performed lower academically in NV schools due to high T_A , and Rh levels in the indoor thermal environment while AC classrooms had improved AP of students. The types of clothing, physical activity, and metabolic rate of students also influenced the comfort, and AP of students. In addition, heavy / corporate clothing, and increased physical activity heightened the metabolic rate of students predisposing them to thermal discomfort and stress. In addition, the thermal mass of the components of learning spaces also played a role in controlling state of the indoor environmental factors. Lastly, *LS* should be designed or retrofitted, taking cognizance of the factors that constitute ITC to enhance students' AP.

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Chapter Three**Examining the Architectural Services Delivery Stages of a Mixed-use Development in Bayelsa State, Nigeria****Chinedu U. Oluigbo¹; Dumbari V. Nnaa¹; Chimene Okere²**¹*Department of Architecture, Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Amassoma, Bayelsa State, Nigeria*²*Department of Architecture, Rivers State University, Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria.*EMAIL: chineduoluigbo@ndu.edu.ng**ABSTRACT**

To assess projects is paramount in the building industry. Owing to the relevance of such assessment in improving project delivery, this study is embarked upon to explore the constituting Architectural Services Delivery Stages (ASDS) of a Mixed-use development situated at Agbura in Bayelsa State, Nigeria. The mixed-use development is situated on a plain and captures safety, functionality, and structural ability as its key considerations. The data for the study is collected via observation and documentation of the delivery stages. Specifically, this study utilizes the Architects Registration Council of Nigeria (ARCON) Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services - Conditions of Engagement, Charges and Agreement for the Professional Architect as a benchmark to analyze the design, construction, post construction stages of the Mixed-use development which is characterized of two suspended floors. Furthermore, this study pinpoints the challenges attributed to the reviewed Architectural Services Delivery Stages of the Mixed-use development and means devised to address issues emanating from the various stages. Finally, it recommends ways that will aid architects and other stakeholders in the built environment to improve project management and building contract administration of similar developments.

KEYWORDS: Architectural services, Assessment, Building Contract Administration, Delivery Stages, Mixed-use Development

INTRODUCTION

Project documentation is a necessity to resolve issues that usually arise in the course of executing projects (Oluigbo, Unamba, & Nnaa, 2023). However, the performance of every project is subject to the processes undertaken in carrying out the Architectural Services Delivery Stages [ASDS] (Oluigbo & Nnaa, 2023). Delivering architectural services involves different stages for the successful completion of a building project (Patil, July 11, 2024). According to the Architects' Registration Council of Nigeria, these stages include the pre-design Stage [PDS], Design Stage I [DS I], Design Stage II [DS II], Tendering and Award Stage [TAS], Construction Stage [CS], and Post Construction Period [PCP] (ARCON Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services, 2016). To demystify these stages, a mixed-used development located at Agbura in Bayelsa, Nigeria is selected for this study. This mixed-use development is designed to house dairy products as well as provide offices and accommodation units for staff.

Specifically, this study is tailored towards exploring the ASDS of a mixed-use development located at Agbura, Bayelsa State in Nigeria which was designed to provide necessary spaces for housing commodities and staff of Mike Mary Concept & Company Nigeria Limited. To achieve the aim, this study is structured to - i. Uncover challenges that characterized the ASDS for the mixed-use development; ii. Highlight measures the encumbrances encountered in the ASDS were addressed; iii. Propose effective ways the ASDS be carried out thereof, by following the ASDS published by ARCON in the Conditions of Engagement, Charges, and Agreement for the Professional Architect (ARCON Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services, 2016) to evaluate the selected mixed-use development with particular reference on recommending ways challenges posed during the stages were resolved. Lastly, the outcome of this study will be beneficial to architects, developers (clients),

engineers, quantity surveyors, and other stakeholders in the area of design and construction of such projects.

Brief Project Information

Table 1: A summary of the Project information

i.	Project title	Mixed-use Development
ii.	Project location	Agbura, Bayelsa State
iii.	Duration	11th April, 2014 – 27th November, 2015
iv.	Client	Mike Mary Concept & Co. Nig. Ltd.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Mixed-use is a type of urban development, urban design, urban planning and/or a zoning classification that incorporates multiple uses, such as residential, commercial, cultural, institutional, or entertainment, into one space, where those functions are to some degree physically and functionally integrated, and that provides pedestrian connections (Business Geography & New Real Estate Market Analysis, 2016); (Quality Growth Toolkit, 2011); (Raman, Roy, 2019). A mixed-use development may be a new construction, reuse of an existing building or brownfield site, or a combination (O'Connell, 2021). Mixed-use developments are home to significant employment and housing opportunities (Harris, 2017). To promote efficiency, productivity, and quality of life in the development, a mixed-use model Zero commuting concept of Nadim (2019) where working spaces and living spaces are blended was adopted as shown in Figure 1.

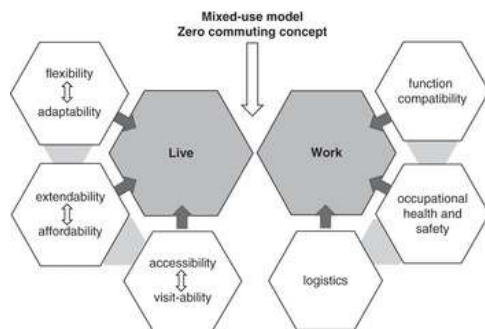


Figure 1: A Proactive Social Infrastructure model for future Mixed-Use Housing in Egypt (Nadim, 2019).

• Project location

This mixed-use development is sited on a plain, and strategically located along Azikoro – Agbura road (opposite Davian hotel), Agbura town, Yenagoa, Bayelsa state in Nigeria. It is also characterized by two suspended floors. The warehouses are positioned on the ground, while the administrative, and storage spaces are positioned on the first floor. Lastly, the second floor is zoned to accommodate some staff of the company - Mike Mary Concept & Co. Nig. Ltd. (A distributor of Dairy products, Flour, Sugar, Tomatoes, Cooking oil, and related commodities).



Built Environment and Sustainable Development

LEGEND	
	Site Location
	Davian Hotel
	Roads

Scale: NTS

Figure 2: Map showing the Mixed-use development at Agbura in Bayelsa State, Nigeria (Google Earth, 2018)

Pre-Design Stage [PDS]

The first objective of every design process is to get together with a client to ascertain the overall project vision and goals. These include but are not limited to discussions on scope, features, purpose, and functionality (Patil, 2024). This stage was characterized by consultations with the client, inspection and documentation of existing conditions survey, capturing of photographs, and measurements of existing site features, preparation of high-level base drawings, statement of probable construction cost, programming of spaces as well as code review.

Inception

In April 2014, the director of Mike Mary Concept & Company Nigeria Limited requested the architect to design 2 units of warehouses on the ground, and first floor with dwelling spaces on the second floor.

Brief taking

Thereafter, the architect requested from him a formal letter of engagement and a survey plan of the property on which he wanted his project executed. On receipt of our above request the following day, the architect proceeded to the site for site inspection where all the beacons as stated in the survey plan and other site peculiarities were observed. Thereto, the survey plan and the corresponding verbal approval of the design brief were captured.

Local authorities' rights on the site

Before the commencement of the project, the architect made some enquiries about the site and project from Bayelsa State Physical Planning and Development Board [BSPPDB] for the land-use zones and setbacks for that location (zone). In that regard, the architect was able to obtain the setbacks for the mixed-use developments in that area: From the rear site boundary line to the building line should not be less than 3.5metres while for the sides is 2metres respectively Hence, that of the front (the set back from the building line to the access road should not be less than 6metres).

Report on project feasibility

The feasibility study on the project shows the project is structurally and economically viable. It showed that siting the project on an undulating plain and along the road is suitable to lower the cost of construction and the movement of commodities during, and after construction. More so, the client's company will leverage on accessibility of the project site for stocking and marketing of their products.

Spatial requirement

- i. 2 Warehouses ii. Offices iii. Stores iv. Apartments

Consultants required

- i. Land surveyor ii. Quantity Surveyor iii. Structural engineer iv. Services engineer

Challenges arising from the briefing process

One of the encumbrances encountered during the brief process is discussing the brief outside the office environment. This mitigated the architect's ability to convince the client with reliable instruments, and formally sign off the briefing process. To help the client understand the workings of the proposed development, the architect utilized some electronic devices. Another challenge laden with the process is the ignorance of the client as regards the cost of the professional services of Architects and other players of the built environment: This was tackled by enlightening the client with the Conditions of Engagement, Charges and Agreement for the Professional Architect (ARCON Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services, 2016).

Design Stage [DS I]

In this stage, a series of sketches/drawings that illustrate the basic concepts of the design are executed. Also, initial research on local compliance and regulations is completed at this time (Patil, 2024, July 11). This stage captures schematic floor plans of all levels with generic openings, exterior building elevations with representative openings and finishes, building cross-sections, and other preliminary drawings.

Concept design

This phase is about finalizing your research and information gathering as well as developing design options for your client to consider in response to the brief and the information obtained thereof (Admin, February 23, 2024). In other to achieve a functional design, the architect captured planning relationships, intended building form, characteristics, services and layout of the building design.

Site Planning Relationships (Site Components)

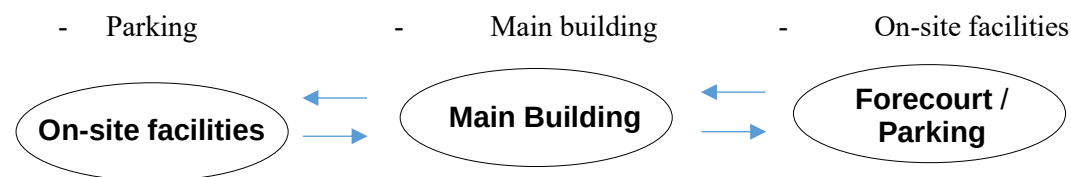


Figure 3: Relationship between the constituting site components

Building Spaces provided

- Warehouse - Circulation areas – Offices – Stores - Apartments – Conveniences

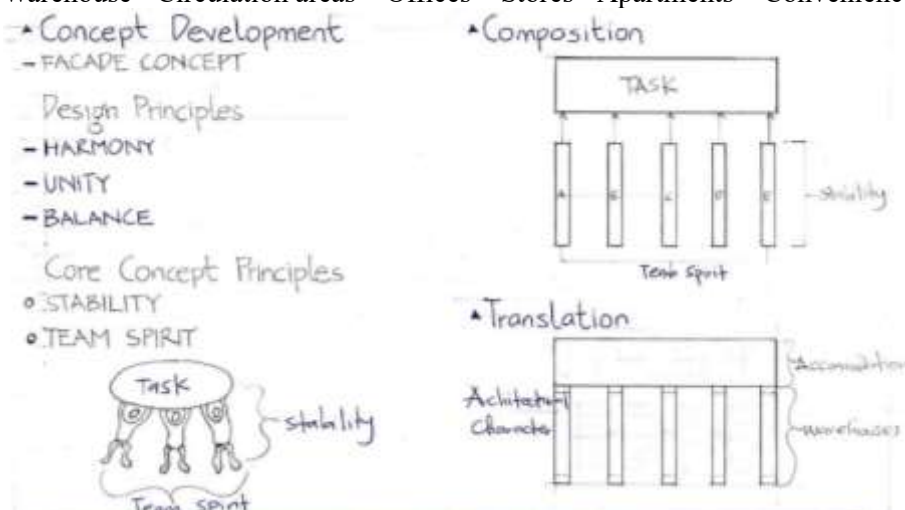


Figure 4: Relationship between the constituting site components

Table 2: Accommodation schedule of the mixed-use development

S/N	SPACES PROVIDED	UNIT	AVERAGE AREA (M ²)
1	Loading Bay	2	15.20
2	Warehouse	4	201.60
3	Store	2	7.50
4	Data room	2	10.00
5	Offices	11	15.90
6	Kitchen	2	15.5
7	File room	4	3.90
8	Conveniences	14	5.00
9	Stair Halls	3	15.20
10	Horizontal circulation areas	1	53.20
	TOTAL	44	343.00

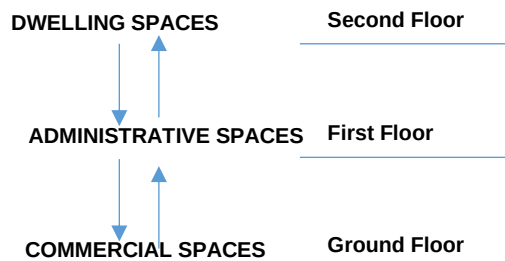


Figure 5: Vertical relationship among floor levels

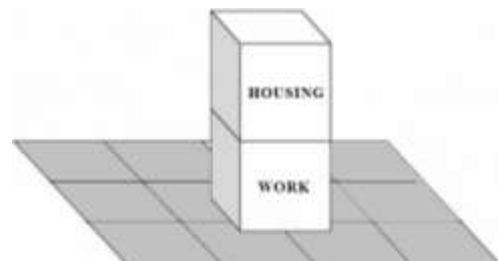


Figure 6: Vertical zones of floor levels

On the ground floor, the space provided is for storing the company products, and the first floor for administrative purposes while the second floor is designed to house some of the resident staff.

Building form

The building form concept is anchored on two qualities, teamwork and stability. These ideas were transformed into an architectural character on the facade where the structural columns (colonnade) on the facade of the building reveal the teamwork needed in any organization.

2.2.5 Challenges arising from lack of proper sign-off of concept design

One of the hurdles encountered in this stage is a poor understanding of the design concept design by the client. This was resolved by carefully discussing each of the design and planning steps/stage with the client. Another challenge was the subjective pattern of the client in terms of decision-making. To control that, the architect evolved graphical illustrations, pictures and videos to communicate ideas to the client.



Figure 7: The relationship between the Architect, Client, and other Consultants

Consultants' selection & coordination

In the project, the client involved other consultants based on the architect's recommendation and advice. However, there was a rough relationship between the architect and other consultants which were selected by the client because of his failure to formally relate the other consultants to us. Owing to the

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

subjectivity of the client, weak submission of some consultants to the Architect's instructions was experienced. To overcome this challenge, the architect diplomatically followed up with the consultants, advising the client on the need to stimulate the synergy amongst the design team tailored towards achieving an integrated design. In addition, there was ineffective delivery by some consultants which was tackled by the coordination and responsiveness of the architect towards the production of the required design concepts.

Design Stage [DS II]

Coordinated Detail Design

This encompasses the development of the design concept in sufficient detail. It involves detailing the site plan and the location of all site structures, graphically defining the construction of the building, spatially coordinating the designs by other consultants and specialists, reviewing the design with the relevant authorities, submitting the project for planning approvals (ARCON Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services, 2016). The client having accepted the concept developed, verbally communicated with the architect to develop the design for the development. In this process, the design concepts were developed taking cognizance of the details involved. Furthermore, the architect involved the services of other consultants to develop their designs. The design encompassed the location plan, site plan, Architectural plans, sections etc.



Figure 8: An exterior perspective of the mixed-use development

During this process, the architect rolled out a comprehensive drawing for the mixed-use development furnished with exterior and interior perspectives.

After developing the designs from the different consultants, the client made some inputs which were incorporated in the design to earn his approval for the next stage.

- **Challenges arising from lack of proper sign-off of the developed design**

The main encumbrance in the design development is the periodic interferences by the client which led to variation. This was handled by regularly advising the client on the implication of some of his desires as regards the building design.

- **Specification writing**

Preparation and issuance of Schedules and Written Specifications are essential deliverables in DS II. However, this was agreed upon by the client without any formal documentation buttressed by the fact that the design team will form the construction team. In this regard, there was the need to access some special notes on assembly, construction and installation processes of which the project consultants evolved model solutions for issues raised in their respective fields.

- **Budget estimates**

Accordingly, data for the preparation of information for the Bills of Quantities (BOQ) are derived from the developed design (ARCON Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services, 2016). Hence, all drawings were coordinated and reconciled with the Bill of Quantities to eliminate discrepancies between drawings and the Bill of Quantities.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

As it demands, after developing the designs the need to estimate the probable cost of realizing the building project arose. The contribution from the other professionals led to the development of the preliminary budgets for the client. Hence, presenting the cost estimate for the project to the client witnessed a reduction in Estimated Total Cost [ETC] by modifying the design to realize the design goal at the most effective cost.

Construction Documentation

During Construction Documentation an all-encompassing and coordinated suite of detailed drawings and documents that will enable a builder or contractor to price and construct the project is developed. Thus, these will be used to lodge a final building approval application and call tenders or negotiate a construction price with a contractor (Admin, February 23, 2024).

This phase covers the preparation of construction drawings, and documents and coordination of construction deliverables by other consultants and specialists. It is in this phase that the selection of appropriate Conditions of Contract for the project is specified. It also entails the determination of appropriate Preliminary Items to suit actual site conditions and project nature (ARCON Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services, 2016).

In this stage, all the developed designs for the mixed-use development were thoroughly scrutinized for discrepancies and developed in consonance with the client. More so, the building code experts ran a thorough check on the code requirements for the mixed-use development including electricity, fire, safety and plumbing as per the compliance guidelines. This Design Stage II [DS II] encompasses the architectural, structural, electrical, and mechanical drawings of the mixed-use development.

- **Building Systems**

- i. **Foundation:** An isolated Pad foundation was adopted for this framed structure. Pad foundations support columns and transmit the loads to the soil evenly.
- ii. **Floor Component:** The reinforced floor slab was finished with non-slip ceramic tiles (600mm x 600mm x 25mm)
- iii. **Wall component:** Machine Molded Sandcrete Masonry wall (blocks) was adopted for the walls. They were rendered with mortar and laid in Ashlar bonding.
- iv. **Roof component:** The roof truss system adopted was the Lattice Truss System (rising/falling struts with posts).

Tendering and Award Stage [TAS]

This stage constitutes guiding and advising the Client as well as coordinating the pre-qualification of contractors, sub-contractors and the invitation of suitable firms to tender (ARCON Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services, 2016).

For this project, the form of tender obtained was based on Selective tendering. Selective tendering allowed different contractors to submit tenders based on recommendations. Thereto, a pre-selected list of possible contractors was prepared owing to their experience in the size, nature and complexity of such a project, of which Urban Construction Services emerged with the successful tender. This selective tendering was chosen for this type of project to cut down on the resources expended in open tendering.

Contract Management

The type of contract adopted to run this project was the Lump sum and Scheduled contract. This contract type is suitable when the number of resources required for a project is limited or when it is possible to work out exact quantities of work to be executed. However, it was adopted to monitor the progress and conduct of the work by the contractor as well as work out the exact qualities of work to be executed owing to scarce resources available. In the Lump sum and Scheduled contract, the contractor was paid at regular intervals of 2-3 months as per the progress of work based on the slated stages (milestones) contained in the conditions of the contract. Lastly, a schedule of rates was also included in the agreement for making payment of extra items.

Construction Stage [CS]

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

This stage is marked by coordination of the contractor's possession of site as well as review/approval of the works programme for a project. It also covers the supervision and coordination of construction works and other consultants' inputs, ensuring adherence to specifications. More so, the co-ordination and presiding of monthly site / technical meetings as well as other site visits are carried out in this stage (ARCON Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services, 2016).

To commence work, the construction drawings and deliverables were handed over to the contractor, followed by possession of the site by the Contractor. As construction works continued, the architect prepared and submitted Quarterly Progress Reports (QPR). Furthermore, he ensured that issued Payment Certificates (APC) and Architects' Site Instructions (ASI) were timely delivered as provided in the conditions of the contract. Lastly, all necessary inspections and works executed on-site were done by drawings/specifications.

Before the practical completion of the project, the designs of the staircase and façade were revised and other additional drawings/details provided were necessary. This stage was characterized by Architects' Material and Component Sample Approvals (AMCSA) and material test approvals. In addition, the architect inspected off-site materials intended for the project at required points as well as attended special meetings and consultations with the client and some members of the project team.

After the practical completion of the project, the defects liability period of the development commenced. Thereafter, the construction team led by the architect ensured making good of all defects. The snag list captured the need to protect the surfaces of the external walls with aluminium wall of panels, to use terrazzo floor finish to protect the floor surface of the warehouses as well as incorporate elements of green architecture in the landscape.

To close out the contract, the key players of the construction team including the client led by the architect toured the mixed-use development to confirm all the items noted in the snag list were addressed accordingly. Hence, processes were characterized by special reports, documentation, inspection of the testing and commissioning of equipment, and collation of relevant technical reports. Having met the desires of the client, the architect requested the quantity surveyor to prepare the final account leading to the handing over of the project to the client on the 27th November, 2015.



Figure 9: The completed mixed-use development



Figure 10: The mixed-use development on 70% completion (finished to roofing)

Post Construction Period [PCP]

This period encompasses project hand over through the defect's liability period up to final account (ARCON Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services, 2016).

During the defects liability period which spanned for 12months (covering rainy and dry season), the mixed-use developments was occupied and utilized for its respective functional activities by the company.



Figure 11: A pictorial view of the company products stocked in the warehouse as well as the stairway during PCP

METHODOLOGY

In this study, the standard Architectural Services Delivery Stages [ASDS] as contained in the Architects Registration Council of Nigeria (ARCON) Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services - Conditions of Engagement, Charges and Agreement for the Professional Architect (ARCON, 2016) was adopted and followed for review of the mixed-use development.

Table 3: A table showing the Architect, and the Project Management Services Delivery Stages

S/N	STAGES	SCOPE
1	Pre-Design Stage [PDS]	From the date of invitation and commission, briefing and articulation of the proposed project to the date of receipt of an instruction to proceed
2	Design Stage [DS I]	From the date of receipt of instructions to proceed until the submission of the final concept design including the preliminary estimated total cost for the Client's Approval and as per the agreed project program. (Schedule 1.1.1 up to 1.2.1 & 1.5, 2 & 3 as applicable)
3	Design Stage II [DS II]	From the date of the Client's approval of the Design, I until the submission of the tender documents for the Client's approval and as per the agreed project program. (Schedule 1.2.2 & 1.5, 2 & 3 as applicable)
4	Tendering and Award [T&A]	From the commencement of the tender process to the award of the contract. (Schedule 1.3 and 1.5, 2 & 3 as applicable)
5	Construction Stage [CS]	From handing over the site to the contractor, issuing of Architects Payment Certificates, completion and acceptance of the Works by the Client, defects Liability Period, issuing of the Practical Completion Certificate, and the Final Payment Certificate. (Schedule 1.4 and 1.5, 2 & 3 as applicable)
6	Post Construction Period [PCP]	Project handover through the defect's liability period up to the final account. (Schedule 2 & 3 as applicable)

Source: (ARCON Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services, 2016)

Hence, the scope of this study spans from the Pre-Design Stage (PDS) to the Post Construction Period [PCP] for the mixed-use development.

Study design

This study is designed to demystify the ASDS of a mixed-use development at Agbura, Bayelsa State. The outcome of this study is a presentation of the challenges that characterized the ASDS stages and how they were addressed. It further recommended ways ASDS should be carried out for similar mixed-use developments.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The design and construction team involved in the project made pivotal inputs from PDS to PCP. Before, and during the ASDS, distinct data were collected and analyzed leading to the complete design and construction of the mixed-use development. In the project, the functional spaces were zoned through the ground to the second floor.

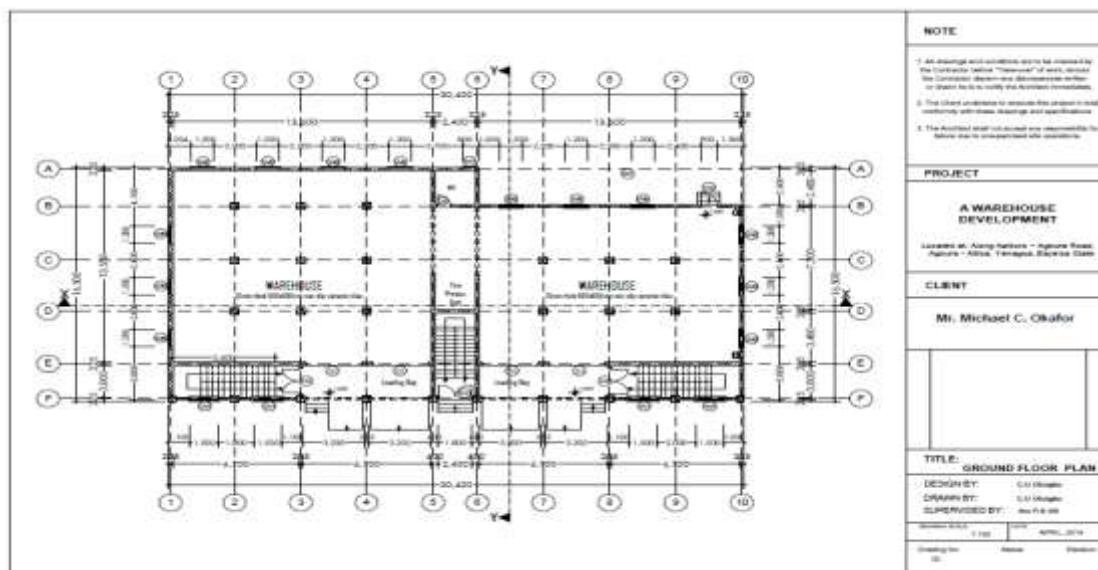


Figure 12: Ground floor plan of the mixed-use development

Lessons Learnt

- During PDS, full comprehension and analysis of the brief are required by the Architect. Sketches, illustrations, drawings, models etc. are some of the instruments that should be utilized in communicating ideas during ASDS.
- Retaining walls are suitable for supporting external foundation walls of projects adjoining creeks or smaller water bodies. Foundation trenches should be dewatered during excavation/construction to optimize project delivery in areas with high water tables.
- It is essential for architects to receive at least 15% as initial payment - Commitment Fee on issuance of letter of Commission and instruction before proceeding with the appraisal, programming and project definition as well as recommend the consultants required in the project during PDS.
- Given ensuring standards are upheld, the design/construction team should be appropriately remunerated. These players should be well coordinated, and recommended by architects were necessary.
- Importantly, clients/developers should be advised to adhere to all building approval and developmental laws applicable in project locations. More so, architects should ensure they supervise the buildings/structures they design.

CONCLUSION

Proper documentation and sign-off of ASDS are essential for administering building contracts. In this project, ASDS was strictly followed right from the development of the design brief to enable the project

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

team articulate the client's desires. More so, the quality and quantity of project deliverables, project duration, and final estimated total cost of the project etc. were spelt out in the conditions of contract. Lastly, at every ASDS, the client's decision was evaluated in view of advising him in the design and construction of the mixed-use development.

Recommendations

- i. The remuneration of architects should be based on the (ARCON) Architectural Consultancy and Project Management Services - Conditions of Engagement, Charges and Agreement for the Professional Architect (ARCON, 2016) to uphold the nobility of the architectural profession.
- ii. Architects should not respond to pressure from clients to sign off PDS without inspecting and analyzing a proposed project site for development as well as ensure testing and ground investigations before commencing the architectural design process.
- iii. Architects should be equipped with practical tools / instruments to properly enlighten the client
- iv. The architectural design process should be marked with intended space provisions based on accommodation requirement, planning relationships, site layout, intended building concept/form, schematic layout, indicating planning relationship, formal sketch floor plans, basic 3-dimensional perspectives, technical and functional characteristics of the design as well as reviewing of sketch plan against the proposed budget.
- v. All consultants involved in a building project should always collaborate during the ASDS for sustainable project delivery, and where necessary the client should be advised on the need for specifications.

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Chapter Four**Reviewing Architectural Technology Curriculum of Polytechnics in Southeast Nigeria: Trajectories towards Sustainable Development***Udochukwu Obiamaka Marcel-Okafor**Federal Polytechnic Nekede, Owerri Imo State, Nigeria**EMAIL: umarcel-okafor@fpno.edu.ng***ABSTRACT**

Concerted efforts to align architectural technology practice in Nigeria with the contemporary practice of Information and Communication Technology (ICT)-driven economies are nascent. A recently reviewed curriculum approved for Polytechnics that offer architectural technology programmes indicates matching efforts in training to conform with international best practices. However, the complex inter-dependencies within practice and training demand co-creation for architectural technology experience to ensure that human habitations are sustainable and functional. This study examined the curriculum to determine factors that ensure the implementation of design principles for a sustainable built environment and assess the level of BIM training architectural technologists received in school and its effects on their practice performances. A survey research design was adopted. Data collected were analyzed using SPSS version 26 to derive percentile, mean scores and regression analysis. The findings revealed that the students displayed significant awareness and implementation of principles of sustainable design, especially at the inception stages of design. The study revealed that 96% of the graduates had acquired some level of BIM proficiency; 56% acquired it from school, while 40% indicated it was acquired in practice after graduation. Results of correlation analysis showed that the correlation between the practice performance of technologists and proficiency in BIM is significant ($p < 0.01$). The paper has empirically shown the gaps between what is taught and the realities of practice and recommends proactive collaboration of identified stakeholders to ensure practical synergy between laudable guidelines in the curriculum and actual implementation on the ground.

KEYWORDS: Sustainable Development; BIM; Architectural technology; Polytechnics; Curriculum

INTRODUCTION

To address the issues of sustainable development in the context of architecture, attention is usually directed to sustainable design which precedes sustainable housing. A beneficial starting point is to reflect on the definitions of these three key concepts; In the 1987 Brundtland Commission sustainable development is defined as ‘development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.’ The core focus of the Brundtland approach speaks to the resource-based elements that address development. Sustainable design, on the one hand, is a combination of procedures that ensures that the built environment attains exceptional levels of ecological stability through innovative and retrofit construction techniques that ultimately aim for enduring viability and humanisation of architecture (Kim & Rigdon, 1998). Three key principles of sustainable design are identified as; Economy of resources, Life cycle design and human design, with the main goal to discover architectural solutions that ensure seamless equilibrium between built and natural environments. On the other hand, Edwards (2005) suggested that sustainable housing is ‘housing that meets the supposed and actual needs of the present in a resource-efficient manner whilst providing attractive, safe and ecologically rich neighbourhoods.’ The crux of the matter lies in the process of efficient utilization of resources to generate physical forms that comprehensively satisfy the present and consider the future. A key element in the implementation of sustainable design principles is the degree to which professionals in the building industry are aware of, and relevant accorded novel suggestions that influence sustainable built environment. This infers that education plays a primary role and creating awareness during the learning stages is pivotal to implementation.

In Nigeria, architectural technology programmes are exclusively offered in polytechnics and colleges of technology, and the certificated architectural technologist is trained to assist the architect, thereby occupying the middle-level manpower position in the architectural practice chain. Even though, the

profession of the architectural technologist has evolved from the earlier draughtsman role to embrace a relatively modern discipline in the UK and other advanced economies (Armstrong & Allwinkle, 2017; Sfintes & Sfintes, 2024). With the entry of building information Modelling (BIM) and the constantly increasing prominence accorded the process, the role of the architectural technologist from the outset of the design process has become indispensable. Hence, to efficiently and strategically compete within the global space, proficiency in BIM is germane. As such, the impact of architectural technology in the nexus of building technicalities and design applications supersedes other professions in the building industry (Emmit, 2009). The capacity of this relatively new discipline to strategically control design about construction processes during the lifespan of buildings reiterates its role in addressing environmental concerns that have plagued the building industry (Armstrong & Allwinkle, 2017).

Yet our distinct economic and socio-cultural characteristics continue to influence the products of the programme, the style of practice, and awareness of emerging societal needs that are peculiar to the Nigerian milieu, while still struggling to conform to global standards. This is particularly so because, architectural practice in Nigeria is influenced on the one hand, by the drive to adopt technologically advanced techniques aimed at providing solutions to existing challenges within the built environment, and on the other hand by constantly emerging socio-economic variables associated with high population growth, urban migration, and the resultant explosions in housing needs. The Southeast zone of the country is the area of study. The zone accounts for 3.2% of the national landmass with a population of approximately 22 million people representing about 12% of the entire national population (National Population Commission, 2020). After Lagos, the southeast zone features the highest population densities and the widest spread of urban migration growth in the country, which helps to explain the preponderance of challenges associated with the built environment that besieges the zone. Advanced building technologies like mass production of pre-fabricated building types, which target efficient mass housing and demand innovative building proposals and technologies that challenge the architectural technologists and promote sustainable design of the built environment are yet to be explored generally in Nigeria and particularly in the southeast region. This is evident in the present construction processes, wherein approximately 90% of structures in the country are still constructed in situ using sandcrete hollow blocks (Raheem, Momoh, & Soyingbe, 2012).

This study is an exploration of the academic curriculum contents of architectural technology programmes in Nigerian polytechnics to assess to what degree students in the graduating class of the Higher National Diploma programme implement sustainable design principles, and the level of BIM training architectural technologists received in school and the effect on their practice performance. The aim is to determine the factors that influence their decisions in practice, which may or may not provoke ecological equilibrium within the built environment. To achieve this aim, the study investigated the course contents of computer courses offered in NBTE-accredited architectural technology departments of polytechnics in Southeast Nigeria and the practice performance of graduates of the schools. The theoretical framework for this study was based on Rostow's Modernization Theory of development which states that development in developing worlds can be attained by imitating the developmental course charted by currently developed nations (Loftness, 2013). This study concentrated on the aspect of education which plays a crucial role in the five stages of modernization propounded in the theory in order to achieve the necessary development (Kasanda, 2016). The results of this empirical study would draw attention to areas of the curriculum that still require necessary attention to attain such developmental targets through emphasis on BIM applications. Again, the results would be beneficial to both regional as well as national development as part of solution strategies for mass housing needs. Furthermore, the results would highlight the prospects and constraints of architectural technology programmes in Nigerian polytechnics to enable practitioners, professionals, educators and stakeholders to make feasible decisions concerning the right course of action beneficial to the Nigerian technological advancement agenda for sustainable development to thrive in the society.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The architectural technology programme is regulated by NBTE, an acronym for National Board for Technical Education. The recently revised NBTE curriculum and course specifications are used as a benchmark for standardising the academic course contents of courses being offered in these technical

institutions (National Board for Technical Education, 2020). A pertinent issue in architectural education has been the nexus between what is taught in schools and the skills required for practice (Opoko & Oluwatayo, 2015; Legeny & Morgenstein, 2018; Singha OBE, 2021; Sasaki Associates, 2024). The transition from traditional drawing tools to the use of Computer Aided Design and Draughting (CADD) has affected the trajectory of training relevant to the architectural technologist. Particularly, since advances in CADD such as building information modelling (BIM) have accentuated the roles architectural technologists play in providing sustainable development within the built environment (Armstrong & Allwinkle, 2017; Uzun & Cakir, 2022; Shahverdi, Mostafavi, Roodkoly, & Zomorodian, 2024). As an extensive approach to design, construction and procedures in the building industry, BIM contains a broad spectrum of models, tools and workflows which are essential to be learned and applied by professionals in the industry (Succar & Sher, 2013; Uzun & Cakir, 2022). In addition, implementation of BIM has the potential to expunge wastages occurring at the inception of design, challenges arising from discordant relationships among professionals that may hinder work progress, as well as create expertise at the design and construction stages (Eadie, Browne, Odeyinka, & Mckeown, 2014). BIM offers robust potential for improvement of procedures of design conception, development, and actualisation of modern structures. Proficiencies with BIM applications hold an indispensable opportunity for technological advancement in the building industry. Hu (2017), observed that the paucity of conversation and empirical data on prevailing building technology brought to light barriers to advancements in sustainable building technologies. Again, Kouider, Salman, and Paterson (2018) revealed from their study, that specific tools taught had a direct link to the area of curriculum with the discipline, noting that AutoCAD/Photoshop and Revit were taught to architecture and architectural technology students, who displayed exceptional abilities in adapting to the BIM software applications. This is particularly relevant since further studies also revealed that because architectural practice in Nigeria has been largely computerised, only the graduates proficient in Computer-aided design and draughting (CADD) are relevant and employed, setting the stage for global competition (Oladapo, 2017; Ezeji, 2017; Maina, 2018).

However, the required innovative building proposals and technologies that challenge the architectural technologists and promote sustainable design of the built environment are yet to be explored generally in Nigeria. Energy consumption is a key index in the economy of resources, and the majority of electricity consumers are concentrated in the building sector with residential buildings accounting for over 70% of total electricity consumption in the country (IAEA, 2014). The country features six distinct ecological zones and the Southeast region is situated within the humid rainforest zone and experiences two major wind patterns. On the one hand is the South Eastern moisture-laden trade wind from the Atlantic Ocean which heralds raining season and is characterised by approximately eight (8) months of heavy rainfall between March and October with a slight break in August. The North Western dust-laden trade winds from the Sahara Desert on the other hand stretch from November to February and heralds the dry season. A clear reduction of energy necessary to cool and light buildings can be achieved by the adoption of eco-friendly design techniques with efficient active systems (Arup (Madrid & Lagos offices), 2010). It is therefore imperative to use active systems that maximise potentials inherent in the eco-climatic patterns of the region. The aim and objectives of the curriculum focus on producing technologists with competence in a wide range of skills and highlight fundamental design principles such as orientation, landscape, spatial arrangements and fenestrations which in the context of the Nigerian environment are key elements that promote sustainable designs. Critical research questions posed therefore are the responsiveness of the curriculum to address evolving urban challenges, and the buoyancy of the curriculum to produce relevant skilled manpower required to proffer sustainable solutions to both existing and emerging challenges.

METHODOLOGY

The survey research design was adopted in this study. Structured questionnaires were used to elicit data from the respondents comprised of the academic staff in the departments, students in the Higher National Diploma (HND) graduating class, the architectural technologists that graduated from the schools and the architectural firms that employ these graduates within Southeast Nigeria. Based on the foregoing, this study adopted the format of the evaluation stated in the literature (Alagbe, Aderonmu, Opoko, Oluwatayo, & Dare-Abel, 2014) in the following format:

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

- The data on CADD proficiency was a three-point rating scale: 1-none (no technical mastery of software package), 2-basic proficiency (elementary technical mastery of software package), 3-expert proficiency (full technical and creative mastery of software package).
- The data variables on the relevance of the course contents were evaluated on a five-point Likert scale: 1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-uncertain, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree.

The first batch of questionnaires administered to the graduating class students concentrated on five key aspects of sustainable design principles that focused on the economy of resources; orientation, fenestration, use of shading devices, preference for locally available building materials, and preference for soft landscape as variables used to measure the students' awareness of sustainable design principles anchored on energy efficiency about the environment. The aim was to discover key aspects of sustainable design principles that the students readily considered in design procedures. The second batch of questionnaires administered to the teaching staff concentrated on assessing the students' proficiencies in BIM applications.

The Southeast zone in Nigeria, which represents the study area, has five polytechnics (research population) spread across five states that constitute the zone. Based on ownership structure, three (3) out of the five (5) polytechnics are owned by the Federal Government, while the remaining two (2) are owned by respective State Governments wherein the Polytechnics are domiciled. Owing to this heterogeneous structure, stratified random sampling was adopted in defining the samples of this research population (Kothari, 2012). Two (2) homogenous groups comprising the State-owned institutions and the Federal-owned institutions were derived. A random sample was drawn in the ratio 1:2 for the State and Federal schools.

From the pilot survey conducted to investigate the number of teaching staff in the sampled polytechnics, the result revealed that the three polytechnics had a total number of forty (40) academic staff and one hundred and forty (140) students in the final level of the HND programme. Abia State had a total of eleven (11) academic staff on roll; however, the information from the pilot survey in the department, revealed that 3 out of this number were on leave of absence for further studies; hence the department was left with 8 academic staff. Federal Polytechnic Nekede had a total of fifteen (15) academic staff, and Federal Polytechnic Oko had a total of fourteen (14) academic staff. The sample size reflects the number of positive responses, and not necessarily the number of questionnaires distributed; which is often augmented to make allowance for non-response (Taherdoost, 2017). Hence, thirty-seven (37) copies of structured questionnaires were proportionately administered to the academic staff in the three departments that constituted the entire sample size for the polytechnics.

The study adopted the approach based on precision rate and confidence level which availed it of a mathematical solution for determining sample size ' n ' (Kothari, 2012). Hence using the Yamane's simplified formula to calculate sample size with 95% precision level ' e ' and the population size ' N ', the sample size was determined as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

The total number of students in the graduating class of the Higher National Diploma (HND) programme which forms the population size ' N ' is 140 students. Applying the above formula, a sample size of 104 students was derived. However, with an allowance of 5% given for envisaged low response, a total of 109 copies of the questionnaires at the rate of 36 copies per department were administered to the students in the three polytechnics.

From the pilot survey conducted to observe the number of HND graduates from each school in each year spanning six (6) years, the total number of HND graduates was 358 graduates which formed the population size ' N '. To determine the size of the sample (n) from the research population of the graduates, the study adopted the aforementioned mathematical (Equation 1). Where; ' n ' is the sample size, ' N ' is the population size, and ' e ' is the level of precision. However, not all the graduates are

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

working in firms within the study area and not all are working under registered firms. Therefore, an assumption of 50% of the total number of HND graduates (179 graduates) is used to determine the population size 'N'. Applying the above formula as follows;

$$n = \frac{179}{1 + 179(0.05)^2} = \frac{179}{1.4475} = 123.661 \approx 124 (2)$$

Hence, 124 copies of the questionnaire representing the sample size, were supposed to be administered to the technologists, however, with an allowance of 5% given for the envisaged low response, a total of 130 copies of the questionnaire were administered to the HND graduates in practice within the five states that constitute the study area. This was done according to first contact basis which was obtained from the list of graduate members registered with the respective state chapters of the Nigerian Institute of Architects (NIA), and some were sent as softcopies via their email address.

The size of the sample 'n' for the last research population (the employers) was based on desired accuracy with a population percentage or variability of 50%, a confidence level of 95%, and a 5% margin of error (Gill, Johnson, & Clark, 2010) in (Taherdoost, 2017). Gill et al. (2010) presented sample size appropriate for specified permutations of precision, confidence levels and a population percentage or variability of 50%. Hence, the study adopted 63 registered architectural firms as the sample size. However, owing to the uneven spread of the firms across the study area, copies of the questionnaire were randomly administered to 3 firms in Abia State, 5 firms in Anambra State, 43 firms in Enugu State and 12 firms in Imo State. The data collected were analysed at three levels: the univariate level which involved frequency distribution analysis using descriptive techniques. The second level was the bivariate analysis, wherein the correlations among the variables were established. The third and final level was the multivariate, wherein regression analysis was carried out. The government-owned polytechnics domiciled in each of the five states that make up the Southeast zone offer NBTE-accredited architectural technology programmes as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Polytechnics that offer architectural technology programme in Southeast Nigeria

Name of Institution	Location	Date of Establishment	Date architecture programme commenced	HND	Ownership
Institute of Management and Technology, Enugu	Enugu State	1973	2002		State
Federal Polytechnic, Nekede, Owerri	Imo State	1978	1982		Federal
Akanu Ibiam Federal Polytechnic, Unwana-Afikpo	Ebonyi State	1981	1985		Federal
Federal Polytechnic Oko	Anambra State	1982	1987		Federal
Abia State Polytechnic, Aba	Abia State	1992	2008		State

Source: Fieldwork 2020

RESULTS

Results from the analysis carried out captured key aspects that address sustainable design that are critical to the climatic conditions of the region. The results of demographic data showed that the largest proportion of respondents (36%) were students from Federal Polytechnic Nekede, respondents from Abia State Polytechnic represented 33% of the total proportion, while the remaining 31% came from Federal Polytechnic Oko.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Half of the total proportion of respondents spread across the polytechnics rated the importance of orientation from the outset of their design process above the average mark. One-quarter (25%) of respondents marked average, while the remaining respondents (22%) marked below average. Over two-thirds of the total proportion of respondents rated the importance of numbers and placement of windows from the outset of their design process from the average mark and above. While close to one-quarter (24%) of respondents marked below average. Close to one-third of the total proportion of respondents rated the importance of the provision of shading devices in design at the average mark (50% - 60%). However, a greater proportion of the respondents were below average. On preference for use of locally available building materials, respondents were evenly divided by their views. Results of the analysis further revealed that over two-thirds of the responses indicated a higher preference for soft landscapes.

Basic data related to the respondents as academic staff of the respective departments and lecturers of the students that graduated were obtained and presented in this section. The extent of the responses across available categories was specified as aggregated data obtained from the departments of the sampled Polytechnics and presented in percentages (%) as follows:

The results of the analysis of aggregated data on *Relevance of course contents in computer courses (RCCP)* revealed that two-thirds (66.6%) of the respondents agreed that the course contents in Computer courses are relevant to practice. However, the remaining one-third of the respondents comprised the group that was uncertain about the relevance of the course contents and the group that disagreed on the relevance of course contents in computer courses to practice as illustrated in Figure 1.

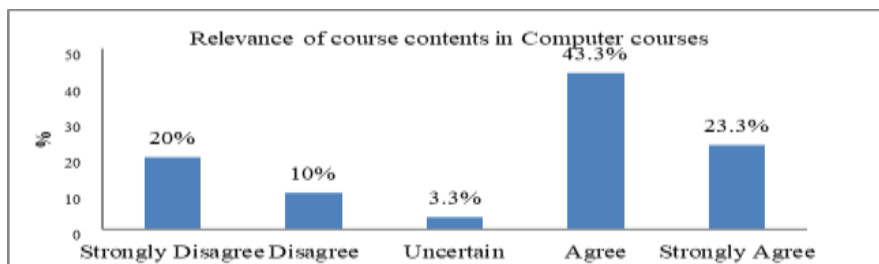


Figure 1: Relevance of Course Contents of Computer Courses

The results of the analysis of data on the *Style of Studio draughting* in the firms showed that over two-thirds of the firms where the respondents practised, operated with solely contemporary computer workstations, while the remaining proportion of respondents which constituted less than one-third of the total proportion practised in firms that adopted both the traditional drawing tables and computer workstations as style of draughting in the studios as shown in Figure 2. This revealed a general shift in favour of the contemporary style of studio draughting amongst the architectural firms where the respondents practised.

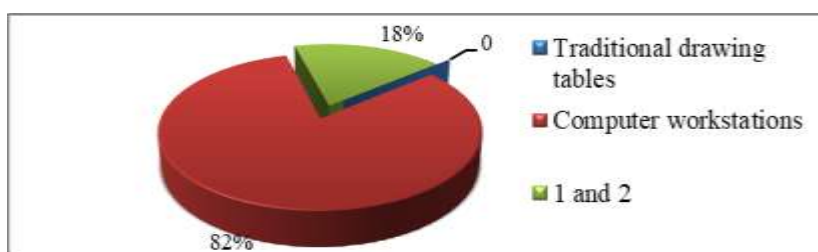


Figure 2: Style of Studio Draughting in the Firms

The results of aggregated data on *Criteria for employing architectural technologists (CFE)* show that more than two-thirds of respondents (80.3%) considered both the certificate and proficiency in Computer Aided Design and Draughting (CADD) as qualifying criteria for employing the technologists. However, the remaining proportion which was less than one-third of the respondents comprised of those

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

that considered the HND certificate alone (4.9%) as the qualifying criteria for employing the technologists, those that considered proficiency in CADD alone (1.6%), as well as those that considered other attributes such as strength of communication among others in addition to certificate and CADD proficiency (13.1%) as qualifying criteria for employing the technologists.

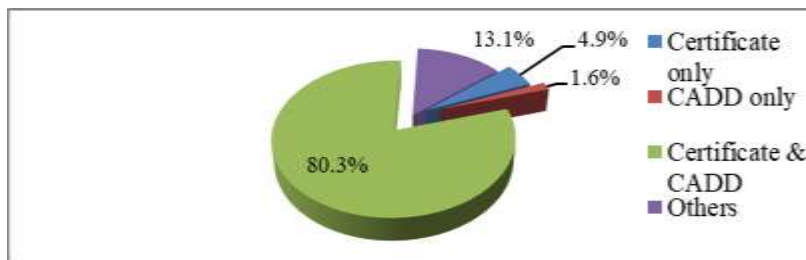


Figure 3: Criteria for employing architectural technologists in the firms

The results of aggregated data on *Graduates' proficiency in using AutoCAD (PAU)* showed that close to two-thirds of the respondents stated that the employed graduates exhibited basic proficiency in the use of AutoCAD. Close to one-third of the respondents reported that the graduates displayed expert proficiency in using the application. However, the remaining proportion of the respondents which was not up to one-tenth of the total respondents were of the view that the employed graduates did not display proficiency in the use of the software application as shown in Figure 4.

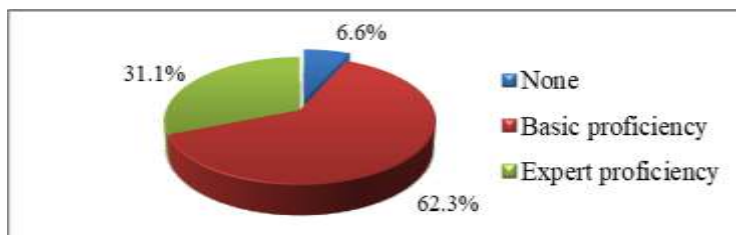


Figure 4: Graduates' proficiency in using AutoCAD

The variable *Graduates' proficiency level in using ArchiCAD (PAR)* was investigated. Results revealed that more than half of the respondents (54.1%) stated that the employed graduates exhibited basic proficiency in the use of ArchiCAD, while less than half of the respondents (41%) reported that the employed graduates displayed expert proficiency in using the application. However, the least proportion comprised barely one-twentieth of the respondents (4.9%), were of the view that the graduates employed did not demonstrate proficiency in the use of the application. This is shown in Figure 5.

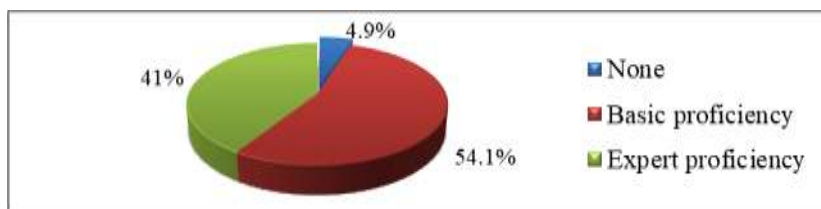


Figure 5: Graduates' proficiency in using ArchiCAD

The results of the analysis of aggregated data on *Graduates' proficiency level in using Revit (PRE)* showed that close to half of the respondents (47.5%) stated that the graduates employed exhibited basic proficiency, while 34.4% displayed expert proficiency in the use of Revit. Close to one-fifth of the respondents that remained were of the view that the graduates employed did not display any proficiency in the use of the software application as illustrated in Figure 6.

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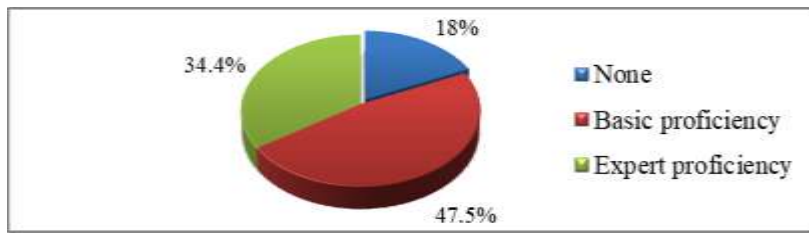


Figure 6: Graduates' proficiency in using Revit

In the bivariate analysis, two weighted variables: *Practice performance of technologists (PPT)* and *Proficiency in CADD software (PCS)* were investigated and the Spearman Rho correlation analysis tool was used to test the significant relationship. The result of the analysis showed that the correlation between the variables is significant ($p < 0.01$) as illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2: Spearman Rho correlation analysis of the relationship between Practice performance of technologists (PPT) and Proficiency in CADD software (PCS)

		Proficiency in CAD software
Practice performance of students	Pearson Correlation	.371**
	P-Value	.003
	N	61
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)		

For the regression analysis of the Practice performance of technologists, the categorical regression (CATREG) analysis tool was used to investigate the interactions between the dependent variable Practice performance of technologists and the following independent variables; Proficiency in using AutoCAD (PAU); Proficiency in using ArchiCAD (PAR);

Proficiency in using Revit (PRE) thereby characterise their relationship. The variables were introduced using the forced entry method into the model. The results revealed those whose contributions were significant in affecting the dependent variable. The result of the model summary as illustrated in Table 3 showed that the model explains 49.2% of the residual variation ($R^2 = .492$, $R^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .348$).

Table 3: Model Summary for dependent variable Practice performance of technologists (PPT)

	Multiple R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Apparent Prediction Error
Standardized Data	.701	.492	.348	.508

The results for ANOVA were likewise outputted for the entry of variables as illustrated in Table 4. The results of the analysis showed that there was a significant correlation of the dependent variable with all independent variables collectively. ($F(13, 46) = 3.425$, $p < 0.5$)

Table 4: ANOVA results for dependent variable Practice Performance of technologists (PPT)

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	29.513	13	2.270	3.425	.001
Residual	30.487	46	.663		
Total	60.000	59			

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

The results of regression coefficients revealed the level of significance of each individual variable. As shown in Table 5, the independent variable Proficiency in using ArchiCAD (PAR) was found to have a significant correlation with Practice Performance of technologists (PPT).

Table 5: Regression Coefficients table for Practice Performance of technologists (PPT)

Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients		df	F	Sig.
	Beta	Bootstrap (1000) Estimate of Std. Error			
Proficiency in using AutoCAD	.178	.117	2	2.318	.110
Proficiency in using ArchiCAD	.209	.107	2	3.809	.029
Proficiency in using Revit	.112	.147	2	.585	.561

DISCUSSIONS

This study has empirically shown that the importance ratings indicated by the students reflect the extent of their awareness of the basic principles of sustainable design and by extension the degree to which they are likely to implement such principles. The CADD software apps were limited to three and the proficiency ratings showed a prevalence of basic knowledge, which is more critical in the State-owned polytechnic. It further revealed that there is a significant relationship between the practice performance of graduates and proficiency in CAD software. This has also been cited in literature that technology, particularly computers and information systems, plays a critical role in most work environments. The findings also support previous studies that revealed that only graduates proficient in CAD are sought after and employed (Oladapo, 2017; Ezeji, 2017; Maina, 2018).

The result of the analysis showed that the correlation between the practice performance of technologists (PPT) and proficiency in CADD software (PCS) is significant ($p < 0.01$). The implication is that the practice performance of technologists within the study area increased with an increase in proficiency in CADD software. It also supports the results of correlations presented by Hamma-Adama and Kouider (2018) and the standpoint that the higher the software sophistication, the higher the proficiency level of training received and acquired by students. The aggregated data findings on variables: Proficiency in using AutoCAD (PAU); Proficiency in using ArchiCAD (PAR) and Proficiency in using Revit (PRE) which represented graduates' proficiencies in computer software applications revealed that the larger number of graduates exhibited basic proficiency in all three software packages used in the assessment. This supports the standpoint that specific tools taught were directly connected to the area of the curriculum with the discipline (Kouider, Salman, & Paterson, 2018). This reveals a gap in the curriculum contents of computer courses taught. Furthermore, the area-wise analysis of graduates' overall proficiency in using AutoCAD revealed that 62.3% of the graduates displayed basic proficiency and 31.1% displayed expert proficiency. The area-wise analysis of graduates' overall proficiency in using ArchiCAD showed that 54.1% of the graduates displayed basic proficiency and 41% displayed expert proficiency. The results of area-wise analysis of graduates' overall proficiency in using Revit showed that 47.5% displayed basic proficiency and 34.4% displayed expert proficiency. However, a notable 18% of the graduates displayed no proficiency in using Revit. The implication is that a preponderance of graduates displayed expert proficiency in using ArchiCAD, while the majority also displayed basic proficiency in using AutoCAD. This is in agreement with findings of correlations between the use of CAD in design studio/assignments and attained CAD proficiency among students (Ezeji, 2017).

Implication to practice and recommendations

However, the learning outcomes used as variables for this study did not emphasise the quest for a technologically advanced skillset as a prerequisite for accomplishing the tasks. Yet, the architectural technologist works within a sector characterised by constantly evolving technical developments, and equally emerging social factors that demand continuous technological advancements. Technically advanced design process tools such as building information modelling (BIM) have been identified as relevant tools to pilot the challenging situation and provide the required services (Armstrong & Allwinkle, 2017). In light of the current conditions, the study recommends;

1. Adequate provisions of computer software packages recently prescribed in the revised curriculum in the departments and subsequent regular training of the staff in appreciation and application of the packages. The departments need to acquire original versions of these applications to avail the staff and students of the opportunity to use the original copies. The adoption of these software packages, particularly BIM, enhances the digitalisation of design and construction methods which is needed to foster accelerated and efficient delivery of building products and processes.
2. Adoption of customized workstations for students in the HND level of the programme, which will accommodate a laptop and personal items. This is intended to enable departments to completely transition from traditionally equipped studios to contemporary teaching and learning environments. This will also reduce the overall volume of space which traditional drawing tables occupy and provide the studios with lean interior furnishings. Especially since there are varied software programmes available and obtainable, for freehand sketching skills, which has been at the core of arguments by proponents of the traditional drawing methods. This is crucial because to prepare the students for professional practice, and global competition, it is only appropriate that architectural technology design studios at HND level should reflect the working environment obtainable in practice.

CONCLUSION

In this study, a theoretical balance was struck between normative perspectives derived from adoptions by different interest groups concerning principles guiding practice that encourage palpable sustainable products and actual practice performances that target global competitiveness. With the increased prominence accorded building information modelling (BIM) tools, it is expedient that the entire academic process encompassing staff, students and, learning environment be ICT-compliant. This has been explicitly demonstrated in the recently revised curriculum. However, the successful implementation and the resultant effect on the performance of the graduates demand a concerted effort from the entire academic environment. Hence, with this study as a foundation, further research activities can be pursued in other zones of the country, with deeper insights into other aspects of sustainable design principles, as findings could help develop standards for performance measurements for architectural technologists across Nigeria.

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PART 2: Greening Building, Innovative Materials and Technology; Skills Development and Labor Output in Construction

Chapter Five**Influence Of School Built Environment, Study Habits and Peer Pressure on Academic Performance among Junior Secondary School Students in Gwale Local Government Area of Kano State, Nigeria*****Hamza Basiru Kassim***

Department of Educational Psychology, Sa'adatu Rimi College of Education, Kumbotso, Kano State, Nigeria

EMAIL: Hamzybk@gmail.com**ABSTRACT**

This study investigated the relationship between study habits and peer pressure on academic performance among junior secondary school students in Gwale Local Government Area of Kano State, Nigeria. Two objectives with corresponding research questions and hypotheses guided the study. The study employed an ex post facto design. The population was 9649 junior three secondary school students of Gwale Local Government Area. The sample comprised 103 males and 267 female junior three students making a total of 370. The data was collected through Ifeyinwa's (2015) Peer Group Pressure Scale, Bakare's (1977) Study Habit Inventory (SSHI), Tleukena, Turkyilmaza, Ungera, Tokazhanova, El-Thaljid, Mostafae, Guneya, and Karacaa's (2022) Building and Environment Inventory, and the Unified Terminal Examination (Kano Senior Secondary Management Board, 2020/2021, Second Term Academic Session). The validity for the instruments included face and content validity for the two scales, and concurrent validity for the test (0.965), (0.975) and ($r = 0.819$) respectively; the reliability procedure included internal consistency reliability for the scales as well as test-retest reliability for the test ($\alpha = 0.807$), ($\alpha = 0.862$), and ($r = 0.922$), respectively. Pearson -r and the analysis was computed at 0.05 probability level. The findings indicated a significant positive relationship between study habits and academic performance at $r = +.164$. Also, the findings indicated a significant positive relationship between the built environment and academic performance at $r = +.401$. However, a significant negative relationship between peer pressure and academic performance was found at $r = -.613$. It was concluded that study habits, built environment and peer pressure both have significantly impacted academic performance. It was recommended that teachers and school administrators from time to time should ensure that they educate their children on study habits. Thus, students are encouraged to read for some hours, to make their notes and to practice group study which will greatly help them in their studies.

KEYWORDS: Study habits; Peer pressure; School-built environment; Academic performance.

INTRODUCTION

Academic performance has largely depended upon practice as it makes perfect. However, there appears to be less time given to studying or reading notebooks/texts, less concentration while taking the instructions and a lack of note-making behaviour. These may lead to significant setbacks in the academic performance among the junior students. The importance of study habits cannot be overemphasized, because everything is buried in study habits e.g., information, knowledge, philosophy, wisdom, and technology. In general, it is difficult to find any academic activity that does not require study skills. Specifically, learning involves reading, writing, and concentration is a visual process of great importance to students' learning. Time is a precious resource for accomplishing a task and utilizing it is what is referred to as management. It also refers to the techniques and strategies that individuals use to utilize and maximize their work such as note-taking while taking lectures or reading texts. As examinations approach, some students become depressive and concerned. Carefully prepare by organizing study style to review the accomplished topic materials and attempt to answer some recent past question papers to prevent depression and concern. Learners may also learn certain things through personal one-to-one teacher-student interaction is very important. In this, not only do the students contact the teacher over the areas of difficulty but ask for his guidance and reference for further reading. Homework and assignments are part of the subject contents which learners should know. Teachers may give homework for practising what has been recently taught in the mainstream or as diagnostic learning

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to slower learners. Also, assignments are given to encourage self-discovery in projected learning or serve as a means of time management, etc. It also covers what students have to do as learning activities after the class hours as assigned by the instructors. In line with these, the school-built environment, which includes the physical surroundings of a student's school and home, plays a significant role in shaping their academic outcomes. Schools with well-structured facilities such as adequate classrooms, libraries, and learning materials create an enabling environment for students to thrive academically. On the other hand, schools with poor infrastructure and overcrowded classrooms can hinder students' learning experiences, resulting in lower academic performance (Akomolafe & Adesua, 2016). Similarly, the home environment, including space for studying and access to necessary resources, directly impacts a student's ability to focus and perform well in school (Ajayi, 2014).

On the other hand, peer relations in the form of student-student relationships are natural at home and at schools and are one of the agencies of socialization. By nature, adolescents feel more comfortable and relaxed among themselves than with their parents or teachers. Peer relationships are guided by certain norms and values which are relatively acceptable to the majority or dominant members of the group. Thus, peers can cause a member to act against his will, regardless of the benefit or otherwise of the actions. Academic performance is the numerical score of a student's knowledge, which measures the degree of a student's adaptation to academic work and education. To be more specific, academic performance in this study refers to the performance of the students in the form of numerical scores as will be obtained in an examination or test. E.L Thorndike (1874-1949), in the trial-and-error theory of learning otherwise known as stimulus-response theory, formulated three laws which were later revised into four. (a) The law of readiness: This law indicates that preparatory adjustments in terms of phonological awareness and some basic grammatical knowledge are essential for the student's reading development and, thus, are a necessary condition for proper reading performance. Therefore, learners have to first discover how to decode the structures (e.g., symbols, tenses or negations) with its set of rules which learners must discover too for themselves and apply for them to gain access to meanings and comprehension. (b) The law of exercise: A second language learner's newly acquired reading skills or ability becomes well internalized through practice and drill. On the contrary, lack of exposure to practice and drill may result in the ill-production of phonetic representations and meanings. (c) The law of effect: The reading text's features that give access to meanings (with their uncomplicated forms and structures) are favourable to reading habit, because, the reading process is satisfaction. In turn, this aids comprehension and memory. On the other hand, deviations and complexities of the text's forms disrupt the process and stagnate proper expressions of stress and intonation, resulting in incorrect pronunciations and meanings as well as faulty comprehension. Therefore, this may impair the performance of academic reading.

Walberg's (1981) theory of educational productivity is an empirically tested theories of school learning based on the extensive review and integration of over 3,000 students (Diperna, volpe & Stephen, 2002). The theory assumes that nine factors affect academic performance, and these factors are systematically grouped into three groups: Aptitude (ability, development and motivation); instruction (amount and quality); and environment (home, classroom, peers and television). According to them, the factors were based on affective, cognitive, and behavioural skills for the optimization of learning that affect the quality of academic performance. This theory suggests that the home, the environment and peers, among other factors, can affect the academic performance of students. For example, peer pressure is more likely to provide an environment that is suitable or otherwise for academic success. Also, parents who are involved okay are more likely to support their children's studies.

Literature has revealed the importance of study habits to students' positive performance in academic learning. For example, Nair and Kulkarni (2020) examined study habits and its impact on secondary school students' academic performance in English in Kalaburgi Region. The study was correlational design. The population was the 9th standard students of Kalaburgi region in the academic year 2019-20 which were in 222 numbers. A sample was 65 students who were selected through purposive technique. Data were collected from documentation (students' English mid-term scores) and a questionnaire Study Habits Inventory (SHI). Descriptive statistics and Pearson Product moment correlation were used to analyse the data. The result revealed that there was a positive correlation between study habits and

academic performance in English. It was recommended that teachers and parents collaboratively guide students on how to develop good study habits; thereby enhancing their academic performance.

In the same vein, Munir (2022) studied the relationship between students' study habits and academic performance in Biology among secondary schools in Katsina Metropolis. The study was correlational research design. The population of the study covered all public secondary schools in Katsina Metropolis with a total population of 11,103 Biology students. A simple random technique was used in selecting 60 students. The Students' Study Habit Inventory and an achievement test were adopted, validated and subjected to pilot testing with reliability coefficients of 0.76 and 0.84 respectively. PPMCC were used for the analysis. The study revealed that there is a significant relationship between the students' study habits and academic performance in Biology among secondary schools in Katsina Metropolis. Based on this study it's recommended that the parents should be enlightened on the importance of their involvement in the improvement of their children's study habits toward their academic performance.

Moreover, John and Bulus (2020) investigated the study habits of secondary school science students in the Jalingo Metropolis, Taraba State, Nigeria. The study was correlational research design. The sample of the study was 199 students selected from 5 secondary schools through simple random sampling. Data for the study were generated through a questionnaire, named Science Students Study Habit Questionnaire (SSSHAQ). The face, content, and construct validity of the SSSHAQ were done with a reliability index of 0.92. Descriptive statistics of frequency counts, mean, and product-moment coefficient of correlation were used for data analysis. The study revealed that the secondary school science students in the Jalingo Metropolis had poor study habits and weak academic performance. The study also found a strong positive, high and significant correlation between study habits and academic performance of secondary school science students. It is thus recommended that teachers, parents, guardians and the school management should collaboratively guide students on how to develop good study habits. Sasi and Anju (2020) examined a correlation between study habits and the academic achievement of high school pupils in a nominated school at Alappuzha District, Kerala. A descriptive survey was conducted. The study was carried out with 180 high school pupils in the age group of 13-16 years who were studying in 8th, 9th and 10th standards and the sampling technique was probability disproportionate stratified random sampling. Disproportionate stratified random selection was used to pick out 10 males and 10 females from each division. Information was collected by using the socio-demographic questionnaire, Modified Mukhopadhyaya and Sansanwal's Study Habits Inventory and the review of previous year progress reports served as academic performance. The results showed that there was a substantial positive correlation between study habits and the academic achievements of high school pupils. Hence, the study judged that a rise in study habits score will also raise the academic achievement score among high school pupils.

More so, Eremie and Achi (2020) examined the relationship between study habits and academic performance of public secondary students in Etche Local Government Area, Rivers State. The correlation research design was adopted with a population of 540 public secondary school students, out of which 225 were drawn as the sample size from the target population. A self-structured questionnaire with a validity and reliability index of 0.65 was used. The hypotheses were analyzed using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences at a 0.05 level of significance. The results reveal that there was a significant relationship between study habits and academic performance. Both note-taking and time management were related to the academic performance of the students. Therefore, recommended that every public school should at least employ one counselor who will guide students on how best to go by their study habits in school.

In a more pivotal study, Jonas Grace (2019) investigated 8 measures or subscales of study habit as predictors of academic achievement in Chemistry. The population of this study comprised all the SSII chemistry students and of the 56 public senior secondary schools in the Federal Capital Territory (FCT). Stratified by random sampling to select 601 students who participated in the study. The instruments used for data collection were the Students' Study Habit Inventory (SSHI) of Bakare (1977), and the Chemistry Achievement Test (CAT) developed by the researchers. Reliability coefficients of 0.78, and 0.81, were obtained using Cronbach coefficient Alpha, respectively. The data collected were analyzed using mean, standard deviation and multiple regression analysis. The finding revealed that the students

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

were generally, practicing study habits that may be adjudged fair except in some areas like teacher consultation. Students' study habits significantly and positively contribute to students' academic achievement in chemistry.

On the other hand, Oluremi (2019) investigated the learning environment and peer pressure as correlates of academic aspirations among senior secondary school students in Mubi North Local Government Area, Nigeria. The population of the study comprised of secondary school students in Mubi North Local Government. A sample size of 400 students was chosen from four secondary schools by stratified sampling technique. A questionnaire titled Learning Environment and Peer Pressure Questionnaire (LEPPQ) was adapted from Shamaki (2015) and Jack and Gamnajok (2017). A reliability coefficient of 0.88 was obtained. The findings of the study showed that there is a significant relationship between peer pressure and academic achievement; it was recommended that the government should improve the condition of classrooms by providing electric fittings besides renovations of schools and students should endeavour to form or join groups that are study inclined so that learning would be effective and instructional materials.

In addition, Tetteh, Asenso, Ansah, Kanamitie, Karikari, Lah, Sackey and Obeng (2021) examined the effects of peer pressure on the academic performance of student-teachers of S.D.A. College of Education, Asokore - Koforidua. A purposive sample was employed to select the level 200 students of the S.D.A. College of Education for the study because they were the only students on campus at the time of the survey. On the effects of peer pressure on student-teachers academic performance, the study established that most student-teachers learn better when their peers help them.

In the same vein, Segun and Ajasin (2021) investigated peer pressure and its psychological effect on the academic performance of students in Akoko North East Local Government Area, Ondo State, Nigeria. The population consists of both male and female students. A simple random technique was used to draw a sample which consisted of 120 secondary school students from three public secondary schools. The instrument used for data collection was a questionnaire. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Based on the findings, the researcher discovered that peer pressure does not necessarily mean negative influence, it can also be positive influence, also the kind of peers a student keeps or moves with can influence his attitude, learning and academic performance. The recommendations made include that parents should encourage their children to have friends that would have a positive influence on their learning, both at home and in school. Teachers should also pay attention towards encouraging peer group activities in schools, especially in the area of group discussion.

Moreover, Moldes, Biton, Gonzaga, and Moneva (2019) investigated students' peer pressure and their academic performance in Jagobiao National High School, Mandaue City. The population was the students in the Senior High School. The students in Jagobiao National High School are the respondents for this research to collect data. This survey focuses on the Grade 12 Senior High School Students in Jagobiao National High School. The respondents were 96. Chi-square was used to analyze the data. The results indicated that several factors related to peer pressure affected students' academic performance in school. This suggests that peer pressure does not have a negative impact directly on students toward their peers. Generally, students are expected to face the effects of peer pressure optimistically to cope with the negative impact of peer pressure in their studies. Students may use positive or negative approaches towards peer pressure. Thus, teachers may guide and help them in facing the problems.

Statement of the Problem

Observation specifically in Gwale Local Government Area of Kano has shown that there is poor academic performance in some of the students' terminal examinations and this perhaps has to do with their ineffective study habits and peer pressure. The worst part of it, even among sharp students, lack of time management skills, concentration skills, homework and assignment skills, written work skills, examination skills, and teacher consultation skills are rampant.

Poor academic performance may also lie at the root of the pressure put by the peers on the members to make noise in the class, bully one another, mock the teacher, roam around the school, go to the toilet in groups, smoke, or make girlfriends. Some of the possible reasons for poor learning and low

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

performances in the terminal exams, and in the long run, the mass failure in academic performance in the standardized tests such as National Examination Council, West African Examination Council or Joint Admission and Matriculation Board are assumed to be built environment, poor study habits and peer pressure. Therefore, the study sought the following objectives:

1. Examine the relationship between study habits and academic performance among junior three secondary school students of Gwale Local Government Area.
2. Examine the relationship between peer pressure and academic performance among three secondary school students of Gwale Local Government Area.
3. Examine the relationship between the built environment and academic performance among three secondary school students of Gwale Local Government Area.

Research Hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between study habits and academic performance among junior three secondary school students of Gwale Local Government Area.

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between peer pressure and academic performance among junior three secondary school students of Gwale Local Government Area.

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between school-built environment and academic performance among junior three secondary school students of Gwale Local Government Area.

METHODS

It was an ex post facto research design which is used to find out simple cause-and-effect relationships, (Kassim, 2020). Study subjects include all junior three secondary school students of Gwale Local Government Area who were in the academic year of 2022/2013.

The population enrolment of junior secondary school three students is 1,4494 of which 5,877 were male and 8,617 were female. A multistage cluster sampling technique was employed. In the first stage, the schools were clustered by type: boys' schools, girls' schools, and coeducational schools within public secondary schools in Gwale Local Government Area of Kano state. A proportionate random sample was used in selecting the schools by the use of the hat-and-draw method. In the second stage, a simple random sampling technique was also used to select a class from a set of classes with a school. In the third stage, in each of the selected classes of the junior secondary school three, a systematic sampling technique was used to select the subjects. Four data collection instruments were used: Bakare's (1977) Study Habit Inventory (SSHI) is 45 items posed as direct questions within 8 sub-scales covering: 1). Homework and assignment, 2) Time allocation, 3) Reading and note taking, 4) Study period procedure, 5) Concentration, 6) Written work, 7) Examination, and 8) Teacher consultation.

Ifeyinwa's (2015) Peer Group Pressure Scale is a self-report instrument measuring the peer pressure of the peer group. The Scale contains 20 items and is a 4-point Likert Scale requiring students to respond to each item with a single response: Strongly Agree (SA) 4, Agree (A) 3, Disagree (D) 2, Strongly Disagree (SD) 1.

Building and Environment Inventory of Tleukena, Turkyilmaza, Ungera, Tokazhanova, El-Thaljid, Mostafae, Guneya, and Karacaa, (2022) is a self-report instrument measuring Health and safety in the built environment of the home environment. It was adapted and the word 'home' was replaced with 'school' to match the objective of the study. The Scale contains 16 items and is a 5-point Likert Scale requiring students to respond to each item with a single response: Agree (TA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D), and Disagree (TD).

In addition, the Unified Terminal Examination (UTE) was used to measure the participants' academic performance. It is developed by the Kano State Senior Secondary Management Board under the Department of Junior Secondary Schools, and an English Language UTE for the Second Term of the

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

2016/2017 Academic Session was adapted for the study. All the tools used were validated in the context of the study.

RESULTS

Hypotheses One: There is no significant relationship between study habits and academic performance among junior secondary school students in Gwale Local Government Area of Kano.

Table 1: Correlation Coefficient between Study Habits and Academic Performance in English Language

VARIABLES	N	Mean	SD	r.	P.	Remark
Study Habits	370	145.3	9.13	+.1.64	0.00	Rejected
Academic Performance	370	26.0	6.62			

The result in Table 1 presents the relationship between study habit and academic performance

based on a sample of 370 individuals. R. value (-.164) represents the correlation coefficient

(Pearson's r) between study habits and academic performance. The positive sign (+) indicates a positive correlation, meaning that as study habit increases, academic performance tends to decrease as well. The absolute value of +.164 suggests a weak positive correlation. P. value (0.000) represents the p-value associated with the correlation coefficient. With a p-value of 0.000, which is less than the typical significance level of 0.05, the null hypothesis (no relationship between study habits and academic performance) is rejected. The result indicates that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between study habits and academic performance in this sample.

Hypotheses Two: There is a significant relationship between peer pressure and academic performance among junior secondary school students in Gwale Local Government Area of Kano.

Table 2: Correlation Coefficient between Peer Pressure and Academic Performance

VARIABLE	N	Mean	SD	r.	P.	Remark
Peer Pressure	370	47.00	8.41	-.613	0.00	Rejected
Academic Performance	370	26.00	6.62			

Table 2, presents the relationship between peer pressure and academic performance based on certain statistical measures. The correlation coefficient between peer pressure and academic performance is -.613 indicating a negative correlation between peer pressure and academic performance. The p-value of 0.000, the correlation between peer pressure and academic performance is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This indicates that the null hypothesis (which assumes no relationship between peer pressure and academic performance) is rejected. Therefore, based on this analysis, there is evidence to suggest that there is a statistically significant inverse relationship between peer pressure and academic performance in this sample.

Hypotheses Three: There is no significant relationship between school-built environment and academic performance among junior secondary school students in Gwale Local Government Area of Kano.

Table 3: Correlation Coefficient between school-built environment and Academic Performance in English Language

VARIABLES	N	Mean	SD	r.	P.	Remark
Built Environment	370	59.60	11.69	-.401	0.00	Rejected
Academic Performance	370	26.00	6.62			

The result in Table 3 presents the relationship between the built environment and academic performance based on a sample of 370 individuals. R. value (+.401) represents the correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) between the built environment and academic performance. The positive sign (+) indicates a positive correlation, meaning that as the built environment increases, academic performance tends to increase

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

as well. The absolute value of $+0.401$ suggests a weak positive correlation. P. value (0.000) represents the p-value associated with the correlation coefficient. With a p-value of 0.000, which is less than the typical significance level of 0.05, the null hypothesis (no relationship between the built environment and academic performance) is rejected. The result indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between school-built environment and academic performance in this sample.

The findings of this study are summarized below:

- a. There is a significant positive correlation between study habits and academic performance among the students.
- b. There is a significant negative correlation between peer pressure and academic performance among the students.
- c. There is a significant positive correlation between school-built environment and academic performance among the students.

Discussion of the Findings

Based on the results of the analyses on the data collected in the study, the first and the second hypotheses were rejected.

For the first hypothesis, a correlation coefficient of $+0.164$ was found in the study. This relationship is significant and positive. This indicated that study habit has a positive effect on student's academic performance. Contemporary researchers are supportive of the finding of the impact of study habits on academic performance among secondary school students of different levels: for example, the finding of this study is consistent with the finding of Nair and Kulkarni (2020) examined study habits and its impact on secondary school student's academic performance in English in Kalaburgi Region. They revealed that there was a positive correlation between study habits and academic performance in English. In the same vein, Munir (2022) who investigated the relationship between students' study habits and academic performance in biology among secondary schools in Katsina Metropolis found that there is a significant relationship between the students' study habits and academic performance in biology among secondary schools in Katsina metropolis. Moreover, the study echoes John and Bulus (2020) who investigated the study habits of secondary school science students in the Jalingo Metropolis, Taraba State, Nigeria. The study revealed that the secondary school science students in the Jalingo metropolis had poor study habits and weak academic performance. The study also found a strong positive, high and significant correlation between study habits and academic performance of secondary school science students. More so, Sasi and Anju (2020) who examined a correlation between study habits and the academic achievement of high school pupils in a nominated school in Alappuzha District, Kerala found that there was a substantial positive correlation between study habits and the academic achievements of high school pupils. Again, Eremie and Achi (2020) who examined the relationship between study habits and academic performance of public secondary students in Etche Local Government Area, Rivers State found that there is a significant relationship between study habits and academic performance. Further, Jonas Grace (2019) who investigated 8 measures or subscales of study habits as predictors of academic achievement in Chemistry found that students' study habits significantly and positively contribute to students' academic achievement in chemistry.

In response to the second hypothesis, is there any relationship between peer pressure and academic performance? A correlation coefficient of -0.613 was found in the study. This relationship is significant and negative. This indicated that peer pressure has a positive effect on student's academic performance. Contemporary researchers are supportive of this finding. The findings of Aghadiuno and Onyekweodiri (2019) who investigated the effect of peer pressure on the academic performance of students in Nasarawa State Polytechnic Lafia is consistent with the findings of the present study. They found that peer pressure is the major hindrance to effective reading habits among students in Nasarawa State Polytechnic, Lafia. The result corroborates Oluremi (2019), who investigated the learning environment and peer pressure as correlates of academic aspirations among senior secondary school students in Mubi North Local Government Area, Nigeria. The way peer pressure influences learning Biology includes punctuality to class, competition, studying together, disturbance in class and helping with academic

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

difficulties. The findings of the study showed that there is a significant relationship between peer pressure and academic achievement. Moreover, Moldes, Biton, Gonzaga, and Moneva (2019) came up with different findings in their study of peer pressure and their academic performance at Jagobiao National High School, Mandaue City. The results declared peer pressure was found to be among several factors that could affect students' academic performance in school. They suggest that peer pressure does not have a negative impact directly on students toward their peers. In addition, Tetteh, Asenso, Ansah, Kanamitie, Karikari, Lah, Sackey and Obeng (2021) examined the effects of peer pressure on student-teachers academic performance of student-teachers of the College of Education, Asokore - Koforidua. Effects of peer pressure on student-teachers' academic performance was established by the study, that most student-teachers learn better when their peers help them. In the same vein, Segun and Ajasin (2021) investigated peer pressure and its psychological effect on the academic performance of students in Akoko North East Local Government Area, Ondo State, Nigeria. Based on the findings, the researcher discovered that peer pressure does not necessarily mean negative influence, it can also be a positive influence; the kind of peers a student moves with can influence his attitude, learning and academic performance.

In response to the third hypothesis, is there any relationship between school-built environment and academic performance? A correlation coefficient of +.401 was found in the study. This relationship is significant and positive. This indicated that adequate infrastructure, study material, and healthy classrooms can enhance students' learning experiences, resulting in higher academic performance. This echoes Akomolafe and Adesua, (2016) who examined the impact of physical facilities on students' level of motivation and academic performance in senior secondary schools in Southwest Nigeria. The same was found by Ajayi, (2014) who examined the impact of home environment factors on the academic performance of secondary school students in Ekiti State, Nigeria.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions are hereby made:

- a. That there exists a positive correlation between reading habit and the academic performance among junior secondary school students in Gwale Local Government Area of Kano State.
- b. That there is a negative correlation between reading habit academic performance between high and low anxious students among junior secondary school students in Gwale Local Government Area of Kano State.
- c. That there exists a positive correlation between school-built environment and the academic performance among junior secondary school students in Gwale Local Government Area of Kano State.

Recommendations

- a. Teachers and school administrators from time to time should ensure that they educate their children on reading habit. Thus, students are encouraged to visit the internet, hypertext and multimedia systems which will greatly help them in their studies.
- b. Teachers should try as much as possible to educate their students on the importance and effects of peer group influence and encourage them to study in groups (group reading).

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Chapter Six

Sustainable Building Maintenance Model for Accreditation in Public Polytechnics in South-East, Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

Heavy reliance on the emergency maintenance approach has resulted in poor management of polytechnic buildings in Nigeria. Building maintenance activities require very serious attention in the operation of higher education institutions as it saves cost and provides value-added improvements to the core business enterprise. A planned maintenance process will contribute to quality assurance, user satisfaction, space optimisation and academic effectiveness. However, this study sets out to develop a combined maintenance simulation model for building efficiency in public polytechnics in South-East, Nigeria, which will cut costs, schedule maintenance, manage assets and track operations. A descriptive survey research design was adopted from a population of 11 polytechnics, samples of 6 were randomly selected and studied. The sampling frame covers directors of budget and planning, directors of works and services, and heads of maintenance units of the selected public institutions in the study area. The analytical technique employed was an exploratory factor analysis mechanism. Findings affirmed that the identified factors of planned maintenance exert a positive and significant influence on sustainability and account for 78.1% of the changes in the system. However, recommendations emphasized the need for effective management, cost efficiency, maintenance tracking and scheduling to enhance building performance.

KEYWORDS: Sustainability; Building; Model; Maintenance; Factor Analysis

INTRODUCTION

A building is regarded as an enclosure or “envelope” designed and constructed to provide a minimum level of comfort, and convenience for humans (Osuaagwu, Okolie, Nkeleme, Okoye and Onwuka, 2021); its function in the education sector is to develop a dynamic and vibrant ecosystem that will guarantee production of skilled, competent, intellectual, creative and independent human capital. The National Board for Technical Education, NBTE, is the principal arm of the Federal Ministry of Education vested with the power to ensure quality control in polytechnic education in Nigeria (Agholor, 2017). To achieve the global best practices in the higher education subsector, the board periodically reviews the quality of academic programmes including physical facilities to ensure the sustainability of modernized pedagogy, learning and research environment. The significance of the exercise is to guarantee that graduates with employable skills are produced from accredited institutions to facilitate national development (Ogunade and Samuel, 2022). These best standards are aptly captured in Section 3.5 of the 2014 National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) Guidelines and Procedures for the Establishment of Public/ Private Technical and Technological Institutions in Nigeria. Particularly, Section 3.5 specifies the effective provision and management of adequate office, classroom, workshop, studio and laboratory facilities that are efficiently consistent with the programme curriculum (3.5.2); adequate equipment of each pedagogic facility with relevant instruments, furniture, tools and machines (3.5.3); conducive learning and research environment embodied by adequate space for staff and students (3.5.3).

Despite these standards, Lesanmi, Aigbavboa, Ngoobo and Aghmien (2023) denounce the myriad of facility obsolescence and deterioration in higher education institutions in Nigeria despite the intervention efforts of the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND). Indeed, one wonders how bad it would have been without TETFUND intervention in these tertiary institutions. The significance of these anomalies lies in the fact that for tertiary institutions to achieve their core vision, buildings must not just be routinely maintained, but must also be managed with a view to meeting global best standards (Jeon, 2019). An efficient management strategy is vital in public buildings to restore economic value,

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

enhance functional effectiveness, prolong the useful life of the buildings and improve statutory compliance, space optimization and user satisfaction. This is important to prevent any disruption of academic plan and to ensure optimal performance of the building over its life cycle (Noor, Wadhah and Hafid. 2018).

Currently, the discussion on building maintenance in Nigerian polytechnics cannot be avoided because of the scanty literature on the topic and its overall effects on the sustainability of the academic environment and accreditation success. Therefore, the problem statement of the current paper is the absence of a sustainable maintenance model for building efficiency in public polytechnics in South-East, Nigeria. To solve this problem, the study intends to “develop an integrated building maintenance model which will cut cost, schedule maintenance, manage assets and track operations for polytechnics in South-East, Nigeria”.

Statement of the Problem

Many of the educational buildings in Nigeria seem to be in disrepair and dilapidated condition as a result of unplanned maintenance and deferred maintenance backlogs such as deferred corrective, routine, predictive, renewals and demolition. Currently, there is a growing concern about the expected huge cost of restoring these maintenance backlogs and continuous upkeep of various purpose-built blocks in the portfolio of public polytechnics in Nigeria. The situation is more complex considering the dwindling economy and rising insecurity in Nigeria (United States Institute of Peace, 2022), and compounded by continuous maintenance deficit in public polytechnics in South -East, Nigeria (Dike, 2010). This scenario informs urgent attention to planned maintenance in higher education institutions to arrest and prevent further building decay, particularly in the areas of civil, mechanical and electrical components. The poor condition of educational buildings tends to contribute to lowering the quality of polytechnic graduates as well as NBTE accreditation success. Juxtaposing this with the unemployment statistics in Nigeria which increased to 23.10% in 2019 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2019); it presents a grim reading for the prospects of the country.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are to:

- i. identify the challenges in implementing planned maintenance of buildings in public polytechnics in South-East, Nigeria.
- ii. develop a maintenance model that will sustain building efficiency and improve academic effectiveness in polytechnics in South-East, Nigeria.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Maintenance is defined as a combination of all technical, administrative and managerial actions during the life cycle of an item intended to retain it in, or restore it to, a state in which it can perform the required function (BS-EN-13306,2010). Similarly, Ogunbayo and Aigbavboa (2019) conceive overall maintenance activities as a combination of all actions intended to retain the value and services of a building. Lambert-Torres, Leandro and Eli del (2023) on the other hand agree that maintenance is the integration of all possible technical and administrative actions, including planning, supervising, monitoring and controlling towards retaining an item, a system, a machine to restore their original functional state in which they can perform the intended functions. According to the Association of Physical Plant Administrators, APPA (2021), maintenance is a combination of all the technical administrative actions taken during the service life of a building to retain its part or function while Aigbavboa, Thwala and Akinradew (2022) agree that maintenance management proxies comprise several variables such as maintenance policy, human resources management, personnel training, monitoring and supervision, task planning and scheduling, maintenance information system, spare part management, outsourcing and benchmarking. Ogunbayo and Aigbavboa (2019) construe overall maintenance activities to be a combination of all actions intended to retain a building in functional working order. Maintenance activities are therefore carried out to save cost, prolong the useful life of a building and ensure the continuous and efficient operation of building facilities. Planning and scheduling are key to maintenance activities to achieve lower operational costs and increase building

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

efficiency. Emphasising this, Lai and Yik (2019), Ogunfowora and Najjaran (2023) and BAS-IP (2023) variously highlight the importance of maintenance schedule process such as building condition survey, maintenance checklist, maintenance task, task frequency, monitoring and adjustment, timeline and resource allocation.

Given these perceivable benefits, Aigbavboa, Thwala, Akinradawo and Edwards (2022) conclude that a strategic maintenance policy is required by maintenance organisations to achieve all related maintenance activities to save public finances and boost the life span of buildings. Lai and Yik (2007) insist that operational costs can be lowered using tools for monitoring building operations and management, OM, such as balance scorecards, benchmarking, customer satisfaction surveys, performance review meetings and audits. Planned maintenance of buildings should be sustained to increase building efficiency and promote a green and eco-friendly environment; students' behaviour and workers' productivity. Abdulqadar, Taha and Ahmed (2019) linked the physical space to the psychological needs of the users, where designers should respond to the various factors related to health, urban dynamics and sustainable environment. For institutions to achieve global best practices in education, building facilities maintenance must not only be planned but effective, proactive and strategic to contribute to sustainable management of water and sanitation; clean and affordable energy; sustainable and resilient infrastructure; responsible consumption and production; climate action; life on land and biodiversity; quality education; peace, justice and strong institution (Sorooshian, 2024). There is a need for sustainable building practices in Nigeria as buildings generally show signs of poor design for ventilation, natural lighting, energy management, water management, waste management and other building services (Olaniyi, 2017)

Ogunor Mbanusi and Okoye (2018) note the adverse impact of the lack of maintenance of educational buildings on the green and eco-friendly environment; students' behaviour and workers' productivity. This implies that building conditions can be correlated with academic success, staff and students' health, accreditation performance and sustainable academic progress. However, Ensafi and Thabet (2021) identify some challenges and gaps in the maintenance of facilities: substandard work order process, ineffective procedure for quality control, quality assurance and inadequate technical knowledge about equipment and machines while Awasho and Alemu (2023) attribute causes of defects in building facilities to poor workmanship, delayed maintenance, inferior building materials, lack of skill and lack of stakeholders' participation. On the other hand, Mong, Mohamed and Misnan (2018) consider the nature of the building, maintenance strategy, good spare part management, labour costs, prices of materials, availability of maintenance funds, periodic inspection and application of computerised maintenance management as factors affecting effectiveness of maintenance budgeting.

Theoretical Underpinning of the Study

The relevant model for this study is the Building Condition and Students' Achievement Model. According to Lateef (2010) and Ogunor et. al. (2018), C Cash espoused this model in 1993 to indicate some possible factors that affect the building condition and in turn impact the student's achievement and behaviour. Building conditions influence the attitudes of students, teachers and parents. A well-maintained building is critical for the delivery of the institution's core business. Buildings provide a conducive environment for students and staff in addition to supporting and stimulating teaching, researching and other academic-related activities. A quality school physical facility invariably affects students, teachers and the learning environment in varying ways (Agbor, Onnoghen and Nwachukwu 2022). Abdullahi and WanYusoff (2018) corroborate that the physical facility is the most significant factor that determines facility performance. Previous studies show that facility obsolescence affects teaching and learning performance, student and staff health and safety, and day-to-day building operations (Morais and Cissado, 2018; Morma, 2023; Adeyemi, Adeniyi and Amoo, 2019). Therefore, the spaces should be designed or re-arranged to achieve the users' needs: physical, psychological, and emotional (Abdulqader, Taha and Ahmed, 2019).

METHODOLOGY

The research design adopted was a descriptive survey cross-sectional design. Samples were 6 polytechnics from a pool of 11 polytechnics across South-East, Nigeria. Analytical methods comprise

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descriptive statistics and exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) approach was chosen due to its ability to identify patterns, reduce dimensionality, and uncover underlying structures in complex datasets. In sustainable building maintenance where numerous factors contribute, PCA provides a powerful tool to reveal latent factors and capture the most influential components.

The PCA analysis for this paper ensured linearity of the variables, normality of the data series from the individual variables, homoscedasticity of the variance components, and independence of the samples. Maintaining these assumptions was to ensure the accuracy of the principal component results. Also, in the PCA result, the eigenvalues were obtained while selection of components was by eigenvalues greater than 1 and using scree plots. Hence, components that explain a substantial proportion of the variance were retained.

In the PCA methodology, the Covariance Matrix is expressed as:

$$\text{Covariance Matrix } (\Sigma) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \underline{X}) (X_i - \underline{X})^T \quad (3.1)$$

The Covariance Matrix represents the covariance between pairs of variables in the dataset. Where X_i is the data vector, $\underline{X}$ is the mean vector, and n is the number of observations.

The Eigenvalue Equation is expressed as:

This equation defines the relationship between the covariance matrix, eigenvector, and eigenvalue. Eigenvectors and eigenvalues play a crucial role in PCA, indicating the directions and magnitudes of the principal components.

$$\Sigma v = \lambda v \quad (3.2)$$

Where, Σ is the covariance matrix as defined in (3.1), v is the eigenvector, λ is the eigenvalue

The proportion of variance explained can be defined mathematically as:

$$\text{Proportion of variance} = \frac{\lambda_i}{\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i} \quad (3.3)$$

Where λ_i is the eigenvalue and p is the total number of eigenvalues.

The principal Component Score can be calculated as:

$$PC_j = X \times v_j \quad (3.4)$$

Where X is the original data matrix, v_j is the j -th eigenvector. This step transforms the original variables into the principal component space.

Reconstruction of data can be done using the equation:

This equation is used to reconstruct the original data from a reduced set of principal components.

$$\text{reconstructed} = \sum_{j=1}^k PC_j \times v_j^T \quad (3.5)$$

Where k is the number of principal components used for reconstruction

Hence, the Total Variance Captured can be calculated as:

$$\text{Total Variance Captured} = \sum_{j=1}^k \text{Proportion of Variance}_j \quad (3.6)$$

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

The Total Variance Captured represents the cumulative proportion of variance explained by all the selected principal components.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

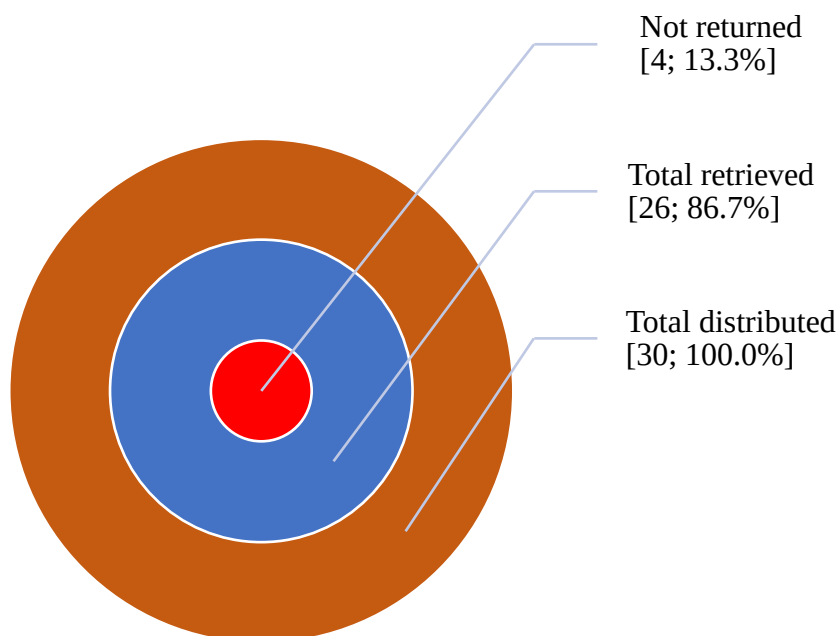


Figure 1: Response Rate from Field Survey

The overall response rate from the field survey (fig. 1) was 86.7%. This percentage was considered statistically adequate for further analyses.

Descriptive Profile of the Research Participants

Table 1: Profile of the Research Participants

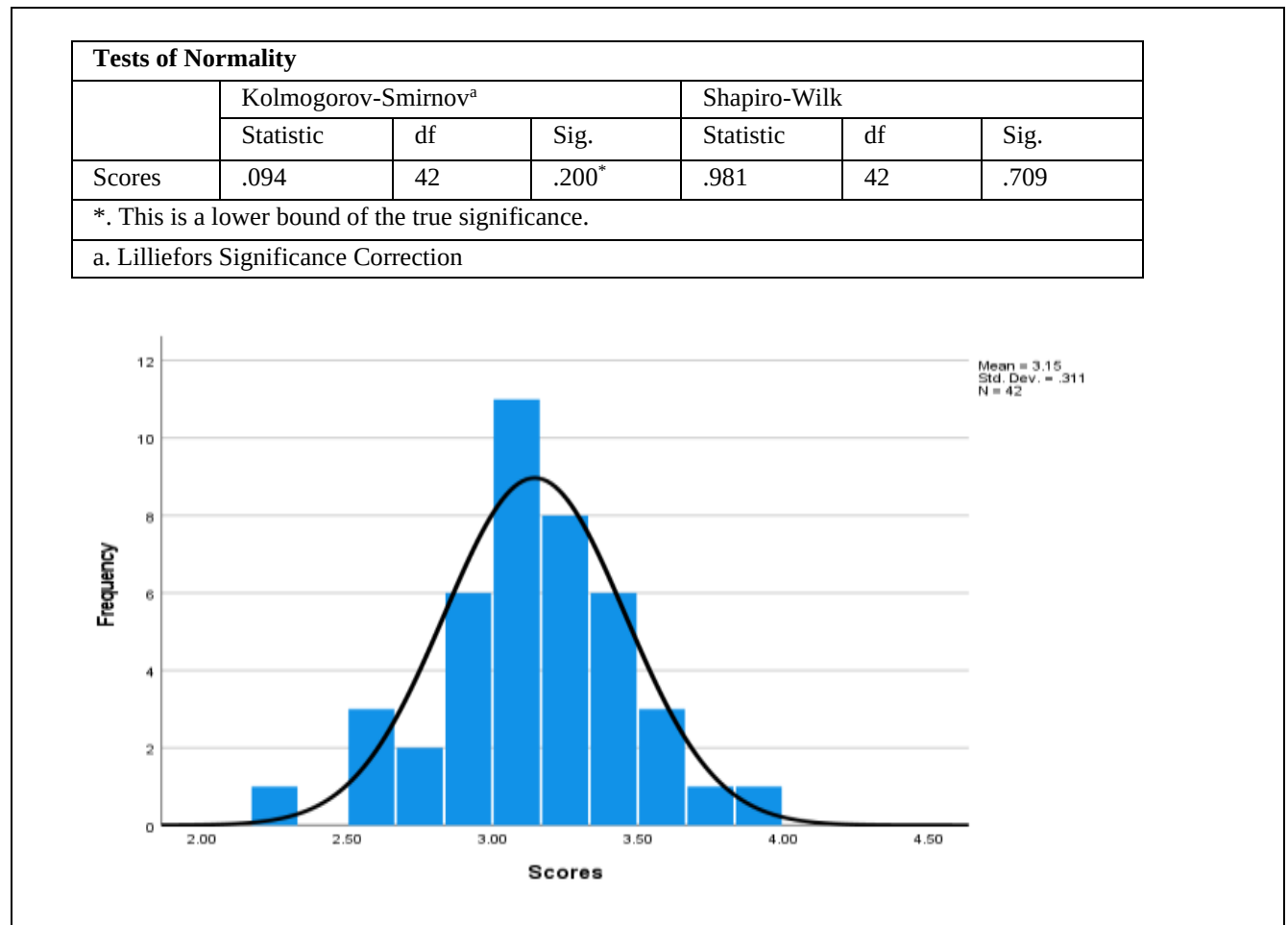
Positions	Percentage Statistics
Directors of budget and planning	23.2%
Directors of works and services	35.6%
Heads of maintenance unit	41.2%

Source: Field survey, 2024

In the research study, 23.2% of the participants are Directors of budget and planning, 35.6% are Directors of works and services and 41.2% are Heads of maintenance units.

Diagnostic Tests

Table 2: Normality Probability Plot and Histogram



Source: Author's SPSS 27.0 output (2024)

The result shows that the data series exhibited the pattern of a bell-shape, indicating normal distribution, and therefore, suggesting application of parametric methods in the subsequent statistical analysis.

Table 3: Parametric Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test Result

<u>Mean Statistics</u>					
<i>Directors of budget and planning = 3.38</i>					
<i>Directors of works and services = 3.26</i>					
<i>Heads of maintenance unit = 3.18</i>					
<u>Homogeneity Test</u>					
<i>Levene's stat. (based on mean) = 3.114, $p=0.109 > 0.05$</i>					
Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F-stat.	Sig.
Between Groups	.075	2	.037	4.928	.014
Within Groups	.228	30	.008		
Total	.302	32			

Source: Author's SPSS 27.0 computation (2024)

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From the parametric Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) result in Table 3, the average opinion scores of the Directors of budget and planning, Directors of works and services, and Heads of maintenance unit of the selected polytechnics in the study area are 3.38, 3.26, and 3.18 respectively. The homogeneity test with Levene's statistic value of 3.114 and associated probability value of $0.109 > 0.05$ upholds that the variances are equal. In other words, accepting homogeneity of the variance, and as a matter of fact, submitting to aggregated analysis.

Table 4: Summary table of the relationship between building maintenance factors and sustainability of the polytechnic structures

	β -estimate	t-Statistic	p-value
Management -> Sustainability	0.312	3.460	0.035
Effective Costing -> Sustainability	0.640	4.650	0.024
Maintenance Tracking -> Sustainability	0.455	4.448	0.028
Maintenance Scheduling -> Sustainability	1.124	7.187	0.000

Source: Author's result (2024)

Table 4 presents the results of the relationships between building maintenance factors: Management, Effective costing, Maintenance tracking and Maintenance scheduling and Sustainability. The result shows that the building maintenance factors exerted positive [β -estimates >0] and statistically significant influence [p-values <0.05] influence on sustainability. This indicates that if the maintenance factors or challenges are addressed, sustainability will improve significantly.

Table 5: Summary table of the relationship between building maintenance factors and academic effectiveness in the polytechnics

	β -estimate	t-Statistic	p-value
Management -> Academic Effectiveness	0.547	2.635	0.0015
Effective Costing -> Academic Effectiveness	0.276	2.280	0.0406
Maintenance Tracking -> Academic Effectiveness	0.609	3.761	0.0265
Maintenance Scheduling -> Academic Effectiveness	0.272	2.113	0.0409

Source: Author's result (2024)

Table 5 shows the relationships between building maintenance factors and academic effectiveness in the polytechnics within the area. The result proved that the maintenance factors are positively [β -estimates >0] and significantly [p-values <0.05] associated with the academic effectiveness in the institutions. The implication is that resolving the building maintenance challenges means enhancing academic effectiveness in the polytechnics.

The factor analysis mechanism was therefore applied to sieve out the key factors to be addressed for sustainable building efficiency in public polytechnics in South-East, Nigeria, which will cut costs, schedule maintenance, manage assets and track operations.

Table 6: KMO and Bartlett's test of Sphericity

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sample adequacy		0.610 >0.500
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	17.024 [p=0.001 <0.05]

Source: Author's SPSS 27.0 computation (2024)

The KMO test was used to assess whether the samples were sufficient, and the result was significantly higher than the 0.5 threshold.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Table 7: Variable labels and coding

Variable label	Code	Variable label	Code
A. MANAGEMENT		C. MAINTENANCE TRACKING	
Human resources	HR	Inspection survey	INSS
Strategic policy	SP	Work order process	WKOP
Planning	PL	Scorecards	SCC
Staffing	STF	Benchmarking	BCHM
Scheduling	SCH	Customer satisfaction survey	COSS
Supervising	SUP	Performance review meeting	PFRM
Controlling	CTRL	Audit	AUD
Statutory compliance	STC	D. MAINTENANCE SCHEDULING	
B. EFFECTIVE COSTING		Building condition survey	BLDC
Responsible consumption	RSC	Maintenance Checklist	MTNC
Comparable	CMP	Maintenance task	MTNT
Preventive maintenance	PREM	Task frequency	TSKF
Effective spare part management	ESPM	Monitoring and adjustment	MNTA
Availability of fund	AVF	Timeline	TML
Quality control	QLTC	Resource allocation	RSCA
Quality assurance	QLTA		

Table 8: Factor Analysis Result

Code	Components									%age extracted
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	
A. MANAGEMENT										
HR	.887	-.175	.409	-.491	.666	-.066	-.018	.058	-.010	.876
SP	.229	.891	.664	-.651	.357	.013	.063	.096	-.051	.847
PL	.745	-.278	.949	-.066	-.218	-.110	-.074	-.010	.091	.969
STF	.801	.349	.190	.724	.594	.978	-.004	-.051	.013	.933
SCH	.732	-.465	.884	.322	-.097	.014	.002	-.060	-.005	.752
SUP	.833	.135	.934	.318	.084	.589	-.073	.128	.123	.889
CTRL	.752	.117	.745	.643	.169	-.092	.847	.009	.167	.919
STC	.678	.008	.637	-.770	-.018	.018	.843	.034	-.051	.956
B. EFFECTIVE COSTING										
RSC	.787	.150	-.866	.379	.116	-.010	.068	.020	.001	.850
CMP	.724	.368	.382	.896	.198	-.036	.083	-.334	-.021	.759
PREM	.686	.157	-.718	.233	.561	-.001	.061	.029	-.103	.803
ESPM	.102	.994	.195	.724	-.489	.098	-.099	.014	-.114	.885
AVF	.716	.695	.152	-.224	-.126	.142	.271	.014	.583	.812
QLTC	.582	.184	.061	.734	.026	.115	-.272	-.082	.569	.857
QLTA	.848	-.028	-.008	.015	-.116	-.053	.109	.030	.002	.774
C. MAINTENANCE TRACKING										
INSS	.863	-.261	-.010	.061	.004	.288	.876	-.054	.383	.720
WKOP	.793	-.036	-.051	-.008	.137	.317	.242	.095	.055	.779
SCC	.865	-.254	.091	.734	.082	.051	.894	-.167	.444	.798
BCHM	.494	.868	.013	.015	.230	.934	.114	.406	-.141	.698
COSS	.735	.347	-.005	.026	.253	.319	.843	-.033	.360	.898
PFRM	.773	-.228	.123	-.116	.109	.895	.235	.362	-.071	.798
AUD	-.126	-.659	.167	.004	-.035	.856	.200	.352	-.081	.799

D. MAINTENANCE SCHEDULING										
BLDC	.819	.799	-.800	.233	.150	.460	.231	.062	.225	.894
MTNC	.724	.398	-.678	.126	.368	-.032	.143	-.101	.035	.797
MTNT	.786	.634	.691	.601	.157	.633	.355	.011	.001	.798
TSKF	.102	.772	.035	.172	.494	-.538	.208	-.109	-.048	.879
MNTA	.716	.799	.762	-.031	.695	.415	-.210	.364	.342	.708
TML	.882	.824	.983	-.157	.184	-.422	.266	-.220	.120	.767
RSCA	.093	.772	.513	-.061	.053	-.422	.241	.166	.252	.728
Eigenvalue	11.412	9.024	7.223	5.067	4.988	4.013	3.056	2.109	1.015	
%age of var.	19.94	14.55	10.01	8.98	6.24	5.33	4.71	4.23	4.07	
Cum %age	19.94	34.49	44.5	53.48	59.72	65.05	69.76	73.99	78.06	

Source: Author's SPSS 27.0 computation (2024)

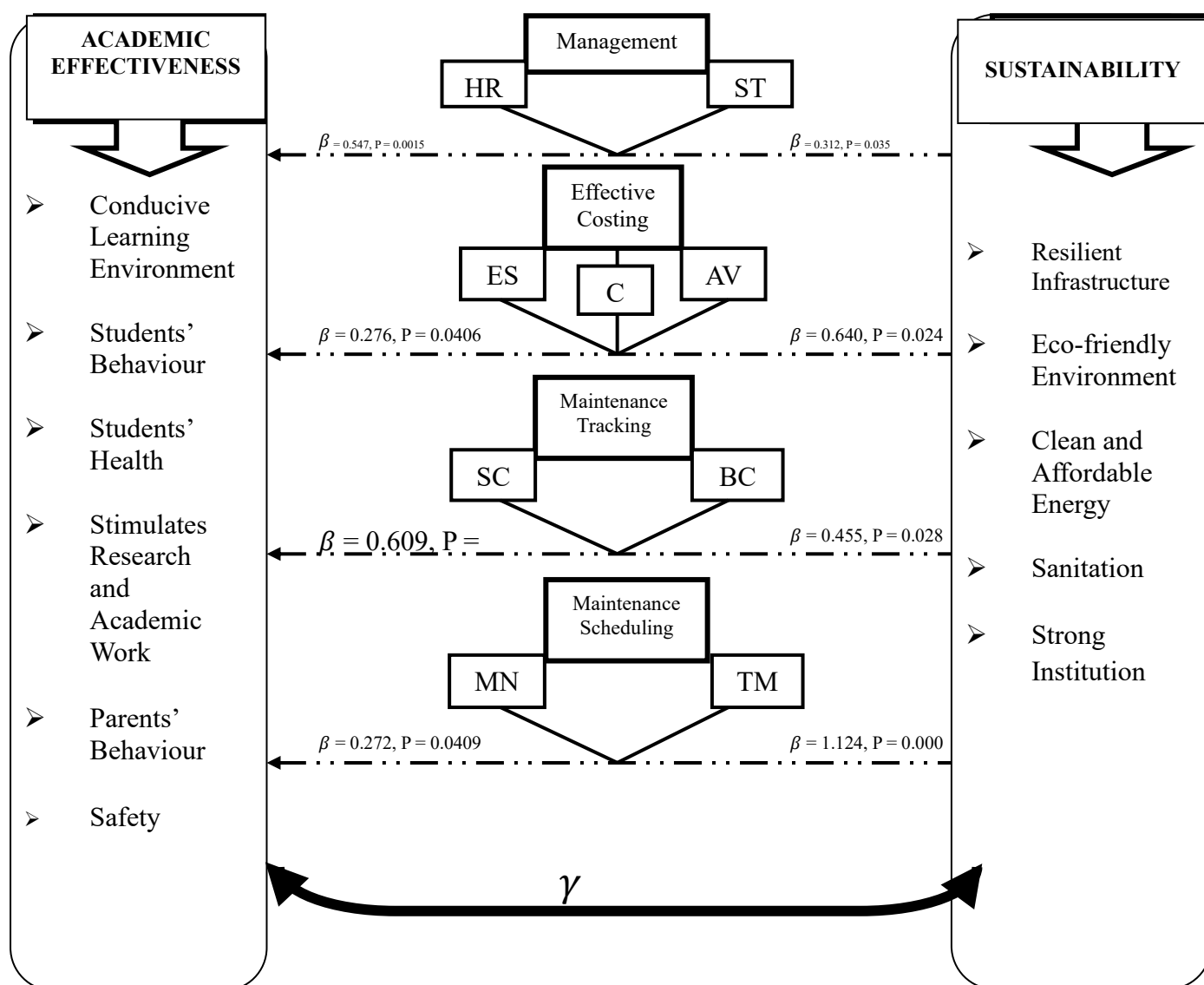


Figure 2: Maintenance model for sustainability of building efficiency and academic effectiveness in polytechnics in South-East, Nigeria.

The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) result in Table 8 above indicates that the key challenges in implementing planned maintenance of buildings in public polytechnics in Southeast, Nigeria are: Human resources, Effective spare part management, Timeline, Comparables, Monitoring and adjustment, Staffing, Scorecards, Benchmarking, and Availability of fund. These nine (9) extracted factors are loaded high and can simultaneously account for about 78.1% of the changes in the system. The unexplained 21.9% can be attributed to other economic factors not captured in this study. However, the model is built using those variables with their family contributions appropriately shown in the framework.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study concludes that the key factors in implementing planned maintenance of buildings in public polytechnics in Southeast; Nigeria are human resources, spare part management, comparables, timeline, monitoring and adjustment, staff scorecards, benchmarking and availability of funds and they simultaneously account for about 78.1% of the changes in the system. Based on the conclusion, the paper recommends:

- i. The establishment of a well-funded maintenance department/section in the Works and Services directorates of the polytechnics.
- ii. a good staff mix in the maintenance departments comprising professionals in environmental and engineering, technical and sub-technical staff as well as administrative staff.
- iii. adoption of the framework in the study.

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Chapter Seven**Safety and Security of College Buildings in Public Universities in Rivers State Nigeria*****Owuama, Chidindu C.¹; Ezekiel Ufuoma Lucky²; Blessing Ezinne Mbamara³***¹*Department of Architecture, Covenant University, Ota, Nigeria*²*SPESS-CE, University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria*³*Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Federal Polytechnic, Nekede, Nigeria*EMAIL: chidindu.owuamapgs@stu.cu.edu.ng**ABSTRACT**

Buildings have various aspects and elements that are involved in their makeup. This study investigates the perceptions of staff and students regarding the safety and security considerations in the design of college buildings in public universities in Rivers State, Nigeria. The aim is to understand the importance placed on these factors by university users and to evaluate how effectively these elements are incorporated into building designs. Data were collected through a structured survey from respondents in two public universities: Rivers State University (RSU) and the University of Port Harcourt (Uniport). A total of 141 responses were analyzed using descriptive statistical methods. The findings reveal that a significant majority of respondents (68.1%) rated safety considerations highly, while 66% valued security measures as crucial in the design process of college buildings. The results indicate a clear preference for enhanced safety and security features, reflecting the growing awareness and demand for safer educational environments among university users. The study concludes that public universities in Rivers State could significantly benefit from integrating comprehensive safety and security protocols in their building designs. Recommendations include the adoption of international safety standards, stakeholder involvement in the design process, continuous assessment of safety measures, training and awareness programmes, and increased government support for funding modern security infrastructure.

KEYWORDS: Building, Design, Safety, Security, Users' Perception

INTRODUCTION

The built environment plays a fundamental role in shaping the safety, security, and functionality of any society. It is a combination of constructed structures and modified landscapes that directly support human activities, influencing how people live, work, and interact with their surroundings (Marchand, 2018). This need for a supportive environment has driven humanity to prioritise the construction of secure spaces that not only provide shelter but also cater to physiological and psychological well-being (Monteiro, et al, 2021). Ustaoglu and Limoncu (2020) highlight that the primary motivation behind developing such environments is to create living spaces that shield individuals from adverse conditions, thus ensuring safety and health. Effective and sustainable design solutions are crucial in creating these environments, as they focus on mitigating potential risks and hazards right from the initial stages of construction to the completion of buildings (Safe Work Australia, 2012).

Building safety and security considerations are especially critical in educational environments, such as universities, where a diverse population of students, faculty, and staff interact daily. Knoop (2004) distinguishes between building safety, which pertains to natural and accidental threats like floods, earthquakes, and accidental chemical spills, and building security, which relates to human-induced threats such as vandalism, terrorism, and other criminal activities. He points out that building safety is often guided by building codes and regulations that establish the minimum standards for design, while security measures are usually more flexible and left to the discretion of the occupants and facility operators. Despite their differences, the principles of safety and security are interconnected, with both playing vital roles in ensuring that educational facilities provide a conducive environment for learning and development (Knoop, 2004).

In the context of public universities in Rivers State, Nigeria, safety and security have become even more pressing issues. Rivers State University (RSU) in Port Harcourt, established in October 1980, evolved from the Rivers State College of Science and Technology, which itself was founded in 1972. As the first technological university in Nigeria and the first state-owned university in the Niger Delta region, RSU holds a strategic position in the country's educational landscape. Similarly, the University of Port

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Harcourt, known as Uniport, was established as a university college in 1975 and gained full university status in 1977. Located in Choba, Port Harcourt, Uniport is renowned for its academic excellence and diverse academic offerings.

Given the critical roles that these institutions play in the educational and socio-economic development of the region, it is essential to ensure that the safety and security of their infrastructures are prioritised. The rising concerns over crime rates, vandalism, and other security threats in Nigerian universities necessitate a thorough examination of how well these universities integrate safety and security considerations into their building designs (Oyewole & Obeta, 2018). Addressing these issues is crucial, as they directly affect not only the learning environment but also the physical and psychological well-being of students and staff (Oni et al., 2021). Therefore, this study focuses on examining the safety and security measures incorporated into the design of college buildings within public universities in Rivers State, highlighting the need for robust strategies to mitigate potential risks and enhance overall campus safety.

Aim

This research paper aims to ascertain the perception that staff and students of Rivers State public Universities have towards safety and security being an important factor to be considered in the design of a building.

Objectives

The Objectives of this Research paper are as follows.

- i. Examine the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the users of public universities in Rivers State Nigeria.
- ii. Examine the physical characteristics of the buildings.
- iii. Analyse the level of combined safety and security measures inculcated in respondents' building facilities.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Being safe is being distant from risks brought on by random human error or natural factors. Natural processes and/or human error are the sources of hazards (Selçuk NAS, 2015). The best and longest-lasting way to establish a safe and healthy work environment is to remove risks and hazards when designing new equipment, buildings, materials, and technologies as well as jobs, procedures, and systems (Ayoko, *et al*, 2023). Safety and security are fundamental considerations in the design and construction of educational facilities, especially in public universities. The importance of these factors is rooted in the need to protect lives, property, and infrastructure from both intentional and accidental threats (Ustaoğlu & Limoncu, 2020). Building design plays a crucial role in creating a safe and secure environment for staff, students, and other users of university facilities. It encompasses architectural strategies that address natural hazards, criminal activities, and unforeseen accidents (Safe Work Australia, 2012). From the first stages of design to the end of the lifecycle of a structure, plant, product, or substance, this design process must consider potential risks and hazards (Australian Safe Work, 2012b).

Socio-economic and Demographic Characteristics of University Users

The socio-economic and demographic characteristics of users in public universities significantly influence their perception of safety and security in building design. Studies have shown that factors such as age, gender, educational background, and socioeconomic status can shape how individuals perceive and respond to safety risks in their environment (Marchand, 2018). In the context of Nigerian universities, students and staff from diverse backgrounds bring varying expectations and concerns regarding their physical security and well-being (Knoop, 2004). Understanding these differences is crucial in designing buildings that meet the safety needs of all users.

Physical Characteristics of University Buildings

The physical characteristics of college buildings, such as layout, structure, materials used, and spatial arrangement, directly impact their safety and security features. Proper building design should include elements like clear evacuation routes, surveillance systems, and robust structural integrity to withstand potential hazards (Chilton & Mamun, 2019). Nigerian universities, including those in Rivers State, often face challenges in maintaining these standards due to limited resources and outdated infrastructure (Ekundayo & Ajayi, 2009). Therefore, enhancing building design is essential to ensure that safety and security measures are adequately incorporated.

Perception of Safety and Security Measures in College Buildings

User perception is a key determinant in evaluating the effectiveness of safety and security measures within university buildings. Studies suggest that individuals' experiences, awareness, and personal backgrounds heavily influence how they view the adequacy of these measures (Adebayo & Babatunde, 2021). In Rivers State public universities, both students and staff may perceive the security provisions differently based on their role within the institution and their exposure to past security incidents (Ogunleye & Amusan, 2018). It is essential to analyse these perceptions to develop strategies that enhance users' sense of safety.

Safety and Security Measures in Educational Facilities

International standards for safety and security in educational institutions recommend integrating design strategies that mitigate risks and improve incident response capabilities (Turner & Payne, 2020). Common measures include the use of surveillance cameras, controlled access systems, reinforced building materials, and disaster preparedness protocols. In Nigeria, the application of these measures in universities has been inconsistent, leading to varying levels of effectiveness in different institutions (Eze & Ezeh, 2019). Rivers State universities, in particular, require tailored approaches to meet the unique security challenges they face due to their geographical and socio-political context.

Impact of Combined Safety and Security Measures on Building Design

Combining safety and security measures in building design is crucial to achieving a comprehensive approach that addresses both unintentional hazards and intentional threats. Effective integration ensures that buildings are not only resistant to natural disasters but also fortified against criminal activities (Safe Work Australia, 2012). Research indicates that a holistic approach to safety and security in university buildings can significantly reduce vulnerability and enhance user confidence (Ustaoğlu & Limoncu, 2020). However, the implementation of such measures in Nigerian universities is often hampered by financial constraints and a lack of technical expertise (Chilton & Mamun, 2019).

Despite extensive research on safety and security in educational buildings, gaps still exist in understanding the specific needs of university users in developing regions like Nigeria. Most studies have focused on general safety principles without addressing the unique socio-economic and cultural factors that influence perceptions in Nigerian universities (Adebayo & Babatunde, 2021) necessitating this research in public universities in Rivers State, Nigeria. This research focuses on evaluating how these factors affect the implementation of safety measures and exploring innovative, cost-effective solutions suitable for resource-constrained environments.

METHODS

Data for the study was collected from two prominent institutions in Rivers State, Nigeria: Rivers State University of Science and Technology (RSUST) and the University of Port Harcourt. RSUST has a staff strength of 1,870 and an average student population of 15,000, comprising eleven faculties: Agriculture, Engineering, Environmental Sciences, Law, Management Sciences, Science, Education, Humanities, Social Sciences, Basic Medical Sciences, and the College of Medical Science. The University of Port Harcourt, on the other hand, has a larger average student population of about 35,000, and twelve faculties, which include Humanities, Social Sciences, Education, Engineering, Management Sciences,

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Health Sciences, Science, Dentistry, Pharmacy, Agriculture, and Law, as well as a Postgraduate School. English is the primary language of instruction at both institutions.

To gather data for the study, questionnaires were distributed by hand to staff and students in randomly selected faculties at both universities during working hours. The selected faculties were the Faculty of Environmental Sciences, the Faculty of Social Sciences, and the Faculty of Humanities. In total, 200 questionnaires were distributed, with 100 given to each university. A total of 141 questionnaires were successfully retrieved: 91 from the University of Port Harcourt and 50 from RSUST.

The collected quantitative data was analysed using descriptive statistical methods with the aid of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. The data was systematically assessed, arranged, and presented in tabular form to facilitate clear interpretation and understanding of the findings.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The results are presented in tabular format, with each table detailing data relevant to a specific requirement for building performance. This approach provides a clearer understanding of the situation for each criterion, allowing for easier and more effective assessments.

Table 4.1 illustrates the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents in the study area. The ethnic distribution shows that the Igbos represented the largest group, accounting for 53% of the respondents, followed by 'Others' at 30%. Yoruba and Hausa respondents made up smaller portions, each constituting 9% of the sample. This distribution can be attributed to the geographical location of the study area, which is closer to the regions predominantly inhabited by the Igbos and other ethnic groups, thereby increasing their representation among the university's staff and students.

In terms of gender, the survey revealed that 60% of the respondents were male, while 40% were female. Regarding age distribution, 21% of respondents were 20 years old or younger, 62% were between the ages of 21 and 30, 10% were aged between 31 and 40, and 6% were 41 years or older.

Marital status data showed that a significant majority, 81%, were single, while 19% were married. Regarding educational qualifications, 32% of the respondents held higher degrees, while 17% reported having second or third degrees. The majority of respondents (34%) had qualifications such as O'Level, ND/NC, A'Level, or NCE certificates, reflecting the large number of undergraduate students within the university.

Table 4.1: Respondents' Socio-Economic and Demographic Characteristics for Public Universities in Rivers State

Respondents Characteristic	Category	Frequency N=141	Percentage
Ethnic Group	Others	42	29.8%
	Igbo	75	53.2%
	Yoruba	12	8.5%
	Hausa	12	8.5%
Gender	Female	57	40.4%
	Male	84	59.6%
Age	20 & below	30	21.3%
	21 – 30	87	61.7%
	31 – 40	15	10.6%
	41 – 50	3	2.1%
	51 – 60	3	2.1%
	Above 60	3	2.1%
Marital status	Single	114	80.9%
	Married	27	19.1%
	Primary	0	0%

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Educational Qualification	O' Level	27	19.1%
	ND/DC, A' Level, NCE	21	14.9%
	HND/HNC, B. A/ B.Sc	45	31.9%
	PGD	24	17.0%
	M.A/M.Sc. or Ph.D	24	17.0%
Year(s) of Stay in Institution	1	6	4.3%
	2	30	21.3%
	3	48	34.0%
	4	42	29.8%
	Above 4	15	10.6%

Source: Author's findings, 2024

Security Consideration in Design

Table 4.2 summarises the data on the inclusion of security features in building designs. According to the respondents, 2.1% rated the importance of security considerations as low, 31.9% as moderate, 14.9% as high, and 51.1% as very high. These findings indicate that the majority of respondents view the integration of security measures in building design as crucial, with a combined 66% rating it either high or very high. This highlights a strong preference among the respondents for prioritising security in the architectural planning of college buildings.

Table 4.2: Security Consideration in Design: Public Universities in Rivers State

Variable	Scale	Inference	Frequency N=141	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Security	1	Very Low	0	0%	0%
	2		0	0%	
	3	Low	0	0%	2.1%
	4		3	2.1%	
	5	Moderate	33	23.4%	31.9
	6		12	8.5%	
	7	High	3	2.1%	14.9
	8		18	12.8%	
	9	Very High	21	14.9%	51.1%
	10		51	36.2%	

Source: Author's findings, 2024

Safety Consideration in Design

The data on safety considerations in the design of buildings, as gathered from staff and students in public universities in Rivers State, Nigeria is shown in Table 4.3 which highlights the respondents' ratings regarding the incorporation of safety measures in building design. The results indicate that 2.1% of respondents rated the importance of safety considerations as low, 29.8% as moderate, 12.8% as high, and 55.3% as very high. This suggests that the majority of respondents view safety detailing in building design as crucial, with a combined 68.1% rating it either high or very high showing an emphasis on prioritising safety measures in the architectural planning of college buildings.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Table 4.3: Safety Consideration in Design: Public Universities in Rivers State

Variable	Scale	Inference	Frequency N=141	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Safety	1	Very Low	0	0%	0%
	2		0	0%	
	3	Low	0	0%	2.1%
	4		3	2.1%	
	5	Moderate	30	21.3%	29.8%
	6		12	8.5%	
	7	High	6	4.3%	12.8%
	8		12	8.5%	
	9	Very High	21	14.9%	55.3%
	10		57	40.4%	

Source: Author's findings, 2024

CONCLUSION

This study explored the perceptions of staff and students in public universities in Rivers State, Nigeria, regarding the importance of safety and security considerations in the design of college buildings. The findings reveal that a significant majority of respondents place a high value on incorporating both safety and security features in building design. The data indicates that safety measures were deemed crucial by 68.1% of respondents, while 66% rated security detailing in the design of college buildings as highly important. These results highlight the need for a comprehensive approach to building design that integrates both safety and security to create a conducive and secure learning environment. The emphasis placed on these factors by the respondents reflects their awareness and demand for improved safety and security standards in educational institutions. The study also noted differences in perceptions based on socio-economic and demographic characteristics, suggesting that tailored approaches may be required to address the specific needs of diverse university populations. The current building designs could benefit from enhancements in safety and security measures to meet the expectations and needs of the university community. This paper concludes that the safety and security considerations in the design of a building are unavoidable factors that should feature in the design of buildings.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are proposed:

Universities should prioritise the incorporation of advanced safety and security measures into the architectural design of their buildings. This could include features such as surveillance systems, controlled access points, and emergency response protocols to protect students and staff from both natural and intentional threats.

Public universities in Rivers State should adopt and strictly adhere to international safety and security standards when designing or renovating college buildings. These standards should serve as a guideline for creating structures that are resilient against both natural disasters and human-induced risks.

It is essential to involve all stakeholders, including students, staff, security experts, and architects, in the design and planning process of university buildings. Engaging stakeholders will help ensure that their concerns and expectations are adequately addressed in the design, ultimately leading to safer and more secure educational environments.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Regular evaluations of existing safety and security measures in college buildings should be conducted to identify areas for improvement. Universities should develop a proactive approach to addressing any deficiencies in their building designs and upgrade facilities as needed to keep up with emerging safety and security technologies.

Universities should organise training sessions and awareness programmes for students and staff to educate them on safety and security protocols within their institutions. This will foster a culture of vigilance and preparedness, enabling quick and effective responses to potential threats or emergencies. State and federal governments should allocate sufficient funds to support the implementation of safety and security measures in public universities. Financial investment is crucial for the installation of modern security systems, the development of emergency management plans, and the creation of safer campus environments.

Further research should be encouraged in the field of safety and security in university building design to explore innovative solutions that can be applied to the unique challenges faced by educational institutions in Nigeria. Collaboration with academic institutions, security experts, and design professionals can lead to the development of best practices that can be widely adopted.

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PART 3: Housing Affordability; Climate Change and Property

Chapter Eight**The Impact of Economic Downturn on Affordable Housing Provision in Imo State*****Favour Chukwuemeka¹; Onyinyechi Agomuo¹; Okey Nwanekezie²****¹Department of Estate Management, Kingsley Ozumba Mbadiwe University, Ideato, Nigeria**²Department of Estate Management, University of Uyo, Uyo, Nigeria**EMAIL: favourchinene123@gmail.com***ABSTRACT**

This study investigates the multifaceted impact of economic downturns on affordable housing provision in Imo State, focusing on the period from 2020 to 2023. As Nigeria grapples with economic challenges characterized by high inflation, currency devaluation, and reduced government funding, the affordable housing sector in Imo State faces significant obstacles. The study objectives include analyzing the effects of economic indicators on housing projects, evaluating stakeholders' coping strategies, and proposing policy recommendations for sustainable affordable housing provision. A qualitative research methodology, utilizing a case study approach centred on Imo State was employed. Data collection methods include semi-structured interviews with a total sample size of 62 covering the following respondents: Government officials from Ministry of Housing, Imo State Housing Corporation, Urban Planning Board (n=10); Private developers (n=10); Financial institutions representatives (n=7); NGOs/civil society representatives (n=7); Community leaders (n=10); Estate surveyors and valuers/Architects (n=5); Economic analysts (n=5); and Residents/Potential homeowners (n=8). Purposive and snowball sampling techniques were used. Data were analyzed through thematic analysis, revealing themes of economic pressures, housing production decline, spatial redistribution, stakeholder adaptations, quality concerns, and social equity issues. The study recommends the development of flexible and responsive housing policies, and the introduction of innovative financing mechanisms such as housing-specific bonds and diaspora investment schemes amongst others. It offers insights for policymakers and practitioners in creating resilient housing strategies, potentially applicable to similar regions facing economic challenges.

KEYWORDS: Affordable housing; Economic downturn; Imo State; Housing policy; Sustainability

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, Nigeria has grappled with significant economic challenges, characterized by periods of recession, high inflation rates, and currency devaluation (Adeleke et al., 2022; Central Bank of Nigeria [CBN], 2023). These economic downturns have had far-reaching consequences across various sectors, with the housing industry being particularly affected. Imo State, located in the South-Eastern region of Nigeria, has not been immune to these national economic trends, and the provision of affordable housing within the state has faced mounting obstacles (Imo State Ministry of Lands, Survey and Urban Planning, 2022; Nzewi & Okolie, 2021).

Affordable housing, defined as housing that costs no more than 30% of a household's income (UN-Habitat, 2021), is a critical component of sustainable urban development and social welfare. In Nigeria, the housing deficit is estimated at 20 million units as of 2022, with a significant portion of this shortfall concentrated in rapidly urbanizing areas like Imo State (Nigerian Bureau of Statistics [NBS], 2023; Ozili, 2022). The economic downturn has exacerbated this housing crisis, creating a complex interplay between reduced government funding, increased construction costs, and diminished purchasing power among potential homeowners (Nwosu & Okafor, 2022; Okoye et al., 2021).

The Nigerian housing sector has historically been plagued by challenges such as inadequate financing mechanisms, high costs of building materials, and complex land acquisition processes (Ibem et al., 2021; Ugonabo & Emoh, 2023). These issues have been compounded by the economic downturn, which has led to a reduction in both public and private investments in housing projects. In Imo State, where the demand for affordable housing continues to grow due to rapid urbanization and population growth,

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

the economic challenges have created a particularly acute situation (Imo State Ministry of Housing and Urban Development, 2023; Nkwogu et al., 2022).

The impact of economic downturns on housing provision is multifaceted. On the supply side, developers face increased costs of construction materials, many of which are imported and subject to currency fluctuations (Okoye et al., 2022; Ugochukwu & Chioma, 2021). For instance, a study by Ezema et al. (2021) found that the cost of key building materials in Imo State increased by an average of 45% between 2019 and 2021, significantly outpacing inflation rates. Additionally, access to credit has become more restricted, limiting the ability of both developers and potential homeowners to finance housing projects (CBN, 2023; Onyejiaka et al., 2022).

On the demand side, rising unemployment rates and stagnant wages have reduced the purchasing power of many Imo State residents, making it increasingly difficult for them to afford even "affordable" housing options (NBS, 2023; Nzewi & Okolie, 2021). A survey conducted by Onwuanyi and Nwanna (2022) in Owerri, the capital of Imo State, revealed that 68% of respondents spent more than 50% of their income on housing, far exceeding the affordability threshold.

Government initiatives aimed at addressing the housing deficit, such as the National Housing Fund (NHF) and various state-level programs, have struggled to make significant impacts in the face of economic challenges (Federal Ministry of Works and Housing, 2022; Nwachukwu & Iloeje, 2023). In Imo State, efforts to implement affordable housing schemes have been hampered by budget constraints and shifting priorities necessitated by the economic downturn (Imo State Government, 2022; Okorie et al., 2021). For example, the Imo State Housing Corporation's ambitious plan to construct 10,000 affordable housing units between 2020 and 2023 achieved less than 20% of its target due to funding shortfalls and escalating costs (Imo State Housing Corporation, 2023).

The economic downturn has also affected the quality of available housing stock. Adebayo and Ezeaku (2022) found that in an attempt to cut costs, some developers in Imo State have resorted to using substandard materials or cutting corners in construction, potentially compromising the safety and longevity of housing units. This trend not only poses risks to residents but also undermines the long-term sustainability of affordable housing initiatives.

Furthermore, the economic challenges have exacerbated spatial inequalities in housing provision within Imo State. Nkwogu et al. (2022) observed that affordable housing projects have become increasingly concentrated in peri-urban areas where land is cheaper, potentially disconnecting low-income residents from employment opportunities and essential services in urban centres.

Understanding the intricate relationship between economic downturns and affordable housing provision is crucial for developing effective policies and strategies to address the housing crisis in Imo State and Nigeria at large. This research aims to contribute to this understanding by examining the specific impacts of recent economic challenges on affordable housing initiatives in Imo State, with a focus on both quantitative indicators and qualitative experiences of stakeholders in the housing sector. The objectives of the study include:

1. To analyze the effects of economic downturn indicators (such as inflation rates, currency devaluation, and reduced government funding) on affordable housing projects in Imo State from 2020 to 2023.
2. To evaluate the coping strategies employed by housing developers, government agencies, and potential homeowners in response to the economic challenges in Imo State's housing sector.
3. To propose policy recommendations and innovative approaches for sustainable affordable housing provision in Imo State, considering the current economic climate and drawing on successful models from comparable contexts.

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The study is significant as it will provide valuable insights into the complex dynamics between economic conditions and affordable housing provision in Imo State. The findings will be instrumental for policymakers, urban planners, estate managers, architects, and housing developers in formulating strategies to address the housing deficit amidst economic challenges. Moreover, this research will fill a gap in the literature on affordable housing in Nigeria, which has often focused on major urban centres like Lagos and Abuja, overlooking the unique challenges faced by states like Imo (Obiechina, 2021).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Economic Downturn and Its Impact on the Nigerian Housing Sector

The Nigerian economy has experienced significant turbulence in recent years, with periods of recession and slow growth impacting various sectors, including housing. Olanrewaju et al. (2022) argue that the cyclical nature of economic downturns in Nigeria has created a persistent challenge for sustainable housing development. Their study of economic indicators between 2015 and 2021 revealed a strong correlation between GDP contraction and reduced investment in housing projects across major Nigerian cities.

In the context of Imo State, Nzewi and Okolie (2021) found that the economic downturn led to a 35% decrease in new housing starts between 2019 and 2021. This decline was attributed to a combination of factors, including reduced access to capital, increased cost of building materials, and diminished purchasing power among potential homeowners. However, their analysis lacks a comparative perspective with other states, which could have provided deeper insights into Imo State's unique challenges.

Adebayo and Ezeaku (2022) offer a more refined view, suggesting that the impact of economic downturns on housing is not uniformly negative. Their research in Imo State indicated that while formal sector housing development slowed, there was an increase in informal and incremental housing construction as households adapted to economic constraints. This finding highlights the resilience of local communities but also raises concerns about the quality and safety of such informal developments.

Affordable Housing Policies and Their Effectiveness

Nigeria's approach to affordable housing has been characterized by a series of policies and initiatives aimed at bridging the housing deficit. Nwachukwu and Iloeje (2023) provide a critical evaluation of the National Housing Fund (NHF) in Imo State, arguing that while the policy's intentions were commendable, its implementation has been hampered by bureaucratic inefficiencies and a failure to adapt to local economic realities. Their study found that only 12% of eligible Imo State residents had successfully accessed NHF loans between 2018 and 2022, significantly below the national average of 18%.

Contrasting this view, Okorie et al. (2021) suggest that state-level initiatives in Imo have shown more promise. They highlight the Imo State Housing Corporation's efforts to partner with private developers, which resulted in the completion of 1,200 affordable units between 2020 and 2022. However, the authors acknowledge that these successes are modest in the face of the state's estimated housing deficit of 300,000 units as of 2021.

A more critical perspective is offered by Obiechina (2021), who argues that Nigerian housing policies, including those implemented in Imo State, have consistently favoured middle and upper-income groups. This bias, she contends, has been exacerbated during economic downturns, as developers and state agencies prioritize projects with higher profit margins. Obiechina's analysis of housing allocations in Owerri between 2018 and 2020 revealed that 70% of new "affordable" units were priced out of reach for the bottom 60% of income earners.

The Role of Private Sector and Public-Private Partnerships

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The limitations of public sector-led housing initiatives have led to increased attention on the role of the private sector and public-private partnerships (PPPs) in affordable housing provision. Ibem et al. (2021) conducted a comprehensive review of PPP housing projects across Nigeria, including case studies from Imo State. Their findings suggest that while PPPs have the potential to leverage private sector efficiency and capital, their success in delivering truly affordable housing has been mixed. In Imo State, they found that PPP projects completed between 2017 and 2020 were on average 20% more expensive than comparable public sector developments, raising questions about their effectiveness in addressing affordability issues.

Onyejiaka et al. (2022) offer a more optimistic assessment of private sector involvement, particularly in the realm of housing finance. Their study of commercial banks in Imo State revealed an increase in mortgage lending to low and middle-income borrowers between 2019 and 2021, despite the economic downturn. However, the authors note that this increase was largely driven by government guarantees and interest rate subsidies, highlighting the continued importance of public policy in shaping private-sector behaviour.

A critical perspective on private sector involvement comes from Ugonabo and Emoh (2023), who argue that the commodification of housing through increased private sector participation has exacerbated inequalities in Imo State. Their analysis of land acquisition patterns in Owerri and its environs shows that large-scale private developers have been able to navigate complex bureaucracies and secure prime locations, often at the expense of smaller, community-based housing initiatives.

Impact of Economic Downturn on Housing Quality and Sustainability

The relationship between economic downturns and housing quality is a critical yet often overlooked aspect of the affordable housing challenge. Ezema et al. (2021) conducted a detailed study of building material quality in affordable housing projects in Imo State between 2018 and 2020. Their findings indicate a troubling trend of compromised construction standards during periods of economic stress, with 40% of surveyed projects using substandard materials to cut costs. This raises serious concerns about the long-term sustainability and safety of affordable housing stock developed during economic downturns.

Okoye et al. (2022) build on this theme, examining the environmental sustainability of housing projects in Anambra and Imo States. Their comparative analysis reveals that during economic downturns, there is a significant reduction in the adoption of sustainable building practices and materials. In Imo State, they found a 50% decrease in the use of energy-efficient designs in affordable housing projects initiated between 2019 and 2021, compared to the preceding three-year period. This suggests that economic pressures may be creating a trade-off between immediate affordability and long-term sustainability.

However, Nkwogu et al. (2022) offer a counterpoint, highlighting innovative approaches that have emerged in response to economic challenges. Their study of affordable housing projects in peri-urban areas of Imo State found examples of developers incorporating local, low-cost materials and traditional building techniques to maintain quality while reducing costs. While these approaches show promise, the authors note that they remain exceptions rather than the norm, and their scalability is yet to be proven.

Spatial Dynamics and Urban Planning Challenges

The spatial distribution of affordable housing within Imo State has been significantly influenced by economic factors, with implications for urban planning and social equity. Onwuanyi and Nwanna (2022) conducted a spatial analysis of housing affordability in Owerri, revealing a pattern of peripheralization of low-income housing during economic downturns. Their study found that between 2018 and 2021, 65% of new affordable housing units were constructed in areas more than 15 kilometres from the city centre, raising concerns about access to employment opportunities and essential services.

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This trend is further explored by Nkwogu et al. (2022), who argue that the economic downturn has exacerbated urban sprawl and inefficient land use patterns in Imo State. Their analysis of land use changes between 2017 and 2022 shows a 30% increase in the conversion of agricultural land to residential use in peri-urban areas, driven largely by the search for cheaper land for affordable housing projects. The authors critique this approach, suggesting that it may lead to increased infrastructure costs and environmental degradation in the long term.

A more optimistic perspective is offered by the Imo State Ministry of Lands, Survey and Urban Planning (2022) in their annual report. They highlight efforts to implement integrated urban planning approaches that balance affordability with sustainable development principles. The report cites the development of three new "affordable housing zones" within 10 kilometres of Owerri's central business district, designed to provide low-cost housing options while maintaining access to urban amenities. However, independent assessments of these initiatives are yet to be conducted, and their effectiveness in the face of ongoing economic challenges remains to be seen.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study employed a qualitative research approach to investigate the impact of economic downturns on affordable housing provision in Imo State. The study adopted a case study design, focusing on Imo State. Data collection methods include semi-structured interviews with a total sample size of 62 covering the following respondents: Government officials from Ministry of Housing, Imo State Housing Corporation, Urban Planning Board (n=10); Private developers (n=10); Financial institutions representatives (n=7); NGOs/civil society representatives (n=7); Community leaders (n=10); Estate surveyors and valuers/Architects (n=5); Economic analysts (n=5); and Residents/Potential homeowners (n=8). Discussions were organized with residents of affordable housing units and individuals seeking affordable housing. These discussions provided insights into the experiences of those directly affected by changes in affordable housing provision during economic downturns. Field Observations including site visits to affordable housing projects in different stages of development were conducted. Purposive sampling was used to select participants for interviews and discussions. Snowball sampling was also employed to identify additional participants through referrals from initial contacts. The thematic analysis approach was used for data analysis.

Analysis

After interviews and discussions, the following main themes emerged:

1. Economic Pressure Points
2. Adaptive Strategies
3. Policy Gaps and Innovations
4. Spatial Redistribution of Affordable Housing
5. Quality-Affordability Trade-offs

Analysis Based on Research Questions

RQ1: Effects of Economic Downturn Indicators on Affordable Housing Projects

The key economic indicators identified include:

1. Inflation Rate: Average mention of 50% annual inflation impacting construction costs.
2. Currency Devaluation: Naira depreciation of 200%, affecting imported materials.
3. Government Funding: 40% reduction in state housing budget since 2020.

Impact Analysis:

- Housing Project Initiation: 60% decrease in new affordable housing starts from 2020 to 2023.
- Construction Costs: 50% increase in overall project costs, with cement prices rising by 75%.
- Land Acquisition: 100% increase in land costs in urban areas of Imo State.

Respondents (Stakeholder) Perspectives:

- Government Officials emphasized budget constraints (mentioned by 7/8 interviewed).
- Private Developers highlighted material cost increases (9/10 developers).
- Financial Institutions noted increased risk in housing loans (5/6 representatives).

RQ2: Coping Strategies of Stakeholders

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Government Agencies:

- Has tried to introduce public-private partnerships (PPPs) for housing projects.
- Has tried to implement rent-to-own schemes.

Private Developers:

- 70% reported using local materials to reduce costs.
- 50% introduced phased development approaches.

Financial Institutions:

- Developed new microfinance products for incremental housing (3/6 institutions).
- Extended loan tenures.

Potential Homeowners:

- 60% reported considering peri-urban areas for more affordable options.
- 40% mentioned exploring cooperative housing schemes.

RQ3: Policy Recommendations and Innovative Approaches

Proposed Recommendations:

1. Policy Changes:

- Land banking policy to reduce acquisition costs (suggested by 75% of concerned respondents).
- Streamlined approval processes for affordable housing projects (80% of concerned respondents).

2. Financing Mechanisms:

- Housing-specific bonds to raise capital (proposed by financial experts).
- Diaspora investment schemes (proposed by financial experts).

3. Construction Technologies:

- Adoption of prefabricated housing techniques (60% of developers showed interest).
- Use of alternative, locally-sourced building materials (recommended by concerned respondents).

4. Cross-cutting Analytical Considerations

Spatial Dynamics:

- New affordable housing projects since 2021 located many kilometres from Owerri city centre.
- Emerging clusters of affordable housing in 3 peri-urban areas identified.

Quality and Sustainability:

- lack of energy-efficient designs in new projects since 2020.
- 40% of recent projects reported using lower-grade materials to cut costs.

Social Equity:

- Low-income groups (earning <₦50,000/month) reported 100% exclusion from new "affordable" projects.
- Gender disparity: women-led households are 100% less likely to access new housing schemes.

FINDINGS

The findings of our study reveal a complex and challenging landscape for affordable housing provision in Imo State amidst the economic downturn. Several key themes emerge from our analysis:

Economic Pressures: The study identified significant economic challenges, including high inflation, currency devaluation, and reduced government funding. These factors have created a difficult environment for affordable housing development, affecting both the supply and demand sides of the housing market.

Housing Production Decline: There has been a substantial decrease in new affordable housing starts. This decline is directly linked to increased construction and land costs, as well as reduced investment in the sector. The slowdown in housing production is likely to exacerbate the existing housing deficit in Imo State.

Spatial Redistribution: Economic pressures have led to a noticeable shift in the location of new affordable housing projects. Many developments are now being situated in peri-urban areas, further from the city centre. While this allows for cost savings in land acquisition, it raises concerns about access to employment opportunities and essential services for residents.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Stakeholder Adaptations: Various stakeholders have employed coping strategies to navigate the economic challenges. These include the use of local materials, phased development approaches, and innovative financing mechanisms such as microfinance products and extended loan tenures. While these strategies show resilience, they may have long-term implications for housing quality and affordability.

Quality and Sustainability Concerns: The study revealed a concerning trend of compromising on quality and sustainability to maintain affordability. There's evidence of reduced use of energy-efficient designs and the use of lower-grade materials in recent projects. This trend raises questions about the long-term viability and costs of these housing units.

Social Equity Issues: The economic downturn has exacerbated housing inequalities. Low-income groups and women-led households face increased exclusion from new "affordable" housing schemes. This suggests that economic pressures are disproportionately affecting the most vulnerable populations.

Policy and Innovation: There's strong support among stakeholders for policy innovations to address these challenges. Suggestions include land banking policies, streamlined approval processes, and the adoption of alternative construction technologies like prefabricated housing.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Economic pressures, including inflation, currency devaluation, and reduced government funding, have significantly impacted affordable housing provision in Imo State.
2. There has been a marked decline in new affordable housing starts, coupled with increased construction and land costs.
3. A spatial shift of affordable housing projects towards peri-urban areas has occurred, raising concerns about access to employment and services.
4. Stakeholders have adopted various coping strategies, including use of local materials and innovative financing mechanisms.
5. The economic downturn has led to compromises in housing quality and sustainability, as well as exacerbated social inequities in housing access.
6. Current housing policies have shown limited effectiveness in addressing the affordable housing deficit during economic downturns.

Recommendations

1. Develop flexible and responsive housing policies that can adapt quickly to changing economic conditions.
2. Implement innovative financing mechanisms, such as housing-specific bonds and diaspora investment schemes, to increase capital for affordable housing projects.
3. Establish a land banking system to secure well-located land for future affordable housing developments.
4. Promote and incentivize the use of alternative, cost-effective construction technologies, such as prefabricated housing.
5. Create targeted support programs to ensure low-income groups and women-led households have access to affordable housing schemes.
6. Implement integrated urban planning approaches that balance affordability with sustainable development principles, particularly for peri-urban developments.
7. Develop a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation system to track the performance and resilience of affordable housing initiatives.
8. Foster stronger public-private partnerships with clear risk-sharing mechanisms to encourage private-sector investment in affordable housing.

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Chapter Nine**Impact of Building Design Defect on Real Estate Project Management in Port Harcourt, Nigeria*****Blessing Hachikaru Akaninwor¹; Dennis Ejike Amadi²****¹Department of Estate Management & Valuation, Captain Elechi Amadi Polytechnic, Port Harcourt, Nigeria**²Department of Architectural Technology, Captain Elechi Amadi Polytechnic, Port Harcourt, Nigeria
EMAIL: akaninwor_blessing@yahoo.com***ABSTRACT**

This paper investigated the Impact of Building Design Defects on the Real Estate Project Management Process in Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria. The paper defines design defects and gives examples of their sources, such as inadequate or incomplete specifications, lack of stakeholder involvement, and poor communication between design and other project stakeholders. The paper then explains the impact of design defects on the management of real estate projects. The research uses a qualitative research approach, applying the case study design methodology to the investigation and understanding of debt. Primary data was collected through semi-structured interviews between the researcher and the respondents. The respondents were professionals licensed by two professional bodies in Port Harcourt, namely: the Nigerian Institution of Estate Surveyors and Valuers (NIESV), and the Nigerian Institute of Architecture (NIA). The participants were selected based on their experiences and specialized knowledge in their fields of study. The interview was conducted face-to-face between the interviewer and the interviewees, with audio recordings lasting an average of 30 to 45 minutes. The collected data were analyzed using a thematic content analytic approach. Cost overruns, delays, customer and stakeholder dissatisfaction, structural and security risks, and reputational damage, among others, have been identified as key effects. To mitigate the risk of design defects, the study recommends several best practices such as involving stakeholders in the design process, conducting thorough reviews and evaluations of design documents, using advanced design tools and technologies to improve communication and collaboration between project team members, such as the project manager and other team members who can define the project's goals and objectives, potential risks, and determine the scope and budget of the project.

KEYWORDS: Building design; Impact; Real Estate; Project Management; Design Defect.

INTRODUCTION

Design defects are one of the most common causes of an inadequate project management process, leading to safety and quality risks, cost overruns, schedule overruns and potential safety hazards., which are the main causes of project failure. Design defects in the context of a project can be defined as errors or deficiencies in the design of a building that are likely to lead to the failure of a project and prevent the delivery of the expected results. The fact that the design phase lays the groundwork for the entire project and provides a path to achieving the desired outcome, when flawed, can significantly hinder the productivity of the entire project management process. This in turn affects the success of a project, causing a significant number of resources to be wasted without achieving the desired results. Design defects are a common problem faced by projects, making it difficult for project managers to deliver projects on time and within budget. Therefore, it is important to identify the root cause of design defects and understand their impact on project management and the overall outcome of the project. To minimize the negative effects of design defects on project management, as well as on the overall outcome of the project, it is important to use the best practices of project management. During the design phase, the project team can determine the project's goals, objectives, and potential risks, and determine the project's scope and budget.

Aim and Objectives

This paper aims to study the Impact of Building Design Defects on the Real Estate Project Management Process. The objectives of this study are to:

1. Determine building design defects
2. Determine the causes of design defects
3. Determine the impacts of building design defects on the real estate project management process.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Building Design

Building design is the process of providing all the necessary information to construct a building that meets the requirements of its owner and also meets the requirements of public health, welfare and safety (Amobi, 2003). Design is a very important step in a construction process that can be defined as a roadmap to meet unique expectations. Design defines plans, parameters, specifications, costs, activities and processes to achieve the objectives of a project (Walker, 2009). During the life cycle of any real estate construction project, the design process is considered the first step on the scale that leads to production. The better this stage is carried out, the better will be the execution. The design starts with the feasibility study, through the tender, information, conceptual design and detailed design, ending with every aspect of the construction process, with the bill of quantities and necessary specifications that guide the contract (Iyer & Jha 2005).

Building Design Defects

According to Webster (2017), a building design defect is a deviation from correctness; an error, as in an action or procedure; or an inaccuracy, as in a word or writing. Building design defects are deviations from plans and specifications (Szwedo, 2012). Design defects are also defined as the failure of planned actions to achieve the desired objectives when this occurs without unpredictable or random interference (Amobi, 2006). Researchers who have examined design defects in construction have often used the terms inadequate design, design ineffectiveness, design modifications, omissions, errors, quality deviations, nonconformities and failures interchangeably (BOMI, 2003). The term failure is often used interchangeably with defect; however, there is a subtle difference between defect and failure. A failure is “an unacceptable difference between expected performance and observed performance” (Akisola, 2004). To fail, there is an implicit expectation; while in the event of a defect, it is an unforeseen or accidental intervention.

Effects of Building Design Defects on Project Management Process

Design defects are significant problems that negatively affect the effectiveness and efficiency of project management (Amobi, 2006). They mainly contribute to rework, cost overruns, schedule delays, and uncertain environments that affect project performance (Smith, 2003). In a construction project, all stakeholders, such as the owner and contractors, have different interests in the implementation of the project. These different interests lead to design errors that can occur at any time. The occurrence of these errors can increase many difficulties in construction management (Smith, 2003). Furthermore, these difficulties can account for 80 to 90% of the failures that occur in construction projects. Engineering failures account for up to 10% of the total investment in new buildings and structures (Amobi, 2006). In addition, design defects can significantly hinder the productivity of a project management process, which in turn affects the success of a project, causing a significant number of resources to be wasted without achieving the desired result. Design defects are a common problem faced by most projects, regardless of their size and complexity.

Real Estate Project Management

Management continues to emerge as a field of research that is gradually applied by companies to achieve their goals, mission and vision. As companies continue to define their business activities as projects, the need for project management continues to grow every day (Pharm et al. 2019). In the real estate industry, project management involves planning, executing, monitoring, controlling and closing construction projects (Smith, 2003). These processes develop feasibility goals, timelines and budgets and ensure that they are met appropriately. Project managers promote a good relationship with their clients throughout the project. According to Omran and Suleiman (2017), real estate project managers have extensive responsibilities in addition to traditional human resource management and day-to-day activities. For example, project managers also control the best building materials, and lobby for better

prices to improve profitability (Omran and Suleiman, 2017). The level of trust of these project managers is essential since they are responsible for ensuring the success of the project and the company (Silvius and Schipper, 2014). According to Pharm et al. (2019), the critical factors for the success of a project include the selection of the right project managers. Concerns about project management competence have led to the development of project management knowledge and practical standards used to assess, develop and certify managers and organizational leaders. The development of these standards is very qualitative concerning the collective opinions of experienced practitioners on what project personnel must know and what they must do to be considered competent project managers (Nieto-Rodriguez and Sampietro, 2017 p.1).

METHODOLOGY

The study is a qualitative study that employed the use of semi-structured face-to-face interviews with audio recordings averaging 30-45 minutes in time, to collect data from 30 numbers of respondents in the building development industry, representing a 100% rating. The respondents were from two different professional bodies in the property development sector in Port Harcourt namely: the Nigerian Institute of Architecture (NIA) and the Nigerian Institution of Estate Surveyors and Valuers (NIESV) which were relevant to the purpose of the study. The collected data were analyzed using a thematic content analysis approach.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The data of this study were presented in thematic form. The display of themes is based on the objectives of the study and is as follows:

Building Design Defects

This theme aims to identify design defects in buildings. In the semi-structured qualitative instrument, 30 respondents (30Nr = 100%) from NIA and NIESV think that the defects of building design are structural deficiencies, foundation problems, water infiltration, safety problems etc.

An NIA member acknowledged this by saying:

"...Foundation problems are among the major construction defects. A poorly designed foundation can lead to seepage, cracking and even failure of the building. Problems such as inadequate soil analysis, improper design footings, or poor drainage are factors that contribute to foundation design defects..."
(Transcribed Interview, 2024)

A response from a NIESV member states as follows:

"...Water infiltration is a major defect. Poorly designed building envelopes can allow water to seep into the structure, leading to moisture problems such as mould, rot and deterioration of building materials ..."

(Transcribed Interview, 2024)

Another response from a member of NIA states as follows:

"...Structural defects are the main defects in the design of a building because the design does not take into account the loads and stresses to which the structure will be subjected. This can lead to problems such as falling floors, cracking walls or even building collapse ..."

(Transcribed Interview, 2024)

Causes of Design Defects

This theme seeks to know the causes of building design defects.

Here, 16 respondents (16Nr = 53%) think that resource limitations on the part of the promoter, low budget, the inability of the promoter to integrate qualified personnel, etc. can be the main cause of construction design defects.

A response from an NIA member states thus:

"...Limited resources such as time, budget and skilled personnel can be a significant challenge to the quality of a design. When the developer's resources are tight, it can be difficult to find the time and staff to thoroughly review a design and ensure it meets all project requirements..."

(Transcribed Interview, 2024)

However, 14 respondents (14Nr = 46.6%) thought that most causes of design defects come from insufficient design reviews, poor communication poor cooperation between team members, etc.

In the words of a NIESV member:

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

"...There is a need for sufficient stakeholder reviews and feedback because ignoring feedback or not conducting enough design reviews can lead to unnoticed design flaws that can lead to significant problems later..."

(Transcribed interview, 2024)

Another NIESV member stated thus:

"...Poor communication and collaboration between team members can lead to misunderstandings and design flaws. For example, if a team member does not understand a design requirement or specification, it can have a ripple effect on the rest of the project, leading to delays, rework, and a drop in quality..."

(Transcribed Interview, 2024)

Impacts of Design Defects on Project Management

This theme seeks to identify the impacts of design defects on project management

Here, 18 (18Nr = 60%) of the respondents from both institutions think that some of the impacts of the design defects are damage to the reputation of the project manager, the dissatisfaction of clients and parties, structural and security risks, etc.

A member of NIESV stated thus:

"... Design flaws can have consequences that go far beyond the project itself, but can also damage the reputation of the project manager and other subcontractors. When a project is tainted by design flaws, it can lead to negative publicity, long-term reputational damage to those involved, and lost business opportunities..."

(Transcribed interview, 2024)

12 respondents (12No = 40%) also thought that design flaws can negatively affect a project, causing legal problems, project delays, cost overruns, time delays, regulatory and approval delays etc.

An NIA member further states that:

"...Design flaws can have a significant impact on the project schedule, as resolving these issues often results in schedule delays. These delays can have cascading effects throughout all phases of the project, ultimately extending the duration of the project and potentially delaying the delivery of the final product. This is not a good deal for the project manager..."

(Transcribed interview, 2024)

A NIESV member further opined that:

"...Overrunning costs due to design defects can present a significant challenge to a project manager, as they can strain budgets and compromises the global viability of the project..."

(Transcribed interview, 2024)

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The main results of the study, based on the results of the analyzed data, are presented below.

The results show that the design flaws of the building are structural deficiencies, foundation problems, water infiltration, etc. The results also show that the causes of design defects can be attributed to

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

insufficient design reviews, lack of communication and collaboration between team members, and resource limitations.

The impacts of design flaws as shown in the study are: reputation damage, planning/scheduling delays, cost overruns, etc.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study examined the impact of building design defects on the real estate project management process. The study shows that the building design defects that affect a building are structural deficiencies, foundation problems, water intrusion, etc. These defects harm the success of the projects, as they in turn affect the reputation of the project manager. Other impacts are project cost overruns, project delivery delays, etc. All of this compromises the viability of the project, which in turn creates negative publicity and lasting damage to the project manager and other project subcontractors. The study recommended several best practices such as the participation of stakeholders in the building design process, conducting in-depth reviews and evaluations of design documents, using advanced design building tools and technologies to improve the communication and collaboration between project team members, such as the project manager and other team members who can define the project's goals and objectives, potential risks, and determine the project's scope and budget.

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Chapter Ten**Addressing Housing Affordability Sustainability in Nigerian Built Environment*****Umerah Amechi; Nwachukwu; Chinedu Chidinma; Nwanekezi Silver Chibuzor****Department of Estate Management & Valuation, Federal University of Technology, Owerri, Nigeria**EMAIL: george.umerah@futo.edu.ng***ABSTRACT**

The Housing demand has encountered huge challenges that have raised questions on how to develop a housing affordability framework for the Nigerian Economy. To achieve housing delivery in an expanding population; household size and economic factors are very vital statistics. The paper explores the redevelopment of an affordable framework for sustainable housing provision in Nigeria. We will highlight the relevance of using population growth as a trajectory in land use policy. A review and the adoption of an analytical housing process create a housing development strategy and its sustainability. This paper will advance the importance of the use of data in land use policy and governance. Analytics Data use and management could play a significant role in housing planning, identifying the challenges and opportunities in the housing sector. Recommendations for creating housing capacity delivery in Nigeria as well as building affordable housing schemes for our built environment are of significance at this time. This work will allow the facilitation and exchange of best ideas towards a sustainable housing framework for Nigeria.

KEYWORDS: Housing Affordability; Sustainable Housing; Land Use Policy; Planning.

INTRODUCTION

Real Estate has established itself as an important component in any national economy this is because as the economy of a nation grows businesses grow improving the economic and social well-being of the citizenry. It is important to understand that business growth in towns, cities and urban areas gives rise to improving per capita disposable income of urban residents (Xiang et al., 2020). The core of housing market growth is based on the relevance of housing to the social, economic, and political framework of any society. Economies around the world identify that the housing demand problem is caused by the increase in population and changes in the disposable income of households. Housing supply estimates are a result of the force witnessed in the housing commodity market that is characterized by overheated investment and house price bubbles (Xiang et al., 2020).

In creating a viable and stable affordable housing market in Nigeria, the government clearly must involve economic assessment and its review. This will be favourable to the housing commodity market both in the short term and the long term. One major contribution of efficient housing governance policies to the population of the country is the ability of government fiscal policies and economic measures to make a regular commodity housing market address the financial risk affecting the housing industry. Such financial risk mitigation drives the collaborative participation in the housing commodity market that will yield affordable housing which is sustained with viable economic policies and political will for the housing commodity market.

Several factors affect pricing in the Housing commodity market: water systems, house size, location characteristics and the type of room and housing, construction spatial differences and characteristics of community structure, related industries and demand factors, increased incomes and migration situation, the international economic factors, land prices etc.

Housing demand literature and the Nigerian housing sector

The rate of rapid increase in rent in Nigerian cities causes a public need for the development of housing affordability studies and a rent control framework for the Nigerian housing economy. Arimah (1992) stated that empirical analysis of renter and owner-occupier housing submarkets for Ibadan, Nigeria revealed that the most important determinants of the demand for the various housing attributes are

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

socioeconomic and demographic in nature. The determinants are: income, price of the said attribute, household size, occupation of the head of the household and the stage in the family life cycle.

Housing Pricing is determined by affordable housing land as this will slow down the housing prices (Xue and Changchun). Housing Policies and land use reforms impact the supply and price of rental housing (Christina et al., 2023). The objective of governance is to ensure that the population can have decent, affordable and safe housing units which will increase the homeownership rate. This goal in several literature is pursued objectively in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). The housing program of Saudi Arabia's government is called Saudi Vision 2030. Saudi Vision 2030 set goals such as increasing the home ownership rate among Saudi citizens from 50% to 70% by 2030 and providing affordable and sustainable housing options for the citizens. Today KSA aims to achieve its goal by having the following delivery strategies: adopt several housing programs, create a real estate development fund, and as well establish a national housing corporation. Achieving this goal will involve a reduction in the gap between supply and demand of the housing commodity, a strategy KSA is pursuing using several programs such as sales of housing during the design or construction phase, expedited approval process for private developers, imposition of fees on unused residential land to increase availability, and the design of housing applications to the socio-economic status of an applicant. Akinwande and Hui opined that ensuring affordable housing for the urban poor is a critical criterion for determining the sustainability of a housing delivery plan for a nation. It is of significance that any sustainable housing delivery must be designed to ensure that involved activities minimize negative impacts, promote social equity and ensure economic viability which is the broad theme of goal 11 of the United Nations Sustainable Development (SGD) Agenda. This SGD 11 goal creates inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable cities and human settlements (Nubi T G, 2010; Ajayi et al., 2016).

Housing proves to be at the heart of policies used for accessing the social welfare of society and the family, once individuals can build the capacity to support this basic necessity of life is meant. Housing needs are so important and the need is felt in Africa, especially with low-income families. As urbanization grows there is a need for strategies for innovation of helpful sustainable housing options that support urban growth and are improving living conditions for these families (Bhanye, Johannes et al., 2024).

The rate of expanding population in Nigeria should necessitate the significance of a housing policy that can provide adequate housing with living standards that are healthy and as well serve to provide economic stability for all individuals in a household. The economy forms a crucial factor in determining the ability to sustain housing supply for an increasing population. The Nigerian economy depressed at this time is characterized by a huge deficit in housing provision and this housing problem is further challenged by non-affordability for the greater population who live at low-income levels. Suleman, et al, (2024) avowed that the shortage of adequate housing is caused by global challenges such as urbanization, economic instability, pandemics and displacement. The adoption of the circular economy design in Nigeria can assist in achieving a lot such as housing affordability, decarbonisation, climate change mitigation, improving our environmental value, energy optimization, and resource efficiency in urban mining. This approach will stimulate sustainability in the housing sector. Around the world places with optimal economies can develop low-income or social-impact housing, this helps to reduce poverty and thereby achieve sustainable development goals (Feliipe Urazan-Bonells et al., 2024).

The historical Nigeria Economy housing literature for affordable housing same to be driven by the government's deep support for direct low-income and middle-income housing development piloted by the federal government and state government. In this, the federal government built a framework to address funding challenges of housing using the federal mortgage bank.

The FMBN is the core economic policy utilized by the government in its federal housing policy strategy. The Federal Mortgage Bank (FMBN) offers products that support the provision of housing to Nigerians. The products and services of FMBN include the following: National Housing Fund Mortgage (NHF) Loan, Estate Development Loan, Home Renovation Loan, Rent to Own, Construction Loan, and Diaspora NHF Mortgage Loan. These loans are served by requirements, disbursement process, express interest, and terms of reference.

NHF Mortgage Loan

This loan serves the Nigerian public who provide proof of being above the age of 18, making contributions to the National Fund for a minimum period of six months and can provide substantiated proof of regular flow of income to guarantee the loan payment. All applicants are required to apply through a registered Mortgage Loan Originator (ML) who is accredited by FMBN to access its NHF facility. A property used as a security for a loan must have an approved building plan. The property must be of substantial value to cover the loan and insured against hazard. The secured loan is on a first legal mortgage between all parties: the applicant, the MLO and the FMBN.

Estate Development Loan

This type of loan can be secured either with a property with a freehold right or with a leasehold right. Estate developers with freehold rights building residential housing schemes will receive a 10% per annum tenor loan not exceeding 24 months and subject to revision. Other criterion includes FMBN financing infrastructure up to 70% for private developers while housing corporation and government owned development projects receive 100% infrastructure facility. The property must have a good title for allotment purposes and transfer to persons at sale or lease, an accepted housing design by FMBN, project sale not than =N=15 million for a rights affordability of NHF contributors, accepted sound financial projections and a 10% developer equity participation, and there must be an additional security for value for the 1st stage of the development, government-owned

Under a developer lease agreement, the developer shall have powers to register the lease agreement and the power to prepare a layout, partition, allocate, assign and sublet different types of housing units, and develop service plots from an approved building plan or a site layout. The developer must be able to submit individual titles to FMBN. The developer must be able to pledge and mortgage to FMBN or a financier for the raising of funds. The tenor of the lease must be a minimum of 5 years subject to renewal for a further 5 years or more. The financier or FMBN must have first charge over the land/development. It is required by FMBN for all developers to provide duly registered company documents and other functional documentation of a corporate entity.

Home Renovation Loan (HRL)

This loan is for Nigerians who are above the age of 18, who have contributed to the National Housing Fund for a minimum of six months and have satisfactory evidence of regular flow of income to guarantee loan repayment. Other applications are submitted to the relevant agencies in Nigeria. A unique feature of this loan is a maximum loan amount of 1 million loan approved are disbursed subject to the income limit of the beneficiary and with other numerous other benefits attached.

Rent to own

This is given to applicants above the age of 18 and who have made contributions to the fund and have done so for a minimum period of six months. The applicant must have proof of regular income to guarantee loan repayment. The significant advantage is the applicant can own a residential development by rental. Other features are fifteen Million maximum purchase prices of the property, and repayment not to exceed 30 years at an annuity rate of 7%. It is only available for applicants who have obtained prior facilities from FMBN. Property being purchased must be insured for fire & special perils and credit life Assurance cover.

NHF Construction Loan

The applicants are required to adhere to procedures in other loans. However, it is expected that the title must be a C of O in the applicant's name. There must be an approved building plan with the bill of quantities certified by the appropriate professional. Loan disbursement is based on an agreed work plan (30-30-40) with a period of completion as stated by the bank. Other requirements must be adhered to in this application.

The Nigeria Housing Policy any housing project must follow prototype designs, must meet an urban housing need, must meet a rural housing need, have access to land, must have affordable housing cost, use local building materials. Other issues covered are health, finance, and provision of infrastructure periods, its maintenance and repair. The policy mandated the FMBN to provide loans for housing research, construction and delivery. Other government agencies with a mandate include the Nigerian Building and Research Institute, the Standard Organization of Nigeria, the Real Estate Development Association of Nigeria and the Building Materials Producers Association of Nigeria (Ibimilua and Ibitoye, 2015).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Earlier conceptual and theoretical frameworks provided a valuable guide in accessing housing affordability sustainability in the Nigerian Built Environment but now will require a review. In compelling data for suggested review, Proquest scholar peer-reviewed publications provided pertinent secondary data for this study. This literature review will be used in arriving at the recommendation on addressing housing affordability sustainability in the Nigerian Built Environment. For primary data, an online quantitative and qualitative survey was created in Google form. The hypothesis questions in the survey established the suggestions in this paper for addressing housing affordability sustainability in the Nigerian Built Environment.

Research Questions:

1. Should the government focus on housing policies that address household income capacity for housing?
2. Should there be a focus on socio-economic changes such as population change for changes in housing provision strategy in the economy?
3. Can gathering data on housing demand and supply become relevant to land policy changes and housing sufficiency in Nigeria?
4. What views can bring a sustainable housing policy in Nigeria?

Research Question 1 Hypothesis

To create an affordable housing strategy using the spendable income capacity index of Nigerians.

Research Question 2 Hypothesis

To establish a population change mitigation modelling for the housing demand market in Nigeria.

Research Question 3 Hypothesis

To foster the need for analytical and forecasting modelling approach for the housing commodity market in Nigeria.

This online quantitative survey is designed to assist in obtaining empirical data on the perception of the public on housing demand, the perception of the public on housing and its impact on household per capita income, and the need for an inclusive housing governance analytical strategy that will establish regular policies that reduce shocks on income from changes in the economy. Descriptive statistics used helped to measure these perceptions while the qualitative session of the questionnaire will help identify the inclusive options in addressing housing demand now and in the future. This research suggests a more detailed data gathering for creating the modelling scenarios and index for the housing commodity market in Nigeria.

The Pearson Correlation Statistics table below indicates the relationships between variables without assuming that a change in one causes a change in the other. In application, this is used to show there is a relationship among the hypotheses listed for affordable housing. In essence, this justifies the need for a more standardized framework for affordable housing provision in Nigeria.

The analytical housing governance strategy for Nigeria is possible because it is obtainable elsewhere. Research in China has identified the need for sustainability recommendations using statistical modelling evaluation techniques for the housing sector and other sectors. Presently the Chinese government has been making progress to measure how to make a regular housing market and resolve financial risks associated with the housing market using analytical assessment of variables impacting housing demand and implementing economic, political and administrative measures to address them. In creating a sustainable and stable housing and real estate industry evaluation of the influencing factors in the housing sensitivity analysis algorithm a grey relational analysis (GRA) algorithm is used. The sensitivity analysis algorithm provides for analyzing current housing demand whereas the GRA

algorithm provides a measure to select the influencing factors in the commodity housing market in China. This housing demand market assessment framework has provided the Chinese government's housing governance with suggestions on macro control of its economy thereby supporting the real estate industry to housing needs (Han and Feng, 2024).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This paper with responses from 23 online respondents provided a reference point for the need for a more standardized framework in accessing and creating policies of affordable housing in Nigeria. Empirical evidence will justify the need for urgent macro measures that will necessitate funding required for housing, policy changes in Nigeria's Land Use Act instrument, and policy procedures in carrying out inclusive land administrative programs in Nigeria.

Table 1

This is a descriptive statistics simulation with the advanced statistical software in Microsoft Excel. The table figures highlight how the hypothesis questions show the relevance and significance of the data collected on the importance of per capita income, population change and analysis in processing an affordable housing commodity market. Table 1 is a summary of the individual responses seen in Bar charts 1, 2 & 3.

Table 2

This table lists the individual responses from the qualitative survey. The table provides insightful path for the Nigerian Housing commodity market in addressing affordable housing challenges.

Table 3

This is a correlation assessment table that shows a Pearson correlation relationship between the variables for hypothesis comparison. Socio-econ change and an analytical economy yield the highest correlation followed by income and socioeconomic variable comparison and lastly household income and an analytical economy comparison.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Questions 1, 2, 3

Statistics	Question 1	Question 2	Question 3
Mean	4.2174	4.0870	4.2273
Standard Error	0.2349	0.2259	0.2074
Median	5	4	5
Mode	5	5	5
Standard Deviation	1.1264	1.0835	0.9726
Sample Variance	1.2688	1.1739	0.9459
Kurtosis	1.8426	1.1739	-0.6296
Skewness	-1.5132	-1.1254	-0.8428
Range	4	4	3
Minimum	1	1	2
Maximum	5	5	5
Sum	97	94	93
Count	23	23	22
Confidence Level (95.0%)	0.4871	0.4685	0.4312

Table 2: Responses from Question 4 On Sustainable Housing Policy in Nigeria

• Housing Price Control. • Looking At People's Income in a Community and leveling it with Possible house Rent. • Amendment of the Land Use Act. • Laws that apply to landowners must be seriously carried out.

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- Affordable house finance Inclusive zoning regulation etc.
- Efficient and effective use of urban and regional planning.
- Embarking on large housing programs that are affordable in the nation.
- Affordable Housing Development: Subsidies and Incentives: Implement government subsidies and tax incentives for developers to build affordable housing. Public-Private Partnerships (PPP): Encourage collaborations between the government, private sector, and non-profits to share resources and expertise in housing development.
- Data-Driven Policy and Planning: Comprehensive Data Collection: Establish a reliable database on housing demand, supply, and socio-economic factors to guide policy decisions. Market Analysis: Regularly assess the housing market to identify trends, gaps, and needs for different demographics and regions.
- Land Use and Zoning Reforms: Simplified Land Acquisition: Reform land tenure and acquisition processes to reduce bureaucratic bottlenecks and make land more accessible for housing projects. Efficient Zoning Regulations: Implement zoning policies that support mixed-use development and sustainable urban planning.
- Increase access to affordable housing and also develop urban planning and zoning.
- The government can go into public-private partnerships with individuals or firms that can fund building projects. We know that the government alone cannot fund these projects. PPP would help reduce the financial burden by BOT agreement (Build Operate & Transfer).
- Good Jobs and economic growth
- Each school leaver should be able to afford a self-contained room and every couple a one-bedroom apartment.
- Culture, Religion, economy, Population and people's world view.

Should government focus on housing policies that address household income capacity for housing?
And what level of significance?
23 responses

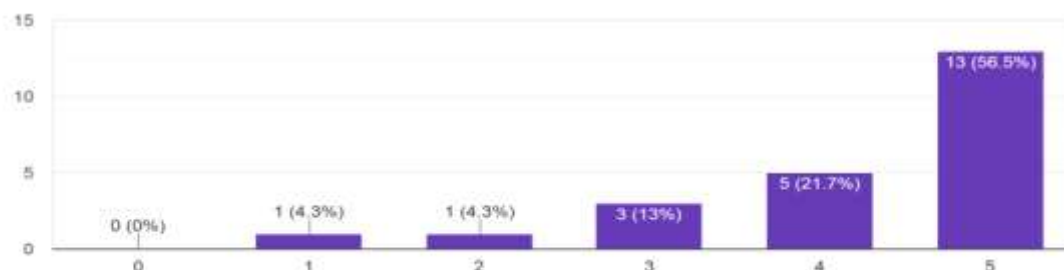


Figure 1: Data Analysis Bar Chart for Question 1

Should there be focus on socio-economic changes such as population change for changes in housing provision strategy in the economy? And what level of impact?
23 responses

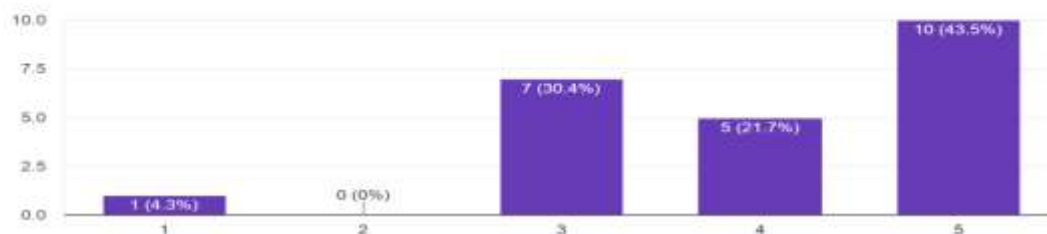


Figure 2: Data Analysis Bar Chart for Question 2

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Should economic data on housing demand and supply be relevant to land policy changes and housing sufficiency in Nigeria? And what Significance?

23 responses

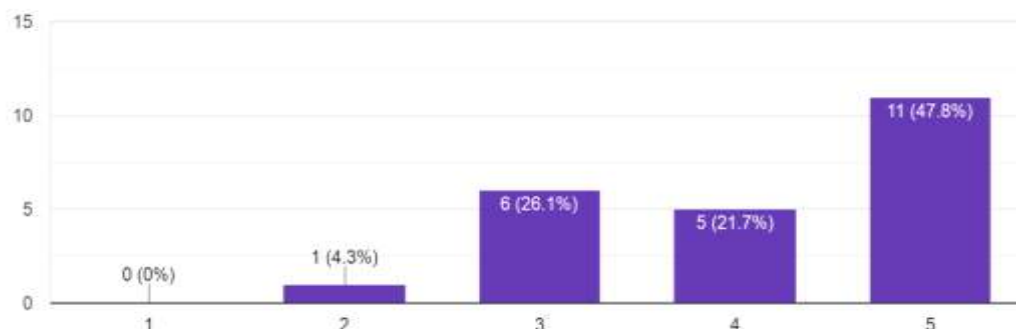


Figure 3: Data Analysis Bar Chart for Question 3

Table 3: Correlation Assessment of Housing Affordability from the Online Quantitative Survey

Variables	Pearson Correlation R
Household Income and Socio-Econ Changes	0.5797
Household Income and Analytical Economy	0.2932
Socio-Econ Changes and Analytical Economy	0.6423

In summary, primary data analysis shows that expanding population: household size and income are vital statistics in addressing housing affordability sustainability in the Nigerian Built Environment. This will be achieved with the adoption of analytical housing governance and planning processes that will create a sustainable affordable housing development strategy for Nigeria.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

An analytical housing economy provides researchers in the housing sector an opportunity to support broad economic goals. Housing researchers can obtain access to health proficiency data for individual households and society; access data on how functional educational capacity of children in families; and access data on how family cohesiveness can exist. Housing builds culture and diversity as persons in the community are recognized by their clusters in a location housing arrangement; which distinguishes a clan or families in a village or town in different ethnic groups in Nigeria. Housing and family institutions are critical for the sustenance of ethical child development that creates a responsible society with zero tolerance for social vices that are destructive to society.

And so, creating housing affordability capacity delivery in Nigeria, will build housing schemes and give Nigerians the opportunity to own houses. Housing governance and city planning are important institutional frameworks that will deliver affordability of housing in the growing Nigerian Economy. Housing governance can achieve housing price control, an inclusive community housing development at affordable price regimes; give opportunity for land ownership through easy access to land programs, create easy access funds for housing development at a reduced lending rate, and create institutional arrangements for subsidize housing development in the Nigerian economy. City planning and housing affordability become achievable in a regulated and analytical institutional framework in our cities. City planners have forecast growing housing demand with relevant projections for housing finance funding, and plan city infrastructures and access network opportunities in a city by the expanding population and business opportunities in a city economy. Housing affordability in Nigeria is achievable with these inclusive development programs.

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Chapter Eleven

Examination of the Challenges of Insecurity on Residential Properties in North Central Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

Insecurity in North Central Nigeria, driven by ethnic conflicts, banditry, and communal violence, has increasingly destabilized the region, with significant consequences for residential real estate. This paper examines how insecurity has impacted residential property values, rental demand, property maintenance, and overall investment in the housing sector. A mixed-method approach combining quantitative and qualitative data was used to assess the relationship between insecurity and the real estate market. The study found that insecurity has caused a marked decline in property values, reduced rental occupancy rates, and heightened management costs due to property damage and security investments. The paper concludes by recommending collaborative strategies between the government, real estate stakeholders, and community leaders to mitigate the challenges of insecurity and protect residential property investments in North Central Nigeria.

KEYWORDS: Insecurity, Residential properties, North Central Nigeria, Property management, Real estate market, Banditry.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, North Central Nigeria has become a focal point of various forms of insecurity, ranging from ethno-religious conflicts to herdsmen-farmer clashes and rising banditry. These threats have disrupted socio-economic activities, with profound effects on housing and real estate in the region. Residential properties, in particular, have faced sharp declines in value, increased vacancy rates, and heightened operational costs due to damages caused by violent incidents.

This paper aims to explore the specific impacts of insecurity on residential properties in North Central Nigeria, examining the challenges faced by homeowners, landlords, and investors. The study seeks to understand the dynamics of property value fluctuations, rental occupancy, and property maintenance in the face of ongoing security threats.

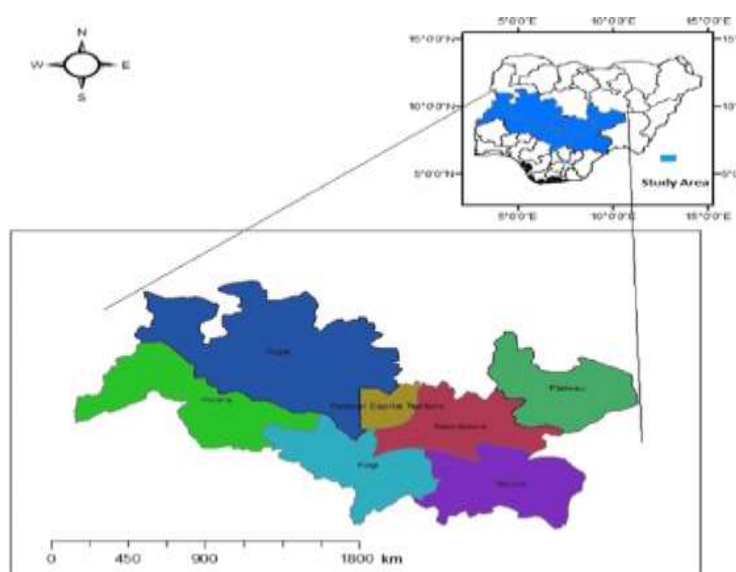


Figure 1: Map of the North-central zone of Nigeria (study area). Source; <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/318183914/figure/>

LITERATURE REVIEW

Insecurity in Nigeria, particularly in the northern and central regions, has been the subject of extensive research due to its severe implications on economic growth, social development, and urbanisation. Several studies have highlighted how insecurity disrupts economic activities and social services, including housing markets.

Insecurity and Real Estate

According to Olokesusi (2011), property markets in conflict zones often experience reduced investment, declining property values, and a rise in abandoned properties. This phenomenon is particularly visible in Nigeria, where widespread violence has led to decreased demand for housing in insecure areas. Adegoke and Olatunji (2019) corroborated these findings, noting that the real estate market in northern Nigeria has been severely affected by insurgency and conflict, which has driven investors away and forced residents to abandon their homes.

*Causes of Residential Property Insecurity.***Nigeria's Unrest and Insecurity Factors**

Boko Haram and Ansaru Deen's violence is attributed to failed institutions in Nigeria.

Unrest in the North-central zone is attributed to terrorism, land access, cultism, criminality, ethnicity, politics, or religion. Resource competition between Fulani herders and Hausa farmers fuels violence. Illegal crossings, corruption among border officials, and lack of state government leadership contribute to the spread of violence. Climate and environmental changes, rising demographic pressures, and climate change have exacerbated the situation. Vigilant groups, known as "Yan-sa-kai," have become a source of insecurity. Government sanctions have led to the formation of counter-groups, militia groups called "yan-bindiga," to protect herders. Most farming communities have been forced to abandon their farms, particularly in forest areas. The weak regulation of forest pastoral activities has facilitated large-scale cattle rustling.

Factors contributing to insecurity in Nigeria include unemployment, poor governance, inadequate education, infrastructure, corruption, perceived victimisation, poverty, ethnic and religious superiority, domination and exploitation, and materialism.

Domestic terrorism

Domestic terrorism Targets citizens, property, and institutions in a host country, while transnational terrorism involves multiple countries, with 9/11 being a prime example. Insecurity as defined by Beland (2005), is a feeling of fear or anxiety caused by a lack of protection, which leads to uncertainty and vulnerability. Businesses have become integral to human existence, satisfying unlimited wants and becoming part of the global world. Security focuses on ensuring the safety of lives and properties.

Terrorism and Insecurity in Nigeria

Nigeria has faced unprecedented insecurity and terrorism since democratic rule, with regionalized patterns like militia groups, insurgency, kidnapping, ritual killings, and calculated assassinations. Boko Haram, a radical fundamentalist Islamic sect, emerged in 2002 and has since moved to where it set up a base called Afghanistan in Yobe North East Nigeria (Nwanegbo & Odigbo, 2013; Ikenga & Efebeh 2013; Meehan & Speier, 2011).

Criminal Violence and Banditry

Between 2019 and 2020, Nigeria experienced a surge in armed robbery, murder, and cattle rustling, primarily involving Fulani-originating groups. This led to forced displacement, violence, and out-of-school children. Lawlessness and lack of policing exacerbated the situation (Eze, & Frimpong, 2021).

According to Ayegbusi, T. R. (2024), Between January and December 2019, armed bandits in north-western Nigeria killed over 1,000 civilians, surpassing Boko Haram's number. In 2020, criminal gangs abducted 400 Kaduna residents, causing over 200 violent events, 1,000 fatalities, and 50,000 internal displacements. Between December 2020 and March 2021, over 600 school abductions occurred in northern Nigeria, primarily by bandits, kidnappers, armed robbers, cattle rustlers, Fulani herdsman, and other armed militias. The Kagara school abduction is the latest addition to a growing list of school abductions in Northern Nigeria carried out by terror groups and organized militias for both economic and ideological reasons.

Concept of Residential Property

Denis & Williams (2007) as cited by Adebayo, Isyaku & Rilwan, (2019), Defined Residential property as any property designated by a municipality for single-family homes, condos, cooperatives, townhouses, and any other area in which people reside. Residential property can be used as a mortgage and income is often (although not always) entitled to preferential tax care Residential property includes any properties used as living space. Residential property can either be private residences or government institutional housing; it is the greatest source of demand for professional manager's services. Residential dwellings can be constructed in a wide range of configurations (Chika, 2008).

Types of Residential Property

According to Chika (2008), Residential property has been classified into the below following;

Bungalow; House unit on a single-story/ground floor. It consists of Semidetached/duplex and detached.

Detached Houses; are standard housing units with two floors, consisting of living, guest rooms, a ground floor kitchen, a toilet, and a family sitting room and bedroom on the first floor.

Semi-Detached / Duplex: A duplex consists of two separate residences, often resembling two houses or large single homes, with legal and structural walls between parts.

Flat Houses: -Houses with 2, 3, or 4 flats, often with a common front staircase and multiple floors, may have maisonettes on each of the two floors.

Maisonette: - A Maisonette is a two-story apartment with internal stairs, typically found in buildings with multiple floors, with a Maisonette held on every two floors.

Tenement Buildings: A multi-unit dwelling with multiple rooms on each side, typically on one, two, or five floors, with all occupants sharing common amenities at the back of the building.

Factors Influencing Property Demand and Supply

One of the significant elements deciding the value of real property is demand and supply. In the basic term, the real economic theory states that value should rise when demand is greater than supply. This means that the value of certain assets would increase *ceteris paribus* if real property demand is higher than its supply (Onyejiaka, 2019). Abiodun (2013) The concept of infrastructural growth in tangible estate results in increased real estate value. This pressure on a specific area, combined with factors like

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affordability, drives people and businesses to find alternatives at lower costs. This slows down appreciation, triggering an increase in alternative areas' value. The property's favourable circumstances or factors may lead to higher demand and ultimately increase its value.

Impact of Communal Clashes on Housing Markets

In the context of North Central Nigeria, communal clashes between ethnic groups and violent confrontations between herders and farmers have displaced thousands, leaving residential properties in conflict-prone areas either abandoned or destroyed. Onifade (2020) noted that such conflicts not only lower property values but also affect the broader real estate ecosystem, increasing the costs of security, repairs, and maintenance.

Socioeconomic Implications of Insecurity

The socioeconomic consequences of insecurity are far-reaching, affecting household income, social cohesion, and community resilience. Ajibola et al. (2021) found that areas affected by violence experience reduced economic activities and urban decay, as properties become uninhabitable and service delivery is disrupted. Additionally, the cost of property management increases as landlords invests in private security, repairs, and relocation of tenants.

Government policies and programs impact real estate demand and supply, with both positive and negative effects. Revenue raises can decrease net income, discourage investors, and reduce returns. However, government policies can also promote development and property value by exempting or providing relief on property-based taxes, attracting new investors, and increasing the value of land and landed properties in specific areas. (Onyejiaka, 2019).

Infrastructural Development. Infrastructural development significantly impacts real estate value in an area. High infrastructural growth levels, such as constant power supply, good roads, potable water, waste disposal, sanitation hospitals, banks, and schools, increase property value in a specific area.

Location. Property value is influenced by factors such as surroundings and community system, with proximity to amenities like entertainment, shopping, and healthcare services influencing potential investors' perception and value. (Aluko, 2011). Onyejiaka (2019) The property's value is influenced by its proximity to positive features, such as a significant industry or an area with an environmental hazard history.

Neighbourhood Condition. According to Onyejiaka (2019), the property's physical condition, and the neighbourhood where a property is situated have the ability to increase or decrease the value of the property. Neighbourhood conditions indirectly impact property value, removing ownership control. Generally maintained by inhabitants, neighbourhood values are significant to property owners and occupants.

Strong neighborhood; Society has been shown or lead the improvement of real estate value. Naturally, people are drawn toward an environment that is characterized by security, safety, and order, and also the area where the occupants will organize themselves and have similar minds and interests in living together, working on development, and security arrangements (Abiodun, 2013). Those areas are connected with well-planned, family-friendly residential layouts and reserved properties, the safety of the inhabitants is ensured in such an organized neighbourhood, and the facilities required for a relaxed and decent life are all completely existing. Due to the limited supply of real estate located in those areas, coupled with the high demand for existing properties in such neighbourhoods with strong abilities their values are highly appreciated.

Furthermore, a variety of adverse factors occur in an unplanned neighbourhood, which includes urban decay, obsolescence, deterioration, and slums. Not only neighborhoods devoid of basic facilities that support decent living, but also due to the domicile of migrants, immigrants, and low-income earners

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who take advantage of such a dirty residential neighbourhood. Within such a neighbourhood, residential housing units are distinguished by poor layout, insufficient ventilation and lighting, and useful and physical obsolescence, among others, and thus directions have less value.

Inflation. When the nation's commodity prices increase, it has a major effect on the economic sector of that nation. Inflation has a major effect directly and indirectly on the property value. One of the major examples is that, when the building materials cost is high, the cost of constructing a new building will increase and it will increase the renting charge of the long-standing properties, due to the scarcity of new buildings caused by the new structures erecting high cost, also additional housing units availability will be reduced, also demand the few existing oldest buildings will increase, as a result of this it will increase the renting cost of both the few new ones and the old houses (Onyejiaka, 2019).

Uncertainties are among the factors which can paralyze the societal and economic life of an area. The area which ensures not guarantee safety to their residents, then financial activities and also the extension of real development of that area cannot be sustained. In a situation where investors feel insecurity threatened, it must be expected that the investors will move to another area where they feel secure and conduct their business activities, which will result in the abandonment of the project and the collapse of economic activities.

Physical State of the Property: Assessment of the property value goes a long way with the physical condition of the property. Newly constructed and testified decorated property that meets existing technology, efficient utility, design, strength, security, and maintenance requirements undoubtedly will have a higher value demand than other properties that have physically depreciated and its technologically obsolete (Onyejiaka, 2019). It is worth noting, then the property's physical state is among the outwardly driven issues affecting the value of the property. Based on the viewpoint from which the property is perceived, these variables affect the property value positively and negatively. The above-explaining factors can be summarized in two; Micro and Macro factors, these factors affect residential value either positively or negatively. The factors are summarized in below table 1.

Table 1: Factors Affecting Residential Property Value

S/NO	ATTRIBUTES	DESCRIPTION
1.	Physical Residential (Housing) Characteristic	Lot Size, number of rooms, building age, Facilities, etc.
2.	Location	Access to CBD, Proximity to local amenities, etc
3.	Residential Neighborhood Characteristics	Sentiment, tribal affinity, schools, hospitals, worship places, crime rate, traffic noise and conjunction, shopping centers, etc.
4.	Government Policies	Zoning Regulation, Planning restriction, Tax levy, etc.
5.	Demand & Supply	Zoning Regulation, Planning restriction, Tax levy, etc.
6.	Accessibility	Entry network and exit road connecting to the main road
7.	Accessibility	Road, Drainages, West Disposal Collection, Water supply, and other social amenities

METHODOLOGY

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This study uses a mixed-methods approach combining quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques to assess the impacts of insecurity on residential properties in North Central Nigeria. The methodology involves surveys, interviews, and field observations in selected states within the region.

Research Design

The research employs a descriptive and case study design. It focuses on urban and semi-urban areas in Plateau, Benue, and Niger States, which have experienced significant insecurity due to ethno-religious violence, banditry, and herdsmen-farmer conflicts.

Data Collection Methods

Surveys: Structured questionnaires were distributed to 200 property owners, tenants, and real estate professionals in selected cities within the study area. The questionnaire included sections on the impact of insecurity on property values, rental demand, and maintenance costs.

Interviews: In-depth interviews were conducted with 20 key stakeholders, including property developers, real estate agents, and community leaders. These interviews provided qualitative insights into the broader effects of insecurity on the housing sector.

III. Field Observations: On-site visits assessed residential property damage, security measures, and occupancy trends.

Sampling Techniques

The conflict-affected areas and participants were selected using a purposive sampling method. The sampling was stratified by region and level of insecurity to capture a wide range of experiences. The study included 220 respondents.

Data Analysis

- a. Quantitative data from the survey was analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages) to assess trends in property values, vacancy rates, and security investments.
- b. Qualitative data from interviews and observations was analyzed using thematic analysis, identifying common themes related to property management challenges, community responses, and security concerns.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Decline in Property Values

Insecurity has led to a substantial decline in the value of residential properties across North Central Nigeria. 80% of property owners reported that their properties had depreciated by 30% to 50% due to insecurity. This is in line with the findings of Ajibola (2021), which suggest that properties in conflict-prone areas lose value as demand plummets.

Increased Vacancy Rates

Vacancy rates have risen dramatically in areas most affected by violence, with some areas reporting vacancy rates as high as 60%. Many tenants and homeowners have fled conflict zones, leaving behind abandoned homes. Adegoke (2019) previously noted similar trends in northern Nigeria, where mass displacement led to abandoned real estate in once-thriving urban centres.

Rising Property Management Costs

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Property management costs have increased significantly, driven by the need for heightened security measures such as fences, security guards, and alarm systems. Property owners have had to invest in private security solutions, increasing operational costs by an average of 20%. Additionally, property damage from violence has required costly repairs and renovations.

CONCLUSION

The challenges posed by insecurity on residential properties in North Central Nigeria are profound, affecting property values, rental demand, and property management. The rising levels of violence and instability have resulted in significant financial losses for property owners, tenants, and real estate investors. Addressing these challenges requires a multi-stakeholder approach, with active government intervention, improved security infrastructure, and community-based solutions. Sustainable urban planning and investment in resilient real estate practices will also be crucial in mitigating the long-term effects of insecurity.

Recommendations

1. **Government Intervention:** The Nigerian government must prioritize security interventions in North Central Nigeria, including increased military presence, community policing, and conflict resolution initiatives.
2. **Real Estate Resilience:** Real estate developers should focus on building resilient housing that can withstand insecurity, including reinforced structures and comprehensive security measures.
3. **Community-Based Policing:** Local communities should be empowered to participate in their own security through neighbourhood watch programs and conflict mediation to prevent violence from escalating.
4. **Public-Private Partnerships:** Collaboration between the government and private sector is essential to provide the necessary infrastructure and security solutions to restore confidence in the housing market.

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Chapter Twelve**Assessment of Factors Affecting the Implementation of E-Land Administration and Management in Imo State, Nigeria**

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ABSTRACT

The development of any state depends on what makes its land administration system effective, robust and well-designed. In Imo state, the land market has had little impact on the socio-economic environment of the state as it has not been able to attract investors and developers. The manual record-keeping used in the state lands ministry is inefficient and prone to abuses, thereby yearning for computerization. This study aims to bring to the limelight, the factors affecting the adoption of electronic land administration and management in Imo State and how these factors differentiate between two groups of respondents of the Ministry of Lands namely: the junior staff (grade level 05 – 08 officers) and senior staff (grade level 09 – 12 officers). The study adopted the discriminant and exploratory factor analysis techniques. The exploratory factor analysis technique was used to assess the extent to which the identified factors belonged together to affect the implementation of e-land administration in Imo state. The Purposive sampling approach was adopted in the collection of data from 350 valid respondents from the ministry. It was found through the exploratory factor analysis that four factors namely: Economic and Financial Factors, Institutional and Government Policies, Social and Behavioral Barriers and Lack of Technological Innovation and Expertise are the major factors affecting the implementation of electronic land administration in the state. There were 26 variables extracted, all of which loadings significantly. The Wilks' Lambda's F test and the standardized discriminant function coefficients indicate that the two categories of staff perceive the variables differently. Measures of Economic Factors with a total variance of 22% in the factor solution and 3.550% on the rotated sum of square loading have the greatest discriminant power in explaining the difference in perception. This was followed by Lack of Technological Innovation and Expertise, Institutional and Government Policies and Social and Behavioral Barriers. The findings support the growing demand for electronic land administration systems as a component of the whole land market and therefore recommend for target-driven partnership among the stakeholders.

KEYWORDS: Land administration; Management system; E-land administration; Land market; Imo state

INTRODUCTION

Recently, scholars have called for the review and restructuring of land administration policies and practices by advocating for the adoption of electronic land administration (e-land administration) services. Their argument is based on the fact that it is gradually becoming a means of optimizing the land development process, achieving cadastral database and standardized data exchange in land administration processes (Olusoyi, 2012). Furthermore, the pressure to shift to e-land administration and management is based on the rapid pace of development in many Nigerian cities. There is a very high increase in urban population which has resulted in high demand for land thereby justifying the call for a second look at the land market and its policies and practices. Perhaps, it is on this premise that those knowledgeable in the subject matter such as Okeahialam & Ogbuefi, (2017) have argued that the current practices of administering and submitting land sub-division plans, both paper-based and PDF-based are no more sustainable, especially in this technological age where internet and web technologies are now thoroughly integrated into the business of land administration.

Some states and cities in Nigeria such as Lagos and Abuja have made considerable progress in e-land administration and management. For example, the Abuja Geographic Information System (AGIS) was established in 2003 and has been in operation to date. The significance of the AGIS initiative lies in its ability to develop a digital system of cadastral records for e-land administration and for the provision of geospatial data and services in the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) of Nigeria. Some other states in Nigeria have seen the implementation of AGIS as worthy of emulation in the computerization of land administration and property-related services and are currently at different stages of its implementation in their states. Some of these states according to Aneke, Humayun and Amara, (2019). include: Abia Land Information System, Cross River State Geographical Information System, Kaduna State Land Information System, Benue Land Information Management System, Kwara State Geographical Information System, Lagos State Digital Mapping and Geographical Information System, Nasarawa State Geographical Information System, Niger State Geographical Information System, Ogun State Geographical Information System, Ondo State Geographical Information System and Digital Mapping, Osun State Aerial Mapping and Geospatial/Land Information System and Plateau State Geographical Information System

Again, another factor that has greatly affected the growth of e-land administration and management in Nigeria is the lack of interest (Olusoyi, 2012). While a greater number of states in Nigeria have not made conscious efforts to adopt computerized land administration and management systems and as such are uncertain of the benefits associated with them, those who have adopted them are less keen to increase the sensitization of the need to embrace electronic land administration or are experiencing implementation challenges. The subsequent effect is the continued dependence on old, less innovative and unsustainable ways of land transaction and marketing with its attendant economic and social problems in the state. Aneke, et al, (2019) and Okeahialam and Ogbuefi (2017) have argued that the reason for the observed lack of interest concerning the adoption of e-land administration in Imo state could be ascribed to the conservative attitude of the people and professionals in land administration towards changes. Furthermore, there appears to be a low level of enthusiasm on the part of the Imo workers and the state government in particular regarding electronic land administration. Studies have shown that electronic land administration is redefining the land market sector (Okeahialam & Ogbuefi 2017), yet the government and professionals in land and other stakeholders including land users, and occupiers are still in doubt about the certainty of e-land administration benefits. This study aims to bring to the limelight, the benefits of computerized record-keeping of land transactions as against the manual system.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview of Land as a Resource

Land is the ultimate resource for life on Earth. Land is both a physical commodity and an abstract concept. Therefore, good stewardship of the land is essential for present and future generations (Umeh, 1973). These issues are concerned with the administration of land as a natural resource to ensure its sustainable development. They address the social, legal, economic and technical framework within which land managers and administrators must operate. For investment in land to take place, the investors must feel confident that the assets they are developing will be built on land that has a secure title. Therefore, there must be a clear and rigid framework of laws governing the ownership and rights to use the land. Good land resource management will help to promote economic and social development in both urban and rural areas. Land and its use may be examined from different perspectives namely: physical, legal, abstract, economic, socio-political, religious/spiritual and statutory. From the physical perspective, land plays a vital role in the breeding and survival strategies of many living species.

Land Management and Land Reform

Land management is the process by which the resources of land are put to good effect. It covers all activities concerned with the management of land as a resource both from an environmental and economic perspective (Dale and McLaughlin, 1988). It includes such matters as: physical planning of towns and countryside, formation and implementation of land-use policies, environmental impact assessment, Property conveyancing, property development and management of utilities and services

The term land reform has a variety of meanings. It may involve the restoration of land rights to previous owners, a process known as land restitution. It may also involve the redistribution of land rights from one sector to another; for example, taking land from the State or individual owners of large estates and giving it to people who have no land. Land reform may also involve land consolidation in which all landowners within an area surrender their land and are allocated new parcels of comparable value but in a pattern that encourages the more efficient and productive use of the land (Dale & McLaughlin 1999). Land reform may also involve changes in land tenure which is how rights are held, thus abolishing complex traditional and customary rights and introducing simpler and streamlined mechanisms of land transfer.

The Evolution of Land Administration Systems in Nigeria

Land administration in the Pre-colonial Era

Land administration refers to the processes of recording and disseminating information about the ownership, value and use of land and its associated resources (Dale and McLaughlin, 1999). Such processes include the determination (sometimes known as the adjudication) of rights and other attributes of the land, the survey and description of these, their detailed documentation and the provision of relevant information in support of land markets.

In the pre-colonial era, land administration and management recognized that land in its entirety belonged to the indigenous people. It was owned privately or collectively in the Southern region of Nigeria by families and in the Northern region by the emirs. No formal legislation or policy existed to manage and administer land in the southern region. The oldest man in the family was the administrator who carried out the modern functions of land administration. One notable feature of land rights during this era in the Southern region was that an allottee had inalienable rights over any plot of land allocated to him by the family head. The opposite held for land in the northern region. In the South, transfer of land was largely through gifts, family allocations by local leaders, or inheritance, and not through direct sale while in the North, control of land was vested in the Emir who granted final consent before any land transaction was concluded, mostly granting clear possessory rights on undeveloped or otherwise idle land.

The Colonial Era

The colonial era brought the British administration to land governance in Nigeria. The British colonial administration signed a cession treaty in 1861 that transferred all rights to manage land to the colonial masters. However individual property rights in southern Nigeria still resided with native citizens (Ikejiofor, 2009). To govern land more effectively, the colonial administration promulgated many laws including the Native Lands Acquisition Proclamation in 1900 and the Native Lands Acquisition Ordinance No.32 of 1917 (Mamman 2004). The essence of this ordinance was to further deepen the regulation of land acquisition from the natives within the Protectorate and without the approval of the Governor, no foreigner could acquire the interest or rights of a native over any land. Thereafter the British colonial administration followed a different strategy to intensify its effort to extend its land management and administration policies to the northern region of Nigeria by enacting the Land and Native Rights Proclamation Act No. 9 of 1910 and the Northern Nigeria Land Tenure Law of 1962 which later transformed to the Land Use Act of 1978. (Mamman 2004).

It was not surprising, therefore, that faced with these contrasting land tenure systems and the considerable hassles in getting land for public purposes, especially in southern Nigeria, the military government sought to unify the two systems through the Land Use Decree of 1978 (Igbozuruike, 1980). The thrust of the Decree was largely to extend the northern system of land management to the whole country as a means of ensuring easier access to land for government and, ostensibly, for individuals.

Reforms in Land Administration

In a bid to improve the system, President Olusegun Obasanjo shortly after assuming office in 1999, directed the computerization of all Federal Government lands and land records (Obasanjo, 2003). To ensure efficiency in our national land administration, the Federal Government established a computerization programme for all lands held and allocated by the Federal Government under the Federal Land Information System (FELIS). Similar computerisation projects according to Adeoye

(2006) and Ikejiofor (2009) have also been established by the authorities of the Federal Capital Territory (Abuja), and the governments of the thirty-six states of the country. However, as at 2008, only the Federal Capital Development Authority (FCDA) and four out of thirty-six states (Enugu, Lagos, Abia, and Kano) in Nigeria have made a substantial effort to apply GIS or IT in their land administration system but the extent, content and sustainability of the programmes cannot be easily ascertained because there is little or no central control of land administration in Nigeria (Adeoye (2006) and Ikejiofor (2009)). The modern cadastre is not primarily concerned with generalized data but rather with detailed information at the individual land parcel level. As such it should serve the needs both of the individual community and the state at large. Benefits according to Okeahialam and Ogbuefi, (2017) arise in the following ways: the compilation of land records and the judicial processes that must have gone through to bring land information onto the registers should provide formal identification and, in some systems, legal proof of ownership. The public registers should contain all essential juridical information allowing anyone viewing the system to identify third-party rights as well as the name of the landowner.

Stages in the Preparation of Computerized Land Information System

Adeoye (2006) and Ikejiofor (2009) have identified eight stages that will lead to the computerization of the land information system in Nigeria. Stage one involves the provision of satellite images and conventional land records.

The federal Ministry of Lands in collaboration with the state's ministries will have to contract with satellite companies to get this done. The second stage involves the establishment of a geodetic survey network, the third stage involves an extensive GPS survey, and the fourth involves investigation and recording ownership. This stage must require the inputs of Estate Surveyors and Valuers who will ensure a thorough title verification of ownership of such parcel of land. The fifth stage involves the preparation of the draft land record, the sixth stage is displaying the draft land record, the seventh stage is the finalization of the land ownership record and stage eight, which is the final stage is the computerization system of this information.

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in Imo state which is one of the 36 states of Nigeria. Owerri is located at latitude $5^{\circ} 30'N - 6^{\circ} 45'N$ and $6^{\circ} 50'E - 7^{\circ} 30'E$ in the Southeastern part of Nigeria. It has 27 local governments. It is bounded on the East by Abia state, on the West by Delta state, on the North by Anambra state and the South Rivers state. According to 2006 census figure of Nigeria, Imo state has a population of 3,934,899 people. Using an annual growth rate of 3.5%, the population in 2024 is 7,131,919 people.



Figure 1: Map of Imo State. Source: Ministry of Lands, Survey and Urban Planning.

The sample population of the study is 600. They are staff who participate actively in land administration matters in the ministry namely: lands officers, valuation officers, registrars, directors, and other personnel of different categories. Sekaran (2000) argued that where the population and sample are broken into sub-samples, a minimum of 30 for each category is acceptable and that in multivariate research, the population size should be larger. In drawing the samples for this study, reference was made to Krajcie and Morgans's (1970) decision model at a 95 percent confidence interval to determine the sample size. The Krajcie and Morgans (1970) decision model is a research instrument that provides a generalized scientific guide and table for sample size decisions (Babbie, 1995; Sekeran, 2000). Given these modifying factors, a total of 500 sets of questionnaires were distributed among the classes of respondents: 300 to junior staff (ie staff on grade level 05 to 08) and 200 to the senior staff (ie staff on grade level 09 to 12). Out of the 300 distributed to the junior staff, 265 (88 %) were properly filled while out of the 200 distributed to the senior staff, 180 (90%) were properly filled. Therefore, in all, the total number of questionnaires received which were found correct and used for the analysis of the study was 445 (89%).

This study adopted purposive sampling and stratified sampling techniques of the quantitative research approach. The major aim of using the purposive sampling technique is to identify and select the key stakeholders that would supply the right information. This technique is a criterion-based sampling technique used when a researcher's focus of inquiry is on a sample that has a good understanding of the issues concerned. The study ensured that respondents should be employees whose years of experience in service were more than five years. This gave a high degree of credibility to the opinion articulated for this study and for adopting a key informant technique approach. Furthermore, the stratification was done based on their perceived knowledge of the subject matter and how often they use electronic gadgets in record-keeping for land matters. The research instruments were the close-ended questionnaire, schedule and focus group discussion.

Data analysis for this study involved both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics was used to organize, present, and summarize the actual information as they were perceived by respondents while the major inferential statistics adopted were the Exploratory Factors Analysis (EFA) and Discriminant Analysis (DA).

In exploratory factor analysis, multivariate statistical techniques are employed to identify patterns within observed variables (Kline, 1999). That is whether variables belong together as factors (Aliagha, 2004). As for discriminant analysis, when a researcher wants to determine and test the group mean differences between two groups of respondents, the most appropriate data analysis method often used is the discriminant analysis. The basis for its use here lies in the fact that the study involves testing group mean differences between two groups of respondents: staff in grade level 05-08 and those in grade level 09-12 based on a set of predictive variables. A two-group discriminant analysis was adopted in this case because there are two groups of respondents: staff in grade level 05-08 and those in grade level 09-12. Interval-scale discriminant analysis, as described by Hair *et al* (1987) involves comparing two or more groups based on variables measured at intervals. It entails creating a linear combination of two or more discriminating variables that best differentiate between groups. A statistical decision rule can then be used to maximize the variance between groups compared to the variance within groups (Hair *et al*, 1987; Aliagha *et al*, 2014). Linear grouping is derived from an equation that compares the ratio of group variances to within-group variances.

$$Z = W_1X_1 + W_2X_2 + W_3X_3 + \dots + W_nX_n \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where Z is the discriminant score, W is the discriminant weights (discriminant coefficients), and X is the independent discriminating variables.

Discriminant analysis is unique in its ability to analyze both the mean and standard deviations of groups of respondents simultaneously (Aliagha *et al*, 2014). These classes comprise the total mean score and standard deviation, as well as the group mean score and standard deviations of the sub-classes of the respondents. The discriminant analysis involves testing for equality of group means and developing a predictive model of group membership based on a set of observed discriminating variables (Hair, Anderson, and Tatham, 1987; Aliagha *et al*, 2014). Descriptive statistics (total mean and group mean)

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and inferential statistics, such as the F test for Wilks' Lambda, Wilks' Lambda model, standardized canonical discriminant function (SDFC), eigenvalues, canonical correlation, and function at group centroids, are assessed. Variables that significantly differentiate between or among groups are identified through the ANOVA *F* test for Wilks' lambda.

The contribution of each variable to the discriminant function was evaluated using standardized discriminant function coefficients. A low coefficient indicates that the group did not vary significantly on that variable. The Canonical correlation illustrates the relationship between the predictors and the discriminant function. The structure matrix coefficient shows the correlation between each predictor variable and the discriminant function. Correlations with loadings ≥ 0.3 are considered to be practically significant (Hair *et al*, 1987). An important requirement for using discriminant analysis is ensuring that the variance-covariance matrices are comparable for the groups. This is typically confirmed by Box's M test, which tests the null hypothesis that the covariance matrices do not differ among groups (Aliagha *et al*, 2014). In this study, the result shows comparable log determinants and non-significant different variances (Box's $M = 586.504$, $F = 17.520$; p -value 0.854 is greater than 0.05). This supports the hypothesis that groups do not differ, indicating that it is appropriate to use discriminant analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences SPSS Windows 22.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago) was used to perform the analysis of this study. The results are presented in Tables 1 - 5

Instrument and Measures

The primary data was collected using a questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into two parts. Part 1 consisted of general demographic questions while Part 2 contained questions to identify the factors affecting the implementation of e-land administration and management in the state. The questionnaires were distributed to gather the opinions of both junior and senior staff on the measures outlined in Table 1. The items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Respondents Demographic Characteristics and Background Information

The study involved two groups of respondents and as such, many variables were used to examine the sample characteristics. Table 1 shows the demographic information of the respondents. They include: gender, education, years of experience in civil service, and grade/level.

Table 1: Showing Demographic Information of the Respondents

Demograph ic profile	Attribute	No of respondents (level 09-12)	Valid percentage % (level 09-12)	No of respondents (level 05-08)	Valid percentage % (level 05-08)
		180	36.37%	265	63.66%
Gender	Male	120	66.6%	208	78.49%
	Female	60	33.4%	57	21.51%
Education	Diploma	58	32.2%	86	32.46%
	Degree	100	55.5%	117	44.15%
	Post-graduate	22	12.3%	62	23.39%
Years of Experience in civil Service	1-2years	8	4.44%	46	17.36%
	3-4years	12	6.66%	54	20.37%
	5-6years	55	30.55%	77	29.06%
	> 6years	105	58.33%	88	33.21%
Grade/Level	05-08	-	-	265	60%
	09-12	180	40%	-	-

Source: Fieldwork

Table 1 shows that the majority of the respondents are male respondents (66.6% and 78.49%). The implication is that more males are employed in the ministry. On the level of education of the

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

respondents, it can be inferred from the Table that all the respondents are educated which makes them well-informed and familiar with the subject matter. However, a greater number of the respondents have university and polytechnic education. On years of experience in the civil service, the Table reveals that a greater percentage of both respondents who are either estate surveyors and valuers or land practitioners have had more than six years of experience in civil service. For levels 09-12, 58.33% have had experience in the land's ministry for more than six years. 30.55% have had five to six years' experience while 6.66% and 4.44% have had experiences spanning three to four years and one to two years respectively. For grade level 05-08, 33.21% have had more than six years' experience in ministry. This is followed by 29.06% for five to six years' experience. This further gives a high degree of credibility to this study that the respondents have far-reaching experiences on the subject matter.

Table 2: Representative Constructs and their Measures for Factor and Discriminant Analysis

Factor	Variables
Factor 1: Economic and Financial Factors (EFF)	Lack of funds - EFF1
	Cost of procurement- EFF2
	High cost of installation/replacement of ICT facilities - EFF3
	High-cost broadband – EFF4
	Lack of financial incentive and subsidy – EFF5
	Low budgetary allocation for ICT –EFF6
	Cost of Energy and Power -EFT7
Factor 2: Institutional and Government Policies (IGP)	Absence of relevant laws and regulations on ICT –EGP1
	Poor implementation of policies on the use of ICT –IGP2
	Administrative and bureaucratic bottlenecks/contradicting rules –IGP3
	Corruption in Civil Service – IGP4
	Poor Remuneration for IT Staff – IGP5
	Inadequate IT Infrastructure
Factor 3: Social and Behavioural Barriers (SBB)	Poor awareness and acceptability of ICT – SBB1
	People's resistance to change – SBB2
	Staff's perceived usefulness of computer – SBB3
	Perceived reliability & mistrust of technology/positive illusion – SBB4
	Lack of understanding of users needs –SBB5
	Loss of control and apathy on the part of users – SBB6
	Organizational attitude - SBB7
Factor 4: Lack of Technological Innovation and Expertise (LTIE)	Limited skill capabilities – LTIE1
	Lack of Qualified IT Staff– LTIE2
	Skill gaps – LTIE3
	Use of unskilled and unspecialized workers – LTIE4
	Lack of innovation /capacity to design – LTIE5
	Absence of web presence and poor design -LTIE6

Source: Authors Construct.

Table 2 shows the construct of the identified factors and variables that affect the implementation of e-land administration in Imo state.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Table 3: Extracted Factors on Implementation of e-Land Administration and Management (Varimax Loading)

Variables	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
EFF1	0.744	-	-	-
EFF2	0.835	-	-	-
EFF3	0.830	-	-	-
EFF4	0.782	-	-	-
EFF5	0.822	-	-	-
EFF6	0.785	-	-	-
EFF7	0.799	-	-	-
IGP1	-	-	0.743	-
IGP2	-	-	0.654	-
IGP3	-	-	0.643	-
IGP4	-	-	0.743	-
IGP5	-	-	0.665	-
IGP6	-	-	0.644	-
SBB1	-	-	-	0.701
SBB2	-	-	-	0.668
SBB3	-	-	-	0.508
SBB4	-	-	-	0.631
SBB5	-	-	-	0.605
SBB6	-	-	-	0.585
SBB7	-	-	-	0.701
LTIE1	-	0.758	-	-
LTIE2	-	0.766	-	-
LTIE3	-	0.659	-	-
LTIE4	-	0.702	-	-
LTIE5	-	0.732	-	-
LTIE6	-	0.649	-	-

Fac_1 = EFF; Fac 2 = IGP; Fac 3= SBB; Fac 4= LTIE

As stated earlier, this study adopted Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) which is used in to determine the extent to which the observed variables are linked to their underlying latent factors. Before the variables were used, a test of the suitability of the data set for factor analysis was conducted using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (MSA). Bartlett's test of sphericity was also used. Using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin offers a measure of the level to which the variables belong together and are good for factor analysis to be used. On the other hand, Bartlett's test of sphericity tests the null hypothesis that the data set comes from a population of variables that are not dependent. The result of the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy indicates a value of 0.895. Table 3 shows Extracted Factors affecting the Implementation of e-Land Administration and Management (Varimax Loading), while Table 4 shows Variance Extraction on Factors Affecting e-Land Administration and Management

Table 4: Variance Extraction on Factors Affecting e-Land Administration and Management

factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	8.732	25.613	42.564	6.085	28.908	25.633	3.458	15.110	11.456
2	5.511	9.445	35.365	2.081	7.042	29.448	2.801	12.565	18.991
3	2.422	8.894	48.605	1.704	4.422	35.149	2.514	10.881	28.122
4	1.845	5.879	45.508	1.210	3.506	38.480	1.443	8.449	30.687

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.895; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: $\chi^2 (544) = 5654$ sig.000. Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood

The rule of thumb in the underlying assumption is that a factor loading above 0.3 is recommended as adequate and significant (Paul Kline, 2000). Based on this, a look at Table 5 indicates that the values fall well above the acceptable threshold. On the other hand, in Kaiser and Rice's criteria, the value could be regarded as meritorious which implies that the variables belong to or hang together and therefore are

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

appropriate for factor analysis. Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant at ($\chi^2_{(544)} = 5654$, $p = .000$, $\alpha = .01$). This advocates that the data used for this study does not arise from a population of independent variables. It also shows that the data is a representation of a sample from a multivariable normal population. In the same way, the test result is indicative of the suitability of the data for factor analysis. Based on eigenvalues criteria in which factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are extracted, four (4) factors were extracted using the varimax rotation (rotated factor matrix) method (see Table 4).

The factor loadings in Table 4 were slightly different from those obtained in the preliminary factor analysis. The factors had a better convergence and did not largely change the axis by loading into different factors. The factor solution shown in Table 4 was created using the varimax rotation of maximum likelihood estimation (MLS). Variables in the factor solution that have the largest factor loadings are useful in identifying the underlying factors. All the variables loaded significantly and for the variables to load significantly to a factor means that the variables share the same conceptual meaning.

For extracted factors on Economic and Financial Factors (EFF), a look at Table 4 on variance extracted shows factor 1 as accounting for the highest variance (25.6%) in the factor solution with (3.458%) on the rotated sum of square loading. It therefore emerged as the first important factor that affects the implementation of e-land administration and management. Factor 2 representing 9.4% of the total variance in the factor solution with a rotated sum of square loading of 2.801% emerged as the second significant factor in relative importance. Factor 3 representing 8.8% of the variance in the factor solution with a rotated sum of square loading of 2.514% becomes the third critical factor that affects the implementation of e-land administration and management while factor 4 with a percentage variance of 5.8% and a rotated sum of square loading of 1.443% emerged as the fourth in relative importance in this study.

Table 5 shows group mean scores and tests of equality of group mean statistics used to identify variables and assess the perception of employees in grade level 09-12 and those in grade level 05-08. Twenty-six (26) variables were used to determine their perceptions. From Table 5, seven variables measuring economic and financial factors showed strong discriminant power, which suggests there were significant group mean differences in perception between 09-12 and 05-08 on the variables (lack of funds - EFF1, $\lambda = 0.897$, $F = 18.568$, $p < 0.05$; cost of procurement- EFF2, $\lambda = 0.874$, $F = 15.106$, $p < 0.05$; high cost of installation/replacement of ICT facilities - EFF3, $\lambda = 0.958$, $F = 18.222$, $p < 0.05$; high-cost broadband – EFF4, $\lambda = 0.870$, $F = 14.187$, $p < 0.05$; lack of financial incentive and subsidy – EFF5, $\lambda = 0.978$, $F = 16.872$, $p < 0.05$; low budgetary allocation for ICT –EFF6= $\lambda = 0.877$, $F = 20.668$, $p < 0.05$; cost of energy and power -EFT7= $\lambda = 0.899$, $F = 19.555$, $p < 0.05$). A closer look at the Table shows that the total mean scores of the two respondents are high (all ≥ 3 and 4). This suggests that both respondents agree that economic factors such as lack of finance for computer procurement do impact the e-land implementation. Though grade levels 09-12 recorded higher group mean values than 05-08, the mean differences were high enough to make a significant group difference. This shows that workers in grade levels 09-12 have a better perception of the factors affecting the implementation of e-land administration and management. The reason for this may be because grade 09-12 who constitute the high-ranking officer are more knowledgeable about the situation at hand than those in the lower cadre.

Six variables determining the perception of workers on grade levels 09-12 and 05-08 on institutional and government policies recorded total mean values which overall are considered significantly high. This suggests that the variables according to the responses of both categories of workers have a strong influence on e-land implementation and management. Still, evidence from the group mean scores show that the six variables exhibited strong discriminant power, which suggests there were significant group mean differences in perception between the respondents on the variables (IGP1, $\lambda = 0.865$, $F = 25.346$, $p < 0.05$; IGP2, $\lambda = 0.978$, $F = 40.266$, $p < 0.05$; IGP3, $\lambda = 0.943$, $F = 48.893$, $p < 0.05$; IGP4, $\lambda = 0.879$, $F = 35.066$, $p < 0.05$; IGP5, $\lambda = 0.956$, $F = 18.801$, $p < 0.05$; IGP6, $\lambda = 0.876$, $F = 17.430$, $p < 0.05$). The groups' mean differences in the variables were too high to make a significant difference. It could be said that there were more differences in opinion than commonality of opinion between the two groups on these variables.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Table 5: Group Mean Differences and Test of Equality of Group Mean of Factors Affecting the Implementation of e-Land Administration

Variables	Group Mean			Test of equality of group mean			
	Total Mean/ Std	Level 09-12 Mean / Std	Level 05-08 Mean / Std	Mean Diff	Wilks' Lambda	F ^a	Sig
Lack of funds - EFF1	4.05(1.558)	4.68(0.445)	3.85(1.315)	0.83	0.897	18.568	0.000
Cost of procurement- EFF2	3.55(0.884)	3.98(0.524)	3.15(1.652)	0.83	0.874	15.106	0.000
High cost of installation/replacement of ICT facilities - EFF3	4.20(0.443)	4.89(0.569)	3.95(1.024)	0.94	0.958	18.222	0.000
High-cost broadband – EFF4	4.12(0.211)	4.90(0.843)	4.01(1.421)	0.89	0.870	14.187	0.000
Lack of financial incentive and subsidy – EFF5	3.90(0.664)	4.48(1.321)	3.22(0.015)	1.26	0.978	16.872	0.000
Low budgetary allocation for ICT –EFF6	4.55(1.821)	4.96(0.429)	4.28(1.153)	0.68	0.877	20.668	0.000
Cost of Energy and Power - EFF7	3.21(0.238)	3.68(1.107)	3.35(0.836)	0.33	0.899	19.555	0.001
Absence of relevant laws and regulations on ICT –IGP1	4.80(1.110)	4.66(1.048)	3.88(1.089)	0.78	0.865	25.346	0.045
Poor implementation of policies on the use of ICT –IGP2	3.08(0.635)	3.88(0.301)	3.55(1.011)	0.33	0.978	40.266	0.022
Administrative and bureaucratic bottlenecks/contradicting rules –IGP3	4.62(1.086)	4.40(0.674)	3.99 (1.221)	0.41	0.943	48.893	0.000
Corruption in Civil Service – IGP4	4.40(1.902)	4.88 0.674)	3.95.(1.342)	0.93	0.879	35.066	0.002
Poor Remuneration for IT Staff – IGP5	4.66(1.146)	4.00(1.013)	3.95(1.103)	0.05	0.956	18.801	0.451
Inadequate IT Infrastructure IGP6	4.48(1.022)	4.68(0.832)	4.43(1.431)	0.25	0.876	17.430	0.000
Poor awareness and acceptability of ICT – SBB1	4.60(1.160)	4.42(0.874)	3.98(1.452)	0.44	0.855	19.080	0.000
People's resistance to change – SBB2	4.35(1.158)	3.85(0.886)	3.70(1.283)	0.15	0.886	16.055	0.000
Staff's perceived usefulness of computer – SBB3	4.44(1.055)	3.90(0.848)	3.52(1.245)	0.38	0.872	10.064	0.000
Perceived reliability & mistrust of technology/positive illusion – SBB4	4.20(1.045)	4.17(0.814)	3.55(1.222)	0.62	0.996	14.099	0.000
Lack of understanding of user's needs –SBB5	4.19(1.088)	4.65(0.188)	4.07(1.114)	0.58	0.877	15.089	0.000
Loss of control and apathy on the part of users – SBB6	4.58(1.286)	3.92(0.464)	3.48(1.622)	0.44	0.955	13.066	0.000
Organizational attitude - SBB7	3.18(1.045)	4.75(0.668)	3.16(1.210)	1.59	0.964	11.080	0.000
Limited skill capabilities – LTIE1	4.58(1.150)	3.88(0.159)	3.34(1.341)	0.54	0.869	17.024	0.000
Lack of Qualified IT Staff– LTIE2	3.32(1.099)	4.80(0.676)	3.88(1.444)	0.92	0.889	25.181	0.000
Skill gaps – LTIE3	4.56(1.093)	3.69(0.679)	3.36(1.128)	0.33	0.920	16.077	0.000
Use of unskilled and unspecialized workers – LTIE4	3.18(1.085)	3.66(0.913)	3.22(1.151)	0.44	0.965	09.022	0.000
Lack of innovation /capacity to design – LTIE5	4.68(1.451)	4.78(0.861)	4.33(1.164)	0.45	0.824	18.092	0.000
Absence of web presence and poor design -LTIE6	4.51(1.085)	4.89(0.668)	4.50(1.167)	0.39	0.862	16.088	0.000

EFF¹ to EFF⁷ = Economic and Financial Factors; IGP¹ to IGP⁶ = Institutional and Government Policies; SBB¹ to SBB⁷ = Source and Behavioural Barriers; LTIE¹ to LTIE⁶ = Lack of Technological Innovation and Expertise

On the variable “social and behavioural barriers” there was strong discriminant power indicative that there is significant difference in perception between staff in grade level 09-12 and grade level 05-08 (SSB1, λ 0.855, $F = 19.080$, $p < 0.05$; SSB 2, λ 0.886, $F = 16.055$, $p < 0.05$; SSB 3, λ 0.872, $F = 10.064$, $p < 0.05$; SSB 4, λ 0.996, $F = 14.099$, $p < 0.05$; SSB 5, λ 0.877, $F = 15.089$, $p < 0.05$; SSB6, λ 0.955, $F = 13.066$, $p < 0.05$; SSB7, λ 0.964, $F = 11.089$, $p < 0.05$). Workers in grade level 09-12 recorded higher group mean scores than those in grade level 05-08. The justification for this may be because the senior workers appear more knowledgeable that social barriers have far-reaching effects on the implementation of e-land administration and management.

On variables eliciting measurement of Lack of Technological Innovation and Expertise, we can infer from the Table that both categories of workers in the Ministry of Lands, Survey and Physical Planning demonstrated high total mean scores on the six variables (all >4), an indication that both respondents regard to lack of technological innovation and expertise as a key factor that affects the implementation of e-land administration and management in the ministry. This is because all the six variables displayed strong discriminant power which suggests that there were significant group mean differences in perception between the two groups (LTIE1 λ 0.869, $F = 17.024$, $p < 0.05$; LTIE2 λ 0.889, $F = 25.181$, $p < 0.05$; LTIE3 λ 0.920, $F = 16.077$, $p < 0.05$; LTIE4 λ 0.965, $F = 09.022$, $p < 0.05$; LTIE5 λ 0.824, $F = 18.092$, $p < 0.05$; LTIE6 λ 0.862, $F = 16.088$, $p < 0.05$). The mean differences were high enough to make significant group differences. However, workers in grade levels 09-12 recorded higher group mean values than those in grade levels 05-08. The fact that lack of technological innovation and expertise is perceived by grade level 09-12 to have a strong influence and impact on the implementation of e-land administration is not unexpected. This is because a greater percentage of the staff of the ministry are not highly knowledgeable with computer software and applications on land information systems.

Predicting discriminant function for propensity to implement e-land administration and management in the Ministry of Lands, Survey and Physical Planning Owerri Imo State

To determine the most predictive variables that best differentiate the two groups (staff in grade level 09-12 and grade level 05-08) on perception of the factors affecting the implementation of e-land administration and management, the stepwise method of enter/remove for deriving discriminant functions were used (Huberty and Barton, 1989). Thus, the 26 variables in Table 5 were subjected to the stepwise method. Table 6 shows that at 30 iterations at 0.05 significant level, 15 out of which entered the model in the following descending order of magnitude: Lack of funds - EFF1 > Cost of procurement- EFF2 > High cost of installation/replacement of ICT facilities - EFF3; > Lack of financial incentive and subsidy - EFF5 > Low budgetary allocation for ICT - EFF6 > Cost of Energy and Power - EFF7 > Limited skill capabilities - LTIE1 > Lack of Qualified IT Staff- LTIE2 > Lack of innovation /capacity to design - LTIE5 > Use of unskilled and unspecialized workers - LTIE4 > Poor implementation of policies on the use of ICT - IGP2; > Administrative and bureaucratic bottlenecks/contradicting rules - IGP3 > Corruption in Civil Service - IGP4 > Inadequate IT Infrastructure IGP6 > Poor awareness and acceptability of ICT - SBB1.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Table 6: Predictive Model of factors affecting the implementation of e-land administration and management^{a,b,c,d}.

Step	Entered	Wilks' Lambda							
		Statistic	df1	df2	df3	Exact F			
						Statistic	df1	df2	Sig
1	Lack of funds - EFF1	0.865	1	1	464	88.326	1	464	0.000
2	Cost of procurement- EFF2	0.854	2	1	464	85.189	2	463	0.000
3	High cost of installation/replacement of ICT facilities - EFF3	0.842	3	1	464	80.453	3	462	0.000
4	Lack of financial incentive and subsidy – EFF5	0.838	4	1	464	78.010	4	461	0.000
5	Low budgetary allocation for ICT – EFF6	0.826	5	1	464	74.103	5	460	0.000
6	Cost of Energy and Power -EFT7	0.815	6	1	464	70.854	6	459	0.000
7	Limited skill capabilities – LTIE1	0.789	7	1	464	65.897	7	458	0.000
8	Lack of Qualified IT Staff– LTIE2	0.775	8	1	464	63.010	8	457	0.000
9	Lack of innovation /capacity to design – LTIE5	0.768	9	1	464	60.908	9	456	0.000
10	Use of unskilled and unspecialized workers – LTIE4	0.758	10	1	464	58.875	10	455	0.000
11	Poor implementation of policies on the use of ICT –IGP2	0.690	11	1	464	50.974	11	454	0.000
12	Administrative and bureaucratic bottlenecks/contradicting rules –IGP3	0.694	12	1	464	45.454	12	453	0.000
13	Corruption in Civil Service – IGP4	0.680	13	1	464	41.955	13	452	0.000
14	Inadequate IT Infrastructure IGP6	0.654	14	1	464	38.770	14	451	0.000
15	Poor awareness and acceptability of ICT – SBB1	0.588	15	1	464	34.990	15	450	0.000

Source: Computer Printout

Further analysis in Table 7 shows more statistics for verifying the significance of the discriminant function and identifying the factors and variables that have the greatest impact and correlation with the discriminant function. The Table shows a canonical correlation (CCr) of 0.654, which implies that the function explained 79% (CCr^2) of variance in the group differences. However, when examining the function's Wilks' lambda (λ), the function is considered significant ($\lambda = 0.558$, χ^2 (df = 5) = 256.608, $p < 0.01$). Thus, the study concludes that there is a significant discriminant function which confirms that workers of the ministry in grade levels 09-12 and those in grade levels 05-08 perceive differently the factors affecting the implementation of e-land administration and management in the state.

Consistent with ANOVA (F) test, the standardized discriminant function coefficients (SCDFC) and structure matrix correlation (within group correlation) demonstrate that the variables that have the strongest impact and correlation with the discriminant function are “Lack of funds - EFF1” ($\beta = 0.701$) and within group correlation ($\beta = 0.684$); “Low budgetary allocation for ICT –EFF6 ($\beta = 0.621$) and within group correlation ($\beta = -0.655$); “Cost of Energy and Power -EFF7” ($\beta = -0.558$) and within group correlation ($\beta = -0.589$); “Cost of procurement- EFF2 ($\beta = 0.514$) and within group correlation ($\beta = 0.450$); “High cost of installation/replacement of ICT facilities - EFF3 ($\beta = -0.544$) and within group correlation ($\beta = -0.435$); “Lack of financial incentive and subsidy – EFF5 ($\beta = 0.447$) and within group correlation ($\beta = 0.444$); “Lack of innovation /capacity to design – LTIE5 (SC5)” ($\beta = 0.442$) and within group correlation ($\beta = -0.048$); Limited skill capabilities – LTIE1 ($\beta = 0.390$) and within group correlation ($\beta = -0.366$).

Others include: Lack of Qualified IT Staff– LTIE2 ($\beta = 0.316$) and within group correlation ($\beta = -0.338$); Corruption in Civil Service – IGP4 ($\beta = 0.284$) and within group correlation ($\beta = 0.304$); “Inadequate IT Infrastructure IGP6 ($\beta = 0.188$) and within group correlation ($\beta = -0.285$); Poor awareness and acceptability of ICT – SBB1” ($\beta = 0.115$) and within group correlation ($\beta = 0.274$); Administrative and bureaucratic bottlenecks/contradicting rules –IGP3” ($\beta = 0.112$) and within group correlation ($\beta =$

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

0.288); Poor implementation of policies on the use of ICT –IGP2 ($\beta = 0.110$) and within group correlation ($\beta = 0.326$); Use of unskilled and unspecialized workers – LTIE4 ($\beta = 0.108$) and within group correlation ($\beta = 0.255$). A look at the result shows that the distribution provides efficiency and predictive accuracy of the discriminant function. Thus, the model achieved a hit ratio of 80.4 %, showing that 80.4% of respondents from both cadres of workers were correctly grouped as having opinions on the factors affecting the implementation of e-land administration and management according to their perception of the subject matter.

Table 7: Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficient and Structure Matrix of Factors Affecting the Implementation of e-land Administration and Management

Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficient	Structure Matrix		
	Function1	Impact Ranking	(Within group Correlation)
Lack of funds - EFF1	0.701	1	0.684
Low budgetary allocation for ICT –EFF6	0.621	2	-0.655
Cost of Energy and Power -EFF7	0.558	3	0.589
Lack of financial incentive and subsidy – EFF5	0.514	6	0.450
Lack of innovation /capacity to design – LTIE5	-544	7	0.435
Lack of Qualified IT Staff– LTIE2	0.447	9	0.444
Cost of procurement- EFF2	0.442	4	-0.048
High cost of installation/replacement of ICT facilities - EFF3	0.390	5	-0.366
Limited skill capabilities – LTIE1	0.316	8	-0.338
Corruption in Civil Service – IGP4	0.284	10	0.304
Inadequate IT Infrastructure IGP6	0.188	11	-0.285
Poor awareness and acceptability of ICT – SBB1	0.115	12	0.274
Administrative and bureaucratic bottlenecks/contradicting rules –IGP3	0.112	13	0.288
Poor implementation of policies on the use of ICT –IGP2	0.110	14	0.326
Use of unskilled and unspecialized workers – LTIE4	0.108	15	0.255
Function at Group Centroids			
Staff at grade level 09-12	0.395		
Staff at grade level 05-08	-0.554		
Model Validation Statistics			
Canonical Correlation (CCr)	0.654		
(CCr ²)	0.5216		
Eigenvalue	0.684 ^a		
Wilks' Lambda	0.558		
Chi-Square (df = 5)	268.804		
Classification accuracy (hit ratio)	80.4%		
Sig	0.000		

Source: Computer Printout

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

From the findings of this research, we can safely conclude that the implementation and management of e-land administration in Imo state is still far from being a reality. It is being hampered by four major factors namely: Economic and Financial Factors, Institutional and Government Policies, Social and Behavioural Barriers and Lack of Technological Innovation and Expertise be responsible. The research further established that: there are significant differences in perception between the staff of the Ministry of Lands in grade level 05 - 08 (Junior staff) and grade level 09 -12 (Senior staff) on the factors affecting the implementation of electronic land administration and management in Imo State and that the senior staff perceive these factors better than the junior staff. This is because they know more about the implications of not having an electronic land recording system in the ministry which includes poor generation of income/returns to the state and conducting land transactions manually which has been proved to be generally expensive, time-consuming, burdensome and complex when it comes to land documentation and perfection of title. The study also found out the variables with the most predictive power that accounted for the difference in perception between the two groups and also the areas of commonality between the two groups on these factors. The study has also shown that the dynamics of

land administration and management advocate for strong relationship between computer driven systems and geographical information system.

The study therefore recommended among others that there should be positive connection between digitalization and land administration so as to make majority of the intended users be able to seamlessly use the system. The system should also be made to seamlessly deliver services based on geographical needs to enable citizens to view land and property information on digital maps organized by political and administrative boundaries, neighbourhoods, cities, rural areas etc.

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Chapter Thirteen

Understanding Green Building, Innovative Materials, and Technologies in Enhancing Sustainable Development

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ABSTRACT

Climate change is happening and progressively emerging as one of the most serious global problems affecting many segments of economic growth and sustainable development. The changing climate significantly impacts land by causing it to be degraded or disappear and loss of biodiversity among others. This can negatively impact economic activities like fishing and farming. Communities face more frequent quick-onset disasters as well as gradual changes in seasons, temperature and rainfall which leads to crop death or low productivity. This paper addresses green building (GB) which features innovative technologies that consider energy efficiency and conservation, renewable energy, effective use of water, effective waste and emission management, sustainable construction materials, environmentally conscious construction methods and harmonious design buildings which meet the need of the present and future generations. This paper sampled 12 GB Experts based in Lagos and Ibadan and sought their opinions about the importance of GB to sustainable development, the area of innovation in GB, their experience, and their role in the company among others. The data was analyzed with descriptive statistics (frequency and percentage) while the formulated hypothesis was analyzed with inferential statistics (Chi-square). The findings show that the experts overwhelmingly support the significant role of GB in promoting sustainable development, emphasizing its innovations in energy efficiency, waste management, and resource conservation, as well as its potential to mitigate the adverse effects of climate change and enhance community resilience, thus providing a compelling argument for the broader adoption of GB practices as a crucial strategy for achieving sustainability goals in the face of ongoing environmental challenges.

KEYWORDS: Climate change; Green building; Innovative technology; Sustainable development

INTRODUCTION

Climate change can be a natural process where temperature, rainfall, wind and other element vary over decades or more. The IPCC's sixth assessment report published in 2021 found that human emission of heat-trapping gases has already warmed the climate by nearly 2 degrees Fahrenheit (1.1 degrees Celsius) since the pre-industrial times (starting in 1750). The overwhelming body of studies suggests that human actions notably the emission of heat-trapping greenhouse gases are primarily to blame for our planet's warming with some contributions coming from natural variability (WHO, 2021). The result of many scientific studies also shows that human activity contributed to the increase in carbon dioxide (CO²) in the atmosphere; increased CO² levels cause an increase in the frequency of extreme weather events (Anderson, 2017; IPCC, 2021). Climate change is also defined as the recent dramatic shift in emissions of carbon dioxide (CO²) caused by human activity (Rivera, 2020). According to Rivera (2020), the average concentration of CO² in the atmosphere has increased dramatically over the past 60 years from 316ppm in 1959 to 411ppm in 2019 (Table 1). This increase is close to the 450ppm limit set by scientists to avoid catastrophic damage (Rivera, 2020; IPCC, 2022).

Table 1: Carbon Dioxide Parts Per Million

Year	CO ² PPM	Decade increase
1959	315.97	-
1969	324.62	2.74%
1979	336.84	3.76%
1989	353.12	4.85%
1999	368.39	4.32%
2009	384.43	5.17%
2019	411.44	6.20%

Source: Rivera, 2020

The result of this exponential growth of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere is responsible for the increase in the average temperature. Soaring carbon emissions have created a global greenhouse effect, trapping more and more of the sun's heat (Rivera, 2020). The changing climate significantly impacts land by causing it to be degraded or disappear. As land is disappearing and degrading, competition over fresh water access and land resources increases in tandem. Coastal land and Pacific islands are subsiding due to the sea level rise, and this land disappearance will increase at an exponential pace (Castro and Kuntz, 2022). Habitable land on the island of Nautambu, for example, has decreased by over 50% since 2011 (Albert et al., 2016). These effects include eroded coastlines and saltwater infusion, which changes vegetation and wildlife resources that communities depend on for their livelihood, as well as inhibits agriculture & Fishing in Coastal areas (Castro and Kuntz, 2022)

While sea level rise impacts are experienced along coastlines, land degradation permeates the global landscape and concentrates in the tropical and subtropical regions. Shifts in the average temperature, extreme hot and cold days and precipitation add increasing pressure to existing land resources through shifts in soil, water availability and biodiversity (Castro and Kuntz, 2022) increased draught and soil erosion cause land degradation and force changes in the use of arable land (Ahmed et al., 2010). Countries in the tropics and southern Hemisphere subtropics expect the greatest impacts on economic growth caused by climate change.

The IPCC 2018 released a landmark special report demonstrating how the climate has changed and the future impacts that could be avoided if continued global warming is limited to 1.5 degrees Celsius. Even with warming limited to 1.5 degrees Celsius, 70 – 90% of coral reefs will be lost, 14% of the world population will experience extreme heat waves about every five years, draught will be most frequent and sea levels will continue to rise (IPCC, 2018). Global commitment to climate mitigation as evident in the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which include climate change mitigation and natural resources protection, and the Paris Accords signed in 2016 agreeing to mitigate climate change through lowered greenhouse gas emission and national-level climate adaptation plans. (Castro and Kuntz, 2022) However, progress towards these goals to date has been limited and CO² emissions persist at unmitigated rates (Castro and Kuntz, 2022). Though the global community has made ambitious commitments to climate mitigation and adaptation, these commitments are outpaced by the rate at which the climate is changing. Catching up to the pace of change requires greater economic restructuring to eliminate harmful greenhouse gas emissions, access to climate finance needs to be accelerated and adaptation efforts re-scaled to match climate hazards (United Nations 2018; IPCC, 2018)

Green buildings have been proposed and needed on a global scale to help drastically reduce greenhouse gas emissions, conserve increasingly stretched energy resources and contribute to increasing human health. (US Information Admin 2012; Meena et al., 2022; Cao et al., 2022 Guo et al., 2021). This is because building operations are responsible for 40% of worldwide energy flow and materials used in conventional buildings have been identified as the largest source of greenhouse gas emissions (US Information Admin 2021, U.S. Dept. of Energy 2012). In the United State alone, buildings account for almost 40% of national CO² emissions and out-consume both the industrial and transportation sector, but LEED-certified buildings have 34 percent lower CO² emissions, consume 25% less energy and 11% less water and have diverted more than 80 million tons of waste from landfills (US Dept. of Energy, 2012).

In the advanced countries the global market is responding to GB, according to a Dodge Data & Analytics record Green Building Trends 2016 smart market report, the global green building sector continues to double every 3 years with survey respondents from 70 countries reporting 60% of their project will be green in 2018. Under lowered maintenance and energy costs the return on investments from green building is rapid; green retrofit projects are generally expected to pay for themselves in just 7 years (McGraw Hill Construction, 2012). Between 2015 and 2018, LEED-certified buildings in the United States are estimated to have \$1.2 billion in energy savings, \$149.5 million in water savings and \$54.2 million in waste savings (Booz Allen Hamilton and U.S. Green Building Council, 2015). However, in developing countries in general and Nigeria in particular, GB has not been understood and there are

misconceptions about the cost. Green building practices are of utmost importance in Nigeria for promoting environmental sustainability and harnessing the potential of renewable energy systems.

In general, to mitigate the environmental effects associated with typical building construction and operation, Green buildings (BGS) have been proposed which tend to be much more environmentally friendly, socially habitable and economically affordable in the long term (Meena et al., 2021; Cao et al., 2021 and Guo et al., 2021). While green building practices hold immense potential for Nigeria's construction industry, there are several challenges that hinder their widespread adoption. These challenges include limited awareness and understating of green building practices.

Justification for the Study

The energy crisis in 1970s caused various building-saving technologies as solar energy, geothermal energy and wind energy to emerge and energy-saving building became the forerunner of building development. (U.S Information on Admin 2012; Kriss, 2014) In 1990, the world first GB was released in the U.K. (U.S Information Admin, 2012). World Green Building Council 2021, because the "United Nations Conference on Environment and Development" promoted the idea of sustainable development, GB gradually became the direction of development. In 1993, the United State created the Green Building Association, Hongkong introduced Green Building Standard in 1996, Taiwan introduced the green Building Standard in 1999, Canada in 2000, Singapore Green Building Mark in 2005 and China implemented the Green Building Evaluation Standard in 2015 African Nations fostered their initiative in 2010 at a conference in Mairabi, Kenya to promote greenhouse also known as sustainable building rating in African cities to reduce the effect of climate change (Adejumo Adeosun and Awoyera 2022). Nigeria created the Green Building Council in 2010. These bodies were established to address the built environment's role in climate change, environmental pollution and natural resource depletion.

Convincing empirical evidence on the significance of GB to sustainable development has been compiled from different regions of the world such as Hu et al., 2021, Liza Shuttleworth 2024; U.S. EPP 2021; Van J., 2006; Castellacci et al., 2017; Takolo et al., 2021; Bouz Allen et al., 2015 among others. However, despite this mounting volume of empirical evidence, gaps for further study remain wide. While an increasing body of literature is emerging on the sustainability, and social and economic importance of GB, there has been very little rigorous documentation and analysis on how to improve and increase GB understanding from the standpoint of industry experts. This is the knowledge gap this study stands to bridge.

Aim and Objectives

This study aims to assess the impact of GB and innovative technologies on sustainable development from the standpoint of experts in GB industries. To achieve the above aim, the objectives are to:

- i. Identify GB industries/consultants in Nigeria
- ii. Identify what GB projects are all about
- iii. Identify the features of the GB project
- iv. Identify the impact of the GB project on sustainable development

Hypothesis testing

H₀: GB projects have no significant impact on sustainable development

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual Review

Climate Change

Climate change refers to the long-term changes in temperature and weather due to human activities (Anderson Frey, 2017; IPCC, 2021). Increases in average global temperature are the most common manifestations of climate change (Shivanna, 2022). In recent times, it has acquired the importance of global emergency and affecting not only the well-being of humans but also the sustainability of other life forms (Rivera, 2020), enormous increase in the emission of greenhouse gases CO², methane and nitrous oxide in recent decades largely due to burning of coal and fossil fuels, and deforestation are the main drivers of climate change marked increase in the frequency and intensity of natural disasters, rise in sea level, decrease in crop productivity and lose of biodiversity are the main consequences of climate change (Shivanna, 2022; Castro and Kuntz, 2022). Obvious mitigation measures include a significant

reduction in the emission of greenhouse gases and an increase in the forest cover of the land mass (IPCC, 2018; Shivanna, 2022).

Green Building (GB)

It is also referred to as green construction, sustainable building or eco-friendly building. GB refers to both structure and application of processes that are environmentally possible and resource-efficient throughout a building lifecycle from planning to design, construction, operation, maintenance, renovation and demolition (EPA, 2021). This requires the collaboration and cooperation of relevant professionals such as Architects, Engineers, contractors and Clients at all project stages (Yanji and Etellios Plainiotic, 2006). GB has to do with saving resources to the maximum extent including energy saving, land saving, water saving, material saving etc. during the whole lifecycle of building, protecting the environment and reducing pollution, and providing people with healthy, comfortable and efficient use of space and being in harmony with nature (Hu & Skibniewski, 2021). According to Shuttleworth, 2024, the features of GB or eco-friendly building include; energy efficiency and conservation. This has to do with reducing energy consumption and maximising the efficiency of energy use, renewable energy such as the use of solar and wind power to meet the needs of the building. Effective use of water: This is water use recycling.

Effective waste and emission management's sustainable construction materials e.g. the use of low-flow shower heads, touchline faucets, water water-saving toilets. Energy-efficient water heaters, energy-saving water pipes, drainage systems, recirculating hot water pumps, pressure-reducing valves, rain water harvesting grey water recycling among others in plumbing works. The use of eco-friendly roofing materials such as cool roofs, single roofs, reclaimed slate, green roofs, rubber roofing, and solar roofs among others. The feature of GB also deals with environmentally conscious construction methods. This has to do with the use of construction technologies that focus on reducing the impact of construction on the surrounding natural environment by reducing noise and light pollution and protecting local flora and fauna (Shuttleworth, 2021). GB that are harmoniously designed are socially responsible and beneficial to human occupants and improve their health and well-being. Sustainable architecture is not just about creating visually appealing structures, but it is about designing buildings that harmonize with the environment while meeting the needs of the present and future generations.

Innovation and Technology

Green innovation also known as sustainable innovation or eco-innovation refers to the development of new ideas, technologies, products, processes and business models that have a positive impact on the environment and promote sustainability (Castella and Lie, 2017). Green innovation is crucial for addressing environmental challenges, combating climate change and achieving a more sustainable and resilient future (Ahmad, 2023). It typically requires a combination of technological advancements, policy support and changes in consumer behaviour to be successful (Takolo, Toraloo and Panzi, 2021). Innovation is the actual use of a non-trivial change and improvement in a process, product or system that is novel to the institution developing the change (Slaughter, 1998; Freeman, 2013). Some of the new areas of green innovation include: renewable energy, energy efficiency, green economy, green materials, and sustainable construction among others (Shuttleworth, 2024). Technologies such as solar panels, wind turbines, light emitting diode (LED) bulbs and lithium-ion batteries have played a significant role in reducing emissions (Ahmad, 2023; Shuttleworth, 2024).

Innovative technologies progress toward minimum energy requirements and almost full usage of recycled reusable materials in buildings (Serife and Zahracannan, 2000) zero energy building, 70% less water consumption, and eco-friendly recycle/reusable materials in high ratios. Innovative technologies in GB are focused on addressing certification building and the following features are important energy efficiency and conservation of renewable energy, effective use of water, effective waste and emission management, sustainable construction materials and environmentally conscious construction methods (Serife and Zehracannan, 2017).

Sustainable Development

The issue of climate change brings us to the issue of sustainability. Understanding this will help us to appreciate the need for GBs. The report of the Brundtland Commission in 1987 greatly promoted the

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

idea of sustainable development, an issue that has become increasingly prominent across the globe applied and discussed at transnational international, national, regional and community levels (Centre for History and Economics, 2008). According to EPA (2015), Sustainability is based on a simple principle: everything we need for our survival and well-being depends either directly or indirectly on our natural environment. To pursue sustainability is to create and maintain the conditions under which humans and nature can co-exist in productive harmony to support present and future generations (Idiata, 2016). Examples of Green Buildings (GBs) around the world are depicted in Plate 1.



a. The Edge Amsterdam, Netherland



b. Across Fukuoka Prefectural international Hall
Fukuoka, Japan



c. Bosco Verticate Milan, Italy



d. Vancouver Conventional Centre, Vancouver, Canada

Plate 1: Examples of Green Buildings (GBs) around the World (Source: Brundtland Report, 1987)

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The Study Area

The areas selected for the study include Greenstad Project, Arc Emmanuel Falude, and the Green Practice, Litedares, EcoBuild Solution, Sustainable Design Consortium, Earthwise, TerraNova, EcoHabitat, in Ibadan and Lagos, respectively.

Data Base for the Study

Survey interviews were held in person on phone calls and emails with reputable firms (experts) in GB with LEED Certification based in Lagos and Ibadan, Nigeria. Semi-structured interview guides were prepared to elicit relevant demographic characteristics such as the expert's experience in GB projects over several years, and the participant's (Expert) role in the company among others. Other information sought includes the importance of GB to sustainable development, what makes GB innovative and the

features of GB, and the problems of integrating GB innovation into the Nigeria building industry among others.

A purposive sampling technique was adopted for the study. The reason for this selection procedure was to address the professional firms or consultants in GB who have been involved in GB design, construction and management for a reasonable number of years and who were able to provide the relevant information for the study. Twelve (12) GB consultants/firms in Lagos and Ibadan were contacted and a questionnaire guide was prepared for each consultant/firm (participant). All the 12 questionnaires were retrieved for final analysis. When using purposive sampling for qualitative research as in the case of this study, the sample size is often determined by data saturation. Saturation is a state in which the collection of new data does not shed any further light on the issue under investigation (Baker et al., 2012; Morse, 2000; Mason 2010). Even though a larger sample may seem like a relatively safe approach, a very large number of respondents can hinder the researcher's ability to provide "in-depth" findings and miss the opportunity to obtain an understanding of each respondent (Fink, 2000). Regarding data saturation, Guest et al 2006 suggested that 12 interviews are enough for most research studies to understand the common perceptions and experiences among a group of relatively homogenous individuals. Demographic characteristics of the participants such as participants' experience in GB projects and participants' role in the company were analyzed with descriptive statistics (Frequency and percentage) while the hypothesis formulated was analyzed with inferential statistics (Chi-square).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Results

This section presents an empirical analysis of the data starting from the attributes of the participants followed by the others as shown in the tables below

Table 2: Expert's Experience in GB Project

S/N	Year	Frequency	Percentage
A.	0 – 5	-	0
B.	6 – 10	7	58.3
C.	11 – 15	5	41.7
D.	15 and above	-	0
		12	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2024

Table 2 reveals that the majority of the experts, specifically 58.3% (7 experts), have between 6–10 years of experience, indicating a predominance of mid-level experience in Green Building (GB) projects, while 41.7% (5 experts) have 11–15 years of experience, representing a smaller but still significant group of more experienced professionals, and notably, there are no experts with less than 6 years of experience, nor any with over 15 years of experience, suggesting that the cohort is composed predominantly of seasoned individuals with substantial but not extensive long-term expertise, perhaps reflecting the relatively recent emergence of the GB industry and the selection of more experienced professionals for the study, while also highlighting a gap in representation from both early-career and highly seasoned experts with over 15 years of experience.

Table 3: Participant's Role in the Company

S/N	Role	Frequency	Percentage
a.	Sustainability consultants	9	75
b.	Design Consultant	2	16.7
c.	Engineering Consultant	1	8.3
d.	Contractor	-	0
e.	Others (specify)	-	0
		12	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2024

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

The majority of participants (75%) are sustainability consultants, reflecting a strong focus on environmental issues. A smaller number of design and engineering consultants were present (16.7% and 8.3%, respectively), and no contractors or other roles were represented. This composition suggests that the survey focused heavily on professionals involved in sustainability rather than construction or contracting.

Tables 4, 5 and 6 show the importance of GB to sustainable development; composition of GB Innovative and; Features of GB, respectively. In Table 4, all the respondents interviewed (100%) strongly agreed that GB creates a positive impact on the environment, and GB focuses on health and well-being. Also, a larger percentage (67%) attested that GBs were designed to be beneficial to the people in those spaces. More so, the majority of the respondents also attested that renewable energy makes the GB innovative. Others composition of the GB was energy efficiency (83%), green materials (80%) and sustainable construction (50%) (Table 5). All the respondents (100%) attested to the fact that energy efficiency and conservation were the main features of the GB. These were followed by the efficient use of water, and environmentally conscious construction methods (92%) each. The least responses on the features of GB were sustainable construction materials which was put at 67% (Table 6).

Table 4: Importance of GB to Sustainable Development

S/N	Items	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)
1	GB uses fewer resources and produces fewer emissions and waste	11 (92)	1 (8)	0 (0)	0 (0)
2	GB creates a positive impact on the environment	12 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
3	GB addresses environmental challenges, combat climate change and achieve	11 (92)	1 (8)	0 (0)	0 (0)
4	GB focuses on Health and Well-being	12 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
5	GBs are designed to be beneficial to the people in those space	8 (67)	4 (33)	0 (0)	0 (0)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2024

Table 5: What makes GB Innovative?

S/N	Items	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)
1	Renewable Energy	12 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
2	Energy Efficiency	10 (83)	2 (17)	0 (0)	0 (0)
3	Green Materials	7 (80)	5 (20)	0 (0)	0 (0)
4	Sustainable Construction	6 (50)	6 (50)	0 (0)	0 (0)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2024

Table 6: Features of GB

S/N	Items	SA (%)	A (%)	D (%)	SD (%)
1	Energy efficiency and conservation	12 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
2	Renewable Energy	9 (75)	3 (25)	0 (0)	0 (0)
3	Efficient use of water	11 (92)	1 (8)	0 (0)	0 (0)
4	Efficient waste & emission management	9 (75)	3 (25)	0 (0)	0 (0)
5	Sustainable Construction Materials	8 (67)	4 (35)	0 (0)	0 (0)

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

6	Environmentally conscious construction method	11 (92)	1 (8)	0 (0)	0 (0)
7	Harmonious design building that satisfy the present and future generations	10 (83)	2 (17)	0 (0)	0 (0)

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2024

Discussion of Findings

Table 7: Importance of Green Buildings (GB) to Sustainable Development

Test	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (p-value)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.125	6	0.049
Likelihood Ratio	12.34	6	0.033
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.01	1	0.043

Source: Author's Analysis, 2024

The Pearson Chi-Square value of 11.125 with a p-value of 0.049 is less than 0.05, meaning we reject the null hypothesis. This indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between participants' perceptions of GB and its impact on sustainable development. The likelihood ratio test further confirms this with a p-value of 0.033, indicating that GB plays a key role in sustainable development.

Table 8: What Makes GB Innovative?

Test	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (p-value)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.456	3	0.024
Likelihood Ratio	10.753	3	0.018
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.678	1	0.029

Source: Author's Analysis, 2024

The Pearson Chi-Square value of 9.456 and p-value of 0.024 indicate a statistically significant relationship between perceptions of what makes GB innovative and its role in sustainable development. The likelihood ratio test (p-value = 0.018) strengthens the case that GB innovations such as renewable energy, energy efficiency, and green materials have a strong impact on sustainability.

Table 9: Features of Green Buildings (GB)

Test	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (p-value)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.875	6	0.032
Likelihood Ratio	14.341	6	0.021
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.765	1	0.038

Source: Author's Analysis, 2024

The Pearson Chi-Square value of 12.875 with a p-value of 0.032 suggests a significant relationship between GB features and their perceived importance to sustainable development. The likelihood ratio test with a p-value of 0.021 further supports that GB features like energy efficiency, renewable energy, and waste management are seen as key drivers of sustainable practices.

The results reveal a statistically significant relationship between participants' perceptions of GB and their contribution to sustainable development. A large majority (92%) strongly agree that GBs use

fewer resources, produce fewer emissions, and generate less waste. Notably, 100% of participants agree that GBs have a positive environmental impact and prioritize health and well-being. Additionally, 92% strongly agree that GBs help combat climate change and promote sustainability. The Pearson Chi-Square value of 11.125 (p -value = 0.049) leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis, indicating a statistically significant relationship between GBs and sustainable development. The likelihood ratio test (p -value = 0.033) further reinforces this finding. The data strongly suggests that GBs are viewed as essential for environmental progress and sustainability.

GB innovations such as renewable energy, energy efficiency, and green materials are widely recognized by participants as crucial for sustainable development. The majority (83%) strongly agree on the importance of energy efficiency, while 75% identify green materials as essential innovations. These elements are statistically shown to have a positive and significant impact on sustainability. The Pearson Chi-Square value of 9.456 (p -value = 0.024) demonstrates a significant relationship between perceptions of Experts on GB innovations and their role in sustainability. The likelihood ratio test (p -value = 0.018) supports rejecting the null hypothesis, affirming that GB innovations are critical drivers of sustainable development, especially in areas such as renewable energy and energy efficiency.

Essential GB features, such as energy efficiency, renewable energy, efficient water use, and environmentally conscious construction methods, are regarded by participants as vital to sustainability. A total of 100% of participants strongly agree on the importance of energy efficiency, while 92% emphasize water efficiency and environmentally conscious construction methods as key GB features contributing to sustainable development.

The Pearson Chi-Square value of 12.875 (p -value = 0.032) highlights the statistically significant relationship between GB features and their role in sustainability. The likelihood ratio test (p -value = 0.021) supports rejecting the null hypothesis, confirming that GB features are critical components driving sustainable practices. Similarly, The p -values across all tables (Table 7: p = 0.049; Table 8: p = 0.024; Table 9: p = 0.032) consistently show that Green Buildings have a statistically significant impact on sustainable development, cementing their role as key drivers of sustainability initiatives.

CONCLUSION

Across all analyses, the data supports rejecting the null hypothesis (H_0) and accepting the alternative hypothesis (H_1). Green Buildings (GB) are shown to have a statistically significant positive impact on sustainable development. Key innovations, such as renewable energy and energy efficiency, combined with critical features like resource conservation and waste management, are seen as major contributors to sustainability efforts. Participants clearly view GB as essential for achieving environmental goals, addressing climate change, and improving overall well-being.

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Chapter Fourteen

The Impact of Climate change on Property Valuation and Sustainable Development

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ABSTRACT

According to data from the Nigeria Bureau of Statistics (NBS), the real estate sector contributed approximately 6.50% to Nigeria Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in Q4 2023, witnessing a notable increase from 6.18% in the previous year. Unfortunately, climate change results in more intense rainfall. Heavy rainfall over a short period of time can cause flash flood and moderate rainfall over several days can overflow the rivers, streams and dams. Increasing temperatures are also melting polar ice caps. These pose a significant threat to flood-prone areas, towns, cities and biodiversity across the world. The negative effect of climate change is not limited to the environment it touches the real estate in general and its value in particular. Using a study from Ibadan city, Oyo State, Nigeria, this paper addresses the effect of climate change on selected properties in flood-prone areas in Ibadan. Survey method was adopted to interview 60 randomly selected property owners/tenants. Also, relevant estate agents were contacted. Information such as type of property, years of occupation, annual rental value, capital value, land size, number of bedrooms, floor area, annual maintenance cost (repairs liability), property market in the area, vacancy/occupancy rate, flood occurrence, damage/ sustained and investors' perception about the area were elicited from the respondents. This information was compared with similar and comparable properties outside the flood prone areas. Hedonic pricing regression model was used for data analysis. The findings shows that there is a significant lower annual rental value of properties within the flood prone area as compared to similar and comparable properties outside the zone. Also, annual maintenance and repair liabilities is higher in the flood prone area. Because of the risk, the place is not attractive to property investors. ($\beta = -92400.37$, $P = 0.039$ and $\beta = -6.32$, $P = 0.002$) for level of risk and repair liability respectively. These have negative effect on rental value of property in flood prone area. The implication of this is that, it has negatively affected not only the present but the future income flow from the property to the owner. It also informs the policy makers on how this scourge affects the economy and sustainable developments by decreasing the value of one of the most important sectors which has the potential to significantly influence the trajectory of the country's economic recovery and sustainable development.

KEY WORDS: Climate change; Flooding; Real estate sector; Property valuation; Sustainable development

INTRODUCTION

Climate change is a growing problem and has major effects of the environment of the world population, spatial planning process and real estate market (Joanna et al., 2020). Climate change creates a high-risk area such as sea-level rising, flooding and temperature increase among others (Eghuizen, 2020, Ebele et al., 2016). There is a fierce social and specific debate concerning the origin of the climate changes that are presently being observed (Stolpe, Medhanugi and Knutti, 2017). The results of many scientific studies show that human activity has contributed to the increase in carbon dioxide (CO²) in the atmosphere; an increase in CO² levels causes an increase in the frequency of extreme weather events (Anderson, 2017, IPCC, 2021, WHO, 2021, NiMet, 2015). For example, between May and June 2018 almost every day approximately 22% of the populated and agricultural areas north of 30° latitudes experienced high temperature at the same time (Vogel, Zscheischler, Dee, Senevirantue and Worten, 2018). Extreme weather results in water level increase with the shrinking of the area covered by ice (Jakobson, Vihma and Jakobson, 2016; Chambers, 2017) and there are increasing number of cases of rising flood in coastal areas due to sea-level rising (Wodowinskis, Bray, Kirtman and Wu, 2016)

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

For every additional increment of global warming, extreme in weather and temperature will increase. For example, every additional 0.50 of global warming causes clearly discernible increase in the intensity and frequency of hot extreme, including heat waves and heavy precipitation as well as agricultural and ecological droughts in some regions (IPCC, 2021). Floods are the world greatest disaster as asserted by West (2010), Odelola and Akinola (2015). Global sea-levels have been on the increase for century, but the rate of rising waters has escalated over the few decades and is expected to accelerate dramatically in decades to come (IPCC, 2018).

The effects of sea level rising at accelerated rates are intensified by increased settlement along coastlines over recent decades which is made possible through hardened infrastructure and engineered coastal protection through Dikes, sea walls and levees (Castro and Kumtz, 2022). These infrastructural protections put in place, however, were built based on past estimates of rising sea rather than the accelerated pace of sea level rise due to climate change (IPCC, 2018).

While sea level rise impact is experienced along coastlines, land degradation permeates the global landscape and concentrates on tropical and subtropical regions. Besides rising sea levels also the probability of extreme weather conditions, additional damage is rising due to urban flooding, flash flooding among others. For example in July 2021, the Benelux region experienced a major flood due to the extreme rainfall, more than 110 millimeters of precipitation fell in 48 houses (Bruijn and Slager, 2022). In Ibadan city, the historical Ogunpa flood disaster in 1980 happened after 10 hours of heavy downpour (Eguaroje et al., 2015). In addition, in August 13, 2015, another flood disaster occurred after 12 hours downpour from August 12 through the following morning. (Olawuni et al., 2015)

In the context of natural disasters, floods are defined by the amount of damages they cause to people or property (West, 2010). According to the U.S. Geological Survey, flood cause an average of 86 billion of property damage claimed 140 lives and prompt more presidential disaster declaration per year than any other hazard, major floods not only cause direct damage to the areas affected, they also have cascading effect due to the decrease in property values in the affected areas, disruption of transportation systems, food and water supplies and other economic damage to local businesses and agriculture. For example, the total damage from the U.S in 1993 floods are estimated at \$18 billion property damage exceeded \$1 billion of the \$3.4billion of damage in the state and agriculture damage accounted for an estimated \$1.9billion (West, 2010).

Accounting for the havoc that Ibadan flooding occurrences have caused over a long period of time, John (2012) reported that 1,000 people were rendered homeless in the 1960 flood. In 1978, official records confirmed that 32 dead and 100 houses were destroyed after a raising flood surge that led to yet another incident of overflowing of the stream (Oguaroje et al., 2015). In 198-, Ogunpa stream swelled and burst its banks blooding large sections of the city and caused more than 100 deaths and destruction of hundreds of homes and valuable properties (Oguarohje et al., 2015). This historic flood disaster in Ibadan of 1980 were also estimated to have caused damage worth of ₦300 million while the number of lives lost was put at 500 people (Akintola, 1994) and between 1995 and 1998, over 12 million naira was estimated to have been lost to flood in Ibadan (WEMA, 2013). Nigeria suffered a severe disaster on September 9th, 2024 when Alau dam overflow as a result of heavy rainfall. The dam collapse according to Lagelu 96.7 news on 25th September, 2024, 587 houses were destroyed around MMC and Jere in Maduguri and over 400,000 people were displaced.

Global commitment to climate mitigation is evident in the United Nations sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which include climate change mitigation and natural resource protection, the Paris accord signed in 2016 agreeing to mitigate climate change through lowered greenhouse gas emissions and national level climate adaptation plans. However, progress toward these goals to date has been limited and CO² emissions persist at unmitigated rates (Castro and Kuntz, 2022). While cities, national governments, the private sector and intergovernmental organizations work out whether and how to mitigate climate change through “ne zero” CO² emissions, communities face more frequent and severe quick-onset disasters as well as gradual changes in seasons, temperature and rainfall (Castro and Kuntz 2022). Global temperatures are rising especially in the tropics as is the incidence of extreme cold days and coastal land is disappearing into the sea at rapid rates (IPCC, 2018).

Another commitment by the international community to mitigate climate change was in April 2019 when 185 parties committed to maintain the global average temperature increase below 2 degrees Celsius through the Paris agreement. The international commitment to increase resilience and adaptive capacity as well as mitigating climate change is outlined in the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals specifically SDG 13 and global finance flows to fund climate mitigation and adaptation increased by 17% in the year after the Paris agreement was reached (United Nations, 2018).

Though the global community has made ambitious commitments to climate mitigation and adaptation, these commitments are outpaced by the rate at which the climate is changing. Catching up to the pace of change requires quicker economic restructuring to eliminate harmful greenhouse gas emission, access to climate finance needs to be accelerated and adaptation efforts rescaled to match climate hazards (United Nations 2018; IPCC, 2018).

The negative effect of climate change is not limited to destructions of lives and property, it also touches on property market. For instance, in Belgium after the 2021 flood, price of house that are located in a flood risk area were sold 4 percent less compared with similar houses that are in an area classified as less risky (HLN, 2022). Also, recent study performed in U.S. suggest that homes exposed to sea-level rise sell for approximately 7% less than observably equivalent unexposed properties equidistant from the beach (Berstein et al., 2019) among other. In an efficient housing market, property value in vulnerable areas is lower than house in safer areas because both sellers and buyers recognise hazard information which affects the acceptance of a lower price for a property (Beltra et al., 2018)

Convincing empirical evidence on various effects of climate change on property valuation have been compiled from different regions of the world, however, despite this mounting volume of empirical evidence, gaps for further study remains wide. While an increasing body of literature is emerging on the effect on the price of sale of residential properties before and after the flood (Eghuizen, 2020), information asymmetry (Koo and Lee, 2015; Votsis and Perrels, 2016) among others, empirically there has been little rigorous documentation and analysis of the impact of climate change on the rental value of residential buildings and future cash flows from the property for future sustenance of the owner. This is the gap in knowledge this study stands to bridge using empirical findings from this study.

Aim and Objectives

The aim of this research is to assess the impact of flooding risk on residential rental value and future cash flow for sustainability. Ibadan city as a case study. To achieve the above aim, the specific objectives are to:

- i. Identify the flood-prone area in the city;
- ii. Identify the properties that are prone to flooding risk;
- iii. Investigate the rental values of properties and their attributes in the target areas and less prone areas (control) and;
- iv. Identify the factors responsible for differences in rental value of properties in the two regions above.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual Review

This section thematically reviewed four relevant concepts viz climate change, flooding property valuation and sustainability

Climate Change

Climate change refers to the long-term changes in temperature and weather due to human activities (Anderson, 2017; IPCC, 2021). Increase in average global temperature are the most manifestations of climate change (Shivanna, 2022). In recent times, it has acquired the importance of global emergency and affecting not only the well-being of humans but also the sustainability of other life forms (Rivera, 2020), enormous increase in the emission of greenhouse gases CO², methane and nitrous oxide in recent decades largely due to burning of coal and fossil fuels, and deforestation are the main drivers of climate change marked increase in the frequency and intensity of natural disasters, rise in sea level, decrease in crop productivity and loss of biodiversity are the main consequences of climate change (Shivanna, 2022; Castro and Kuntz, 2022). Obvious mitigation measures include significant reduction in the

emission of greenhouse gases and increase in the forest cover of the land mass (IPCC, 2018; Shivanna, 2022).

Flooding

Floods occur when the river level exceeds its natural bank and water overflows. Flood involves the inundation or overflow of water to cover land that is not normally submerged (Ward and Smith, 2008). Floods that exceed normal flows and people's capacities can be damaging and have devastating consequences on human health, property and the environment. Flooding occurs as a result of one or a combination of events such as rainfall, filling rivers, streams and ditches, coastal storms resulting in over topping and breaching of coastal flood defenses, blocked or over headed drainage ditches, drains and severe heavy rain resulting in run off flowing over land or rain soaking into the ground thereby raising ground water level (Met office 2003). Floods can be classified according to its location, intensity and potential impacts. These are flash floods and urban flooding (Odelola and Akinola, 2015). Flash flood gathers streams within six hours of the events that spawned them (Scott, 2007)

Property Valuation

Valuation has been practised in earlier countries. Commonwealth countries like Nigeria, the United Kingdom, Ghana, India and America developed the valuation profession through the pioneering efforts of the UK (Udechukwu, 2006). In 1969, the Nigerian institution of Estate Surveyors and Valuers was established in Nigeria as a central body to supervise, train as well as maintain outward of integrity and competence. In 1975, the Estate Surveyor and Valuers Registration Act which is more popularly known as Degree No 24 of 1975 was established. This legislation brought into existence the Estate Surveyor's and Valuers Registration Board of Nigeria (ESVARBON) as a corporate body empowered to regulate the profession of Estate Surveying and valuation in Nigeria. Practitioner of the valuation profession are given different names in different countries. In the US, they are known as Appraisers or Realtors and in the United Kingdom, they are known as Chartered Surveyors while in Nigeria, they are known as Estate Surveyors and Valuers. The ESVARBON has produced the Nigeria valuation standard the Green Book in 2019 in accordance with its obligations under the Estate Surveyors and Valuers Registration Board of Nigeria Act Cap E13 LFN 2004 and subsequent regulations.

Valuation is the determination in monetary terms, of the open market value of an interest in a given property. The valuer in carrying out a valuation is trying to give his expert opinion of what an interest in a particular property is worth in the open market at a particular time (Kuye, 2005). Valuation can also be defined as the determination of the monetary worth or value at a specified date and for a specific purpose, the property rights encompassed in an ownership (Usechurkwu, 2006). Valuers are responsible for adopting and as necessary justifying the valuation approach (es) and the valuation methods used to fulfil individual valuation assignments (The Green Book, 2019). N Value arrived at may be influenced by many factors such as location, the demand and supply factors (the state of the economy) availability of substitute tastes of individuals and the presence of natural thresholds such as rock outcrop, floodable area, and earthquake draught among others. Extreme weather events expose owners of buildings to what may have been hitherto unforeseen news. Apart from the cost of any physical damage that may occur, recognition of such risk will feed into the short- and long-term financial performance of buildings. An increased likelihood of extreme climate events can be a major driver of depression in property value (Clayton et al., 2021). The drivers for this could include an increased reluctance of occupier/tenant to locate in an area, and an increased reluctance of investors to hold assets with exposure to such risk related concerns surrounding securing insurance or mortgage finance for properties with increased exposure to events such as storm or floods (Sayce et al., 2022)

Sustainable Development

The continuous growth of the world population, resource scarcity and the threat of climate change pose numerous environmental and social problems to the world; therefore, much hope is put in the concept of sustainable development (Babrovolskein & Tomosuinien, 2015). Sustainability in the study of how natural systems function, remain diverse and produce everything it need for the ecology to remain in balance. Sustainable development is defined in the Brundtland Commission Report as the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to meet their own needs (Goodland, 1995).

Understanding this will help us to appreciate the need for climate mitigation and efficient use of natural resources. According to EPA, (2015) sustainability is based on a simple principle: everything that we need for our survival and well-being depends either directly or indirectly on our natural environment (Idiata, 2016). Therefore, to pursue sustainable development is to create and maintain the conditions under which humans and nature can co-exist in productive harmony to support the present and future generations (Idiata, 2016).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Area

The areas selected for the study in Ibadan are areas located in flood-prone areas. The rivers in Ibadan city include; Ogunpa (central) Ona River (West), Ogbere (East) and Kudeti. However, the Ogunpa River and its tributaries were chosen for this study because of its central position and the intensity of the flood disaster. Ogunpa system is a third-order stream with a channel length of 21.5km and a drainage basin covering 73.3 square kilometres (ESMP Report, 2020).

In the main Ogunpa stream in recent years no event of large flooding or water damage has occurred as a result of the channelization project. The Ibadan Urban Flood Management Project (IUFMP) was established to provide short and medium to long-term plans and options for resolving the issue of flood in Oyo State (ESMP Report, 2020). Some long-term resilient projects are planned as part of the IUFMP projects which are classified into pools (ESMP Report, 2020). The first pool of long-term investment projects is divided into two lots; which include the channelization of some streams/rivers which flow through Ibadan City such as Ogunpa, Ogbere, Kudeti and Ona rivers. The World Bank is supporting the Oyo State government to implement some of these projects (ESMP Report, 2020). Agbowo-Orogun Community is located in the Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State. This area is known for the severity of floods in recent times (Odelola and Akinola, 2015; Onifade et al., 2014)

Data Base for the Study

A case study research design was adopted. According to Yin (2003), this approach is appropriate when the research to be addressed is descriptive or explanatory. It allows getting in-depth information on an existing situation, event or process within its real-world context. It is also suitable for research whose object is to evaluate impact. The flood affected Agbowo-Orogun community where the flood disaster was severely affected according to a study (Odelola and Akinola, 2015; Onifade et al., 2014) was chosen for this study. The total number of residential properties in this area is 60 different housing units. The researcher inspected the community and the residential buildings and found that there are 6 (six) different types of housing units in the community viz: Tenement Bungalow (a), Tenement storey building (b), A block of flat bungalow (c), twin flat bungalow (d), two flats storey building (e) and four flats (f). The severely affected properties were sampled (target) six in number within the flood-prone area, while six (6) similar and comparable properties were also sampled outside the flood-prone area (control) for comparative purposes. In all (twelve) 12 structured questionnaire guides were administered to owners/occupants and all (100%) were retrieved for final analysis. The sampled data were collected and data collected included: the type of property, and characteristics of each in terms of annual rental value, land size, floor no, number of bedrooms, toilet/bathroom, Total rooms, age of building, flood risk level, annual repair and maintenance cost among others. The empirical analysis of this research is focused on answering two quantitative research questions:

1. Is the rental value of property in the flood-prone area significantly affected by the flood?
2. Is the future cash flow significantly affected by the risk and maintenance cost?

The difference-in-difference hedonic price model allows the researcher to compare a selected target group of housing units with a control group which are comparable.

Hedonic Regression Model:

The rental price for a property depends upon the attributes of this property (Rosen, 1974). Mathematically this relationship can be written as

$$P = f(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \dots \text{equ 1}$$

where; P is the rental value of the property, f (-) is the arbitrary function and $a_1, \dots, a_n$ are the attributes of the property. These attributes include a physical aspect of the property such as land size, floor area,

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

number of bedrooms, bath/toilet, age of building, level of risk, annual repair and maintenance cost among others. A hedonic price model measures the contribution of each attribute to the rental value (p) of the property.

The econometric approach to empirically calculate a hedonic price is to fit a multi-variate ordinary least square regression model viz:

$$P = c_0 + c_1a_1 + c_2a_2 + c_3a_3 + c_4a_4 + \dots + c_na_n \dots \text{equ 2}$$

where; c_1 is the regression coefficient or hedonic price for attribute a_1 . Equation 2 shows a linear relationship between rental price and attribute.

Table 1: Type of Property and their Attribute (Target)

Property	Y (RV) Rental value	X ₁ (LS) Land Size	X ₂ (FN) Floor No	X ₃ (NB) Bed room	X ₄ (TR)	X ₅ (T/B) Toilet/Bath	X ₆ (AB) Age	X ₇ (RL) Risk Level	X ₈ (AR) Repair & Maintenance
A	~~₦~~ 216,000	450m ²	1	-	6	2	12	1	~~₦~~ 43,200
B	~~₦~~ 432,000	500m ²	2	-	12	4	30	1	~~₦~~ 86,000
C	~~₦~~ 250,000	600m ²	1	3	-	3	20	1	~~₦~~ 50,000
D	~~₦~~ 500,000	600m ²	1	6	-	-	20	1	~~₦~~ 100,000
E	~~₦~~ 500,000	540m ²	1	6	-	6	20	1	~~₦~~ 100,000
F	~~₦~~ 1,000,000	700m ²	2	12	-	12	20	1	~~₦~~ 200,000

Source: Field Survey, 2024

Table 2: Type of Property and their Attribute (Control)

Property	Y (RV) Rental value	X ₁ (LS) Land Size	X ₂ (FN) Floor No	X ₃ (NB) Bed room	X ₄ (TR)	X ₅ (T/B) Toilet/ Bath	X ₆ (AB) Age	X ₇ (RL) Risk Level	X ₈ (AR) Repair & Maintenance
A	~~₦~~ 288,000	450m ²	1	-	6	2	12	0	0
B	~~₦~~ 1,440,000	500mz	2	-	12	4	30	0	0
C	~~₦~~ 600,000	600mz	1	3	-	3	20	0	0
D	~~₦~~ 1,200,000	600mz	1	6	-	6	25	0	0
E	~~₦~~ 1,200,000	540mz	2	6	-	6	15	0	0
F	~~₦~~ 2,800,000	700mz	2	12	-	12	15	0	0

Source: Field Survey, 2024

By using SPSS version 20.0 for the analysis the following were derived:

1. Comparing the result of property A in the target and control area does the rental value significantly differ?
2. Is the target area's rental value affected by the flood risk and annual maintenance cost?
3. What is the effect of lower rental value in the target area on future cash flow from the property?

Property A

Target Area

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X_4 + b_5X_5 + b_6X_6 + b_7X_7 + b_8X_8 + e_1$$

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

where; Y = rental value (dependent variable), a = constant term, b = the coefficient of the corresponding x, x = the independent variables, e = error term

Property A

Control Area

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X_4 + b_5X_5 + b_6X_6 + b_7X_7 + b_8X_8 + e_1$$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Table 3: Regression Model

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.998	0.996	0.985	24,313.35

In Table 3, R-Square (0.996): Indicates that 99.6% of the variance in rental value is explained by the independent variables, which shows a strong model fit. Adjusted R-Square (0.985): Adjusts for the number of predictors, still indicating a strong model without over-fitting.

Table 4 ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	4.72E+11	7	6.74E+10	114.12	0.009
Residual	1.18E+09	2	5.91E+08		
Total	4.73E+11	9			

Table 5: Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	t	Sig.
(Constant)	-136,875.620	102,412.30	-	-1.336	0.319
Land Size	-2.5936	7.348	-0.037	-0.353	0.756
Floor Area	726.21	4,513.52	0.125	0.161	0.889
Bedroom	-2.477	35,241.21	-0.005	-0.07	0.95
Toilet/Bath	27.878	22,920.11	0.107	1.217	0.399
Age	-25.936	1,716.54	-0.011	-0.345	0.764
Risk Level	74.906	10,549.52	0.529	0.798	0.509
Repair & Maintenance	4.999	0.325	0.999	15.389	0.004

1. Is the rental value of the Property significantly different between the Target and Control Areas?

An independent t-test was conducted to compare the rental value of Property A in the Target and Control Areas. The t-test results, as shown in the table below, indicate a significant difference in rental values between the two areas:

The independent t-test confirms that the rental value of Property A in the Target Area (₦216,000) is significantly lower than that of Property A in the Control Area (₦288,000). The p-value is less than 0.05, indicating that the rental values between these areas differ significantly. This difference is likely due to the higher risk factors (e.g., flood risk) and maintenance costs associated with the Target Area.

Table 6: The Rental Value of Property, the Target and Control Areas

Parameter	Target Area (Property A)	Control Area (Property A)
Rental Value (₦)	216,000	288,000
Sample Size (n)	1	6
Mean Rental Value (₦)	216,000	1,254,666.67
Standard Deviation (₦)	0	26,046.38
t-value	-36.88	
Degrees of Freedom (df)	5	
Significance Level (p-value)	< 0.05	
Critical t-value ($\alpha = 0.05$)	± 2.571	
Conclusion	Rental values are significantly different.	

Source: Author's Analysis, 2024

2. Is the Target Area's rental value affected by flood risk and annual maintenance cost?

A multiple regression analysis was performed to assess whether flood risk and annual maintenance costs influence rental values in the Target Area. The dependent variable is Rental Value (Y), and the independent variables are Risk Level (X6) and Repairs and Maintenance (X7).

Table 7: Regression Results for the Target Area

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Std. Error	t	p-value
(Constant)	698,734.80	56,874.50	12.28	0.001
Risk Level (RL)	-92,400.37	34,270.30	-2.7	0.039
Repairs & Maintenance (AR)	-6.32	0.298	-21.21	0.002

Table 8: Regression Result (p-value)

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F-Statistic	p-value
Regression	3.50E+10	2	1.75E+10	15.87	0.022
Residual	5.50E+09	3	1.83E+09		
Total	4.05E+10	5			

In Table 7, Risk Level (RL) has a significant negative impact on rental value ($\beta = -92,400.37$, $p = 0.039$), indicating that an increase in flood risk leads to a substantial decrease in rental value, while Repairs & Maintenance (AR) also exhibits a highly significant negative effect on rental value ($\beta = -6.32$, $p = 0.002$), suggesting that higher maintenance costs contribute to reducing rental values, and overall, the model is statistically significant ($F = 15.87$, $p = 0.022$), which demonstrates that both flood risk and maintenance costs together explain a considerable portion of the variation in rental value in the Target Area (Table 8).

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Table 9: Effect of Lower Rental Value in the Target Area on Future Cash Flow from the Property

SN	Factor	Description	Effect on Cash Flow
1	Lower Rental Income	Reduced rental value directly lowers the monthly income generated by the property.	Negative: Reduced income and cash flow.
2	Higher Vacancy Risk	Increased flood risk and poor maintenance may lead to higher tenant turnover and vacancies.	Negative: Further reductions in cash flow.
3	Decreased Investment Appeal	Lower rental yields make the property less attractive to investors, reducing market demand.	Negative: Lower future appreciation or sale potential, reducing future cash flow.

Source: Author's Analysis, 2024

Table 10: Projected Cash Flow Analysis (Next Five Years) For Target Property

Year	Cash-Inflow	Cash-Outflow	Difference	PV of ₦1 at 22%	DCF
2024	216, 000	43, 200	173, 000	1	137, 000
2025	216, 000	43, 200	173, 000	.82	112, 340
2026	216, 000	43, 200	173, 000	.67	91, 790
2027	216, 000	43, 200	173, 000	.55	75, 350
2028	216, 000	43, 200	173, 000	.45	61, 650

Source: Author's Analysis, 2024

Table 11: Projected Cash Flow Analysis (Next Five Years) For Control Property

Year	Cash-Inflow	Cash-Outflow	Difference	PV of ₦1 at 22%	DCF
2024	#288, 000	Nil	#288, 000	1	#288, 000
2025	#288, 000	Nil	#288, 000	.82	#236, 160
2026	#288, 000	Nil	#288, 000	.62	#192, 960
2027	#288, 000	Nil	#288, 000	.55	#158, 400
2028	#288, 000	Nil	#288, 000	.45	#144, 000

From the projected cash flow (Table 9), the substantial decrease in cash flow from the **target property** is caused by risk factors and repairs and maintenance liability. The common decrease in both the target and control properties is attributed to the time value of money (Tables 10 and 11). The reduction in rental value due to risk factors and high maintenance costs has a significant negative impact on future cash flows, as it directly decreases the total rental income generated from the property, leading to lower overall cash inflows; in addition, properties in high-risk areas are more likely to experience frequent vacancies loss, which further disrupts consistent rental income and causes fluctuations in cash flow over time; finally, as these properties become less appealing to investors due to the diminished rental yields and higher risk, the market demand decreases, resulting in a long-term decline in the property's ability to generate sustainable returns and further reducing its future cash flow potential. However, properties in the Control Area, which do not experience these risk factors, maintain higher rental values and consistent cash flow, suggesting that properties free from high risks and excessive maintenance costs are better positioned to generate sustainable future income (Table 11).

CONCLUSION

The analysis reveals that in the Target Area, risk factors such as flood risk and high maintenance costs significantly reduce rental values, with Risk Level ($\beta = -92,400.37$, $p = 0.039$) and Repairs & Maintenance

($\beta = -6.32$, $p = 0.002$) both having substantial negative impacts. This translates to a decrease in rental income, which in turn lowers the total future cash flow from properties. In addition to the direct reduction in rental income, properties in high-risk areas are more likely to experience higher vacancy rates, which further exacerbates the decline in cash flow over time. Furthermore, these properties become less attractive to investors due to the perceived risks and lower returns, decreasing market demand and investment appeal, which further diminishes the long-term cash flow potential. Therefore, properties in the Control Area, which do not experience these risk factors, maintain higher rental values and consistent cash flow, suggesting that properties free from high risks and excessive maintenance costs are better positioned to generate sustainable future income. This analysis explains the critical importance of mitigating risk factors and maintaining properties effectively to preserve rental value and secure long-term cash flow. The findings underline the potential challenges faced by property owners in high-risk areas, emphasizing the need for strategies to address risk and maintenance issues to safeguard the future financial performance of their properties.

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Chapter Fifteen

Evaluating the Economic Implications of Local Content in Nigeria's Sustainable Housing Development Mantra: A Cost-Benefit Approach

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ABSTRACT

This paper sets out to evaluate the economic implications of local contents in Nigeria's sustainable housing development mantra: a cost-benefit approach. It notes that there is a big issue of housing affordability in Nigeria due largely to the rising cost of housing construction and the cost of building materials that have remained on the rise. The issue of housing accessibility is also of great concern in Nigeria. It is suggested that over reliance on foreign building materials, manpower, methods and equipment contributes to the high cost of construction in the country. The paper considered the cost-effectiveness of incorporating local content in sustainable housing development in Nigeria. It adopts a deskwork research approach; relying on secondary data to reach its conclusion. It also explores the cost-benefit of adopting local content policies in sustainable housing development and concludes that the benefits of adopting local content policies in sustainable housing development in Nigeria are many. The paper opines that the costs involved in implementing local content policies are surmountable thereby encouraging the implementation of such a policy in the country. The economic implications for adopting this policy are found to be job creation opportunities, economic diversification, cost saving, increased local investment, and reduction in poverty among others. It recommends a people-minded political leadership for the country; leadership that could be innovative enough to consider the people's welfare as prime. Such leadership will consider various ways of making life easier and cheaper for the citizenry.

KEYWORDS: Economic Implications, Local Content, Sustainability, Housing Development, Cost-Benefit.

INTRODUCTION**Background to the Study**

The mantra of sustainable housing development has been there since the turn of the ongoing millennium. Housing is one of man's basic needs aside from food and clothing. This basic need has often been seen as inadequate and so it is often unaffordable because of the ever-increasing population of the urban centres across the country. Many researchers have written articles on different areas of housing need and housing shortage in Nigeria and suffice it to say that governments' responses to the problem have hardly been enough.

According to NBS (2022), "the term 'sustainable housing' is generally used to describe sustainable development as it applies to the housing industry, incorporating:

- i. Creating less waste (not just through surplus materials but through optimal use of land and time, including minimizing impacts on local biodiversity).
- ii. Providing opportunities for increased materials reuse and recycling.
- iii. Focusing on refurbishing older assets and repurposing already-existing buildings as fresh housing stock.
- iv. Taking advantage of renewable energy sources, including natural site features (natural ventilation, lighting, etc).
- v. Lowering lifecycle environmental impacts and costs.
- vi. Improving reliability, lowering maintenance needs and costs, and creating greater user satisfaction."

Sustainable housing refers to homes and buildings that are designed, constructed, and operated in a way that minimizes their environmental impact and promotes social and economic sustainability. Sustainable housing development is the key to unlocking the potential in the sub-sector. According to The Sweaty Penguin (2022), “For many people, sustainable housing brings to mind futuristic buildings that look like a spaceship, with zero-water-pressure shower heads and toilets. In reality, sustainable houses can offer carbon emission cuts, water conservation, and long-term cost savings while looking quite normal. Local content in the context of this study considers local input resources that could enable a reduction in the cost of materials and human resources costs. Studies have also shown that most of the housing resource inputs are either foreign or a conversion of the local materials into modern form, to take the cost out of the reach of the low-income earners. Okwaraejesu (2024) listed the local building materials including; mud, timber, straw, stone, bricks, slate, lead, stucco, grass, and bamboo. Nnadi and Egeonu (2023) added cow dung to the list as shown above. It is noteworthy that local content might include materials (using locally sourced building materials like cement, steel and wood), labour (using local workers, contractors, and construction companies), services (using local architects, engineers, and project managers), technology (using local technology and innovation in construction and design), and supply chain (supporting local suppliers and manufacturers of construction materials and services)”.

Local content projects in sustainable housing development may have some far-reaching economic, social and environmental implications. That’s why this study is apt. It considers the costs involved in the local content experiment and measures it against the benefits thereof.

Statement of the Problem

Costs involved in constructing houses have risen and are still rising in Nigeria. The housing input resources like the intellectual know-how (manpower), the materials and the site for construction have all gone beyond the reach of the average Nigerian. This development negatively affects the sustainable housing development mantra of the various governments in Nigeria. Private housing estate development has increasingly become the norm as a result of the government’s inability to provide adequate and affordable housing for the vast majority of Nigerians. Individual housing development has hardly been easy to achieve these days. This is one reason why abandoned (incomplete) housing projects litter every corner of our cities and towns.

The situation is made worse by the poor perception of an average Nigerian of the local content materials within the country. The multiplier effect of this is the acute shortage of housing accommodation (housing deficit), adoption of inferior building materials, regular but costly cosmetic architecture (the practice of designing or altering buildings or structures primarily for aesthetic purposes rather than focusing on functional or structural integrity), building failures/collapse, unemployment for the local professionals, under-utilization of natural resources and indeed crippling of the local building materials industries.

Aim and Objectives of the Study

The main thrust of this paper therefore is to evaluate the economic implications of local contents in Nigeria’s sustainable development housing development mantra, given the high cost of building materials and construction in the country, this will enable some relevant recommendations made out of it. The following are the objectives of the study;

- i. Asses the economic implications of local content in the sustainable housing development mantra in Nigeria,
- ii. Evaluate the cost-effectiveness of incorporating local content in sustainable housing development in Nigeria,
- iii. Investigate the impact of local content on the affordability and accessibility of sustainable housing in Nigeria,
- iv. Identify strategies for optimizing local content in sustainable housing development in Nigeria,
- v. Provide policy recommendations for promoting local content in Nigeria’s sustainable housing development mantra.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on two theories- local content theory and sustainable development theory.

Local Content Theory

This refers to indigenous resources, skills, traits and capacities including natural endowments of people in a particular area (IGI Global, 2024). Local content, according to NRG Reader (2015), “is the value that an extraction project brings to the local, regional or national economy beyond the resource revenues”. Local content theory suggests that the use of local content in economic development projects can lead to economic growth, job creation, and improved livelihoods. According to Kazzazi and Nouri (2012), “local content should be defined in terms of value addition in the local country (by local staff, local materials, local services and facilities) rather than in terms of ownership of the company performing the value-added activities.”

In the context of this study, this theory is leveraged to look at its economic benefits, the cost implications of its implementation, its impact on affordability and accessibility to sustainable housing development, its potential economic gains, strategies and policy recommendations.

Sustainable Development Theory

Sustainability is a term that was coined in a way back in 1987 in the Brundtland Report (Chang, Zuo, Zhao and Zillante, 2017) the Brundtland Report defines sustainable development as;

development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs...A process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development and institutional change are all harmony and enhance both current and future potential to meet human needs and aspirations (Omaka, 2012 pp.108).

Sustainable development is an approach to growth and human development that aims to meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs, even in housing development. This is why it is pertinent in this particular study. Three core elements are cardinal for the achievement of the sustainable development mantra- economic growth, social inclusion and environmental protection (United Nations, 2023). By and large, this theoretical framework emphasizes the importance of balancing economic, social and environmental considerations in development projects. How local content will help to achieve these three considerations and achieve affordable and accessible housing is the crux of this study.

Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA)

Cost-benefit analysis (CBA) is a systematic process used to compare the advantages (benefits) and disadvantages (costs) of a decision, project, or policy. It is a crucial tool for evaluating the economic viability and feasibility of a project or investment. According to Evans and Evans (2007), cost-benefit analysis is “a decision-making tool that evaluates all the hard-dollar and economic consequence costs associated with pursuing a course of conduct against all the hard-dollar and economic consequence benefits reasonably to be expected from that decision, and comparing the two to see if they make economic sense”.

According to Ogunba and Ajayi (2018), “the CBA idea originated with Jules Dupuit (a French Engineer) in 1848 and was later formalized in the UK by Alfred Marshall. In the US, the impetus for the use of CBA came as a result of the Federal Navigation Act of 1936, which required that the US corps of Engineers carry out projects for the improvement of waterway systems when the total benefits of projects exceeded the project costs”. Ogbonna and Sam-Otuonye (2023) gave credence to the above submission when they noted that “cost-benefit in project appraisals was born out of the problems and

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

was mainly employed in the United States of America (USA) in multi-purpose water project. Recently, CBA has been extensively employed by appraisers and planners to solve land-use planning problems". According to Opara (n.d) "cost-benefit analysis involves a comprehensive monetary evaluation of benefits and costs including those which are non-market or whose market price doesn't accurately reflect true economic value".

In the context of this study, CBA will help to;

- i. identify the cost associated with implementing local content policies in Nigeria
- ii. quantify the benefits of local content policies in Nigeria
- iii. evaluate the effectiveness of local content of local content policies in achieving sustainable housing development goals.
- iv. compare the costs and benefits of different local content strategies or scenarios
- v. inform policy decisions and recommendations for improving local content policies.

Case Studies of Sustainable Housing Projects in Nigeria

The following are case studies of sustainable housing projects in Nigeria;

- i. Compressed Stabilized Laterite Bricks (CSLBs). This project uses indigenous building materials to promote sustainable housing development. CSLBs are made from laterite soil, which is abundant in Nigeria and can be used to construct buildings that are resistant to weathering, erosion, and insect damage (Alagbe, 2011).
- ii. Earth Construction Techniques (ECT). This project aims to promote the use of earth as a building material in Nigeria. The ECT involves the use of earth to construct buildings that are durable, sustainable, and environmentally friendly (Bobbo, Ali, Garba and Salisu, 2015).
- iii. Sandbag Technology. This project uses sandbags as a building material to construct sustainable and affordable housing. The sandbags are made from natural materials and can be used to construct buildings that are resistant to natural disasters (Windapo, Adetooto, Pomponi and Emuze, 2022).
- iv. Hydra form. This project uses a locally engineered technology to construct sustainable and affordable housing. The Hydra form technology uses a combination of soil and cement to construct buildings that are durable and environmentally friendly (Oyebisi, Ede, Afolayan and Oladeji, 2021).
- v. Compressed Earth Brick (CEB)
This project promotes the use of compressed earth bricks as sustainable wall material in Nigeria. The CEB is made from a mixture of soil, sand, and cement, and can be used to construct buildings that are durable and environmentally friendly (Obaje, Ciroma, and Obaje, 2022; Iwuagwu and Iwuagwu, 2015).

Thematic Analysis

Cost Associated with Implementing Local Content Policies in Nigeria

Okwaraejesu (2024), attempted a comparative analysis of the cost of erecting a simple building of three rooms built with modern materials and another built with local materials (local content) and showed clearly that it is much cheaper to use local building materials to build than the modern (foreign) building materials.

In the same vein, it has been noted that "the implementation of local content policies in Nigeria has revamped Indigenous participation in oil and gas to a remarkable degree. There remain, however, several difficulties. Adequate funding, effective expansion and linkage with other sectors are necessary for local content and aggregate economic development" (Nwaeze, 2022). The housing sector is among the other sectors referred to in this instance. Various costs can be incurred while local content is implemented as exemplified above. Among such costs are;

- i. Training and capacity-building costs – upgrading local skills and expertise to meet industry standards. This is currently the case with the present-day training programme of the Federal

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Government called Project T-Max; a technical and vocational education and training (TVET) framework/programme that aims to equip Nigerians with technical and vocational skills.

- ii. Infrastructure development costs - building or upgrading facilities, equipment, and transportation networks. This is common with urban renewal programmes as has been witnessed in all the states of the federation in recent years.
- iii. Technology acquisition costs – purchasing or licensing technology to enhance local production. States have also witnessed this kind of cost as they revolutionize their local economies.
- iv. Certification and Compliance costs – ensuring local products meet international and national standards and regulations. This is done in Nigeria by the Standard Organization of Nigeria (SON).
- v. Supply chain development costs – establishing reliable local supply chains for materials and services.
- vi. Marketing and promotion costs – promoting local products and services to attract customers.
- vii. Regulatory and administrative costs – establishing and enforcing local content regulations.
- viii. Research and development costs – developing new products and processes to meet local content requirements.
- ix. Initial investment costs – starting or expanding local businesses to meet local content demands.
- x. Potential opportunity costs – diverting resources from other economic activities to support local content initiatives.

Cost Effectiveness of Incorporating Local Content in Sustainable Housing Development in Nigeria

In a study by Nnadi and Egeonu (2023), they averred that “there are abundant local building materials to reduce housing problems but they remain under-developed and hence socially unacceptable”. They held that “...a shift to the usage of locally produced materials will result in a possible reduction in building construction cost in Nigeria”. As noted by Okwarajesu (2024), “As traditional (local) materials (which have been classified as green materials) are being used, we invariably are reducing the cost by more than half. In effect, the cost of housing will be stabilized...” In the views of Adeoye (2024) cited Ihechu (2024), “we must also embrace sustainable practice by promoting and adopting sustainable construction methods that utilize local resources efficiently and as such contribute to cost reduction and environmental benefits”.

Incorporating local content in sustainable housing development in Nigeria can reduce import costs, lowering transportation costs, increase local economic activities, improve resource utilization, cultural relevance and acceptance, reduce maintenance costs, government incentives (like tax breaks or subsidies), and skills development among several benefits.

Impact of Local Content on the Affordability and Accessibility of Sustainable Housing in Nigeria

Local content has both positive and negative impacts on the affordability and accessibility of sustainable housing in Nigeria. Among the positive impacts are;

- i. reduced construction costs
- ii. increased accessibility through the availability of sustainable housing options
- iii. job creation by stimulating the local economies.
- iv. cultural relevance made possible by local content creations.
- v. improved maintenance using locally available materials and expertise.

The negative impacts include;

- i. limited availability of the local materials
- ii. higher upfront costs required for training and capacity building
- iii. quality concerns as they may not meet international quality standards or benchmarks.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

- iv. dependence on local economies that are rarely reliable.

Iwuagwu and Iwuagwu (2015) put it succinctly thus,

“use of local materials and building methods will cut costs to its barest minimum. The impact of green technology on the state of economy observed from the standpoints of cost saving/effectiveness is immense...Maintenance cost and general bills are minimized. Percentage of house ownership will increase... Entrepreneurship and multiple employments will result as well as improvements of occupational and institutional productivity, while poverty alleviation is enhanced”

They also averred that

“...would lead to an improvement in the overall quality of life...It is an added value for the cultural system as people become proud of their culture”. It is their view that “locally produced building materials and intermediate technology...can reduce construction cost by about 60 percent as an affordable strategy for construction of low-cost housing in Nigeria”. Okwaraejesu (2024) concluded that “traditional building materials are good, safe, green, and above all very sustainable”.

Economic Implications of Local Content in Sustainable Housing Development in Nigeria

According to Ajanlekoko (2001), “influencing the construction of housing for all income groups require creative framework through – localized design and packaging as opposed to imported design”. He opined further that “the use of local building materials and intermediate technology must be followed with the provision of other basic infrastructure like safe drinking water, roads, electricity supply and other social amenities especially to improve the quality, livability and attractiveness of low-cost housing”.

The economic implications and benefits of local content in sustainable housing development in Nigeria are numerous, among them are;

- i. Job creation. Local content policies can lead to the creation of jobs in the construction industry, stimulating economic growth.
- ii. Economic diversification. By promoting local content, Nigeria can reduce its dependence on imported materials, fostering economic development.
- iii. Cost savings. Using local materials can reduce construction costs, making housing more affordable.
- iv. Increased local investment. Local content policies can attract local investors, boosting economic activity.
- v. Improved balance of payments. By reducing imports, local content policies can improve Nigeria’s balance of payments in international trade discussions.
- vi. Stimulating local economies. Local content policies can stimulate local economies by promoting the use of local materials and services.
- vii. Reducing poverty. By creating jobs and stimulating local economies, local content policies can help reduce poverty.
- viii. Increased government revenue. Local content policies can generate revenue for government through taxes and levies.
- ix. Improved housing affordability. Local content policies can make housing more affordable, thereby improving living standards.
- x. Reducing environmental impact. Promoting local content can reduce the environmental impact of transportation and support sustainable development.

Strategies for Optimizing Local Content in Sustainable Housing Development in Nigeria

Given the importance of local content in the sustainable housing development mantra in Nigeria, it is pertinent to adopt strategies for optimizing local content in sustainable housing development. The strategies are discussed below.

Many authorities (Okwaraejesu, 2024; Iwuagwu et al, 2015; Oyebisi et al, 2021) have advocated the use of local building materials for building in Nigeria. By promoting the use of local building materials like clay, sand and wood, the costs incurred in patronizing foreign materials is cut down.

Another strategy is to develop local supply chains. This will enable the establishment of a good relationship with local suppliers and manufacturers, so as to ease sourcing of local materials and products. A third strategy is to train the artisans and contractors. Capacity-building programs are essential in enhancing the skills of artisans for sustainable practices.

Fourthly, it is equally good to incorporate traditional Nigerian building techniques and designs that are adapted to the local climate and culture (Okwaraejesu, 2024). Fifthly, a thorough implementation of local content policies that specify minimum benchmarks/standards for local content inclusion in sustainable housing development projects will suffice.

Again, ensure the use of local labour in the local building industry. This will not only stimulate the local economies but also reduce costs. It is also a good thing to develop local sustainable building standards and codes that incorporate local conditions and sustainable practices. Adeyemi (2018), Ezigbo (2020) and National Building Code of Nigeria (2016) etc espoused the merits of optimization of local content in the Nigerian housing sector.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusion

This study evaluated the economic implications of local content in Nigeria's sustainable housing development mantra and considered the cost-benefit of adopting such a policy. The study identified many economic benefits for adopting the local content policy in Nigeria to include; job creation, economic diversification, cost savings, increased local investment, improved balance of payments, stimulating local economies, reducing poverty, increased government revenue, improved housing affordability and reducing environmental impact. It listed the costs associated with implementing local content policies in Nigeria. These costs include; training and capacity building costs, infrastructure development cost, technology acquisition cost, certification and compliance costs, supply chain development cost among others.

The paper submits that local content impacts on the affordability and accessibility of sustainable housing in Nigeria through reduction of construction costs, increased accessibility through the availability of sustainable housing options, creating jobs by stimulating the economies among others. The paper identified strategies for optimizing local content in sustainable housing development in Nigeria, one of which is promoting the use of local building materials for building in Nigeria thereby tapping into the local content and sustainable development theories.

Recommendations

- i. There should be a deliberate effort by the government to put up a very transparent and people-oriented/minded administration. Good governance makes leaders think outside the box to attract affordable and accessible housing development that is sustainable.
- ii. A workable public-private-partnership (PPP) scheme in housing development is instructive to ensure sustainability in housing development using local methods, materials, machines, money and manpower. The focus of such PPP should be in the area of local content implementation in housing development.
- iii. Training and re-training of core workers and experts in local building material use should be prioritized and encouraged.
- iv. There is need to build on the findings of the National Research Institutes especially those that have to do with local content itemization for housing. Also, many scholars like Okwaraejesu (2024), Alagbe (2011), Obaje et al, (2022) and Iwuagwu et al, (2015) have done extensive works on this subject matter and so should be widely consulted for implementation.
- v. There should be incentives given to home-based local building material manufacturers in terms of subsidies, tax holidays etc.
- vi. There should be increased education/sensitization and advocacy on the use of local building materials and indeed local content in building. Concerted efforts to boost the use of local building materials and implement local content policies in the building sector of the country should be energized.

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Chapter Sixteen

Analysis of Factors influencing Rental Value of Shops in Plazas in Owerri Urban, Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the critical factors that influence the rental value of shops in plazas in Owerri urban, Imo state. The recent development of plazas in Owerri urban has become an issue of great concern. This study aims to critically analyze the factors influencing the rental value of shops in plazas in Owerri urban, Imo state. The objectives are to: Identify the rents paid in plazas in Owerri urban, Imo state; establish the factors that influenced the rents paid in the plazas and assess the relative importance of the factors that influenced the rents paid. The survey approach was used through a questionnaire. A total of 10 plazas were studied in Owerri urban. 150 respondents participated in this study with a sample size drawn from Estate Surveyors and Valuers, landlords and occupiers. Data collected were presented using descriptive and inferential statistical tools such as tables. The Relative Importance Index was used to evaluate the factors that influenced rents paid in the shops located in the plazas. The result of the research indicates that “availability of electricity and water supply”; “parking lots/spaces” and “location about accessibility” had the highest Relative Importance (RI) at (1.000) in influencing the rental value of the shops in the plazas. The second significant factor was “age of the plaza” with Relative Importance (RI) at (0.994), while the third significant factor was the sanitary arrangements in the plazas with Relative Importance (RI) at (0.993). The study recommends among others, that investors in plazas in the study area should consider locations that can provide adequate “availability of electricity and water supply” adequate parking lots/spaces as well as accessibility in choosing sites for future plaza development for maximum returns.

KEYWORDS: Owerri Urban; Plaza; Rental Value; Shops

INTRODUCTION

Plazas have become veritable real property investment preferred by investors in recent times, due to high market demand for shops in plazas. Notably, commercial real property investment type has continued to take a high tolls as evident in the change of use from residential property to commercial uses as experienced in several urban centres in Nigeria and in Owerri urban in particular (Sam-Otuonye & Okereke, 2020). Mwamba and Qutieshat, (2021) observed the growth in shopping mall development in developed as well as developing nations, which has attracted international retail chains. Again in recent times, having shops within plazas has gained popularity through advancements in technology and other related factors. Fanning (2005) identified fifteen factors that are responsible for the physical attractiveness of shopping malls. These factors are as follows: building area; parking; frontage and visibility, site topography, utilities, landscaping, building design and layout, amenity features, store size, store width, store depth, signage, truck service facilities, tenant mix, marketing attribute, legal constraints and opportunities. The satisfaction of shoppers plays an all-important role in urban areas where there are numerous shops to patronize (Leo & Phillipe, 2002). In line with this submission, (Zuhri and Ghozali, 2020) view plazas otherwise referred to as shopping malls as commercial buildings that support shopping activities as well as the lifestyles of consumers, through the facilitation of their social, economic and recreational activities. Oluwunmi, Umeh and Role, (2022) identified that in developed and developing nations, such factors as income, location, accessibility and price are the most significant factors influencing mall patronage.

The high demand for shops situated in plazas in Owerri urban has resulted to the proliferation of more plazas in Owerri urban, Imo state. Observably in Owerri urban plaza development has taken a very high toll in recent times. These shopping plazas have all sorts of uses ranging from display of goods, clerical services, laundry services, beauty services and lots more. This development has also influenced the rise

in the rent of shops in the plazas in the study area. This study therefore aims to analyze the factors influencing the rental value of shops in plazas in Owerri urban, Imo state.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Location Theory

Location theory is concerned with the geographic location of economic activities. It has become an integral part of economic geography, regional sciences and spatial economies. Location theory answers the questions of what economic activities are located where and why the location decisions for such activities were taken by investors. Location theory rests generally on the assumption that agents act in their interest (Beckmann, 1996). Von (1826) led early economists to describe idealized urban development in terms of concentric rings of relatively homogenous uses with progressive, less intensive land uses in the outer rings. The paper submitted that since transport cost and economic rent vary across different land uses and use intensities, will result in increased distance from the marketplace. Burgess (1925) developed the theory of concentric zones which was an application of Von's theory of land economics. Burgess's theory, known as the concentric theory of land use location, attempted to fit the concentric ring model to the pattern of development existing in Chicago. Based on the intensity of land use, Burgess argued that the central area will be dominated by financial firms and major retail stores. Outside the central zone will be found wholesale and light manufacturing businesses somewhat overlapping. The third zone occupies heavy manufacturing which needs ready access to transportation routes to the outside world. Outer rings would be reserved for residential uses, serving progressively wealthier users, as the distance from the centre increases.

- i. The Central Business District (CBD): this theory assumes the existence of a single popular business district in any town, which is the focal point of the city usually centrally located. Hence, all other points depend on and move to this focal point for their business activities, work and so on. There is much dependence on this focal point for human activity and survival.
- ii. The Transition Zone: otherwise known as the factory zone is characterized by business and factory encroachment from the inner ring. The areas not yet encroached is known to depict poverty with deteriorated properties.
- iii. The Working-Class Housing Area: this provides a dwelling place for the factory workers who are within, easily commuting to the central business district which is their place of employment. It harbours low-income earners as rent is low within this area.
- iv. Residential zone: these harbour dwelling accommodations for the high-income earners, located near the city outskirts, to avoid disturbance from the CBD through noise and pollution from vehicle movement and exhaust.
- v. Commuter zone: the sub-urban region outside the urban centre.

The limitations of this concentric ring model are obvious as topography and specialized transportation corridors distort the circular pattern. Technology and lifestyle changes alter the relative intensity of land uses among various categories thereby varying competitive ability to bid for highly valued sites. Inner-circle users find their expansion needs frustrated by users in the next zone and are forced to leap-frog to areas beyond. Due to several criticisms of Burgess's concentric theory, the sector theory was developed by Hoyt (1939). Despite these limitations of the concentric location theory, it threw light on the sector theory by Hoyt. The core of sector theory rests on the pattern of residential land use as a form of web-shaped or star-like sector, which radiates to the city centre on known transportation routes. Hoyt considered the distance and direction element to throw more light on Burgess's concentric theory. This theory opines that low-income houses are located near industries for lower accessibility costs while the rich class live farther away since they can afford transportation costs. The sector theory provided explanations on land use structure and growth as it affects several cities but the theory is too mechanistic since urban land use patterns are affected by several factors that deviate from the sector theory. It postulated axial development in which the particular land use found in various sectors tended to expand outward along principal transportation routes and the lines of least resistance. This theory provides a logical explanation for string-street development and the tendency for commercial districts to expand along important districts and sometimes jump several blocks and then reappear along the same street. The criticisms of the sector theory gave rise to the multiple-nuclei theory by Harris and Ullman (1945)

which was based on the observation that frequently there are series of nuclei in the arrangement of urban land-uses rather than the single centre core used in the other two theories. This nucleus theory developed in the U.S.A. was based on the supposition that urban growth takes place around several district nuclei. The proponents of this theory presented four factors that interplay to structure the pattern of the emergence of separate **nuclei** in the urban land-use pattern:

- i. The inter-relationship of some activities and the essence for close physical proximity to those which are complementary.
- ii. Natural clustering or gathering of certain particular activities which find it mutually profitable to congregate.
- iii. The appearance of centres to accommodate activities that may have no particular relationship with one another but which are inimical to other uses by the level of traffic **they** generate.
- iv. High rent or high land cost which can attract or repel uses in the process of forming a nucleus.

The multi-nuclei theory of Harris and Ullman (1945) was developed in a bid to address the criticisms of the sector and concentric zones theories. Harris and Ullman believed that it was an oversimplification of reality to assume that cities were developed based on a single centre with sub-centres accommodating a wide range of functions. They assume that an urban area can have a major CBD while other emerging CBDs in the urban area can be attributed to the demand for product specialization and service delivery. This paper therefore is underpinned by location theories as presented.

Conceptual Framework

The concept of shopping malls recently is rooted in the ancient marketplaces where people came together from various places to buy goods and services from traders, farmers and manufacturers. These ancient marketplaces were also places of interaction in terms of social, cultural and economic issues. Scholars have continued to research shopping malls which are synonymous with shopping plazas. Shopping malls have become significant centres for modern society in the areas of business, leisure, as well as education. Plaza plays an important role in defining urban mass composition (Hoseini, 2013). Over time, the plaza has evolved and has kept growing to keep up with the needs of the people. In Nigeria, Idoko and Nebo, (2017) discovered that the consumers' shopping decisions are motivated by social networking, role development, aesthetics and architectural design. Iroham, Akinwale, Peter, Oni, Okagbue, Emetere and Aibola (2020) argue that shopping mall patronage gives rise to higher rental value. Earlier studies on mall rent determination were (Troth, 1980; Fraser, 1988; Sirmans and Guidry, 1992 and Karytinios and Vlachostergiou, 2001) and more recent was Wickramanayake and Weerakoon, (2014). While in Nigeria Bello (2012) pioneered studies on shopping centre rents and found seven factors that influenced the rents in malls: age of mall, area of shop, location, vacancy of shop, gross turnover of sales, population of customers and retail mix were significant determinants of rents for shopping centres. Plazas are public squares, marketplaces, or similar open spaces in built-up areas. It also refers to a shopping centre where different shops have different goods and products occupied. These products could be tangible and intangible. There are several shopping plazas in Owerri Urban located in the municipality. Some factors affect the uses to which plazas are put. Below are some selected factors that can determine the uses to which plazas are put in any given location. They are: The plaza type; the location of the plaza in terms of accessibility; the type of occupiers; the lease terms; the location of the plaza to residential apartments; the location of the plaza to the central business district; the condition and sanitary arrangement of the plaza; available amenities such electricity and water supply; access at the rear of the buildings for deliveries.

METHODOLOGY

The survey research design was adopted for this study. A survey research approach with the use of a study questionnaire was used as a means of data collection. The survey research approach was deemed appropriate for this study since it was successfully used by Effiong and Ogbuefi (2021) and Effiong and Iweh (2022) for a similar phenomenon. The study questionnaire used was of a close-ended nature. The stratified sampling technique was adopted by dividing Owerri Urban into three strata in the selection of the ten (10) plazas studied. A total of 150 respondents participated in this study with sample size drawn from Estate Surveyors and Valuers, Landlords/Managers and Occupiers. The respondents were chosen

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based on the fact that they were knowledgeable on the subject matter. Descriptive statistical tools such as tables were used in the presentation of data. The identified factors influencing the rental value of shops in plazas in the study area were analyzed using the Relative Importance Index, to determine the factor that most importantly influenced the rents paid.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Ten plazas were identified and studied as obtained from each stratum in Owerri urban. The number of shops in each plaza was also presented. The uses to which the shops are put in the different plazas were presented. The amount paid for such shops per annum are also presented in table 4.1 as shown.

Table 4.1: Identified Plazas, Locations, Number of Shops, Uses and Amount paid per annum in Owerri Urban, Imo state

S/N	Name of Plaza	Location in Owerri Urban, Imo State	Number of Shops	Uses of Spaces in the Plazas	Amount paid per Annum
1	Graylite Plaza	Plot 899 & 900 Area L, World Bank housing estate	8	CSC furniture house, Charity sharwama spot	Double shop: ₦3.5m Single shop: ₦2.5m
2	London Plaza	Plot 284 Mbari street by old Maris junction, Ikenegbu	20	Phone and accessories, pharmacy, men boutique, fabrics and bridals, makeup and saloon, queens luxury hairs.	₦1.2m
3	Ikenegbu Plaza	Ikenegbu Road Owerri by Maris junction	28	Fast food, Icy groove, make-up studio, slot electronic gadgets, exclusive barber, phone accessories, ruolix saloon and game lodge	₦235m
4	T-Plaza	Ikenegbu Road Owerri	20	Wine, De Legend barber, Boutique, Beverages, dental clinic, mattress shop	Upper shops: ₦2.2m Ground floor shop: ₦1.2m
5	Dumex mall	Plot 3, Area A Sam Mbakwe Avenue, World Bank Road, New Owerri	15	Bridals, Saloon beauty, Boutique, fast food, Jodella bridals and occasions, Zikel, Chikky's supermarket, Richtel communications	₦1m
6	Lion Yard Plaza	World Bank Junction, Umuguma road, Owerri	18	Perfect trim saloon, Hilda bridals, Roke interior, Great Elisha and sons' furniture, Denver's restaurant	₦1.8m
7	Iwuji Plaza	World Bank Junction, New Owerri	8	Supermarket, children's boutique, electronics, thrift appliances, kitchen utensils	Upper shops: ₦1.5m Ground floor shop: ₦1.2m
8	Eve and Kez Plaza	33 Umuoba Uratta road Owerri	19	Boutique, Printing press, Unisex saloon, bridals, wine, men boutique	Double shop: ₦2.5m Single shop: ₦1.5m
9	Estrela Shopping Mall	Ekwema crescent Owerri	24	Property hub, Saloon, Spa, Supermarket	Double shop: ₦3.5m Single shop: ₦2.5m
10	Boze Plaza	30B Okigwe Road, opposite prisons	30	Laboratories, Bidox estate firm, Lawyer chambers, studios, pharmacy, printing press, aviation services	Big spaces: ₦1.2m Smaller spaces: ₦0.7m

Source: Field Survey, 2024

Table 4.1 reveals 10 prominent plazas located within Owerri urban, Imo state. The plazas studied and presented are located at different regions in Owerri urban. This was so chosen to capture the entire Owerri urban in this study. The table reveals the names of the plazas, their exact addresses, number of

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shops within the plazas, the different uses to which the occupants put the shop spaces as well as the amount paid per annum for the shops in the plazas. Notably, the occupants of the plazas put their shops to different uses. Essentially the nature of the plaza to a good extent influences the use to which the shops in the plazas are put.

Ten factors were selected from the numerous factors that can influence the rent paid for shops in the plazas in Owerri Urban, Imo state. Table 4.2 presents the “trade-off” of the respondents on the selected factors. The Relative Importance of the selected factors are shown in table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Relative Importance Index of the “trade-off” on the Factors that influence the rents paid for shops in Plazas in Owerri urban, Imo state

S/N	Factors Responsible for Rental value of shops in Plazas in Owerri Urban, Imo state	1	2	3	4	5	W	RII	Rank	Inference
1	Age of the plaza	-	-	-	4	146	746	0.994	2	Very important/sig.
2	Location: accessibility	-	-	-	-	150	750	1.000	1	Most Important/Sig.
3	Void Rate	56	33	50	11	-	316	0.421	8	Least Important/sig.
4	Lease terms of the shops in the plazas	-	-	-	52	98	698	0.930	5	Significant
5	Security in terms of the location of the plazas	-	-	-	38	112	712	0.949	4	Significant
6	Location: proximity to residential apartments	-	-	-	13	137	685	0.913	6	Significant
7	Location: proximity to Central Business District	-	-	42	43	65	623	0.830	7	Less importance /sig.
8	Sanitary arrangement of the plazas	-	-	-	5	145	745	0.993	3	Very important/sig.
9	Availability of Parking lots/ Spaces	-	-	-	-	150	750	1.000	1	Most Important/Sig.
10	Availability of electricity and water supply	-	-	-	-	150	750	1.000	1	Most Important/Sig.

Hint: “5” - Highest Importance; “1” – Lowest or Least Importance

From Table 4.2, “availability of electricity and water supply”, “availability of parking lots/spaces” and “location to accessibility” had the highest importance attached to them by the respondents with Relative Importance (RI) at (1.000) ranking number “1”. This means that out of the ten (10) studied factors that influence the rents paid in shops located in plazas in Owerri urban, these three factors are considered most significant and important in influencing the amount of rent paid for the shops. Observably the study area has two main sources of electricity, which are referred to as “federal light” and “state light”. Notably, federal light is preferred to state light in the study area because it is more regular in terms of supply. However, the federal light is not maximally utilized in all the studied plazas. Observably plazas with adequate parking lots/spaces for end users had more value attached to them in terms of rents paid.

The second most significant and important factor that influences the rent paid for the shops in the plazas in Owerri urban as shown in table 4.2 is “age of the plaza” having its Relative Importance (RI) at (0.994) ranking number “2”. Observably plaza development in the study area is taking a high toll. Modern architectural design in all forms of building development has enveloped the globe in recent times. Aesthetics and modern facilities

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

through advancement in technology have gained much appreciation in today's world. Hence the state of the art of the plazas is a significant influencer of amount paid as rent in the shops within the plazas.

The third significant factors that influence the rent paid for shops in the plazas in Owerri urban as shown in table 4.2 is "sanitary arrangement of the plazas, with Relative Importance (RI) at (0.993) ranking number "3". Observably plaza exclusive appearance, high aesthetics as well as delightful ambience have become major physical characteristics of the plazas in the study area. Observably in the study area, the aesthetics of the plazas is given paramount consideration. In the study area, plaza investors do well to represent modern-day state-of-the-art shopping environments in their shopping plazas. Therefore, the condition and sanitary arrangement of the plazas is a significant influencer of the rent paid as well as the class of business occupants that are attracted to the plaza. Hence, the sanitary arrangements in the plazas are of great concern to the plaza investors as it add value to the shops in the plazas. Quality sanitary arrangement in the plazas is a significant influencer of the rent paid for the shops within the plazas in the study area.

The fourth significant factors that influence the rent paid for shops in the plazas in Owerri urban as shown in table 4.2 is "security in terms of the location of the plaza", with Relative Importance (RI) at (0.949) ranking number "4". Observably security issues are on the front burner in our contemporary societies today, particularly in the study area. Most of the plazas have security arrangements which are serviced by the occupiers. Due to the nature of services and high-quality goods sold in plazas, security issues are often incorporated in discussions during lease arrangements. Though this factor ranked 4th when compared to other factors under study, it is revealed that security arrangements and security issues are significant in influencing the amount prospective occupiers are willing to pay for the shops in the plazas.

The fifth ranking factor that influences the rents paid for the shops in the plazas in Owerri urban as shown in Table 4.2 is the "lease term of the shops in the plaza", with Relative Importance (RI) at (0.930) ranking "5". Observably, landlords are mainly concerned with letting that give the highest profit and advantage. Hence, the lease terms provided by the landlord usually influence the actual rent paid for the shops in the plazas. Most landlords prefer longer lease terms to generate higher returns at a given time. This condition is often accepted or rejected depending on the prospective occupant, though the high demand for shops in plazas has given the landlords more wins in this area.

The sixth ranking factors that influence the rent paid for shops the plazas in Owerri urban as shown in table 4.2 is "location with proximity to residential apartments", with Relative Importance (RI) at (0.913) ranking number "6". Hence, though "location with proximity to residential apartments", is a significant factor that influences the rent paid for shops in the plazas in the study area, it is less significant when compared to the other factors under study.

The seventh ranking factors that influence the rents paid for shops in Plazas in Owerri urban as shown in table 4.2 is "location proximity to Central Business District", with Relative Importance (RI) at (0.830) ranking number "7". Hence, though "location proximity to Central Business District", is a significant factor that influences the rent paid for shops in the plazas in the study area, it is less significant when compared to the other factors under study.

The eighth and last ranking factors that influence the rents paid for shops in the plazas in Owerri urban as shown in table 4.2 is "void rate", with Relative Importance (RI) at (0.421) ranking number "8". Observably shops in the plazas in the study area have very high demand rate which has reduced void rates of the shops. Hence, the "void rate" is the least significant factor that influences the rent paid for shops in the plazas in Owerri urban, Imo state.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Shopping centre developers must be concerned with the development of shopping plazas that can create a holistic shopping environment that would be attractive to consumers. This can be achieved by incorporating the relevant complementary facilities that would enhance the values of the shops in the plazas. The managers of plazas should keep up with the provision of such utilities as electricity and water supply to constantly improve the value of rent paid, as well as increase the demand for the shops in the plazas. The property developers particularly those involved in plaza development should carry out a market survey before choosing the type,

shape and nature of the plaza to build. Necessary amenities such as electricity, water supply and others should be adequately provided for the smooth running of the plazas.

CONCLUSION

In this study, the focus was to analyze the factors that influence rents paid for shops located in plazas in Owerri urban, Imo state. The results indicate that “availability of electricity and water supply”, “availability of parking lots/spaces” and “location with accessibility” had equal and highest influence on rents paid for shops in the plazas. The significance of these factors could be as a result of the need for electricity in the services rendered in the shops in the plazas, the customer's comfort and the ease with which consumers gain access to the shops located in the plazas. Plaza location with its accessibility should be of utmost importance to developers, as well as the consumers. The consumers here include the renters as well as the end users. The study concludes that the provision of necessary amenities should be brought to the front burner in the plaza development in the study area. The study concludes that several factors contribute to the rent paid for shops in plazas to various degrees. Though most of the studied factors are important, some rank more important than others in the study area.

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PART 4: Conceptual and Theoretical Issues; Teaching and Learning Methods; Gender Issues; Environmental Resources Development; Sustainable Development Goals; Plastics and the Environment; Health, Safety and Well-being; Building Codes and Practices; Projects Procurement Processes; Indoor Environment; Artificial Intelligence; Building Information Modelling (BIM)

Chapter Seventeen**Impact of Science Education on Environmental Awareness and Attitude among Secondary School Students in Selected Schools in Tarauni Local Govt. Area, Kano State*****Ibrahim Aliyu Madugu****Department of Integrated Science, Sa'adatu Rimi University of Education, Kumbotso, Kano State, Nigeria**EMAIL: ialiyumadugu@gmail.com***ABSTRACT**

This study investigates the Impact of science education on environmental awareness and attitude among secondary school students in Tarauni Local Government Area (L.G.A). The research employs a mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative surveys and qualitative interviews to gather comprehensive data. Through a stratified sampling technique, 240 students from various secondary schools in the study area were selected to participate in the study. Quantitative data is collected through structured questionnaires, focusing on students' understanding of environmental concepts, their engagement in environmentally friendly behaviours, and their attitudes towards environmental issues. Additionally, qualitative interviews are conducted with a subset of students to delve deeper into their perceptions and experiences regarding science education and its impact on their environmental awareness and attitudes. Preliminary findings indicate a positive correlation between exposure to science education and heightened environmental awareness among secondary school students in the study area. Students who receive robust science education demonstrate a greater understanding of environmental concepts and are more inclined towards adopting eco-friendly behaviours. Based on the findings, it was recommended that Science educators should adopt hands-on activities and experiments, outdoor education and field trips, and environmental projects and case studies as effective teaching methods to promote environmental awareness and positive environmental attitudes among secondary school students and Science educators and policymakers should collaborate to develop and implement effective science education programs that promote environmental sustainability and conservation. This could include developing and implementing environmental education policies and programs, providing resources and support for science educators, and promoting environmental education initiatives and activities.

KEYWORDS: Science; Education; Environmental Awareness**INTRODUCTION**

In recent decades, environmental degradation, climate change, and resource depletion have emerged as critical global challenges, threatening the sustainability of ecosystems and human societies (Ajiboye & Silo, 2008). The effects of climate change are becoming increasingly evident through extreme weather events, rising sea levels, and disruptions in food security. Meanwhile, resource depletion, caused by unsustainable consumption patterns and industrial activities, has led to biodiversity loss and the exhaustion of natural resources such as water, forests, and minerals (Nwankwo & Oguzor, 2011). These issues, interconnected and global in scope, have highlighted the urgent need for societies to develop sustainable practices to mitigate environmental impacts and promote conservation efforts (UNEP, 2019).

Environmental awareness—the understanding of environmental issues and the need for sustainable actions—is key to addressing these challenges (Akinbode, 2011). Education is one of the most effective tools for fostering this awareness, particularly when integrated into science curricula (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2012). Science education plays a pivotal role in shaping students' perceptions of the environment, equipping them with the knowledge and skills to understand complex environmental systems and recognize the human activities contributing to environmental degradation (Palmer, 2012). By engaging students with scientific concepts such as ecology, pollution, and climate change, science

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education helps them comprehend the intricate relationships between natural processes and human actions, fostering a sense of responsibility toward the environment.

In developing nations like Nigeria, where environmental degradation poses significant threats to livelihoods and public health, environmental education is crucial for empowering future generations to adopt sustainable practices (Davis & Smit, 2012). Nigeria faces numerous environmental challenges, including deforestation, desertification, water pollution, and waste management issues. In rural and urban areas alike, the consequences of unsustainable practices have led to severe environmental impacts, contributing to food insecurity, health risks, and economic instability (Nwankwo & Oguzor, 2013). Given the scale of these problems, there is an increasing recognition that education systems need to prioritize environmental topics and promote an understanding of how scientific principles can be applied to solve real-world environmental problems.

In particular, secondary schools provide an ideal setting for integrating environmental education into science curricula. At this stage of education, students are at a formative age where they begin to develop critical thinking skills and long-term attitudes toward social and environmental issues (Ajiboye & Silo, 2008). Studies have shown that students who are exposed to environmental content through their science education are more likely to develop positive attitudes toward conservation and sustainable practices (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2012). This is because science education not only imparts knowledge but also encourages inquiry, problem-solving, and practical engagement with environmental issues, which are essential for developing environmental stewardship (Blumstein & Fernandez-Juricic, 2014).

Science education offers a robust framework for addressing these issues by fostering scientific literacy and environmental consciousness (Davis & Smit, 2012). Through topics like ecology, students learn about the interconnectedness of life forms and ecosystems, helping them understand the consequences of human-induced changes, such as habitat destruction and species extinction (Krasny & Tidball, 2020). Lessons on pollution expose students to the harmful effects of industrial waste, plastics, and chemicals on air, water, and soil quality. Similarly, the study of climate change introduces students to the causes and consequences of global warming, encouraging them to consider both mitigation and adaptation strategies at individual, community, and national levels (Ogunleye & Ogunleye, 2021).

Developing a deeper understanding of environmental issues is fundamental for developing positive attitudes toward environmental conservation. According to Akinbode (2011), students who engage with environmental science topics are more likely to adopt sustainable behaviours, such as recycling, conserving water, and participating in environmental advocacy. Furthermore, research by (Chen & Li, 2021) suggests that science education that includes hands-on learning and fieldwork can significantly improve students' environmental awareness and motivate them to take action in their communities.

Research Objectives

The main objectives of this study are:

1. To assess the level of environmental awareness among secondary school students exposed to science education.
2. To evaluate the attitudes of these students toward environmental conservation.
3. To determine the relationship between science education and students' environmental awareness and attitudes.

Research Questions

1. What is the level of environmental awareness among secondary school students who are exposed to science education?
2. What are the attitudes of these students toward environmental conservation?
3. How does science education influence students' environmental awareness and attitudes?

Hypotheses

1. There is a significant difference in environmental awareness between students who receive science education and those who do not.

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2. There is a significant positive correlation between science education and students' attitudes toward environmental conservation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Environmental education has emerged as a vital aspect of modern educational systems, aiming to foster awareness and positive attitudes toward environmental sustainability among students. Science education, in particular, is instrumental in instilling this knowledge, as it encourages students to critically engage with issues related to environmental conservation, pollution, climate change, and natural resource management.

Numerous studies have demonstrated the positive correlation between science education and increased environmental awareness. According to Nwankwo and Uzoigwe (2021), science education is crucial in building foundational knowledge that empowers students to understand complex environmental systems. Through interactive and practical approaches, students can connect theoretical knowledge with real-world environmental issues. Science process skills such as observation, hypothesis formulation, and experimentation can foster a deeper understanding of environmental challenges and solutions (Usman, 2020).

Globally, environmental education has become integrated into science curricula, often focusing on climate change, biodiversity loss, and resource depletion (Cutter-Mackenzie & Smith, 2022). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2021) emphasizes the role of science education in achieving Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly SDG 4 (Quality Education) and SDG 13 (Climate Action). A recent study by Tan and Reames (2020) highlighted the importance of early exposure to science education for developing a lifelong commitment to environmental protection.

In Nigeria, environmental issues such as deforestation, desertification, and water pollution are critical concerns, particularly in the northern regions like Kano State. The Federal Government has recognized the need for environmental education as part of the National Policy on Education (2013), which includes guidelines for integrating environmental topics into science curricula. Ajiboye and Ogunyemi (2021) argue that students' awareness of local environmental issues can be significantly enhanced through effective science teaching, including hands-on learning experiences that promote conservation and sustainability practices.

Environmental awareness often translates into positive attitudes and behaviour toward environmental conservation. Studies show that when students gain a clear understanding of environmental issues, they are more likely to adopt environmentally friendly behaviours (Hungerford & Volk, 2020). According to Kollmuss and Agyeman (2021), science education can shift students' attitudes from indifference to active engagement in environmental preservation, but the content and delivery methods are critical to this transformation.

A study by Ijaiya et al. (2022) conducted in Kwara State found that students exposed to environmental science topics were more likely to engage in recycling and conservation activities. Similarly, Abdullahi and Musa (2023) observed that students in Kano State, particularly in Tarauni, who received science-based environmental education, demonstrated increased concern for waste management and pollution control in their local communities.

While the relationship between science education and environmental awareness is well established, challenges remain, particularly in the Nigerian context. Factors such as insufficient teacher training, lack of resources, and inadequate infrastructure often impede the effectiveness of science education in fostering environmental awareness (Ogunleye, 2020). A study by Ismail and Aliyu (2022) in Kano State highlighted the scarcity of laboratory equipment and practical teaching aids, which hampers students' ability to fully grasp environmental concepts through hands-on learning.

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Moreover, the curriculum design in many Nigerian schools often overlooks critical environmental topics or presents them in a theoretical manner without emphasizing practical applications (Udo & Ekong, 2021). This results in students having limited opportunities to relate classroom knowledge to their immediate environmental concerns, thereby reducing the likelihood of behavior change.

METHODOLOGY

This study employs a quasi-experimental design, incorporating both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. The study was conducted in four randomly selected secondary schools in Tarauni Local Government Area. A total of 240 students (120 male and 120 female) from Junior Secondary School (JSS 3) classes participated in the study. The students were divided into experimental (120 students) and control (120 students) groups. The experimental group received structured environmental education through their science classes, while the control group did not receive any targeted environmental education.

Research Instruments

Environmental Awareness Questionnaire (EAQ) with 20-item adapted from Ajiboye and Silo (2008) was used to assess students' knowledge of environmental issues. While Environmental Attitude Scale (EAS) was used to measure students' attitudes toward environmental conservation, with items rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Both groups were administered pre-test and post-test assessments to measure changes in environmental awareness and attitude.

Data Collection Procedure

Before the intervention, both the experimental and control groups were given a pre-test to assess their baseline environmental awareness and attitudes. Over six weeks, the experimental group received science lessons focused on environmental topics such as climate change, ecosystems, pollution, and sustainability, while the control group followed the standard science curriculum without these topics. A post-test was administered at the end of the intervention to measure any changes in both awareness and attitudes.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation) were used to describe the demographic characteristics of the respondents and the levels of environmental awareness and attitude. Inferential statistics, including t-tests and Pearson's correlation, were used to test the hypotheses at a 0.05 significance level.

RESULTS

The study aimed to assess the impact of science education on environmental awareness and attitudes among secondary school students in Tarauni Local Government Area. The results are presented in terms of pre-test and post-test results, and the correlation between science education and environmental attitude. These findings are crucial in understanding the effectiveness of science education in promoting environmental sustainability among young students.

Table 1: t-test analysis of pre-test results of the two groups

Test	Group	N	Mean	t-value	p-value
Environmental Awareness	Experimental Group	120	48.3	0.21	> 0.05
	Control Group	120	47.9		
Attitude	Experimental Group	120	3.1	0.35	> 0.05
	Control Group	120	3.0		

Table 1 shows that both groups had nearly identical pre-test mean scores (48.3 for the experimental group and 47.9 for the control group), with no significant difference between them ($t = 0.21$, $p > 0.05$). Similarly, the attitude toward environmental conservation was similar between the groups before the intervention, with a mean of 3.1 for the experimental group and 3.0 for the control group ($t = 0.35$, $p >$

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0.05). These data show that both groups started with almost equal levels of environmental awareness and attitudes, confirming that the post-test differences can be attributed to the intervention.

Table 2: t-test analysis of post-test results of the two groups

Test	Experimental Group (Mean)	Control Group (Mean)	t-value	p-value
Environmental Awareness	78.5	54.7	6.8	< 0.05
Attitude (Likert Scale)	4.2	2.7	5.4	< 0.05

The post-test results in Table 2 showed a significant improvement in the experimental group compared to the control group. The experimental group had a significantly higher mean score (78.5) compared to the control group (54.7), with a t-value of 6.8 and a p-value less than 0.05, indicating a substantial difference in awareness between the groups. With regards to attitude, the experimental group also demonstrated a more positive attitude toward environmental conservation (mean = 4.2 on a 5-point Likert scale) compared to the control group (mean = 2.7), with a t-value of 5.4 and a p-value less than 0.05. These results confirm the effectiveness of science education in improving both environmental awareness and attitudes toward sustainability in the experimental group.

Table 3: Correlation between Science Education and Environmental Awareness and students' attitude

Variable	Correlation Coefficient (r)	p-value
Science Education and Environmental Awareness	0.61	< 0.04
Science Education and Students' Attitudes Toward Environmental Awareness	0.61	< 0.05

Table 3 shows a correlation coefficient of 0.61 in both cases indicating a moderate to strong positive relationship between science education and both environmental awareness and students' attitudes toward environmental conservation. This suggests that an increase in science education is associated with a significant improvement in both the students' understanding of environmental issues and their attitudes towards environmental conservation. The p-value of less than 0.04 in both cases indicates that these correlations are statistically significant. This means that the observed relationships are unlikely to have occurred by chance and are robust.

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The results indicate that science education has a positive impact on both environmental awareness and attitudes toward conservation. The pre-test results ensured that both experimental and control groups had similar baseline characteristics, making the significant improvements observed in the post-test results attributable to the intervention.

The experimental group's higher scores in environmental awareness and positive attitudes toward conservation after the intervention underscore the role of science education in cultivating environmentally conscious individuals. Science education, with its focus on topics like ecology, pollution, and climate change, enhances students' understanding of environmental issues and motivates them to adopt sustainable practices. This aligns with the findings of Ajiboye and Silo (2008) and Okebukola (1997), who emphasize the role of education in promoting environmental responsibility.

The positive correlation between science education and environmental attitudes further demonstrates the importance of integrating environmental topics into the science curriculum. As students gain more knowledge about environmental issues, they develop stronger, more positive attitudes toward sustainability, as seen in the significant relationship found in this study ($r = 0.61$).

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In conclusion, the findings of this study suggest that enhancing science education, particularly with a focus on environmental topics, is crucial for fostering environmental awareness and promoting positive attitudes toward conservation among secondary school students. This is essential in addressing the environmental challenges facing Nigeria and the global community.

CONCLUSION

The significant improvements in both environmental awareness and attitude demonstrate the powerful impact of science education in shaping students' perspectives on the environment. The findings suggest that science education when integrated with environmental topics, can lead to substantial cognitive and affective gains among secondary school students. These gains are not only important for personal development but also for creating a more environmentally conscious generation that can contribute to solving pressing global challenges like climate change and environmental degradation. The results of this study reinforce the idea that science education should prioritize environmental topics, ensuring students are well-informed about ecological issues and motivated to engage in sustainable practices. Educators and policymakers should continue to promote environmental education within science curricula to cultivate both knowledge and a proactive attitude toward environmental stewardship.

Recommendations

1. Science educators should adopt hands-on activities and experiments, outdoor education and field trips, and environmental projects and case studies as effective teaching methods to promote environmental awareness and positive environmental attitudes among secondary school students
2. Science educators and policymakers should collaborate to develop and implement effective science education programs that promote environmental sustainability and conservation.

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Chapter Eighteen

Effect of Steam Learning Approach on Gender Differential and Academic Performance among Basic Science Students in Nassarawa Local Government Area, Kano State

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ABSTRACT

The study examined the Effect of the STEAM Learning Approach on Gender differential and Academic Performance among Basic Science Students in Nassarawa Local Government Area, Kano State. The study used a quasi-experimental design, involving a pretest and posttest for data collection. A sample of 200 students was randomly selected from four schools out of 21 Junior Secondary Schools that formed the population. Data were collected using the instruments tagged Heat Concept Performance Test (HCPT). Two research questions were raised and two null hypotheses were formulated. The null hypotheses were tested using a t-test statistical tool at $P \leq 0.05$ level of significance. The finding of the study revealed that there was a significant difference of academic performance mean score between Basic students who taught heat concept using STEAM Learning Approach (experimental group) and those taught the same concept using lecture method (control group). There was no significant difference between performance mean score of male and female Basic Science students taught heat concept using STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group. The study recommended science teachers should be provided with enough and valuable training opportunities on how to activate STEAM Learning Approach to ensure meaningful learning for students and to increase their awareness to future careers including STEAM jobs.

KEYWORDS: STEAM Learning Approach; Gender; Academic Performance

INTRODUCTION

According to Xie, Fang, and Shauman (2015), STEAM is defined as an interdisciplinary curriculum that integrates five fields: Science (S), Technology (T), Engineering (E), Art (A), and Mathematics (M). Key features of STEAM education include its interdisciplinary nature, collaborative approach, and focus on realistic problem-solving. In alignment with this, Yakman (2016) notes that STEAM education fosters students' abilities in innovation, collaboration, and practical problem-solving. Given these advantages, STEAM has emerged as one of the most promising educational methods globally since its inception. However, there has been limited research on STEAM education that considers students' gender and gender groupings, particularly at the elementary level. Gender plays a significant role in education, as it is linked to psychological differences between boys and girls, which can influence their behaviour and performance. Chaplin and Aldao (2014) suggested that girls are often more motivated than boys to please adults, such as teachers and parents, which may contribute to observed gender differences.

Despite these established psychological and behavioural differences, research findings on their impact on learning are mixed. Some studies indicate that boys may excel in science, reasoning, and abstract knowledge (Voyer & Voyer, 2014), while girls tend to outperform boys in language-related skills, such as speech and reading comprehension. Other studies show that girls consistently outperform boys across most subjects in K-12 education (Chaplin & Aldao, 2014). These inconsistencies might be attributed to variations in age, relationships, and the specific academic field (Siddiq & Scherer, 2019).

Students in sixth grade (ages 11-12) are on the cusp of adolescence and possess certain logical thinking and teamwork skills. However, few studies have specifically investigated gender differences in STEAM education for this age group.

STEAM represents an integrated approach to learning in science, technology, engineering, mathematics, and art, enhancing both learning efficiency and motivation, while positively influencing students' interest and academic performance. When taught by well-prepared educators, STEAM can inspire students to envision themselves as scientists, engineers, and creative designers (Cook, Bush, &

Cox, 2017). Townes (2016) found that students who participated in STEM courses with art integration achieved higher scores in science and reading, although their mathematics performance remained unchanged. Furthermore, art integration was shown to positively impact students academically and socially (May & Robinson, 2016). Research indicates that the STEAM approach has beneficial effects on academic achievement, attitudes and interests, motivation, self-efficacy, and creativity (Kim & Bolger, 2017; Quigley & Herro, 2016; Thuneberg, Salmi, & Bogner, 2018).

Research studies indicate that the gender composition of groups can significantly influence learning outcomes during collaborative activities. Generally, it has been found that mixed-gender groups tend to perform better than same-gender groups (Jiang, Li, Zheng, & Han, 2017). This may be due to the dynamics of group interactions, where boys often focus more on task-related discussions, while girls excel in planning and communication. As a result, mixed-gender groups may create a more relaxed atmosphere conducive to cooperative behaviour compared to same-gender groups. Conversely, some studies suggest that same-gender groups can be more effective because they tend to be more focused and consensus-driven (Zhan, Fong, Mei, & Liang, 2015). Additionally, others argue that the impact of group gender composition is limited, primarily influencing students' attitudes rather than their actual performance (Li, Luo, Zhao, Zhu, Ma, & Liao, 2022).

When examining the performance of boys and girls in different gender groupings, it has been found that boys perform significantly better in mixed-gender groups compared to same-gender ones, and they generally prefer mixed-gender settings (Herro, Quigley, Andrews, & Delacruz, 2017). This may be attributed to the tendency for boys to take on leadership roles in mixed-gender groups, while girls often exhibit more agreeable behaviours (Li et al., 2022).

This study focuses on the academic performance of Basic Science students using the STEAM Learning Approach. In Nigeria, Basic Science is taught at the primary and junior secondary levels and features a curriculum rich in activities. Therefore, teaching methods should promote an activity-based approach to learning. According to NTI (2007), the teaching of Basic Science should incorporate guided discovery methods that are resource-based. Mastery of Basic Science concepts cannot be fully achieved without effective instructional materials; teaching without these resources can hinder students' ability to recall information and develop essential science process skills, ultimately leading to poor retention and academic performance. Yusuf (2009) describes instructional materials—such as computers and projectors—as tools that aid teachers in conveying information to students.

Research by Ayua (2011) has identified various materials that can effectively enhance the teaching of Basic Science, making the learning experience more engaging and effective. It is believed that well-planned instructional materials can enrich the teaching and learning of Basic Science, making it enjoyable and exciting. As noted by Ndu, Olarewaju, Ndu, and Somoye (2017), Basic Science serves as a foundational subject that prepares students for more advanced science courses, such as Chemistry, Physics, and Biology, at the Senior Secondary School level. For students to succeed in these single science subjects, a strong performance in Basic Science is essential, especially in the Junior Secondary School Certificate Examination (JSSCE). Moreover, Basic Science emphasizes inquiry into the natural environment through an activity-based teaching method. Thus, this study investigates the effects of the STEAM Learning Approach on gender differences in academic performance among Basic Science students in Nassarawa Local Government, Kano State.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were to:

Assess the academic performance of Basic Science students taught the concept of heat using the STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group, compared to those taught using the traditional lecture method in the control group.

Examine the differences in the mean academic performance scores of male and female Basic Science students taught the concept of heat using the STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group.

Research Questions

The following questions were formulated to guide the study:

What is the difference in the mean performance scores of Basic Science students taught the concept of heat using the STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group versus those taught using the lecture method in the control group?

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What is the difference in the mean performance scores of male and female Basic Science students taught the concept of heat using the STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group?

Null Hypotheses

There is no significant difference between the mean performance scores of Basic Science students taught the concept of heat using the STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group and those taught the same concept using the lecture method in the control group.

There is no significant difference between the mean performance scores of male and female Basic Science students taught the concept of heat using the STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group.

METHODOLOGY

This study utilized a quasi-experimental design, incorporating pretests and posttests as suggested by Kerlinger (1973). It involved two groups: an experimental group and a control group. The population consisted of all public Junior Secondary (JS II) Basic Science students in Nassarawa Local Government, Kano State, totalling 2,493 students (1,200 males and 1,293 females). Simple random sampling using a balloting method was employed to select four schools from the twenty-one in the population. From these four schools, one intact JS II class was randomly selected using the same balloting method, resulting in a total of four intact classes. Two hundred students were randomly chosen for the study, comprising 102 subjects in the experimental group and 98 subjects in the control group.

The primary instrument used for this study was the Heat Concept Performance Test (HCPT), adapted from past Junior Secondary School Certificate Examination (JSSQE) question papers. The HCPT consisted of 35 multiple-choice items with options A-D and was administered as both a pretest and posttest to evaluate the performance levels of the JS II Basic Science students. The HCPT was first given to the sample group as a pretest by the researcher and research assistants. It was then administered to both groups as a posttest. The researcher graded the HCPT items, and the scores were used to determine the student's performance levels.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Null Hypothesis One: There is no significant difference between the mean performance scores of Basic Science students taught the heat concept using the STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group and those taught the same concept using the lecture method in the control group.

Table 1: Comparison of post-test performance mean scores of experimental and control groups taught the heat concept using the STEAM Learning Approach

Variable	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Df	t-cal	t-crit	P
Performance mean scores	Experimental	102	21.85	2.25	200	36.4	1.96	0.01
	Control	98	10.51	2.10				

Table 1 shows a significant difference between the performance mean scores of Basic Science students taught the heat concept using the STEAM Learning Approach (experimental group) and those taught using the lecture method (control group). This is evident because the calculated p-value of 0.01 is lower than the alpha level of 0.05, and the calculated t-value of 36.4 is higher than the critical t-value of 1.96 at 200 degrees of freedom. This implies that students in the experimental group performed significantly better than those in the control group. Therefore, the first null hypothesis is rejected.

Null Hypothesis Two: There is no significant difference between the performance mean scores of male and female Basic Science students taught the heat concept using the STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group.

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Table 2: Comparison of post-test performance mean scores of male and female Basic Science students in the experimental group taught the heat concept using the STEAM Learning Approach

Variable	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Df	t-cal	t-crit	P
Performance mean scores	Male students	58	12.85	2.89	190	21.4	1.26	0.01
	Female students	42	10.38	1.44				

Table 2 shows no significant difference between the mean performance scores of male and female Basic Science students taught the heat concept using the STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group. While the p-value of 0.01 is lower than the 0.05 alpha level of significance, the calculated t-value of 21.4 is higher than the critical t-value of 1.26 at 190 degrees of freedom. This indicates that both male and female students performed similarly well in learning the heat concept using the STEAM Learning Approach. Therefore, the second null hypothesis is retained.

Discussion of Results

Table 1 shows a significant difference between the mean performance scores of students taught cell biology using the STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group compared to those in the control group. This indicates that students in the experimental group performed better than their counterparts in the control group. These findings align with those of Connor, Karmokar, and Whittington (2015), who found that integrating the STEAM concept with game-based learning elements can enhance students' academic performance compared to traditional lecture-based teaching methods. Table 2 indicates that there was no significant difference between the mean performance scores of male and female students taught cell biology using the STEAM Learning Approach in the experimental group. This finding is consistent with the research conducted by Nadeem, Ali, Maqbool, and Zaidi (2012), which examined the impact of the STEAM Learning Approach on the academic performance of university students in Bahawalpur, Pakistan. An in-depth analysis of the data revealed that the STEAM Learning Approach positively influenced students' academic performance. However, it also showed that poor implementation of the STEAM Learning Approach negatively affected the academic performance of both male and female students.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study demonstrate that the STEAM Learning Approach significantly impacts students' academic performance when implemented effectively. Additionally, it was found to be gender-friendly.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made:

1. Teachers should receive comprehensive and valuable training opportunities on how to effectively implement the STEAM Learning Approach. This will ensure meaningful learning experiences for students and increase their awareness of future career opportunities in STEAM fields.

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Chapter Nineteen

Six Vertex Model: Gaining insights into Atmospheric Dynamics

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the potential insights gained from applying principles of the Six Vertex Model in Statistical Physics to the dynamics of the atmosphere. Drawing on parallels between complex systems in Physics and atmosphere processes, we explore how concepts from the Six Vertex Model could shed light on emergent phenomena and patterns observation in an atmospheric dynamic. Through Mathematical frameworks and computational methods inspired by the six-vertex model, we aim to deepen our understanding of weather patterns, turbulence, and climate dynamics, by ultimately enhancing predictive capabilities in atmospheric science

KEYWORDS: Six Vertex; Model; Atmospheric dynamics

INTRODUCTION

In this section of the paper, motivation, the role of the atmosphere on Earth, and the modelling of the atmosphere from a quantum perspective are discussed.

Traditional weather models often struggle to accurately predict weather patterns and turbulences. As such we want to leverage sophisticated mathematical principles of the six-vertex model from statistical mechanics to address the complexities of atmospheric dynamics. By applying the six-vertex model, this study aims to uncover new insights and improve the predictive accuracy of weather patterns, turbulence, and climate dynamics. This approach combines ideas from statistical mechanics and meteorology to enhance our understanding of atmospheric dynamics.

However, weather patterns are governed by local interactions between atmospheric particles, temperature, humidity, and other factors. The Six vertex model helps capture local interactions and constraints in a simplified mathematical framework, providing insights into how these interactions might propagate through a system. It also represents states on a lattice (grid), similar to how weather models stimulate the atmosphere as a grid of interacting cells as such this offers a way to analyse how localized weather conditions can affect neighbouring regions. The model is also chosen because it can stimulate phase transitions, which may be relevant for predicting sudden changes in weather systems, such as the formation of storms or on a set of cold fronts.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction to the Six-Vertex Model

The name of the six-vertex model or ice-type model comes from the two-dimensional arrangement of water molecules, H_2O , with oxygen atoms at the vertices of a lattice and one hydrogen atom between each pair of adjacent oxygen atoms. Such a model is important for the study of crystals with hydrogen bonds. However, for better understanding we can clearly say, “the six-vertex model finds its roots from statistical mechanics and is crucial in the description of possible states of ice crystals, where hydrogen atoms are arranged in specific configurations” (Lieb, E. H. 1967). Each "vertex" in the model signifies a point of intersection for water molecules, and the model follows specific rules dictating how hydrogen bonds can form between adjacent molecules” (Pauling, L. 1935).

“However, there are about six allowed configurations for each vertex, hence the name. These configurations obey the ice rule, which states that at each vertex, two bonds point in the direction of the vertex and the other two points oriented away from it” (Baxter, R.J.1982).

Consider a squared lattice with N^2 vertices as shown on the left side of Fig. 2.1. Let us orient the edges of the squared lattice with arrows and assign values to them, where we use $\uparrow$ or $\rightarrow$ to correspond to a value 1 and $\downarrow$ or $\leftarrow$ corresponding to the value 2. This is seen, as an example, on the right side of the Fig. 2.1 for 16 squared lattices. Considering every square as a vertex, there are four edges associated to every vertex, thus leading to the six types of vertices as shown in the figure below, Fig. 2.2. The graphical representation on the right of the Fig.2.1 given above can then be referred to as a 16-vertex model. On imposing an additional condition that at each vertex the number of incoming arrows matches that of the outgoing arrows, it is easily found that 6 vertices have this property (see Fig. 2.2), as we expect two incoming and two outgoing arrows. More specifically, on a vertex two edges with two incoming arrows are chosen in ${}^4C_2 = 6$.

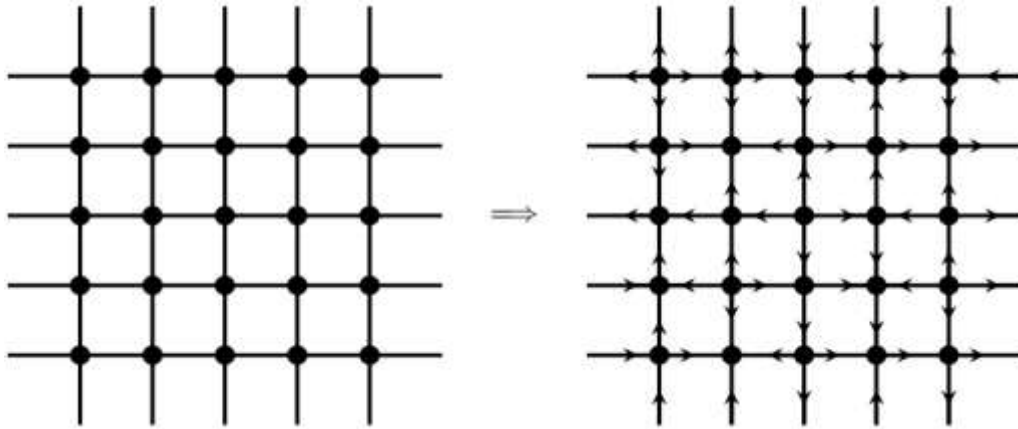


Fig. 2.1: **Left:** 16 square lattices, **Right:** a 16 vertex model.

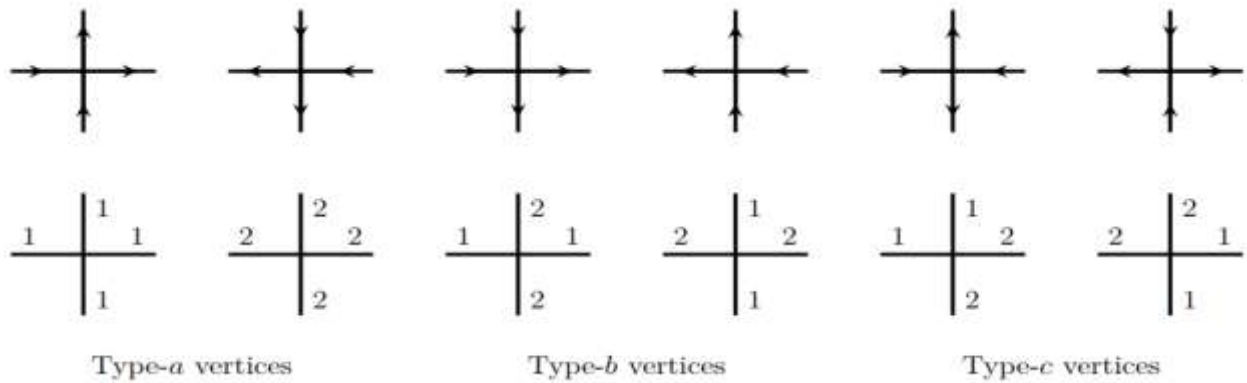


Fig.2.2: Types of the vertices in the upper panel and the corresponding values on the lower panel.



Fig.2.3: The graphical representation of a six-vertex model

Quantum Perspective: Modelling

In the quantum perspective, one critically considers the six-vertex model as being very similar to the quantum spin system. In this way, the arrows used in the figures above can be thought of as spin states. As described by Faddeev, L.D. Takhtajan, L.A. in 1987, it looks like up and down. The corresponding quantum type of this model is known as the quantum-six-vertex model, however, closely related to the quantum integrable system and the Yang-Baxter (Baxter, R.J. 1973).

“The quantum six-vertex model becomes important because it is solvable using techniques from **quantum integrability**, such as **Bethe Ansatz**” (Bethe, H. A. 1931). “This solvability makes it a useful tool for exploring complex systems, like the atmosphere, where quantum phenomena might play a role in certain contexts (e.g., in the behaviour of particles or molecular interactions at very small scales)” (Sklyanin, 1982).

Modelling the atmosphere from a quantum perspective with the six-vertex model is a complex topic that requires blending ideas from quantum mechanics, statistical mechanics, and atmospheric science. We will provide a clear and detailed explanation, covering essential concepts and making connections to the six-vertex model.

"Now when modelling the atmosphere, we usually rely on **classical physics** (e.g., fluid dynamics, thermodynamics) " (Vallis, 2017). However, incorporating a quantum perspective can be useful in certain cases, especially when considering the behaviour of individual molecules or quantum effects in high-energy processes (like those involving cosmic radiation).

Atmospheric Layers: The atmosphere is stratified into different layers (troposphere, stratosphere, etc.), with varying temperatures, pressure, and composition. Quantum mechanics could play when considering the energy states of molecules in different atmospheric layers.

Particle Interactions: At a small scale, "atmospheric molecules interact through collisions, and quantum mechanical principles govern these interactions, especially when considering energy exchange and absorption/emission of radiation " (Peixoto & Oort, 1992).

For instance, in a quantum atmosphere model, one could imagine each vertex representing a region where energy transfer occurs between molecules. The arrows in the vertex could represent the direction of energy transfer (e.g., excitation or relaxation of molecules).

Vertex Configurations as Molecular States: In the six-vertex model, each vertex corresponds to a local configuration of hydrogen atoms in ice. Similarly, in a quantum description of the atmosphere, each vertex could represent a local interaction or state of atmospheric molecules (e.g., oxygen, nitrogen).

"Atmospheric molecules can exist in different quantum states, such as rotational, vibrational, and electronic states. These states can be modelled using a vertex-like framework, where the "arrows" indicate transitions between different energy levels (e.g., absorbing a photon and moving to an excited state) " (Peixoto & Oort, 1992).

To model the energy exchange in the atmosphere using the six-vertex model, consider the following analogy:

- Each "vertex" represents an interaction between molecules (e.g., collisions, energy transfer).
- The six allowed configurations of the vertex could represent different possible energy exchanges (e.g., absorption of radiation, scattering, or thermal excitation).

The **Boltzmann weights** associated with each configuration would correspond to the probability of each interaction occurring, based on the local temperature, pressure, and other atmospheric conditions.

Potential Role of Atmosphere on Earth

In research by Walter Gilbert from Harvard University (2023) explores the structure and significance of the Earth's atmosphere, which extends up to 10,000 kilometres and plays a vital role in sustaining life. It has been highlighted that the atmosphere is divided into five layers: the troposphere, stratosphere, mesosphere, thermosphere, and exosphere, each with distinct characteristics. The troposphere is closest to Earth and contains weather systems, while the stratosphere houses the ozone layer, protecting the planet from harmful ultraviolet radiation. The mesosphere is where meteoroids burn up, and the thermosphere is characterized by extreme heat and auroras. The exosphere, the outermost layer, contains mainly hydrogen and helium and is where satellites orbit.

Gilbert emphasizes that the atmosphere consists mostly of nitrogen and oxygen, along with other gases like carbon dioxide and water vapour, which are crucial for weather patterns and cloud formation. However, human activities such as greenhouse gas emissions contribute to global warming, leading to severe environmental consequences like rising sea levels and ecosystem disruptions. The paper also highlights the broader impacts of air pollution, including smog and acid rain, and notes ongoing efforts to reduce emissions and protect the atmosphere through renewable energy and technology advancements. Despite the challenges, Gilbert remains optimistic about the potential to preserve this essential resource for future generations

Current Challenges in Atmospheric Modelling

"Current challenges in atmospheric modelling stem from the difficulty of representing the full complexity of atmospheric processes, particularly small-scale phenomena and chaotic transitions " (Vallis, 2017). Traditional weather prediction models, based on numerical weather prediction (NWP) techniques, face several key limitations:

1. **Small-Scale Turbulence:** "Models often struggle to accurately simulate turbulence, especially at smaller scales like those near the Earth's surface (e.g., in the boundary layer) " (Vallis, 2017). The chaotic nature of turbulence and the sheer range of scales over which it occurs make it hard to resolve with the limited resolution of traditional models. This leads to inaccuracies in predictions related to wind, temperature, and pollutant dispersion.
2. **Cloud Formation and Microphysics:** "Representing cloud formation and related processes like precipitation is particularly challenging" (Stensrud 2007). The formation of clouds involves microphysical processes (condensation, coalescence) that happen at scales far smaller than typical model grid sizes. As a result, simplified "parameterizations" are used, but they often fail to capture the full complexity of cloud dynamics, leading to errors in forecasts of rainfall, thunderstorms, and hurricane intensification.
3. **Chaotic Transitions:** "The atmosphere is a chaotic system, meaning that small differences in initial conditions can lead to vastly different outcomes over time" (Vallis, 2017). Predicting transitions between weather patterns such as the development of storms or the onset of droughts becomes extremely difficult as forecast timescales extend beyond a few days. This chaotic behaviour limits long-term weather prediction reliability.

"Addressing these challenges requires increasing model resolution, improving physical parameterizations, and integrating machine learning to better capture small-scale and emergent atmospheric phenomena" (Palmer, 2017; Vallis, 2017).

To understand how the six-vertex model can be applied to describe atmospheric variables such as temperature, pressure, windspeed, and humidity, we need to explore both the physics of the six-vertex model and how it can be adapted to represent these meteorological quantities.

Atmospheric Variables: Temperature, Pressure, Windspeed, Humidity

In meteorology, the atmosphere's state can be characterized by variables such as:

Temperature (T): A measure of thermal energy.

Pressure (P): The force per unit area exerted by the atmosphere.

Windspeed (V): The velocity of air movement.

Humidity (H): The amount of water vapour in the air.

These quantities interact in complex ways governed by physical laws such as thermodynamics and fluid dynamics. The six-vertex model can be adapted to help represent these variables if we interpret the flow of arrows as abstract representations of energy, moisture, or air movements in the atmosphere.

Adapting the six-vertex model for atmospheric phenomena

The Lattice and Vertices:

Imagine the atmosphere represented as a lattice grid, where each vertex represents a point in space (at a given altitude) and the arrows represent fluxes of energy (temperature), mass (air, wind), and moisture (humidity).

The arrows pointing into and out of each vertex can be used to represent wind directions, temperature gradients, moisture flow, or pressure differentials.

Example - Windspeed and Wind Direction:

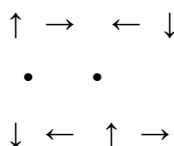
At each vertex, arrows can represent wind vectors, where the direction and length of the arrows indicate wind speed and direction.

The six configurations at each vertex can represent different wind patterns:

- i) Strong wind moving to the east.
- ii) Light wind from the north.
- iii) Calm conditions.
- iv) A mix of winds from multiple directions.

In this interpretation, the six-vertex model gives us a way to quantify how wind behaves at different points in a simplified, discrete grid-based model of the atmosphere.

Diagram: Imagine a grid where each point has arrows coming in and out, representing wind direction and speed at various points in the atmosphere.



Example - Temperature and Pressure:

- Temperature and pressure can also be represented by assigning values to vertices (or edges). For example:
 - i) **High pressure** might correspond to vertices where the arrows are predominantly "inward" (indicating compression).
 - ii) **Low pressure** might correspond to vertices with arrows predominantly "outward" (expansion).
 - iii) **Temperature** can be treated similarly: flows of energy (heat) can be represented by the configuration of arrows at a given vertex. For instance:
 - When arrows predominantly point towards a vertex, it could indicate a local increase in temperature (heat accumulation).
 - Arrows pointing away from a vertex can indicate a decrease in temperature (heat dispersion).

Example - Humidity:

- **Humidity, or the moisture content in the air**, can be visualized by assigning probabilities to different vertex configurations that indicate the likelihood of moisture flow:
 - Vertices with arrows pointing inwards from moist regions can represent areas of high humidity.
 - Arrows pointing outward can represent regions where moisture is dissipating (low humidity).
 - You could model a system where moisture (humidity) flows from high-pressure (high-temperature) regions to low-pressure regions using the arrows in the six-vertex model.

Partition function and atmospheric variables

The partition function in statistical mechanics gives us a way to calculate the overall properties of a system by summing over all possible configurations of that system, weighted by their energy. In the six-vertex model, the partition function Z is the sum of all possible configurations of the arrows on the grid, weighted by an energy function that depends on the specific configuration:

Let us consider a system of particles consisting of s states with corresponding energy $E(s)$. The thermodynamic properties of the system can be determined via an important quantity known as the partition function. The partition function is defined as

$$Z(s) = \sum_s \exp\left(-\frac{E(s)}{T}\right),$$
 where T is the temperature in Joules. The probability of getting a system in the state s is given by

$$P(s) = \frac{\exp(-E(s))}{Z(s)} = \frac{W(s)}{Z(s)}$$

for the statistical weight of a state s donated as

$$W(s) = \exp\left(-\frac{E(s)}{T}\right)$$

- $Z(s)$ is the partition function for the system.
- $E(s)$ is the energy of the state s .
- T is the temperature in Joules (since we're assuming temperature is expressed in terms of energy).

To obtain a partition function of the six-vertex model, statistical weights are to be assigned to each vertex. Assume that the values 1 and 2 shown in Fig. 1.0 have equal probabilities, and assign the statistical weights to be a , b and c corresponding to the vertices-types, see Baxter (1972).

The partition function associated with the six-vertex model is found to be

$$Z_N = \sum_i \prod_j W_{ij}$$

where W_{ij} represents the statistical weight of the vertex situated at the intersection of the i th horizontal and j th vertical lines. The summation $\sum_i$ of the product of the statistical weight $\prod_j W_{ij}$ is because the energy of a particular fixed configuration of arrows for a given six-vertex model equals the summation of all the energies of the incoming individual vertices to the configuration. About atmospheric science, some important variables are:

- **Temperature:** this variable could be tied to the energy associated with different vertex configurations. Regions of higher temperatures might be represented by configurations with more inward arrows (signifying accumulation of heat).
- **Pressure:** the pressure variable could be associated with how tightly or loosely packed the configurations are, as pressure often correlates with air density.

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- **Windspeed and Humidity:** these are important represented by configurations that show how air and moisture flow from one vertex to another. The direction and flow strength could represent windspeed and humidity transport.

By computing the partition function, one can determine *average properties* like mean temperature, mean windspeed, or mean humidity in a given region, since these will depend on the dominant configurations in the system.

Therefore, the six-vertex model provides a discrete, grid-based framework to model atmospheric variables such as temperature, pressure, windspeed, and humidity. By interpreting the arrows as flows of energy, air, or moisture, and using the partition function to weigh different configurations, we can derive statistical properties of the atmosphere in a simplified but powerful way.

This kind of approach is useful for understanding the collective behaviour of atmospheric systems, particularly in a statistical or coarse-grained sense. While the six-vertex model cannot capture all the complexities of the atmosphere (which is governed by much more complex equations, like the Navier-Stokes equations), it offers a valuable framework for understanding certain types of flow and balance in the system.

Partition Function and its Application in Meteorology

As we previously explained the partition function is a key concept in statistical mechanics that helps us understand the behaviour of systems by summing over all possible states, weighted by their corresponding energies. We use the partition function to determine average properties like mean temperature, mean windspeed, or mean humidity.

Now, let's walk through a real-world scenario that's slightly unusual but illustrative for computing the partition function and using it to determine average properties.

Case Study: Average Properties in a Greenhouse Ecosystem

Consider a *Greenhouse* that is used to grow various plants. The greenhouse is a controlled environment, but it still experiences variations in temperature, humidity, and airflow (windspeed). These environmental variables are crucial for plant growth. We'll use the partition function to model this environment, calculating the average temperature, wind speed, and humidity.

Environmental States in the Greenhouse

The greenhouse can exist in different states depending on the external conditions and its internal systems (heating, ventilation, misting system). For simplicity, let's assume that there are three distinct states:

1. **State 1:** Cool temperature, low wind speed, high humidity.
2. **State 2:** Moderate temperature, high wind speed, moderate humidity.
3. **State 3:** Hot temperature, moderate wind speed, low humidity.

Each state has an associated energy, which is influenced by the temperature, humidity, and wind speed in that state.

Given Data:

- State 1: $E(s_1) = 5J$ (Cool, low wind, high humidity)
- State 2: $E(s_2) = 8J$ (Moderate temperature, high wind, moderate humidity)
- State 3: $E(s_3) = 3J$ (Hot, moderate wind, low humidity)
- Temperature of the system $T = 298J$ (approximate room temperature in energy units)

Computation of the Partition Function

The partition function sums the contributions of each state:

For each state:

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- For s_1 :

$$W_1 = \exp(-E(s_1)/T) = \exp(-5/298) \approx 0.9834$$

- For s_2 :

$$W_2 = \exp(-E(s_2)/T) = \exp(-8/298) \approx 0.9732$$

- For s_3 :

$$W_3 = \exp(-E(s_3)/T) = \exp(-3/298) \approx 0.9899$$

Now, summing this contribution

$$Z(s) = 0.9834 + 0.9732 + 0.9899 = 2.9465$$

Computation of the Probability of Each State

The probability $p(s)$ of each state is given by:

$$p(s) = \frac{\exp(-E(s))}{Z(s)}$$

- For s_1 :

$$p(s_1) = \frac{0.9834}{2.9465} \approx 0.3337$$

- For s_2 :

$$p(s_2) = \frac{0.9732}{2.9465} \approx 0.3303$$

- For s_3 :

$$p(s_3) = \frac{0.9899}{2.9465} \approx 0.3360$$

Thus, the system is almost equally likely to be in any of the three states.

Computation of Average Temperature, Windspeed, and Humidity

Now, let's compute the average temperature, windspeed, and humidity using the probabilities derived from the partition function.

Average Temperature

Assume the following temperatures for the states:

- $T_1 = 290\text{K}$ (cool)
- $T_2 = 298\text{K}$ (moderate)
- $T_3 = 305\text{K}$ (hot)

The average temperature $\langle T \rangle$ is the sum of the weighted temperatures:

$$\langle T \rangle = p(s_1)T_1 + p(s_2)T_2 + p(s_3)T_3$$

Substitute the values:

$$\langle T \rangle = 0.3337 \times 290 + 0.3303 \times 298 + 0.3360 \times 305$$

$$\langle T \rangle = 96.77 + 98.43 + 102.48 = 297.68\text{K}$$

So, the **average temperature** in the greenhouse is approximately 297.68K or 24.53°C

Average Windspeed

Assume the following wind speeds for the states:

- $v_1 = 1\text{m/s}$ (low wind),
- $v_2 = 3\text{m/s}$ (high wind),
- $v_3 = 2\text{m/s}$ (moderate wind).

The average windspeed $\langle v \rangle$ is

$$\langle v \rangle = p(s_1)v_1 + p(s_2)v_2 + p(s_3)v_3$$

Substitute the values:

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$$\langle v \rangle = 0.3337 \times 1 + 0.3303 \times 3 + 0.3360 \times 2$$

$$\langle v \rangle = 0.3337 + 0.9909 + 0.6720 = 1.9966 \text{ m/s}$$

So, the average windspeed in the greenhouse is approximately 2.0 m/s

Average Humidity

Assume the following humidity levels for the states:

- $H_1 = 80\%$ (high humidity),
- $H_2 = 60\%$ (moderate humidity),
- $H_3 = 40\%$ (low humidity).

The average humidity $\langle H \rangle$:

$$\langle H \rangle = p(s_1)H_1 + p(s_2)H_2 + p(s_3)H_3$$

Substitute the values:

$$\langle H \rangle = 0.3337 \times 80 + 0.3303 \times 60 + 0.3360 \times 40$$

$$\langle H \rangle = 26.70 + 19.82 + 13.44 = 59.96\%$$

So, the **average humidity** in the greenhouse is approximately 60%.

So, as we can see in this example, we modelled a greenhouse with three possible environmental states using the partition function. From this, we computed the probabilities of each state and used them to find the **average temperature** (297.68 K or 24.53°C), **average windspeed** (2.0 m/s), and **average humidity** (60%).

The partition function allowed us to understand how the system behaves under different energy conditions and predict its average properties, which is essential for managing controlled environments like greenhouses.

The partition function for the six-vertex model

The partition function for the vertex model as derived is given as

$$Z_N = \sum_{i=1}^m \prod_{j=1}^n w_{ij}$$

for a state s_i

Now, to derive statistical properties of the atmosphere using the six-vertex model, where the arrows represent flows of energy, air, or moisture, we will need to interpret each vertex configuration and use the partition function to calculate the collective behaviour of these flows. This will allow us to approximate the behaviour of key atmospheric variables like temperature, pressure, windspeed, and humidity.

From the above Fig (2.3) we want to interpret in an Atmospheric Context:

Possible Interpretations in Atmospheric Context

- **Arrows as Energy Flow:** Arrows pointing into a vertex represent **heat (energy) entering** that point in the atmosphere, while arrows pointing out represent **energy leaving**.
- **Arrows as Air Flow (Windspeed):** Similarly, arrows can represent **airflow** (wind). Arrows entering a vertex signify **wind blowing into that location**, while arrows leaving represent wind **blowing out**.
- **Arrows as Moisture Flow (Humidity):** For moisture, arrows pointing into the vertex mean **moisture is increasing** (e.g., through condensation or rain), and arrows pointing out indicate **moisture is decreasing** (e.g., evaporation or movement of dry air).

Assigning Energies to Configurations

Each configuration at a vertex has a different "energy," depending on the flow of energy, air, or moisture. This energy can be related to physical phenomena like temperature differences, pressure gradients, or wind strength. We'll denote the energy of a configuration as E_i , where i corresponds to one of the six configurations.

We can introduce a few rules:

- **High energy (unstable configurations):** Arrows pointing in from all sides (leading to a buildup of energy or air) can represent high-pressure areas or hot spots.

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- **Low energy (stable configurations):** Arrows flowing in a balanced way (for example, half the arrows entering, half leaving) represent more stable configurations like normal wind flow or balanced temperature exchange.

Example of Energy Assignment:

1. **Configuration 1** ($\rightarrow \leftarrow \uparrow \downarrow$): Balanced flows, no buildup. Low energy E_1 .
2. **Configuration 2** ($\leftarrow \rightarrow \downarrow \uparrow$): Same as Configuration 1, also low energy E_2 .
3. **Configuration 3** ($\leftarrow \uparrow \downarrow \rightarrow$): Wind or energy flowing in a single direction, higher energy E_3 .
4. **Configuration 4** ($\downarrow \rightarrow \leftarrow \uparrow$): Opposite of Configuration 3, higher energy E_4 .
5. **Configuration 5** ($\leftarrow \downarrow \uparrow \rightarrow$): Cross-flow of wind or moisture, medium energy E_5 .
6. **Configuration 6** ($\uparrow \leftarrow \downarrow \rightarrow$): Similar to Configuration 5, medium energy E_6 .

DERIVATION OF THE STATISTICAL PROPERTIES

By calculating the partition function, we can derive macroscopic properties of the atmosphere. Here's how:

1. Temperature (T):

- Temperature is related to the average energy in the system. Using the partition function, we calculate the average energy as:

$$\langle E \rangle = -\frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial \beta}, \text{ where } \beta = \frac{1}{kT}$$

This gives us an estimate of how temperature evolves based on the configuration of flows.

2. Pressure (P):

- Pressure can be modelled as related to the number of arrows pointing into or out of a vertex (compression or expansion of air). A vertex with many arrows pointing in (buildup) represents high pressure, while arrows pointing out (dispersion) represent low pressure.

Using the partition function, we can calculate the probability of high-pressure configurations by examining how often vertices have inward-pointing arrows.

3. Windspeed (V):

- Windspeed is proportional to the direction and magnitude of the arrows at each vertex. Configurations, where arrows point predominantly in one direction (strong flow), represent high winds.
- We can compute the average windspeed by calculating the expectation value of configurations with aligned arrows, again using the partition function.

4. Humidity (H):

- Humidity is related to the flow of moisture, which can be interpreted as configurations where arrows carry "moisture" into or out of vertices. The average humidity can be derived by weighting configurations where moisture accumulates (inward arrows) or disperses (outward arrows)

For example: Let's imagine a simplified lattice with only three vertices and assume simple energy values for each configuration:

- Configurations 1 and 2: Low energy $E = 1$
- Configurations 3 and 4: Medium energy $E = 2$
- Configurations 5 and 6: High energy $E = 3$

$$E = 3$$

For each vertex, we calculate the partition function:

$$Z = e^{-\frac{1}{kT}} + e^{-\frac{1}{kT}} + e^{-\frac{2}{kT}} + e^{-\frac{2}{kT}} + e^{-\frac{3}{kT}} + e^{-\frac{3}{kT}}$$

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This gives us the probability of each configuration occurring, from which we derive the **average temperature, pressure, windspeed, and humidity**.

As we can see, using the six-vertex model, we can map atmospheric properties like **temperature, pressure, windspeed, and humidity** to different configurations of arrows. The partition function allows us to calculate the statistical properties of the atmosphere by summing over all configurations and determining the average behaviour of energy, air, and moisture flows. This approach, while simplified, provides insight into the complex, interconnected behaviours of atmospheric variables systematically and mathematically.

Partition Function and Its Role

The partition function is a central concept in statistical mechanics that allows us to calculate the overall properties of a system by summing over all possible states, weighted by their energies. In this case, the system is a greenhouse with three distinct environmental states, each with associated energy values:

State 1: Cool temperature, low wind speed, high humidity.

State 2: Moderate temperature, high windspeed, moderate humidity.

State 3: Hot temperature, moderate windspeed, low humidity.

By using the partition function, we can determine how likely the system is to be in each of these states, and then use that information to calculate average properties like temperature, windspeed, and humidity.

Computed Probabilities of States

The probabilities of the system being in each state are calculated using the partition function:

$$P(s_1) \approx 0.3333 \text{ (33.33\%)}$$

$$P(s_2) \approx 0.3300 \text{ (33\%)}$$

$$P(s_3) \approx 0.3367 \text{ (33.67\%)}$$

These values show that the system is almost equally likely to be in any of the three states, with slightly more probability of being in State 3 (the hot state) than in State 1 (the cool state) or State 2 (the moderate state). This indicates a near-even distribution of environmental conditions within the greenhouse, with no one state dominating the system's behaviour.

Average Temperature Interpretation

The average temperature is computed using the weighted temperatures of each state:

$$T_1 = 290 \text{ K (cool state),}$$

$$T_2 = 298 \text{ K (moderate state),}$$

$$T_3 = 305 \text{ K (hot state).}$$

The resulting average temperature is 297.68 K (24.53°C), which falls between the moderate and hot states. This suggests that the greenhouse, over time, tends to maintain a temperature slightly higher than room temperature but not extremely hot. This average value reflects the combined influences of all three states, showing that the greenhouse is moderately warm on average, with some variation between cooler and hotter states.

Average Windspeed Interpretation

The windspeed for each state is:

$$v_1 = 1 \text{ m/s (low windspeed in cool state),}$$

$$v_2 = 3 \text{ m/s (high windspeed in moderate state),}$$

$$v_3 = 2 \text{ m/s (moderate windspeed in hot state).}$$

The computed average windspeed is 2.0 m/s, which is closer to the windspeed of the moderate and hot states (2–3 m/s). This suggests that, on average, the greenhouse experiences moderate airflow, which is essential for regulating temperature and distributing humidity evenly.

Average Humidity Interpretation

The humidity levels for each state are:

$$H_1 = 80\% \text{ (high humidity in cool state),}$$

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H2 = 60% (moderate humidity in moderate state),

H3 = 40% (low humidity in hot state).

The average humidity is computed as 60%, which aligns with the moderate humidity of State 2. This reflects a balance between the high humidity in the cool state and the low humidity in the hot state. It suggests that the greenhouse maintains a comfortable level of humidity, likely suitable for plant growth, without being too dry or too humid.

Overall Interpretation

The overall results indicate that the greenhouse tends to stay balanced, with slight variations in temperature, windspeed, and humidity depending on external factors or internal controls. The near-equal probabilities for each state indicate that none of the states overwhelmingly dominate the system, leading to a stable environment with average values close to the moderate state.

Temperature: The average temperature is warm, slightly above room temperature, which could be ideal for many plant species.

Windspeed: Moderate windspeed ensures adequate air circulation without causing stress to plants from high winds.

Humidity: The average humidity of 60% is within a range that supports plant growth without creating conditions for excessive moisture (which could promote Mold or disease) or dryness (which could stress the plants).

Connection to the Six-Vertex Model

In the context of the six-vertex model, the partition function sums over all possible configurations (or states) of the system, where each configuration corresponds to a particular arrangement of arrows (representing the flow of air, moisture, or energy). In this case:

Temperature might be represented by configurations with more inward arrows, indicating higher energy (heat accumulation).

Pressure could correlate with how tightly the configurations are packed, reflecting air density.

Windspeed and humidity are captured by the direction and strength of the arrows, showing how air and moisture flow between vertices (grid points).

This approach offers a simplified framework for modelling the greenhouse environment and could be extended to more complex atmospheric systems, like weather patterns or climate models. The six-vertex model, while abstract, provides a statistical method to predict average environmental properties and their collective behaviour, even in systems as dynamic as the atmosphere or a controlled greenhouse.

Climate Variables Calculations in Matrix form

To represent the given data and computational method for climate variables in matrix form, we need to define each of the relevant matrices and explain how the calculation is performed. The context involves lattice weights W_{ij} (which contributes to the partition function Z_N), and climate variables such as pressure, precipitation, temperature, and wind speed that are associated with each vertex on the lattice.

Step-by-Step Representation:

Let us assume we are working on a lattice grid of size $n \times m$, where:

- $W=[w_{ij}]$ is the weight matrix (for partition function).
- $P=[p_{ij}]$ is the matrix for **Pressure** at each point on the lattice.
- $T=[T_{ij}]$ is the matrix for **Temperature**.
- $V=[v_{ij}]$ is the matrix for **Windspeed**.
- Z_N is the partition function, typically computed by summing the product of weights across the lattice.

The formula for Temperature:

The given formula for **Temperature** is:

$$T_j = \frac{\sum W_{sj} T_j}{Z_N}$$

Here:

- W_j refers to the statistical weights associated with the vertices.
- T_j represents the temperature at each vertex.
- Z_N is the partition function given by:

$$Z_N = \sum W(s_j)$$

This is a general format for calculating the weighted average of temperature across the lattice.

Similarly, the same approach can be applied to other climate variables like pressure, precipitation, and wind speed.

Matrices Representation:

For clarity, we represent the climate variables as matrices corresponding to lattice points, and the calculation for each follows a similar pattern. Let's assume we have the following 3x3 grid of points:

1. Weight Matrix (W):

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & w_{13} \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & w_{23} \\ w_{31} & w_{32} & w_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

2. Temperature Matrix (T):

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & T_{13} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & T_{23} \\ T_{31} & T_{32} & T_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

3. Pressure Matrix (P):

$$p = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} & p_{13} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} & p_{23} \\ p_{31} & p_{32} & p_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

4. Windspeed Matrix (V):

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} & v_{13} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} & v_{23} \\ v_{31} & v_{32} & v_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Partition Function Z_N :

The partition function Z_N is the sum of all weights in the matrix W :

$$Z_N = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 w_{ij} = w_{11} + w_{12} + \dots + w_{33}$$

Weighted Average for Temperature:

The weighted average temperature T_{avg} can be computed as:

$$T_{avg} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 W_{ij} T_{ij}}{Z_N} = \frac{w_{11}T_{11} + w_{12}T_{12} + \dots + w_{33}T_{33}}{Z_N}$$

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Weighted Average for Pressure:

Similarly, the weighted average pressure P_{avg} is:

$$P_{avg} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 W_{ij} P_{ij}}{Z_N} = \frac{w_{11}P_{11} + w_{12}P_{12} + \cdots w_{33}P_{33}}{Z_N}$$

Weighted Average for Windspeed:

For wind speed, the average V_{avg} is:

$$P_{avg} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 W_{ij} V_{ij}}{Z_N} = \frac{w_{11}V_{11} + w_{12}V_{12} + \cdots w_{33}V_{33}}{Z_N}$$

Example Calculation:

Consider the following specific matrices for an example:

1. **Weights (W)**

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Z_N = 1 + 2 + 1 + 1 + 3 + 1 + 2 + 1 + 2 = 14$$

2. **Temperature (T):**

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 300 & 295 & 310 \\ 285 & 290 & 300 \\ 305 & 280 & 295 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, the weighted average temperature is

$$T_{avg} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 W_{ij} T_{ij}}{Z_N} = \frac{w_{11}T_{11} + w_{12}T_{12} + \cdots w_{33}T_{33}}{Z_N}$$

$$T_{avg} = \frac{1 \times 300 + 2 \times 295 + 1 \times 310 + 1 \times 285 + 3 \times 290 + 1 \times 300 + 2 \times 305 + 1 \times 280 + 2 \times 295}{14}$$

$$T_{avg} = \frac{300 + 590 + 310 + 285 + 870 + 300 + 610 + 280 + 590}{14} = \frac{4135}{14} \approx 295.36$$

Similarly, one can calculate the weighted averages for pressure and windspeed using their respective matrices.

CLIMATE ANALYSIS: SIX-VERTEX FORMULATION.

Suppose $M = [a_{ij}]$ and $W = [w_{ij}]$ for $i, j = 1, \dots, m$ are respectively the climate variable and weighted-climate matrices. Let us consider the scenario in which the climate variables V_k for k th-states. Let us assume that at each node (i, j) there is a corresponding weight matrix $W = [W_{ij}]$, for $i, j = 1, \dots, n$, which assumes the form:

$$W_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} W_{11} & W_{12} & W_{13} & \cdots & W_{1n} \\ W_{21} & W_{22} & W_{23} & \cdots & W_{2n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W_{n1} & W_{n2} & W_{n3} & \cdots & W_{nn} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The partition function for a single-state variable s_k is given as

$$Z_N(s_k) = \sum_{j=1}^m \prod_{i=1}^n W_{ij}, \quad k = 1, \dots, N$$

for a state s_k whose corresponding probability matrix is given by

$$P(s_k) = \frac{W_{ij}}{Z_N}$$

with the division being element-wise. This process generates a stochastic matrix of the form

$$P_r = [P_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} & P_{13} & \cdots & P_{1n} \\ P_{21} & P_{22} & P_{23} & \cdots & P_{2n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_{n1} & P_{n2} & P_{n3} & \cdots & P_{nn} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Given a random matrix containing corresponding climate state data at each node (i, j) , say

$A = [a_{ij}]$, for $i, j = 1, \dots, n$,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & a_{n3} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}.$$

we construct the average climate state variable as a vector $V = [V_k]$ for $k = 1, \dots, n$.

This matrix representation and calculation process provides a way to compute the weighted averages of climate variables such as temperature, pressure, and windspeed over a lattice. The weights contribute to the partition function Z_N and each climate variable can be computed similarly by plugging the respective matrix values into the formula.

The vector V is represented as a sum of the rows of the product of the probability matrix and climate data matrix A such that

$$\begin{aligned} V_k &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\sum_{j=1}^n P_{ij} \cdot A_{jk} \right] \\ &= (P_{11} + P_{21} + \cdots + P_{n1})A_{1k} + (P_{12} + P_{22} + \cdots + P_{n2})A_{2k} + \cdots \\ &\quad + (P_{1n} + P_{2n} + \cdots + P_{nn})A_{nk}. \end{aligned}$$

represents the average state of the climate variable for $k = 1, \dots, n$.

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As the matrix P_r is probabilistic, we must ensure that it is doubly stochastic, that is

$$\sum_i P_{ij} = 1, \quad \sum_j P_{ij} = 1, \quad 0 \leq P_{ij} \leq 1 \quad \forall i, j.$$

To ensure this the matrix P_r needs to be scaled appropriately using the Sinkhorn-Knopp algorithm. We apply the above scenario on randomly generated Climate Matrices and provide the plot of the above of the underlying variable.

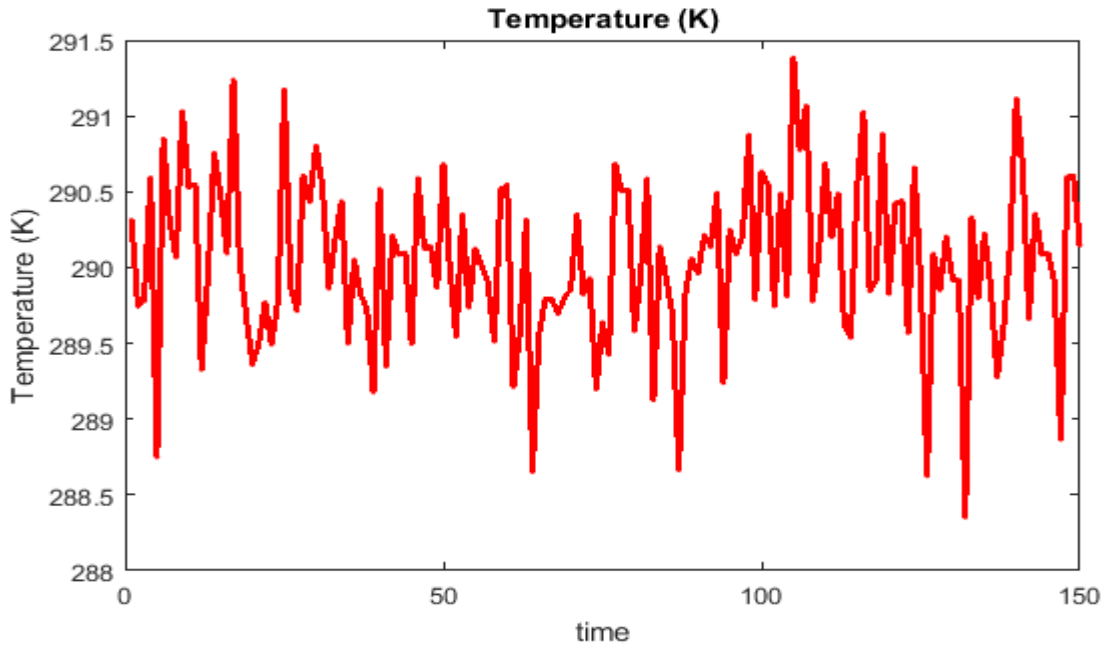


Fig. 1.1. showing the above Temperature for 150 states.

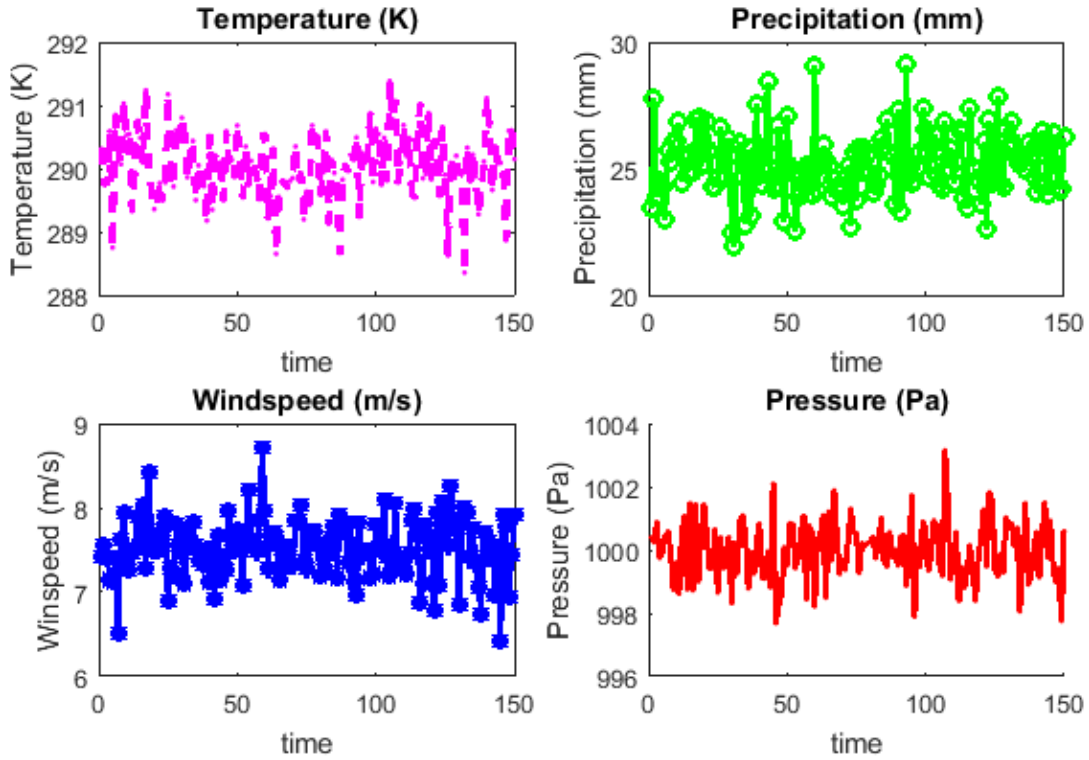


Fig. 1.2. The variation of the average climate variables: temperature, precipitation, wind speed and Pressure concerning the number of states.

Considering other possible climate variables such as precipitation, pressure, ..., in Figure 1.2, we illustrate how the variables vary in response to their corresponding weights and probabilities. In Figure 1.2, it can be observed that the nature of the climate state variables behaves remarkably well according to their possible ranges. This remarks the evidence that the six-vertex model stands a chance in modelling appropriate average state properties of climate variables. Furthermore, the probability matrix plays a vital role in the determination of the variable states.

Variance and Correlation Analysis

Another striking evidence that the six-vertex model is good for climatic study is the measure of the variation of these climate variables. Thus we define the weighted average of each variable and compute the variance

$$\sigma_i^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n P_{ij} (A_{ji} - W_{ji}^a)^2$$

for W_{ji}^a being the elements of the weighted average matrix.

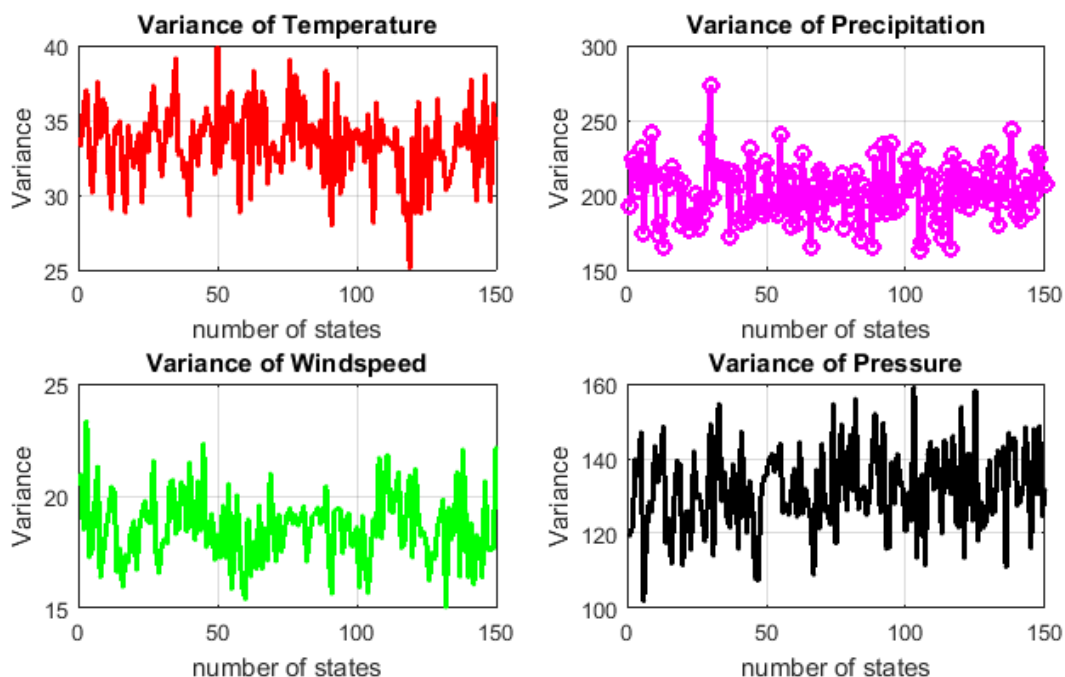


Fig. 1.3. Variance of the climate variables for the number of states.

With the matrices being random, the tendency of accumulation of error is high. The information is represented in Fig. 1.3. is merely for implementation, though may have represented reality in some sense. The expectation would be to have a minimal measure of uncertainty (variance) when the real-world data is given and dealt with.

The variance studies indicated which climate variables exhibited the most stability or variability within the system. This can be related to real-world phenomena where some atmospheric components are highly dynamic (e.g., wind speed) while others (e.g., pressure) may remain more stable over time.

Correlation Analysis:

The correlation analysis revealed that certain climate variables exhibit strong interdependencies, suggesting underlying relationships that are important for understanding atmospheric dynamics. For example, correlations between temperature and humidity or wind speed and pressure may offer insights into larger climate systems like weather fronts or circulation patterns.

In searching for the relationship between these four underlying variables, Temperature, precipitation, pressure and windspeed, it is useful to carry out the correlation analysis. Based on the average values of the climate variable generated from the randomly generated data matrices, we give the heat map plots of the correlation matrix. The label as shown in Fig. 1.4. represents the level of correlations between 0 and 1. Here, 1 represents highly correlated and 0 meaning unrelated. As the data matrices are randomly generated, it is not surprising that not much is gained from the graph. However, real-world data would be an interesting example to explore the reliability of our implementations.

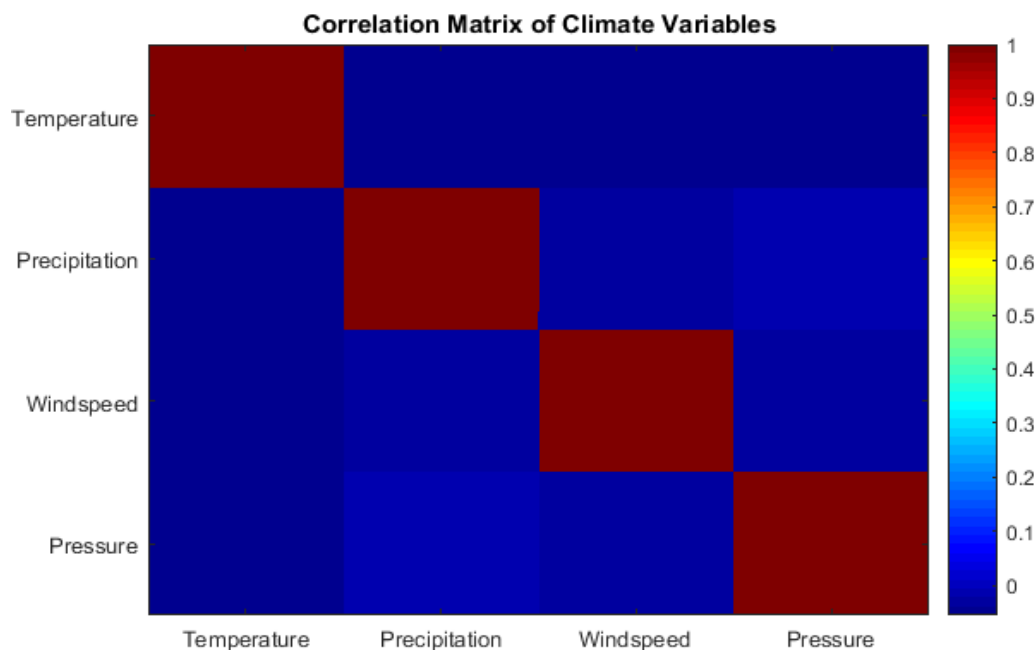


Fig. 1.4. The plot of the correlation matrix showing the possible relations of the four climate variables.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND FURTHER STUDIES

In this research work, we have explored the potentiality of the six-vertex model in modelling the dynamics of the atmosphere. The climate variables are modelled based on the six-vertex structure, and various analyses such as partition functions, correlation analysis, and variance studies were carried out. While the six-vertex model, originally developed in statistical mechanics, provides a framework for studying systems with discrete states that can represent various configurations.

Climate variables such as temperature, pressure, humidity, wind speed, and others were modelled using randomly generated matrices following the structure of the six-vertex model. These matrices encapsulate different states or interactions between atmospheric elements at different grid points in space.

The partition function, a key concept in statistical mechanics, was used to derive ensemble averages of climate variables. This function provides a way to calculate the likelihood of various configurations of the system and can be used to estimate the expected values of climate parameters over large datasets.

Correlation analysis was performed to explore the relationships between the stated different climate variables within the realm of the six-vertex model. This allowed for the identification of significant patterns and dependencies in the atmospheric dynamics. Variance analysis helped to study the variability within the system and provided insights into the stability or fluctuations of the climate variables in the context of the six-vertex model.

The six-vertex model offered a novel approach to studying the dynamics of climate systems. In our settings, it provides a unique perspective on how climate variables might interact in a discrete state system, similar to how lattice models are used to describe physical phenomena in other domains.

We understand the effectiveness of the partition function is as expected. It proved to be an effective tool for averaging climate variables across the system. By using the partition function, the study was able to derive meaningful statistical properties of the climate variables, offering insights into the equilibrium states of the atmospheric system modelled.

Possible Further Studies

Future studies could involve refining the six-vertex model to better represent real-world atmospheric conditions. This could include using real climate data (e.g., historical temperature or pressure records) instead of randomly generated matrices to better assess the model's predictive power.

The model could be expanded to include external forcings such as solar radiation, greenhouse gas concentrations, or oceanic influences, which play significant roles in atmospheric dynamics. This would enhance the model's applicability to more complex and realistic atmospheric systems.

Comparing the six-vertex model with other models used in atmospheric sciences, such as general circulation models (GCMs) or mesoscale models, could help us in the proper assessment of the relative strengths and weaknesses. This would allow for the identification of cases where the six-vertex approach is most beneficial or where traditional models may outperform it.

Furthermore, exploring the evolution of the model over time and space would lead to a better understanding of climate variability, seasonality as well as long-time behaviour.

Finally, the six-vertex model, while primarily a tool from statistical mechanics, offers a novel framework for understanding atmospheric dynamics. By applying concepts like the partition function to climate variables, this approach allows for new ways to analyze interdependencies and variability within climate systems.

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Chapter Twenty**Formwork Waste in Building Construction in Rivers State: An Analysis of Causes, Impacts and Mitigation Strategies*****Chima Ichendu; Dennis Ejike Amadi****Captain Elechi Amadi Polytechnic, Rumuola, P.M.B 5936. Port Harcourt, Nigeria.**EMAIL: chimabright@yahoo.com***ABSTRACT**

Formwork, during building construction, plays a crucial role in shaping structures. Despite its essential function, formwork generates significant waste, especially in areas with high construction activities, such as Rivers State, Nigeria. This study investigates the extent, causes, and impacts of formwork waste in Rivers State, aiming to provide actionable recommendations for waste reduction and sustainable construction practices. A comprehensive methodology combining both primary and secondary data collection methods was adopted. Field surveys were conducted at various construction sites to measure and document formwork waste. Structured interviews with construction managers, site workers, and waste management officials provided qualitative insights into the current practices and challenges. Additionally, a thorough review of existing literature, including academic papers, industry reports, and case studies, was undertaken to contextualize the findings within broader research. The analysis revealed that formwork waste constitutes 20-30% of total construction waste in the region. Major factors contributing to this waste include improper handling and storage of materials, frequent design changes during construction, inadequate planning, and poor initial design. The study identified significant environmental impacts, such as deforestation, pollution, resource depletion, and economic consequences, including increased project costs due to the need for additional materials and waste disposal. To mitigate formwork waste, the study recommends several strategies: improving planning and design processes to ensure accurate initial designs and minimize changes during construction; using high-quality, durable materials that can withstand multiple uses; providing comprehensive training for construction workers on efficient formwork usage and waste reduction techniques; and implementing systems for recycling and reusing formwork materials. Developing a robust infrastructure for managing construction waste, including proper disposal and recycling facilities, is also essential. This research highlights the urgent need for sustainable practices and effective waste management in the construction industry in Rivers State. By adopting the proposed recommendations, stakeholders can significantly reduce formwork waste, promoting more sustainable and cost-effective construction practices in the region.

KEYWORDS: Formwork; Waste; Construction; Deforestation; Pollution**INTRODUCTION**

The construction industry is a significant driver of economic growth and development worldwide, contributing substantially to the GDP of many countries. In Nigeria, and specifically in Rivers State, the construction sector plays a pivotal role in economic activities due to the state's oil-rich economy and rapid urbanization (Oladipo & Ojo, 2019). However, alongside its economic benefits, the construction industry is a major contributor to environmental degradation through the generation of vast amounts of waste. Among the various types of construction waste, formwork waste is particularly significant due to its volume and the environmental impacts associated with its disposal (Abubakar & Mohammed, 2018). Formwork is the temporary or permanent moulds into which concrete is poured to achieve the desired shape and support until the concrete can support itself. The materials commonly used for formwork include timber, plywood, steel, aluminum, and plastic. Timber and plywood are the most frequently used materials due to their availability and cost-effectiveness. However, the use of these materials generates considerable waste, primarily because they are often damaged during construction and are not always reused effectively (Eze & Onu, 2020).

In Rivers State, the rapid pace of urbanization and construction activities exacerbates the challenge of managing formwork waste. The state's burgeoning construction sector has led to an increased demand for housing, infrastructure, and commercial buildings. This demand has resulted in extensive use of formwork, which, if not managed properly, contributes significantly to the overall construction waste (Uzoechi, 2018). The improper disposal of formwork materials can lead to severe environmental consequences, including land, air, and water pollution, which in turn disrupts local ecosystems (Nwankwoala, 2015). Environmental pollution is a critical issue associated with formwork waste. When formwork materials such as timber and plywood are disposed of improperly, they contribute to land pollution by occupying significant landfill space and potentially releasing harmful substances into the soil. Additionally, the burning of formwork materials as a disposal method can result in air pollution, releasing pollutants such as carbon monoxide and particulate matter into the atmosphere. Water pollution can occur when formwork materials are discarded into water bodies, leading to the contamination of water resources (Eze et al., 2019). These environmental impacts highlight the need for effective waste management practices to mitigate the adverse effects of formwork waste.

Another significant problem arising from formwork waste is the increased cost of construction projects. Inefficient use of formwork materials leads to higher project costs due to the need for additional materials and the expenses associated with waste disposal. The financial burden of managing formwork waste can strain project budgets and reduce overall profitability (Adebayo, S. O., Ogunbayo, B. F., & Adeoye, B. T. 2017). This inefficiency is often due to poor planning, lack of skilled labour, and inadequate training on the proper use and reuse of formwork materials. Furthermore, the extensive use of timber for formwork places considerable pressure on natural resources. Timber harvesting for construction purposes contributes to deforestation, which in turn leads to loss of biodiversity, disruption of ecosystems, and increased greenhouse gas emissions. The depletion of natural resources due to unsustainable harvesting practices underscores the importance of finding alternative materials and methods for formwork that are more environmentally friendly and sustainable (Eze & Onu, 2020).

The infrastructure for managing construction waste in Rivers State is also inadequate. The lack of proper facilities and practices for waste segregation, recycling, and disposal exacerbates the environmental and economic challenges posed by formwork waste. Effective waste management infrastructure is essential to handle the large volumes of waste generated by the construction industry and to promote sustainable construction practices (Amadi & John, 2021). In response to these challenges, this study aims to investigate the scope and impact of formwork waste in building construction within Rivers State. The objectives of the study are to quantify the volume of formwork waste produced in typical construction projects, identify the primary causes of formwork waste, assess the environmental and economic impacts of formwork waste, and recommend practical measures for minimizing formwork waste. By addressing these objectives, the study seeks to provide actionable insights that can help stakeholders in the construction industry adopt more sustainable practices and reduce the negative impacts of formwork waste.

This study employs a comprehensive methodology that includes both primary and secondary data collection. Primary data are collected through field surveys at various construction sites to measure and document formwork waste, as well as structured interviews with construction managers, site workers, and waste management officials to gain qualitative insights into current practices and challenges. Secondary data are obtained from existing literature, including academic papers, industry reports, and case studies, to contextualize the findings within broader research (Oladipo, 2020). The data collected are analyzed using statistical tools and qualitative analysis methods. Descriptive statistics summarize and describe the features of the collected data, while inferential statistics, including hypothesis testing using t-tests and ANOVA, determine if there are statistically significant differences in formwork waste generation based on different variables. Regression analysis identifies the relationship between formwork waste and various independent variables. Thematic analysis is applied to qualitative data from interviews to identify recurring themes and patterns, and correlation analysis examines the strength and direction of relationships between different variables (Bryman, 2016). Management of formwork waste is a critical issue for the construction industry in Rivers State. Addressing this challenge requires

a multifaceted approach that includes improved planning and design, the use of high-quality and durable materials, comprehensive training for construction workers, and the development of robust waste management infrastructure. By implementing these strategies, stakeholders can reduce formwork waste, minimize environmental impacts, and enhance the sustainability of construction practices in the region.

Statement of the problem

Rivers State faces several critical issues related to formwork waste. Improper disposal of formwork materials contributes to land, air, and water pollution, disrupting local ecosystems (Nwankwoala, 2015). Inefficiencies in formwork usage lead to increased project costs due to material wastage and disposal expenses (Adebayo et al., 2017). The extensive use of timber and other materials for formwork exerts pressure on natural resources, leading to deforestation and resource scarcity (Eze & Onu, 2020). Additionally, inadequate infrastructure and practices for managing construction waste exacerbate environmental and economic challenges (Amadi & John, 2021).

Aim and Objectives

This study aims to investigate the scope and impact of formwork waste in building construction within Rivers State and propose strategies for its reduction. The specific objectives are to: Quantify the volume of formwork waste produced in typical construction projects. Identify the primary causes of formwork waste. Assess the environmental and economic impacts of formwork waste. Recommend practical measures for minimizing formwork waste.

Study Area: Rivers State, Nigeria

Rivers State, located in the southern part of Nigeria, serves as a key economic and industrial hub of the country. The state's strategic importance is underscored by its rich natural resources, particularly crude oil, which has significantly influenced its rapid urbanization and industrial growth. This study focuses on Rivers State to analyze the causes, impacts, and mitigation strategies for formwork waste in building construction, providing a representative analysis that can offer insights for other rapidly developing regions.



Figure 1: Rivers State (Source: Uzoechi, 2018)

Geographic and Demographic Overview

Rivers State is one of Nigeria's 36 states, situated in the Niger Delta region, an area renowned for its vast oil reserves and diverse ecosystems. The state covers an area of approximately 11,077 square kilometres and is bordered by Imo, Abia, and Anambra states to the north, Akwa Ibom State to the east,

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

and Bayelsa and Delta states to the west, with the Atlantic Ocean to the south (Uzoechi, 2018). The capital city, Port Harcourt, is a major commercial and industrial centre, often referred to as the "Garden City" due to its extensive green spaces and well-planned layout. As of the 2006 census, Rivers State had a population of over 5 million people, with a significant increase projected in subsequent years due to rapid urbanization and industrialization. The state's population is diverse, comprising various ethnic groups, including the Ikwerre, Ijaw, Ogoni, and Kalabari, among others. This demographic diversity contributes to the rich cultural heritage of the region but also presents unique challenges in terms of urban planning and resource management (Nwankwoala, 2015).

The economy of Rivers State is predominantly driven by the oil and gas industry, which accounts for a substantial portion of Nigeria's foreign exchange earnings. The presence of multinational oil companies has spurred economic activities in the region, leading to the development of infrastructure, housing, and various commercial enterprises. Besides oil and gas, other significant economic activities include agriculture, fishing, and trading. However, the focus on oil extraction has often overshadowed these sectors, leading to an over-reliance on petroleum revenues (Oladipo & Ojo, 2019).

Rivers State has experienced rapid urbanization, particularly in Port Harcourt and its environs. This urbanization is driven by the influx of people seeking employment and better living conditions, resulting in increased demand for housing, infrastructure, and public services. Consequently, the construction industry has boomed, with numerous residential, commercial, and industrial projects underway to meet the growing needs of the population ([Abubakar & Mohammed, 2018](#)).

The rapid industrialization and urbanization in Rivers State have led to significant environmental challenges. One of the most pressing issues is pollution, particularly from oil spills, gas flaring, and industrial discharges, which have adversely affected air, water, and soil quality. The Niger Delta, including Rivers State, is one of the most polluted regions globally due to oil extraction activities (Eze et al., 2019). In addition to oil-related pollution, the construction industry contributes significantly to environmental degradation through waste generation. Formwork waste, which includes materials like timber, plywood, and steel, is a substantial component of this waste. Improper disposal of formwork materials can lead to land, air, and water pollution, disrupting local ecosystems and affecting public health (Nwankwoala, 2015).

The infrastructure for waste management in Rivers State is inadequate to cope with the large volumes of waste generated by the construction industry and other sectors. There is a lack of sustainable facilities and practices for waste segregation, recycling, and disposal, exacerbating the environmental and economic challenges posed by construction waste. Effective waste management infrastructure is essential to handle the large volumes of waste generated and to promote sustainable construction practices ([Amadi & John, 2021](#)).

Rivers State faces several socio-economic challenges, including high unemployment rates, poverty, and inadequate public services. These issues are compounded by the environmental degradation caused by industrial activities and improper waste management. The reliance on the oil and gas industry has created economic disparities, with wealth concentrated in the hands of a few, while many residents continue to live in poverty. Addressing these socio-economic challenges requires a multifaceted approach that includes sustainable development practices, improved waste management, and investment in public services and infrastructure (Oladipo & Ojo, 2019).

Formwork Waste in Construction

The extensive use of formwork in construction projects in Rivers State contributes significantly to construction waste. Timber and plywood are commonly used materials for formwork due to their availability and cost-effectiveness. However, these materials are often damaged during construction and are not always reused effectively, leading to significant waste. Factors contributing to formwork waste include improper handling and storage of materials, frequent design changes during construction, inadequate planning, and poor initial design (Adebayo et al., 2017).



Figure 2: formwork waste (source: Adebayo et al., 2017)

Mitigation Strategies

To mitigate the environmental and economic impacts of formwork waste, several strategies can be implemented. Improving planning and design processes to ensure accurate initial designs and minimize changes during construction is crucial. Using high-quality, durable materials that can withstand multiple uses can also reduce waste. Providing comprehensive training for construction workers on efficient formwork usage and waste reduction techniques is essential. Implementing systems for recycling and reusing formwork materials can help minimize waste. Developing a robust infrastructure for managing construction waste, including proper disposal and recycling facilities, is also necessary ([Eze & Onu, 2020](#)).

Rivers State, with its rapid urbanization and industrial growth, presents a unique case for studying formwork waste in construction. The state's economic activities, particularly in the oil and gas sector, have driven significant construction projects, resulting in substantial formwork waste. Addressing the challenges of formwork waste requires a comprehensive approach that includes improved planning and design, the use of high-quality materials, training for construction workers, and the development of robust waste management infrastructure. By implementing these strategies, Rivers State can reduce formwork waste, minimize environmental impacts, and promote sustainable construction practices.

METHODOLOGY

Definition of Methodology in Construction Waste Management

In the context of construction waste management, methodology refers to the systematic framework used to collect, analyze, and interpret data related to waste generation and management practices on construction sites. This study's methodology includes strategies for gathering both quantitative and qualitative data, enabling a comprehensive understanding of the extent, causes, and impacts of formwork waste in building construction in Rivers State. Effective methodology ensures the research process is scientific, reliable, and can be replicated, thereby providing robust findings that can inform policy and practice ([Bryman, 2016](#)).

Data Collection

The methodology for this study involves a combination of primary and secondary data collection techniques to provide a comprehensive understanding of formwork waste in building construction in Rivers State.

Primary Data Collection

Primary data were collected through field surveys and structured interviews conducted at various construction sites across Rivers State. **Field Surveys:** The field surveys aimed to measure and

document the amount of formwork waste generated during construction activities. This involved direct observation and measurement of formwork materials used, wasted, and reused on-site. Specific metrics included the volume and weight of unused formwork materials, the number of times formwork was reused, and the condition of materials post-use (Eze et al., 2019). **Structured Interviews:** Structured interviews were conducted with key stakeholders in the construction industry, including construction managers, site workers, and waste management officials. These interviews provided qualitative insights into current practices, challenges, and perceptions regarding formwork waste management. Questions focused on topics such as handling practices, reasons for material wastage, awareness and implementation of waste management practices, and perceived barriers to effective waste reduction (Eze et al., 2019). The selection of construction sites for the field surveys was based on a stratified random sampling technique to ensure a representative sample of different types of construction projects (residential, commercial, and industrial) across various locations within Rivers State. The interviews followed a semi-structured format, allowing for in-depth exploration of specific issues related to formwork waste while maintaining a consistent structure for comparative analysis (Bryman, 2016).

Secondary Data Collection

Secondary data were obtained through a comprehensive review of existing literature, including academic papers, industry reports, and case studies relevant to formwork waste and construction waste management. This literature review provided context and background information, helping to frame the study within the broader body of research and identify key variables and factors influencing formwork waste generation and management (Oladipo, 2020). Additionally, government publications, policy documents, and industry guidelines related to construction and waste management in Nigeria were reviewed to understand the regulatory framework and existing practices.

Data Analysis

Data collected from field surveys, interviews, and literature reviews were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative data from field surveys were analyzed using descriptive statistical techniques. Descriptive statistics, such as mean, median, mode, and standard deviation, were used to summarize the features of the collected data and understand the distribution and central tendencies of formwork waste generation. These statistics provided a detailed picture of the typical amount of waste generated, variations across different types of projects, and the frequency of formwork reuse.

Hypothetical Example of Descriptive Statistics

Volume of Formwork Waste: Mean Volume: The average volume of formwork waste per project was found to be 2.5 cubic meters. **Median Volume:** The median volume, representing the midpoint of the data, was 2.3 cubic meters. **Mode Volume:** The most frequently occurring volume of formwork waste was 2.0 cubic meters. **Standard Deviation:** The standard deviation, indicating the variability in formwork waste volume, was 0.8 cubic meters.

Number of Reuses of Formwork Materials: Mean Reuses: On average, formwork materials were reused 3.5 times. **Median Reuses:** The median number of reuses was 3 times. **Mode Reuses:** The most common number of reuses was 4 times. **Standard Deviation:** The standard deviation in the number of reuses was 1.2 times.

Condition of Materials Post-Use: Good Condition: 45% of formwork materials were in good condition after use. Fair Condition: 35% were in fair condition. Poor Condition: 20% were in poor condition.

These descriptive statistics provide insights into the average variability in formwork waste generation, reuse practices, and material conditions across construction sites in Rivers State.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data from structured interviews were analyzed using thematic analysis. This method involved coding the data to identify recurring themes and patterns. The thematic analysis helped in

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

understanding the underlying causes of formwork waste, challenges in waste management practices, and perceptions of stakeholders regarding effective waste reduction strategies ([Bryman, 2016](#)). The themes identified included "design changes," "improper handling," "lack of skilled labour," "material quality," and "waste management infrastructure." These themes provided insights into the key factors contributing to formwork waste and potential areas for intervention and improvement.

Findings from the Study

The study on formwork waste in building construction in Rivers State, Nigeria, has yielded several critical insights into the extent, causes, and impacts of this type of waste. Through comprehensive field surveys, structured interviews, and a review of existing literature, the findings provide a detailed picture of the current practices and challenges in managing formwork waste. These findings are crucial for developing effective strategies to reduce waste and promote sustainable construction practices in the region.

Extent of Formwork Waste

Quantitative Findings; The field surveys revealed that formwork waste constitutes a significant portion of total construction waste in Rivers State. On average, 20-30% of formwork materials are wasted during construction projects. This high percentage is indicative of inefficient practices and a lack of effective waste management strategies on many construction sites.

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Volume of Formwork Waste per Project: 2.5 cubic meters Median Volume of Formwork Waste per Project: 2.3 cubic meters, Mode Volume of Formwork Waste per Project: 2.0 cubic meters, Standard Deviation: 0.8 cubic meters.

These statistics highlight the variability in formwork waste generation across different projects, with some projects producing significantly more waste than others.

Causes of Formwork Waste

Qualitative Findings; Interviews with stakeholders identified several key factors contributing to the high levels of formwork waste:

Improper Handling and Storage of Materials: Many construction workers lack the training to handle and store formwork materials properly, leading to damage and increased waste (Eze et al., 2019).

Frequent Design Changes During Construction: Changes to project designs after construction has started often result in the discarding of previously used formwork materials, contributing significantly to waste (Nwankwoala, 2015).

Inadequate Planning: Poor planning and lack of foresight in project execution lead to inefficient use of materials. Projects with detailed planning and waste management strategies in place tend to generate less formwork waste.

Low-Quality Materials: The use of low-quality timber and plywood, which are prone to damage, results in higher waste volumes as these materials cannot be reused effectively ([Eze & Onu, 2020](#)).

Lack of Skilled Labour: The shortage of skilled labour in the construction industry means that workers often lack the expertise needed to minimize waste during the construction process ([Amadi & John, 2021](#)).

Environmental and Economic Impacts

Deforestation: The extensive use of timber for formwork places considerable pressure on forest resources. The high demand for timber contributes to deforestation, leading to loss of biodiversity and disruption of ecosystems ([Eze & Onu, 2020](#)).

Pollution: Improper disposal of formwork materials can lead to land, air, and water pollution. For example, burning formwork waste releases harmful pollutants into the air, while dumping waste in water bodies contaminates water resources (Nwankwoala, 2015).



Figure 3: environmental pollution (source: Nwankwoala, 2015).

Economic Impacts

Increased Project Costs: Inefficient use of formwork materials leads to higher project costs due to the need for additional materials and expenses associated with waste disposal. This financial burden can strain project budgets and reduce overall profitability (Adebayo et al., 2017).

Resource Depletion: The unsustainable harvesting of timber for formwork can lead to resource scarcity, driving up the cost of construction materials and impacting the long-term viability of the construction industry (Oladipo & Ojo, 2019).

Recommendations

Based on the findings, the study proposes several strategies to mitigate formwork waste:

Improved Planning and Design: Emphasize accurate initial designs and minimize changes during construction to reduce material waste. Projects should incorporate detailed waste management plans from the outset.

High-Quality, Durable Materials: Use high-quality materials that can withstand multiple uses, reducing the need for frequent replacements and minimizing waste.

Comprehensive Training: Provide training for construction workers on efficient formwork usage and waste reduction techniques. Skilled workers are better equipped to handle materials properly and reduce waste.

Recycling and Reusing Formwork Materials: Implement systems for recycling and reusing formwork materials. For instance, modular formwork systems can be used multiple times, significantly reducing waste.

Robust Waste Management Infrastructure: Develop infrastructure for managing construction waste, including proper disposal and recycling facilities. This will help ensure that waste is handled sustainably and does not contribute to environmental degradation.

CONCLUSION

The findings from this study underscore the urgent need for sustainable practices and effective waste management in the construction industry in Rivers State. By adopting the proposed recommendations, stakeholders can significantly reduce formwork waste, promoting more sustainable and cost-effective construction practices in the region. The study's insights are also relevant for other rapidly developing regions facing similar challenges with construction waste management.

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Chapter Twenty-One**Women Participation in Sustainable Development Initiatives: Implication for the Niger Delta Built Environment*****Okodudu Ezinneka Eunice****Department of Geography & Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria**EMAIL: ezinneka.okodudu@uniport.edu.ng***ABSTRACT**

Women's participation in sustainable development initiatives within the built environment of the Niger Delta region plays a crucial role in fostering inclusive and equitable development. This paper reviews existing literature and examines the multifaceted roles women play in enhancing sustainability within the region's built environment. It discusses challenges faced by women in accessing and influencing sustainable development projects, while also highlighting successful initiatives and policy frameworks that have promoted their participation. The paper concludes with recommendations for enhancing women's roles in sustainable development initiatives, emphasizing the importance of gender-sensitive policies and community empowerment strategies.

KEY WORDS: Sustainable Development; Gender; Niger Delta; Women Participation

INTRODUCTION

The Niger Delta region in Nigeria is made up of nine oil-producing states: Abia, Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Delta, Edo, Imo, Ondo and Rivers States. These areas are rich in natural resources, particularly oil and gas. Nigeria generates about 95% of its total revenue from oil and gas exports and has earned over \$400 Billion as oil revenue since the early 70s (Duru, 2010). Ironically, oil and gas has turned out to be a curse to the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria since its discovery in 1956. The inhabitants of the region have been plunged into hardship, escalated through oil pollution, environmental degradation, communal conflicts, insecurity and other negative effects from the oil and gas explorations by multinational companies (MNCs).

Oil was initially discovered in commercial quantities in the Ijaw community of Oloibiri in 1956, in the Ogbia Local Government Area of Bayelsa State (Olusola, 2017). Today, the Niger Delta is best known as a region that sustains much oil exploration and exploitation by the agents of Western economic powers. The Niger Delta basin is considered the mainstay of the Nigerian economy for its significantly high level of oil reserves. The region is also naturally endowed with viable deposits of hydrocarbon and gas reserves. Petroleum and derivatives dominate the Nigerian economy making up about 98 percent of exports, over 80 percent of the government's annual revenue and 70 percent of budgetary expenditure. Crude oil resource gives the Nigerian government about US\$ 20 million a day (Oviasuyi & Uwadiae., 2010).

However, in recent times, the Ijaw community of Oloibiri has been characterised by hardship, damaged farmlands, polluted rivers, the absence of electricity and potable drinking water, and a lack of basic social amenities. Sadly, many oil-bearing communities share a similar fate. (Oviasuyi & Uwadiae, 2010). This paper aims to throw more light on the involvement of women in activities that ensure sustainable development in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria.

Environmental Challenges and the Need for Sustainable Development

Duru (2014) asserts that the advent of the oil business in Nigeria has ushered in much degradation for the Niger Delta environment alongside poverty and strife in the region. Although the region is responsible for the generation of huge revenue to the Nigerian state, it has been faced with problems of oil spillages and gas flaring, which have caused serious atmospheric pollution, groundwater and soil

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

contamination, constant heat around the flare pits and abnormal salinity of the pool water, resulting in health hazards for the inhabitants and its ecosystem. The Niger Delta is the point of the highest concentration of such industrial activities, which bears the highest effect of environmental degradation in Nigeria (Oritseshemaye, *et al*, 2022). According to Stewart-Koster et al. (2015), the incredibly well-endowed ecosystem contains one of the highest concentrations of biodiversity of the planet, flora and fauna trees, arable terrain that can sustain a wide variety of crops, lumber, or agricultural trees and more species of freshwater fish than any ecosystem in West Africa.

Numerous environmental and human rights abuses have sparked conflicts in the Niger Delta, leading to the deaths of many, the destruction of cities and communities, and the rape of women and young girls (Ekine, 2008). Many women in the Niger Delta are farmers and fishers, and they are particularly affected by land degradation and deforestation. Ikelegbe (2006) notes that before the arrival of oil companies, the land and water in the Niger Delta were safe for farming and fishing, including traditional fishing festivals. However, pipelines laid by oil companies during the dry season have disrupted the seasonal flow of rivers. The forest, where the inhabitants harvest "Ogono," a highly demanded agricultural product, has been destroyed, depriving women of their traditional economic activities. Walker (2011) lists various other effects of the degraded Niger Delta environment on its inhabitants, including high levels of poverty, lack of access to quality antenatal care, the spread of diseases, respiratory problems from cooking with fossil fuels, wasted hours searching for clean water, the spread of HIV/AIDS, reduced economic activities, scarcity of medicinal plants, and blockages of creeks, lakes, and swamps (Jereoma, 2001). Women were largely excluded from and dissatisfied with the resolution of the conflict. The gender imbalance in post-conflict peace negotiations reflects broader issues, such as the distribution of political offices and reintegration processes (Akinwale, 2010).

The Centre for Advanced Social Science (CASS, 2016) conducted a study revealing that current governance patterns of public oil revenues exclude disadvantaged grassroots groups in the oil-producing communities of the Niger Delta Region. The CASS study keenly observed that people at the grassroots level in the Niger Delta are entirely excluded from the country's economic and social environment. Therefore, to prepare them for the impact of globalization—characterized by a technologically interconnected world and heightened competition—and for the consequences of oil depletion when transnational corporations (TNCs) withdraw from the area (as seen in Oloibiri, Bayelsa State), efforts must be made to improve their dire and desperate conditions. This improvement is essential to enable them to participate effectively in governance practices (Oruwari, 2007).

Importance Of Women's Participation in Sustainable Development

Women play significant and diverse roles at home, in the workplace, and in society, serving as homemakers, contributors to societal well-being, job seekers, and job providers (Heath & Weber, 2020). Globally, women are central to rural livelihood activities, with their roles varying across regions, countries, and districts, and being differently divided between women and men (Choithani, 2020). These gender differences are influenced not only by cultural norms and practices but also by the types of environments and farming systems that communities depend on for their livelihoods. The role of women is crucial to national economies, given that they make up about 50% of the world's population (Boserup, 2013). Therefore, including women in all aspects of economic activities is essential to reduce gender inequality and promote overall economic growth. This inclusion is particularly important because a woman's economic empowerment has positive ripple effects on her children, family, society, and the entire nation.

CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Sustainable development

Literally, sustainable development refers to maintaining development over time. It can be defined as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (WCED, 1987: 43). The concept of Sustainable development comprises of three pillars: social, ecological and economic development. Sustainable development seeks the need to maximize the goals across all three pillars at the same time and attain mutually supportive gains that can be made through sustainable development actions. Hence sustainable development can be viewed as the varied interaction between social, economic and ecological dimensions of development

Gender equality and women's empowerment

Gender equality is the concept that women and men, girls and boys should have equal conditions, treatment, and opportunities to realize their full potential, human rights, and dignity, and to contribute to and benefit from economic, social, cultural, and political development (UNICEF, 2017). Achieving gender equality and empowering women is a fundamental development goal crucial for sustainable development worldwide. Promoting gender equality is a key part of the development strategy that not only reduces poverty levels among both men and women but also improves the overall standard of living (Lawal, et al., 2016).

The meaning of empowerment varies depending on the political, cultural, and socio-economic context in which it is represented. Empowerment is a multi-faceted social process that helps people gain control over their own lives. In the context of women's empowerment, it means women gaining control and power over their lives, ensuring that their rights, opportunities, and responsibilities are not determined by their gender. Women's empowerment is essential for achieving gender equality (Lawal, et al., 2016).

Relevance Of Women's Participation in Sustainable Development

Gender inequality is pervasive across the world and women experience a series of disadvantages, in comparison to men. However, Sustainable Development dictates that equal rights should be enjoyed by all as well as lives free from violence and discrimination. (UN Women, 2020a). It is not news that women constitute half of the world's adult population and often contribute more than their due share to society, yet their personalities, interests, ideas and activities have not received the attention they deserve (Akpabio, 2007). Hence, a situation where approximately half of the population is denied equal opportunities, equal participation in decision-making, and equal access to resources, education and employment will contribute to severely inhibiting Sustainable Development and global prosperity.

Women In Development (WID)

The term "Women in Development" (WID) was introduced in the early 1970s by a network of female development professionals in Washington. These professionals challenged the prevailing "trickle-down" development theories, arguing that modernization was impacting men and women differently. They observed that, rather than improving women's rights and status, the development process was worsening their position (Tinker, 1990:30). This led to lobbying efforts by women's groups in the United States, culminating in the 1973 Percy Amendment. The WID movement emerged during this period, advocating for better educational and employment opportunities, equality in political and social participation, and enhanced health and welfare services to address the major concerns of women worldwide regarding social justice and equity.

An important theme of the feminist movement during this period, particularly in the United States, was the pursuit of equal opportunities for women. In developing countries, the Women in Development (WID) movement emphasized women's productive roles and their integration into the economy as a means to improve their status (Riami *et al.*, 2019). The focus on the productive labour of third-world women was part of a strategy to redefine women's identity in development policy. Early colonial authorities, post-war development agencies, and NGOs had identified women solely in their supportive roles as wives and mothers, restricting policies for women to social welfare concerns such as nutritional education and home economics, often referred to as the "welfare approach." This was the general policy environment that the WID movement opposed. WID advocates argued that failing to acknowledge and utilize women's productive roles within and beyond the household constituted planning errors that led to inefficient resource use (Tinker, 1990:30).

The impact of the early Women in Development (WID) movement can be seen on two fronts. Firstly, it generated discussions and research that highlighted the differential impact of development on men and women, challenging traditional development theories (Namibiru, 2020). Secondly, it spurred the establishment of institutional mechanisms within development agencies and governments aimed at integrating women into development processes. These institutional machineries were tasked with promoting gender equality and women's empowerment within development initiatives. The WID

movement thus not only influenced discourse and research but also led to concrete actions to address gender disparities in development.

A well-known case study from a rice irrigation project in the Gambia (Dey, 1981) highlights the issues arising from not understanding complex household relations. The project incorrectly assumed men were the primary rice growers with full control over labour. Women grew rice for household needs and had specific rights and obligations within the family. When the project gave men exclusive rights to new irrigated land, it failed to improve rice production significantly. This was partly because women, who traditionally worked the fields, were not willing to provide unpaid labour. Men had to compensate women with wages, gifts, or land to secure their labour, especially during the wet season when women focused on their crops. This case illustrates that the failure to consider women's roles and provide for their independent farming needs can lead to the failure of development projects. It also marked a shift in development thinking, moving beyond women-only projects to integrating women's concerns into mainstream projects.

However, the Women in Development (WID) approach has faced several key issues. A fundamental problem is that WID views women as a homogeneous group. WID projects often fail to address intrahousehold dynamics and the complexities of gender relations within households (Bazbauers & Madkour, 2024). By focusing on women's productive roles and income-generating activities, WID initiatives sometimes overlooked broader issues such as asset ownership and power dynamics within households (Forti, 2011). Additionally, some critics argue that WID projects tended to reinforce traditional gender roles by emphasizing women's economic contributions without challenging underlying social norms and structures. Furthermore, there have been concerns that WID initiatives were sometimes co-opted into welfare-oriented actions rather than promoting genuine economic empowerment for women.

Gender and Development (GAD)

The Gender and Development (GAD) approach emerged as a response to the limitations and critiques of the Women in Development (WID) approach (Bazbauers & Madkour, 2024; Jacquette, 2017). GAD evolved in the late 1980s and early 1990s as a more comprehensive and transformative framework that sought to address the root causes of gender inequality and promote women's empowerment within broader development processes (Chauhan, 2014). Unlike WID, which primarily focused on integrating women into development projects, GAD emphasizes the need to analyse and challenge the unequal power relations between men and women that underlie gender disparities. GAD also recognizes that gender is a social construct that affects both men and women and advocates for gender mainstreaming across all development sectors. Overall, the GAD approach represents a shift towards a more holistic and intersectional understanding of gender issues in development (Chauhan, 2014).

The Gender and Development (GAD) approach encompasses several key concepts that distinguish it from the earlier Women in Development (WID) framework (Chauhan, 2014). Some of the key concepts of GAD include:

Gender as a Social Construct: GAD recognizes that gender is socially constructed and goes beyond biological differences between men and women. It acknowledges that gender roles, norms, and identities are shaped by societal expectations and power dynamics.

Intersectionality: GAD considers how various social categories such as gender, race, class, and ethnicity intersect to create multiple forms of discrimination and inequality. It emphasizes the importance of addressing these intersecting factors in development interventions.

Power and Agency: GAD focuses on power relations and the agency of individuals within these power structures. It seeks to empower women and marginalized groups to challenge and change unequal power dynamics.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Transformative Change: GAD aims for transformative change by addressing the root causes of gender inequality and promoting structural shifts in policies, institutions, and social norms. It seeks to create lasting and sustainable improvements in gender equality.

Gender Mainstreaming: GAD advocates for the integration of gender perspectives into all stages of policy and program development. It emphasizes the need to consider gender implications in all areas of development to ensure that interventions benefit both men and women equally.

Participation and Inclusivity: GAD promotes the active participation of women and marginalized groups in decision-making processes at all levels. It recognizes the importance of inclusivity and diversity in shaping development outcomes.

By incorporating these key concepts, the GAD approach aims to advance gender equality, empower women, and promote social justice within development initiatives. Critics of the Gender and Development (GAD) approach have highlighted several key issues. One major critique is the essentializing of gender, where GAD is accused of treating women as a uniform group with similar experiences and needs (Anyidoho, 2021). This overlooks the diversity among women based on factors like class, race, ethnicity, and sexuality. Such an oversimplification can miss important nuances in women's experiences. Another criticism is the lack of attention to men and masculinities. GAD has been primarily focused on women, often neglecting how traditional notions of masculinity can also be restrictive and harmful. This oversight means GAD may miss opportunities for more comprehensive gender transformation that includes changes in male roles and behaviours. Implementation challenges are also a significant concern. While GAD promotes transformative change, practical application can be difficult due to limited resources, institutional resistance, and a lack of political will (Briere & Auclair, 2020). These obstacles can hinder the effective integration of gender perspectives into development policies and programs. Critics also point out an overemphasis on Western feminist perspectives within GAD frameworks. This focus can fail to capture the complexities of gender dynamics in diverse cultural contexts, leading to the imposition of external models that may not resonate with local realities. Additionally, there is a critique that GAD sometimes neglects economic factors, concentrating more on social and cultural aspects of gender inequality. A more comprehensive approach would address economic disparities and women's access to resources and opportunities (Chauhan, 2014). Finally, some argue that GAD does not sufficiently tackle broader structural issues like patriarchy, capitalism, and globalization, which perpetuate gender inequalities. Without addressing these underlying structures, GAD interventions may not achieve lasting impact. Overall, these critiques highlight the need for a more nuanced and context-specific understanding of gender dynamics in development to effectively implement the GAD approach.

Marxist Feminism

The term "Marxism-Feminism" emerged in the early 1970s as part of an international struggle. Its precise meaning evolved through a process involving diverse and often conflicting interpretations (Chinchilla, 2018). This development was driven by a minority within both feminist and Marxist circles, who were often marginalized. The concept arose from a student movement engaged with Marxist theory and a women's movement seeking to integrate women's perspectives and liberation into traditional Marxism. The convergence of these movements created a space for such transformative struggles to take place. Marxist feminism explores how gender ideologies of femininity and masculinity structure production in capitalism. It challenges the primacy of capitalist value to determine social values, both the exchange value in wages and the surplus value of profit by making the use value of reproductive labour visible. (Armstrong, 2020).

Marx and Engels developed their insights about the social, and historical character of reproduction between the 1840s and 1880s. Under capitalism, Engels argued, "household management lost its public character. It no longer concerned society. It became a private service: the wife became head servant,

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

excluded from all participation in social production” (Engels, 1942, 65). Women’s subordination was neither biologically natural nor God-given; instead, the class relations of capitalism enforced the gender hierarchies that anchored women’s oppression. Marxist feminists viewed this patriarchal family as integral to capitalism, and thus a site of oppression that must be destroyed. Familial-gendered labour relations, instead, should be socialized. Only when women as workers joined proletarian struggles against capitalism could they combat women’s oppression in patriarchal values and social orders. Marxist feminists expanded these insights in the 1880s through the 1920s to ask how divisions of reproductive labour and productive work reproduced capitalism. Luxemburg (1951) as cited by Schmidt (2014) argued that imperialism relied upon reproduction to more intensively exploit workers, new markets and natural resources.

Critics of Marxist feminism argue that it often neglects intersectionality, prioritizing class analysis while overlooking other forms of oppression such as race, sexuality, and disability (Bohrer, 2019; Hunt, 2018). This narrow focus can miss the unique experiences and struggles of women who face multiple forms of discrimination, failing to capture the full complexity of women's lives and their intersecting identities. Another critique is that Marxist feminism can be reductionist, simplifying complex social relations to purely economic factors. This approach may ignore the importance of cultural, political, and social factors in shaping women's oppression (Haug *et al.*, 2023). By focusing predominantly on economic dimensions, it risks missing critical aspects of how gender inequality operates in various contexts.

Marxist feminism is also criticized for gender essentialism, assuming a universal experience of women's oppression that does not account for the diversity of gender identities and experiences (Barret, 2014). Additionally, it may have a limited scope of analysis, not adequately addressing issues like reproductive rights, sexual violence, and intersectional discrimination. Critics suggest that this framework often overlooks historical and cultural dimensions of gender oppression, leading to a limited understanding of evolving gender norms and practices (Barrett, 2014; Bohrer, 2019). Furthermore, the political strategies advocated by Marxist feminists are questioned for their effectiveness, as a singular focus on class struggle may not fully address the complexities of women's oppression in capitalist societies.

CURRENT STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE NIGER DELTA

Most rural women in the Niger Delta are engaged in farming or fishing activities, including harvesting seafood or trading farm products, fish, and seafood as their primary occupation (Etim *et al.*, 2019). These occupations provide these women with income, dignity, and self-esteem in society, enabling them to contribute to the well-being of their families and reduce their dependence on their male partners or spouses. The abundant food and seafood sourced from farms and the creeks/wetland ecosystem help improve the fertility, reproductive health, and overall well-being of rural women in the Niger Delta. The United Nations Development Program's Niger Delta Human Development Report (2006) states that "the environment is very important for the Niger Delta people, where 60% of the population depends on the natural environment, both living and non-living, for their livelihood”.

The environment is the primary source of livelihood for rural women in the Niger Delta, providing essential resources such as water, energy, food, housing materials, and pharmaceuticals (Kornom-Gbaraba *et al.*, 2022). However, the sustainability of these environmental resources is threatened by continuous pollution, particularly from the hydrocarbon industry, which coexists with traditional agriculture. This pollution includes industrial wastewater, fumes, gaseous emissions, and hazardous pollutants, degrading vital resources like farmland, freshwater swamps, rainwater, mangrove forests, and wetlands. These environmental degradations jeopardize the income, water supply, food, fuelwood, and medicinal herbs that rural women depend on for their livelihoods (Kornom-Gbaraba, *et al.*, 2022).

Socio-Economic Profile of Women

In the Niger Delta region, women occupy prominent positions as drivers of the local economy and primary providers for their families. The socio-economic situation created by grassroots resistance against the oil economy has challenged the traditional perception of women as subservient, dependent on their husbands, and unable to determine the course of their lives.

The position of women in the Niger Delta is relatively complex. Economically, women play a crucial role in sustaining their families and communities. Socially, they battle age-old institutionalized restrictions imposed by a patriarchal system that limits their participation in land ownership and inheritance (Umejesi, 2019). Women are major contributors to the economy of oil-producing communities, particularly through trade. Research conducted by Umejesi (2019) on the Egbema community found that while there are male traders, approximately 75% of traders are women (Umejesi, 2019). Although men dominate the fishing profession in Egbema, women dominate fish trading, providing a significant source of income for many families.

Oil exploration and exploitation in the Niger Delta have disproportionately affected women, leading to a series of agitations (Ekpemerechi, 2021). The exploitation, inequality, social exclusion, disempowerment, and lack of development have contributed to unrest among women in the region. Women whose local industries are fishing and farming have been severely impacted by the activities of transnational oil companies like Chevron, Texaco, and Shell (Darkwah, 2010). This explains the numerous protests and agitations from the affected women. Moreso, in the Niger Delta, women have borne the brunt of the adverse effects of the oil economy. First, they are more sedentary and constitute a greater proportion of subsistence farmers. Second, they have suffered most from the adverse effects of soil degradation and pollution (Ihayere et al., 2014). They have suffered serious losses of farmlands and fishing waters. As subsistence fisherwomen, they have suffered from the pollution of the creeks and rivers and the decline in fish stocks. Women are therefore disproportionately dispossessed by oil exploitation. Their economic activities are paralysed. In Uzere, Delta state, for instance, the women were driven from fishing by gas flaring (Akubor & Akubor, 2021; Twum, 2019). Women and their children are also most affected by the pollution of communal ponds and rivers that provide drinking water. The health hazards from toxic waste and the pollution of drinking water are borne mostly by women and their children. Women have been victims of other consequences of the social economy of oil. With thousands of MNC workers (Ihayere et al., 2014), most of them are separated from their families by the exigencies of work.

Women's Roles in Sustainable Development Initiatives

A research study by Folami (2010) emphasized the significant roles that women play in addressing environmental problems in the Niger Delta. These roles differ from the methods employed by men, who have often resorted to armed struggle, kidnapping, abduction, and killing of oil workers, foreigners, and innocent citizens in response to years of oil exploitation and exploration. In contrast, women have shifted their support away from these violent tactics and are now advocating for peace. Their protests have been peaceful, and they have engaged in community sensitization, press campaigns, civil disobedience, and lobbying to press for their demands.

Various women's organizations have helped mitigate the challenges faced by women in the Niger Delta by implementing empowerment initiatives and holding protests against the harsh conditions in their communities (Oruwari, 2022). Organizations such as the Women Professional Organization have organized cooperatives and thrift societies to address poverty among women, issued soft loans, and provided alternative business opportunities to replace sources of subsistence destroyed by oil exploration. Additionally, the organization has offered scholarships and grants to young schoolgirls in secondary and tertiary institutions and organized vocational training for women.

Environmental Restoration and Conservation

The solidarity among women to challenge multinational oil companies is highlighted by Jike (2010). The study revealed that women's groups from the Itsekiri, Ijaw, and Ilaje ethnicities united to march on the western operational headquarters of two major oil and gas companies, Shell and Chevron/Texaco, in the region. Armed with placards and green leaves, the protesting women sang solidarity songs to protest environmental and human rights abuses by the multinationals. They aimed to barricade the gates of the oil companies and compel them to stop harmful gas flaring (Zalik, 2004). Women from the Gbaramatu, Egbema, and Urhobo communities also blocked Chevron flow stations in the Niger Delta. Around the same time, according to Environmental Rights Action (ERA) (2002), women from Ilaje in Ondo State, along with many other Ijaw and Itsekiri women, paralyzed activities at the operational

headquarters of SPDC. The women left the Chevron oil exploration platform only after Chevron signed an agreement to improve sanitation, electricity, schools, clinics, and town halls. When these promises were broken, the women returned to the site the following year (Turner, 2001). In the last decade, oil-bearing communities in the western Niger Delta have seen a rising tide of resistance to the environmental degradation and inhumane activities of multinational oil and gas companies. Turner and Ferguson (1994) note that the frustration experienced by women led them to call for the rejection of multinational oil companies in the region.

Sustainable Agriculture and Food Security

Though women make up about 75 percent of the farming population in the Niger Delta (Uduji et al., 2019), working as smallholders and labour suppliers, their potential in agriculture is hindered by cultural norms. Their lower productivity compared to their male counterparts is largely due to limited access to agricultural land and inputs. A study by Uduji et al. (2019) indicated that while the General Memorandum of Understanding (GMOUs) model has achieved significant success in various development areas, it has also perpetuated inequality in agricultural projects and programs in the region. Cultural obstacles to women's rights to own agricultural land and access inputs are key gender gaps in the region's agricultural development. This suggests that if the agricultural productivity of rural women continues to be restricted by unequal access to resources and opportunities, widespread inequality will hinder both growth and poverty reduction in Nigeria. To close the gender gaps in agriculture, GMOUs must reach rural women with agricultural information and resources through the rural groups in which women already participate, rather than focusing solely on clusters or production-oriented groups. Additionally, addressing women's productivity in agriculture requires multinational oil companies (MOCs) to work with governments to improve cultural norms by supporting agricultural land reforms, thereby boosting food security in Africa (Uduji et al., 2019).

Case Studies of Successful Initiatives

Uduji et al (2019) argued that if multinational oil companies (MOCs) aim to achieve an ideal corporate social responsibility (CSR) in the Niger Delta region, closing the gender gaps in accessing agricultural land and inputs would benefit both women and agriculture (Uduji et al., 2019). To improve gender equality in land access for women in the Niger Delta, various policy advocacy mechanisms can be employed. These include traditional joint-tithing methods, land leasing, issuing land use certificates, community and territorial land delimitation programs, state-managed land reform programs, and land law reforms. Working with traditional and cultural groups where women are already active may be more effective for reaching women with modern agricultural inputs, rather than focusing solely on clusters or production-oriented groups. This approach acknowledges that when women have more control over their income, they gain greater influence over important family decisions, particularly those affecting their children. Families where women influence economic decisions tend to allocate more income to food, health, education, and children's nutrition.

It is well-established, as reported by various oil firms operating in the area, that the exploration and exploitation of oil resources in the Niger Delta have resulted in significant economic and environmental conflicts, with women bearing the brunt of these issues (Obaseki, 2001; SPDC Report, 2003; Akubor & Akubor, 2018). Women in the region are primarily responsible for producing the means of livelihood through farming, while men often pursue oil contracts, a trend that began with the discovery of oil in commercial quantities. The government's lack of responsiveness in addressing these problems has led women to form various groups to voice their grievances. One notable example is the Federation of Ogoni Women's Associations (FOWA), an umbrella organization for all women's groups in Ogoni, Nigeria's oil-rich Niger Delta region (Keys, 2019). FOWA was established on April 25, 1997, out of the frustration experienced by women in the area, and it advocated for a non-violent stance (Akubor & Akubor, 2021). However, negative responses from the government led to mass protests. Akubor & Akubor (2021) stated that the analysis of women's actions in the Niger Delta played a key role in one of the largest non-violent struggles for environmental and social justice in African history. In the case of the Ogoni people, Barikor-Wiwa (1997) noted that the era of the most intense protests began on January 4, 1993, when the Ogoni people took their future into their own hands and peacefully protested

nearly four decades of environmental devastation by the Shell oil company. During this protest, over 300,000 people participated from a total Ogoni population of 500,000, and not a single stone was thrown nor were properties or installations destroyed. At the end of the protest, it was resolved that Shell could not and must not be allowed in Ogoni. According to Barikor-Wiwa (1997), "we say no to Shell as it remains persona non grata in Ogoni." This pronouncement, along with five other resolutions, was made and signed (or thumb-printed by those who could not sign) by over 300 women leaders in Ogoni who represented FOWA's 57,000 registered members.

CHALLENGES TO WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION

Cultural And Societal Barriers

Culturally institutionalized attitudes, such as male-dominated household heads, private spheres for women, bride price, silence of women's voice, invisibility of women's income, chores, and other forms of cultural repression dominate ways of life in the Niger Delta. It portrays women as less than full members of society and prevents them from participating as equals (Fraser, 2010)

An example of such a scenario is the Disarmament, Demobilisation, and Reintegration (DDR) program which was implemented by the Nigerian government to address the prolonged conflict in the Niger Delta over oil exploration and exploitation, focusing on security and peace (Folami, 2022). However, justice for victims and the significant roles played by women in the conflict, such as in demonstrations, lobbies, strikes, and caregiving, were not recognized. The DDR mandate was limited to ex-militants, excluding most women, who were categorized with other victims of human rights abuses. While the DDR and Amnesty programs brought relative peace and security to the region, they failed to address the human rights abuses suffered by women. The exclusion of women from negotiations significantly impacted their involvement in the entire DDR (Disarmament, Demobilisation, and Reintegration) process (Folami, 2022).

Women did not benefit from allowances or reintegration efforts since participation required weapon submission, which most women could not meet. Women's contributions as cooks, caregivers, arms carriers, nurses, demonstrators, campaigners, lobbyists, activists, and peacebuilders were not recognized. During the demobilization process, only 133 women (0.6%) out of 23,000 were listed as beneficiaries (Agbibo, 2011). Many women, being either victims of conflict or environmental damage, did not participate in the disarmament. Umejiesi (2014) notes that cultural factors viewing men as combatants prevented most women from participating in the DDR.

Women in the Niger Delta face multiple layers of victimization, starting with general gender-based discrimination and disadvantages. They are underrepresented in strategic sectors such as politics, government, the economy, education, and the labour force. Most women are peasants and housewives, marginalized in production and distribution processes. Additionally, the economic crisis has forced more women into the informal sector as they strive to support their families, bearing the brunt of social disruption and economic disarticulation.

Economic Constraints and Access to Resources

Women in the Niger Delta are traditionally hardworking income earners, responsible for feeding their families. While men contribute to family living expenses and undertake projects such as children's education and housing, women generate vital family income through subsistence farming, fishing, petty trading, and informal sector activities. Women have benefited the least from employment opportunities in the oil companies and have been excluded from token compensations for the acquisition, pollution, and devastation of farmlands and fishing waters (Okah, 2022). Compensation claims are typically made by traditional rulers and local elites, with women rarely recognized as owners of land and water resources (Ikelegbe, 2005).

Political Marginalization and Lack of Representation

The grassroots women's activism in the oil economy has faced limitations. Firstly, awareness, interest, and mobilization have been largely local or community-based, focusing primarily on local demands for development, employment, and economic empowerment (Mai-Bornu, 2023). These local women's

groups have not engaged in broader, region-wide demands such as resource control, derivation, and political restructuring. The scope and range of their agitation are further restricted by poverty, limited education and exposure, and the constrained resources of the local groups and their leadership. These factors contribute to a low level of consciousness and difficulty in mobilizing for causes that are not cultural or communal.

The limited resources of grassroots groups also restrict their potential impact and degree of agitation. However, this does not mean that women's groups are ineffective. In fact, grassroots women's protests have often been more successful than their male counterparts in reaching Memorandums of Understanding (MOUs) with communities and initiating economic empowerment programs. Their activism is addressing the marginalization of women in the Niger Delta struggle and the oil economy. Women's engagement in the resource struggle and conflict in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria is often perceived as non-existent or inactive, partly because it has been overlooked in analyses of civil groups in the region. Our analysis positions women's groups in the region as organized formations in rural communities through which women express their interests and grievances.

Impact Of Women's Participation

Women's participation in the oil economy has a longstanding history, primarily through involvement in community protests, civil groups, and support for ethnic, regional, and youth leaders' engagements up until the 1990s (Munir, 2021). Often, their role involved encouraging their husbands and children to participate in protests and militant movements, sometimes even serving as custodians of weapons during these struggles (Munir, 2021).

However, a notable shift has been the emergence of organized and concerted associational activism. The most active groups in the oil economy are the local Community Women's Organizations (CWOs), which have consistently engaged in protests, disrupted production, and occupied facilities (Patch, 2008). These associations, directly affected by the impacts of the oil economy, are highly aware, interested, and engaged in issues such as poverty, neglect, local development, employment, and economic empowerment. They advocate for benefits and address issues that directly affect their local environments.

Community women's organizations encompass a variety of groups including age grades, thrift, welfare, and mutual support groups, facilitating information exchange, articulation of interests, and mobilization efforts (Ukwuagu, 2014). Equally significant are urban-based women's groups, often affiliated with community development associations and mutual welfare organizations, which support and enhance the mobilization and awareness efforts of CWOs. These urban groups are typically better informed, enlightened, confident, and empowered, thus playing a crucial role in mobilizing and empowering CWOs (Ihayere et al., 2014).

Regional women's groups have been actively involved in responding comprehensively to neglect, environmental abuses, state repression, and harassment in their regions. Their activism and engagement have intensified, particularly in protesting against economic marginalization in the oil sector, corporate mismanagement, state abuses, behaviours of other groups, pervasive insecurity, and violence. Their efforts are aimed at achieving stronger voices, greater participation, empowerment, and creating a better and safer society and environment. In terms of their methods of engagement, women's groups have established a framework of peaceful advocacy, representation, mediation, and accommodation concerning their targets of struggle: multinational corporations (MNCs), governmental entities, and local actors such as community governance, leaderships, local elites, and youth groups.

The gender NGOs and women national associations such as the National Council for Women Societies (NCWS) have been active in the empowerment of women through training and the articulation of women conditions and interests (Austin-Lucas, 2021). The NCWS was involved in brokering peace between the Itsekiri and Ijaw women protesters who sealed up some oil flow stations in the Warri region of Delta state. Gender NGOs are also engaged in the defence of women rights and the advocacy of peace and negotiated but peaceful solutions to the conflicts between the region and the state and oil companies. Ikelegbe, A. (2005).

POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives have profound implications for enhancing women's participation in sustainable development. They empower women by granting access to resources and skills crucial for active engagement in sustainable projects, thereby promoting gender equality across education, healthcare, employment, and leadership opportunities (Uduji, et al., 2019). These activities also aim to foster community welfare, spur economic growth, and ensure environmental sustainability. CSR serves as a platform for advocating policies that advance women's rights and influence gender-inclusive practices. Through capacity-building initiatives, CSR equips women with the skills necessary to contribute effectively to sustainable development goals.

In the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, CSR initiatives like the General Memorandum of Understanding (GMoU) have both positive and negative impacts on women's participation in sustainable development. Women in this region rely on CSR initiatives such as GMoUs for policy dialogue and advocacy to improve their access to agricultural land and inputs. GMoUs' agricultural interventions hold promise in enhancing gender equality by empowering women and facilitating their involvement in sustainable development initiatives. However, concerns arise regarding GMoUs potentially undermining gender equality by failing to adequately address existing gaps in resource access and opportunities for women. Cultural norms also pose barriers, limiting women's direct participation in GMoUs' agricultural programs. Despite these challenges, MOCs have been actively involved in various CSR activities in the Niger Delta and other parts of Nigeria, ranging from agricultural development to healthcare, infrastructure, and education (Uduji and Okolo-Obasi, 2017). The introduction of GMoUs in 2006 marked a significant shift in MOCs' CSR strategy, emphasizing transparency, accountability, sustainable practices, and conflict prevention in community engagements (Alfred, 2013).

According to a study by Uduji et al. (2019), increasing CSR investments targeted at advocating for women farmers' access to land can significantly enhance productivity and inclusive growth in rural communities. Access to land remains a major challenge for rural women farmers, highlighting the potential impact of CSR interventions aimed at improving their land and resource access. Policy advocacy mechanisms, such as traditional joint-tithing methods, land leasing, land use certificates, and state-managed land reform programs, are crucial for advancing gender equality in land access policies. In conclusion, MOCs can play a pivotal role in enhancing gender equality through GMoUs by investing in agricultural projects and supporting inclusive practices. By improving local livelihoods and empowering communities, MOCs contribute to sustainable development and social progress in conflict-prone regions like the Niger Delta. Embracing a localized CSR approach should continue to guide MOCs' engagements in sub-Saharan Africa, promoting equitable development outcomes for women and communities alike.

CONCLUSION

Sustainable development hinges significantly on political will and governance quality, particularly in achieving gender parity. It requires harmonizing economic, environmental, and social goals, necessitating explicit integration of gender equality and women's rights across all policy levels. In the context of the Niger Delta, women's perceptions of development are shaped by environmental challenges such as oil-related pollution and socio-economic disparities. Women advocate for infrastructure improvements, environmental protection, and equitable resource management, engaging actively in public life to address these issues. The study highlights the adverse impacts of oil exploitation on women, including environmental degradation and socio-economic marginalization. There is a clarion call for inclusive development strategies that empower women through education, vocational training, and support networks, contrasting with violent approaches historically favoured by male counterparts. Ultimately, the government and oil companies are urged to adopt non-violent resolutions to crises, recognizing that sustainable development in the Niger Delta depends on empowering and protecting women's rights and contributions.

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Chapter Twenty-Two**Water Resources: Need For Sustainability in Nigeria*****Victor U. Nkemdirim****Department of Geography/Planning Abia State University, Uturu, Nigeria**EMAIL: princevic09@yahoo.com***ABSTRACT**

Water is the most helpful servant of mankind, and consequently the most important resource of society. This is because of its unique position among other natural resources because a country can survive in the absence of any other resources except water. The sustainability of water resources is a significant challenge for most countries, especially for those that are located in arid regions. Although, water is a renewable resource (as it constantly circulates in the biosphere through the hydrological cycle), its available quantity on Earth is fixed and finite. The distribution of water, however, maintains an almost perfect balance to sustain life on Earth. It is important to note that our water demand is constantly increasing due to the increasing population and adoption of modern lifestyles, whereas, the availability of water remains the same. Due to this continuously increasing demand, water is bound to become scarce in future, even if sufficient water is available today. Hence, to ensure that this great resource (i.e. water) of humanity continues to fulfil our demands for the present and future generations, it is essential to maintain, protect, conserve, and use it very judiciously. This paper argues that water resource sustainability can be achieved through the proper and efficient application of sound water management practices.

KEYWORDS: Water resources; Sustainability; Water demand; Water availability

INTRODUCTION

Water has a unique position among other natural resources, like fuels, forests, etc. because a country can survive in the absence of any other resources, except water. Therefore, water is the most important resource of a country, and of the entire society as a whole, since no life is possible without water. Water is the only resource that does not have a substitute. Without any exaggeration, water can, therefore, be called the most helpful servant of mankind, and consequently the most important resource of society. The world is approaching the end of a period in which resources were cheap, readily available, and lavishly used. Over the centuries, the earth has been viewed as an almost inexhaustible storehouse of resources for humans to exploit. Now there is a growing realization that resources can be depleted and that the air, water and soil – also resources – cannot absorb massive amounts of pollutants and yet retain their life-supporting abilities. That realization was reflected in June 1992, at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, when the world's governments agreed to form the UN Commission on Sustainable Development. Since that time, many countries have launched efforts to chart a path towards sustainable development, including Nigeria. An environmentally sustainable economy satisfies current needs without jeopardizing the prospects of future generations. Therefore, sustainable water management means using water in a way that meets current, ecological, social, and economic needs without compromising the ability to meet those needs in the future. Nations, the world over, strive for studious planning, development and management of resources to meet the basic needs of people, over time, to live and maintain a life which is decent, healthy and respectable.

Nigeria is a West African country bordered by Cameroon, Niger Republic, Chad and the Atlantic Ocean. Its major drainage (fig. 1: hydrological map of Nigeria), the Niger River flows through the Niger Republic and discharges through the deltas and into the Atlantic Ocean. Lake Chad, another major surface water body for Nigeria, is principally shared with the Chad Republic. The River Niger, River Benue and the Lake Chad water bodies are dominant in the hydrology of Nigeria. From the foregoing, it is clear that Nigeria has abundant water resources although they are unevenly distributed over the country. However, with the evident increase in human population estimated at over 200 million, and the

ever-increasing rates of economic growth, the demand on water is rapidly increasing and approaching the capacity of the natural water cycle to replenish this vital resource. The concept of sustainable water resources and efficient water resource management in Nigeria has become necessary.

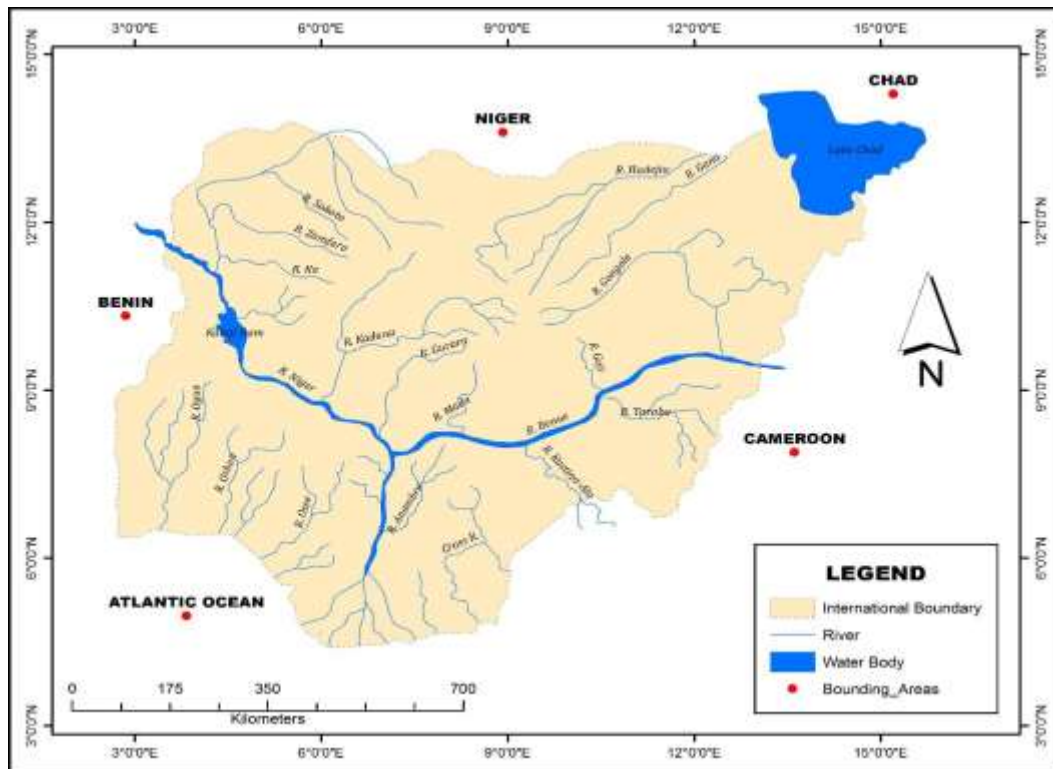


Fig. 1. Hydrological map of Nigeria. (Source: Onuh & Bassey, 2021).

Problem Statement

Despite having abundant water resources, water availability in Nigeria is facing serious challenges due to enormous population increase and economic development. Water supply in Nigeria is a political issue that features a “free water supply” that is conspicuous in the manifestoes of all political parties. In various communities, such non-functional water projects abound. Usually, water projects are tied to political water supply project slogans such as “national borehole programme”, “small town water supply and sanitation programme”, “national water supply rehabilitation programme”, “constituency water supply projects”, “rural access to water and sanitation”, etc. In most cases, quality control and assurances were downplayed with emphasis on number of communities covered rather than system efficiency. Schemes of sustainability involving ownership, operation and maintenance structure are not seriously addressed in planning, consequently, project benefits are short-lived.

The dearth in water management and supply systems in Nigeria has led to many citizens resorting to self-help and exploiting the underground water resources in an unstructured, uncoordinated, and unsustainable manner (Akpore & Muchie, 2011). The challenges of water resource management in Nigeria have been severally blamed on the paucity of data (Adeaga et al, 2006), a deficit of implementation of the integrated water management system (Adeoti, 2014), lack of funds, manpower shortage, use of political party loyalists who are not skilled in the positions they occupy, etc. (Nkemdirim et al, 2017 & 2018).

Successive governments have been pursuing with vigour aggressive water supply programmes and donor agencies such as (UNICEF, EU and World Bank) have also been making their impacts in the sector through expansion of water supply infrastructures that have brought extensive capacity building on participatory project management in the water sector. Despite numerous attempts of succeeding governments to harness the vast surface and underground water resources available to Nigeria, the

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

country still falls short, significantly in meeting its water needs for the socioeconomic development of the country.

To achieve success in the water supply sector, both the politicians and officials of the Federal and State Ministries of Water Resources have to come to terms with the implementations of water demand management strategies to raise the coverage level of water supply and sanitation for the sustainability of water resources and the environment, as well as economic efficiency and social development towards achieving the goal six of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) aims to fulfil all water needs by 2030.

NECESSITY FOR SUSTAINABILITY OF WATER RESOURCES

This paper has earlier pointed out that the available quantity of water on Earth is fixed and finite, and that the hydrosphere occupies over 70% of the earth's surface. If the hydrosphere occupies over 70% of the earth's surface, then, the earth is a watery planet. The question now is, if the earth is a watery planet, why do we worry about water since it is plentiful and suffers from acute water supply shortages in almost all parts of the world?

The answer to the above question lies partly in the way the water bodies of the earth are spatially distributed. About 97.3% of the water of the world is found in the seas and oceans which are saline or salty and not good for man to drink. Out of the balance of about 2.7% of fresh water, about 2.03% of the water is locked up in ice caps and glaciers (in Polar Regions) which are frozen and too far for man to reach. Of the remaining 0.67%, about 0.61% is trapped in the underground reservoir which cannot be easily tapped. What remains for man to fulfil his numerous domestic and non-domestic activities is about 40% of the total groundwater (i.e. the groundwater stored in upper exploitable depths of up to about 800 m), and the surface water of lakes and rivers (which constitute hardly 0.01% of the total water).

It can, therefore, be easily understood that the surface water, which can readily be utilized by society, is generally very small (less than 1%) and this does not change or increase with everyday increasing population of the world. This is where the water problem of man starts. Coupled with this is that this less than 1% also faces environmental pollution thereby limiting the already scarce potable water available to man.

Finally, it becomes imperative for water resource sustainability due to the increasing population and adoption of modern lifestyles; whereas, the availability of water remains the same. Due to this continuously increasing demand, water is bound to become scarce in future, even if sufficient water is available today. Hence, to ensure that this great resource of humanity continues to fulfil our demands for all times to come, it is essential to conserve, sustain and use it efficiently.

HISTORICAL REVIEW OF WATER RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

Before the period of independence, all the efforts towards water resources planning and development were directed towards urban supply to meet the requirements of the colonialists. In 1964, the Federal Government established a corporate body with full responsibility to handle the water supply. The objectives of the corporation include: controlling and managing all water works under the provision of the law establishing the corporation; establishing, controlling, managing, expanding and developing the existing ones as the corporation may consider necessary for providing water to meet the requirements of the general public, agriculture and industry in various parts of the country; and to ensure that water is supplied to the consumers thereof at reasonable charges and in potable quality and quantity.

Unfortunately, the corporation could not use its monopolistic status to change the economic rates for water because the government declared potable water supply a social amenity. Water resources planning and development proceeded for a long time without any real coordination. The first attempt at integrated planning and development of water resources was during the 1962-1968 planning period through the establishment of the River Niger and Lake Chad Basin Commissions. The commissions were then

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

mandated to produce hydrological maps of the country's water resources, use the map to fashion out a comprehensive development of agriculture, fisheries, animal husbandry, inland water transportation (particularly River Niger), sporting and use of water for industries and other domestic activities. In the 1970-1974 plan periods, the Kainji Lake Development Commission, and the Sokoto-Rima and Chad Basin Authorities were established.

It was during the 1975-1980 development plan period, however, that a bold step was taken to replace the piecemeal approach with the nationwide, comprehensive multipurpose planned development of water resources. In 1975, the Federal Ministry of Water Resources was created with a department of water resources, as its technical arm to coordinate water resources development in Nigeria. This followed the creation of 11 River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs) in 1976. The RBDAs were charged with the responsibility of a comprehensive water resources (surface and groundwater) development of Nigeria for multipurpose uses. In 1984, the RBDAs were increased to 18 and renamed River Basin and Rural Development Authorities (RBRDAs) with similar functions to the RBDAs. With the change of the military administration in 1985, the number (18) was scaled down to 11 and retained the name RBDA, and its function was limited to purely water resources development.

Other Agencies were also created both at the Federal and State levels to take charge of specific water resources activities. The Nigerian Dam Authority was created for hydroelectric power generation as Kainji Federal Inland Waterways Division (of the Federal Ministry of Transport) for data collection and development of the Niger and Benue River systems for water transportation. The water Boards/Corporations/Utilities were established at the regional (and later State) level to take care of water supply to the people, particularly in the urban and semi-urban areas.

In recent times, too, some other Agencies have been established to support existing ones to increase water resources development, particularly in the rural areas. The Agencies include the Directorate of Food, Roads, and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI); Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs) which have water supply components in their functions; and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO); United Nations Development Projects (UNDPs) and the United Nations International Children's Education Fund (UNICEF) (Handidu, 1990).

Access to water generally for all economic use and clean drinking water is still a prevailing challenge across Nigeria. The Nigerian state has largely failed in its responsibility of providing potable water to the population, leaving about 2/3 or close to 70% of the population to resort to self-help and exploiting the underground water resources in an unstructured, uncoordinated, and unsustainable manner in addressing their water needs (Akpore & Muchie, 2011). The situation is worse in the Northern part of the country where about 30% or less of the population have access to their daily water needs (Owoseye, 2018; USAID, 2019).

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND SUSTAINABLE WATER RESOURCES

The term sustainable development was initiated by the World Commission on Environment and Development (The Brundtland Commission) in 1987. Sustainable development is "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (United Nations General Assembly, 1987, p. 43). As the world continues to explore economic prosperity, sustainable development goals seek to mainstream the environmental interest of future generations in the economic activities of the present generation. Sustainable development debates have largely centred around the effect of economic activities and industrialization on the environment (Polasky et al, 2019; Bartniczak & Raszkowski, 2018). Goal six of the United Nations 2030 agenda for sustainable development, aims at ensuring the availability and sustainability of water and sanitation for all.

The concept of sustainable water resources has been developed to address this clear conflict between the limited natural supply of water and the demand for water by human society that is increasing without limits. Water is at the core of sustainable development and is critical for socio-economic development, healthy ecosystems and human survival itself. It is vital for reducing the global burden of disease and

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

improving the health, welfare and productivity of populations. Sustainable water management means using water in a way that meets current, ecological, social, and economic needs without compromising the ability to meet those needs in the future.

The sustainability of any water resource is largely a function of how we manage it. Water management practices that utilize the water stored in any reservoir without considering the corresponding rate of replenishment are not sustainable. Sound management practices should seek to maintain the quality and availability of the water resource indefinitely. This represents the only pathway towards sustainability. Any other pathway would result in compromising the quality and/or availability of water for future generations.

Scholars like Sharma et al, (1996), Biswas (1991), Kundzewicz (1997), and Mwanza (2003), have variously explored issues of water management and security for sustainable development. The significance of water resources in developing countries, more so in sub-Saharan Africa cannot be overstated. The depletion of water bases like rivers and lakes calls for efficient management and exploitation of the resource. Thus, Kundzewicz (1997) held that sustainable development requires an integrated multi-sector approach which should incorporate hydrological and non-hydrological components such as the environment, base of the economy, and character of socio-cultural and institutional subsystems. He argued that water resource management is fundamental to actualizing the goals of sustainable development.

Mwanza (2003) noted that the Transboundary nature of water basins, variability of climate and rainfall, water scarcity, water pollution, environmental degradation and increasing demand are some of the features necessitating efficient water resources management in Africa. The role of water in sustainable development policies is fundamental. Thus, the water security issue is a global one that affects all, requiring an interconnected response framework that should be global in design, embodying within it, a variety of national and regional responses (Biswas, 1991). The response must, as he observed, pay attention to increased investment, technology, diffusion of expertise and increased international cooperation.

The water resource management system in Nigeria is multi-layered with a central authority for the management of water resources residual in the Ministry of Water Resources, a water resource ministry at the state level, while the local governments are responsible for distributing water to rural areas (Ezeabasili, 2014). Summarily, in Nigeria, Sustainable Water Resources and development cannot be achieved without fundamental changes in basic thinking, ethical values, moral concepts religious beliefs and planning. The dilemma is that most of the state's fundamental planning projects are in indirect conflict with the future anticipated development. Every planning and development problem starts with man and his ability to think. All values and all planning concepts are derived from man.

Management Framework for Sustainable Water Resources

Though water is considered to be the most important element for survival, unfortunately, its scarcity is becoming an alarming problem in Nigeria as well as at the global level. The current situation of water is gruesome and it will pose a new threat in the near future when millions of people will not be able to access a single drop of water. It becomes our duty to preserve water both for now and for the coming generations too. Realising the importance and scarcity attached to the freshwater, it has to be treated as an essential environment for sustaining all life forms. Efforts should be made to develop, conserve, utilize, and sustainably manage this important resource. Some of the ways through which water resources could be sustained include;

a. Integration of a PPP (Public-Private Partnership) model that allows investors to Build, Operate and Transfer (BOT) and also allows for Build, Own and Operate (BOO) into the water resource development regulatory framework. This comprehensive strategy has evidently helped Israel achieve water security in their drive for sustainable development. In spite of the enormous water resource of Nigeria, the problem of water security still persists.

b. Pricing/Prepaid Water Meters: The cultivators and households are paying a mere pittance for consuming water. The revenue received is too small, and is not even sufficient for meeting the RMO (Running, Maintenance and Operation) costs. The reason everyone wastes water in Nigeria is that none of us has a real idea of water's economic cost. It can, hence, be concluded, that water rates for irrigation as well as for domestic and industrial supplies in Nigeria need a much higher upward revision, as to make people understand the real cost of water, and to encourage them to save and avoid wastage of this precious and finite resource. It is important to note that, because over 90% of supplies are currently not metered, people develop very poor attitude to the use of water, and tend to waste more with no conservational attitude. Prepaid water meters should be a precondition for prequalification for water service to consumers and punitive measures should be in place to deal with illegal water connections and vandalization of water installations.

c. Reduce, Reuse and Recycle to conserve water

We can **reduce** water wastage by using it wisely through the adoption of the three R's (reduce, reuse and recycle) for the well-being of our planet and our future generations. It is important to note that, every single drop of water is very important and every drop of water counts. Taps should be turned off while brushing teeth or washing hands. Outdoor plants should be watered early in the morning. Instead of letting the used water go down the drains, we can **reuse** wastewater for mopping, car washing, irrigation of plants and other household activities. This will decrease the pressure on freshwater required for these activities. **Recycling** of water is another way of conserving treated municipal water. Here, the sullage from the bathrooms of houses is collected, and after very small treatment, is used for supplying to the toilets for flushing cisterns, to save large amounts of treated municipal supplies. The partially or fully treated sewage effluents can also be used to water the lawns and plants in houses. These methods will largely help in controlling the pollution of our precious rivers, as the flow of sewage into the rivers will be reduced. Industries can also purify their effluents and recycle it, thereby reducing their requirement for freshwater, and reducing the pollution load on rivers.

d. Promoting Rainwater Harvesting: This is another method to increase the availability of water, both for recharging the groundwater as well as to collect the rainwater in underground tanks to combat drought situations. Rainwater harvesting also helps in reducing the fury of floods, as the runoff gets reduced to its storage in underground reservoirs or in a man-made domestic tank. Farms and gardens can be irrigated with this water. Besides, it can also be used for other household activities. It may, however, be stated that rainwater harvesting may provide some relief at local levels only, and has limited potential, as it can supplement surface storage but not become a substitute for them.

e. Creation of Water Conservation Consciousness: Water wastage is a serious issue and water is everybody's business. Let children learn the first lessons of water conservation in the family itself. Teachers can create awareness in schools about the pressing need for water conservation. There is also a need to create awareness among our farmers, urbanites, and the public at large, for affecting the economy by using scarce and precious water sources. This is important because ordinary Nigerians think that water is the cheapest and easiest available commodity, which is absolutely an incorrect notion in today's world.

f. Government Policy/Regulation: Water should not be regarded as a social service. The government should demonstrate as a matter of urgency the political will to declassify water supply as a "free service" in their political manifestoes but as a "user pay service". The government should also help to save fresh water and prevent water pollution by measuring water use and setting targets to reduce its wastage. By obliging large companies to measure and manage the amount of warm water resources and making laws to increase water recycling. The government should give top priority attention to water supply schemes and rehabilitation projects during the allocation of funds in the national plan and budgets through the Ministry of Public Utilities.

g. End-use efficiency: This means doing more in economic terms with less water. Water-saving strategies/appliances and the use of smart technologies (low-flow showers, low-flush toilets, and aerated faucets) can be adopted in all economic sectors to achieve end-use efficiency. Efficient piping systems

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that are leak-free and well-insulated provide a reliable network and help to limit water waste. Using more efficient irrigation techniques, such as drip irrigation rather than using sprinklers, leads to greater rates of evaporation.

h. River Basin Management: Water does not stop at administrative or political boundaries. So the best way to protect and manage water is by close international cooperation between all the countries within the natural geographical and hydrological unit of the river basin – bringing together all interests upstream and downstream. In Nigeria, very few river basins are managed in principle and this is the main cause of river pollution. To the people, the river is free gift of nature and therefore nature takes care of its maintenance. Of course, you do not blame these people because they have been using the river basins for their economic activities undisturbed since their lifetime. Even the establishment of the Federal Environmental Protection Agency (FEPA) in Nigeria has not solved the problem. There could be efficient river basin management in Nigeria if we are committed and ready to work. Recognition of drainage basin as the basic unit of planning for the development of water resources and call for appropriate measures to optimise utilization of this source not only for the benefit of the people living in the basin but also for transfer of surplus water to meet the requirements of areas which have shortage of water.

CONCLUSION

Though Nigeria is naturally endowed with enormous water resources, most of its citizens and its national economy have been suffering from thirst and water deficiency. Despite the numerous policies, and legal and institutional regimes evolved by the government for the management of water resources to satisfy national water needs, the deficiency persists. This is probably the case because satisfying water needs appears to be one of the least priorities of the government as the aspirations are not duly pursued with purposeful systematic funding and implementation. Thus far, many communities do not have access to water fit for consumption and all issues relating to this reality are largely the failure of government and economic conditions of the people. Therefore, there is an urgent need to conserve water as well as to protect our water resources from pollution. This can be achieved by adopting sound management practices as already discussed, coupled with fundamental changes in basic thinking, ethical values, moral concepts religious beliefs and planning.

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Chapter Twenty-Three**Evaluation of Plastic Waste Disposal in Water Bodies and Awareness of the Effects on Marine Lives in Owerri Municipal***Njoku F. I.¹; Ogbuji S. I.²; Njoku F. C.¹*¹*Federal College of Land Resources Technology Owerri, Imo State.*²*Imo State University Owerri, Imo State, Nigeria.*EMAIL: sogbujiic@yahoo.com**ABSTRACT**

The study investigated the disposal of plastics in water bodies and awareness of the effects on marine lives by the residents of Owerri Municipal. A descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. The sampled population comprised 300 residents of Owerri Municipal randomly selected. The sample size was calculated using Taro Yemen Formulae. The research questions were analyzed using mean and grand mean in a four-point Likert scale. The findings of the study revealed that open dumping is the main means of plastic waste disposal in the area. Lack of proper waste management infrastructure, indiscipline, and Cultural practices are among the reasons for disposing of plastics in water bodies. The study also showed that the residents are aware of the effects of plastic waste disposal in water bodies on marine lives such as entanglement of aquatic animals, toxicity, aiding the transport of invasive species, formation of microplastics and ingestion of plastics by aquatic animals. The study recommends the Practice of sustainable living by adopting eco-friendly habits and lifestyle choices that can reduce overall environmental impact, through public enlightenment on the dangers of plastic waste disposal into water bodies and by reducing waste generation.

KEYWORDS: Plastic waste; awareness; Water bodies; Owerri; Marine

INTRODUCTION**Background to the Study**

It was widely acknowledged that the 1907 invention of plastic represented a significant global advancement. Products made of plastic soon proliferated throughout our daily existence. We were largely unaware of the detrimental effects of plastic on human health, biomagnification, the environment, and the climate for a long time, and we only saw its advantages. In general, plastics are problematic because they are not biodegradable; the raw materials used to make plastics include hydrocarbon molecules that are obtained from the processing of natural gas and oil. The disposal of used plastics can be difficult. Plastic's low cost and versatility, which are essential for people's daily lives, have led to an increase in global production. As of 2017, global plastic production was estimated to be 348 million metric tons, growing at a rate of about 90% per year (Verla et al., 2019). They are typically made inexpensively, used just once, and then discarded as litter. Plastics' durability and lightweight lead to the accumulation of litter in landfills and the movement from source areas to water bodies. Plastics have ingrained themselves into our daily lives, and society has benefited greatly from their extensive use in a variety of applications. The annual consumption of plastics has been increasing gradually (Kumar, 2017). Plastics are a material that can be transparent, strong, lightweight, and versatile, which makes them ideal for a wide range of applications. These qualities are what drive the growth in plastic use. They also make excellent packaging materials because of their low cost, good oxygen and moisture barrier qualities, bio-inertness, and light weight. In addition to their widespread use in packaging, automobiles, and other industries, they are also widely used in water desalination, bacterial removal, medical delivery systems, and artificial implants, among other healthcare applications (Ayo, 2016). The electronics and communication industries have relied heavily on specially designed plastics, particularly in the production of chips and compartments, including batteries and fuel cells, the two forms of alternative energy (Babayemi et al., 2018). In the meantime, it appears that emerging economies will continue to produce and use more plastic, so waste management infrastructure will need to grow in step with this trend (Uwaegbulam et al., 2018). Unfortunately, plastic's cost-

effectiveness, durability, and light weight are also factors that make it difficult to dispose of. Plastics (Hopewell, 2009).

This zone of great productivity, marine and waterbodies are home to a variety of subsystems, including sea grasses, plastic wastes, aquatic animals and coral reefs. The ecosystem is intricate and boasts a diverse range of organisms, from highly evolved creatures like dolphins to more primitive species like horseshoe crabs. Due to their interdependence with the terrestrial environment, aquatic ecosystems are impacted by changes in other systems. Numerous factors, such as human activity, have put stress on the marine and coastal ecosystems for decades (Adams, 2005; Richmond, 2015). The physical degradation of the environment by plastic wastes and pollution are two of these stresses. One of the major threats that humans have created to marine and coastal systems is the accumulation of plastic litter (Nualphan, 2013). This is because plastics have certain unique properties, such as the ability to be readily transported by wind and water currents and due to their long shelf lives, plastic litter is persistent in water bodies. As a result of improper waste disposal, there is over 260,000 tons of plastic debris floating on the ocean's surface (Eriksen, 2014). Whether in developed or developing nations, plastic pollution is currently a major concern for the entire water bodies and marine lives. It is against the backdrop that the researcher seeks to research on disposal of plastics wastes in water bodies and awareness of the effects on marine lives.

Statement of Problem

Every city in Nigeria, including Owerri Municipal, is struggling with plastic waste management issues. The Owerri Municipal Council in the year 2000 approved the available space along the Otamiri Riverbank site as the official dumpsite for the majority of the municipality's solid waste. As a result, plastic waste has been dumped at this location for more than twenty years, covering an area of approximately 11 hectares, standing 6 meters tall and not compacted or capped. Nearly 30 tons of mixed waste are dumped here every day. Plastics and organic materials are among the waste components. During winds and rains, the majority of these materials are washed into the river due to improper disposal of the waste. Improper disposal of plastic waste can lead to the destruction of aquatic life and ecosystems. Hence it becomes imperative to evaluate how the residents manage their waste, especially plastics and ascertain their level of awareness on the effects of plastic waste on marine lives to ameliorate the disposal into water bodies and the negative impacts.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK /LITERATURE REVIEW

Systems Theory

From the 1940s to the 1970s, Ludwig von Bertalanffy, William Ross Ashby, and others pioneered systems theory. This theory was promoted as one that can be used to improve environmental management. Systems theory provides a comprehensive framework for studying a phenomenon. Life The theory emphasizes taking a holistic approach to a system, ensuring that all components work together to function efficiently. Complementarities of efforts, approaches, and actions are considered to achieve specific goals. It also recognizes the feedback principle. The systems theory is relevant to the environment and has implications for plastic waste management because it extends the participation theory's advocacy for stakeholder involvement in environmental sanitation management. Overall, these theories can serve as a solid foundation for stakeholders to effectively manage plastic waste.

Concept of Plastics

Synthetic organic materials created through polymerization are known as plastics. When pressure or heat is applied, it readily moulds. They can be moulded or extruded into the desired shapes and have a high molecular mass.

There are two types of plastics: thermosets and thermoplastics. Thermoplastics are molten materials that soften when heated, can be molded or shaped under pressure, and solidify when cooled to maintain their shape. Solids that cannot melt are known as thermosets. They break down when heated (Majka & Pielichowski, 2011). Plastics have a life cycle that starts with the extraction of ethylene from natural gas or crude oil and ends with its disposal as waste after use. In order to increase performance and/or lower cost, a variety of materials are added to polymers during the production process (Ikpe, 2017). According to Ayo (2016), there are five main types of plastics namely, polyethylene (PE), polyethylene terephthalate (PET), polypropylene (PP), polystyrene (PS), and polyvinyl chloride (PVC).

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Plastic has become indispensable in modern society, serving a wide range of commercial, industrial, medical, and municipal purposes. It is one of the materials that is used the most in the world. Plastic has evolved over the past 60 years into a practical, adaptable material with a variety of uses. Every year, more than 300 million new plastics are used. Typically, half of these are used for less than 12 minutes and only once (Eriksen, 2014). Every year, eight million tons of plastic debris find their way into the ocean. There are so many plastic particles entering the water bodies that in some locations they outnumber plankton by a ratio of 26:1. (Isangedighi, & Samuel, 2012). The 8 million pieces of plastic debris that enter the environment every day were drastically underestimated in a UNEP report. It is important to remember that none of these estimates are endorsed by any specific source, so caution should be applied when interpreting them. Given the diversity and size of the world's water bodies, estimating the average amount of plastic waste in them is a challenging task. Approximately 49% of all plastics that are produced have the property of buoyancy, which allows them to float and follow ocean currents to any location on Earth. From 1.5 million tons per year in the 1950s to roughly 280 million tons in 2011, there has been a significant annual increase in plastic production (Isangedighi & Samuel, 2012).

Table 1: Types of Plastics and Their Common Use

Polymer type	Examples
Polyethylene Terephthalate	Fizzy drink and water bottles; Salad trays
High Density Polyethylene	Milk bottles, bleach, cleaners and most shampoo bottles
Polyvinyl Chloride	Pipes, fittings, window and door frames (rigid PVC); thermal insulation (PVC foam) and automotive parts
Low-Density Polyethylene	Carrier bags, bin liners and packaging films
Polypropylene	Margarine tubs, and microwaveable meal trays, also produced as fibres and filaments for carpets, wall coverings and vehicle upholstery
Polystyrene	Yoghurt pots, foam hamburger boxes and egg cartons, plastic cutlery, protective packaging for electronic goods and toys. Insulating material in the building and construction industry.
Unallocated References	Polycarbonate which is often used in glazing for the aircraft industry

Source: Adapted and modified from Koushal, 2014.

An analysis of European Plastic Production in 2014 predicts that by 2020, annual plastic production will reach 400 million tons. Polyethylene (PE), Polyethylene Terephthalate (PET), and Polypropylene (PP) are the most widely used plastics (Koushal, 2014). Large amounts of plastic items have been released into the environment and have ended up in the world's water bodies due to frequent inappropriate waste management practices or irresponsible human behaviour. This process is still going on and is getting worse in some areas. Even though plastics are found far inland, rivers and streams eventually carry them into the sea or ocean. Plastics get released into the environment as a result of poor waste management practices, or inappropriate human behaviour. Municipal plastic waste (such as sachet water film bags), commercial plastic waste (such as packaging materials), industrial plastic waste (such as polyethene film wrapping, auto spare parts, PVC pipes and fittings, etc.), and plastic waste from ships are some of the sources of plastic waste that enter the aquatic ecosystem (Ampofo, 2017).

Plastics can seriously disrupt ecosystems because of their toxins and nearly indestructible morphology. Major oceanic gyres are home to the largest concentration of plastic debris. Presently, the North Pacific Ocean's plastic debris patch spans an area equivalent to that of France and Spain due to the rotation of vortex centres where it accumulates (Isangedighi, & Samuel, 2018). Since humans are at the top of the food chain, this debris affects all marine life, including us. The use of plastics has increased dramatically over the past few decades and there is evidence that the methods currently used for their production, use, transportation, and disposal harm marine life and are not sustainable.

Plastic Wastes Effects on the Environment

Plastic waste is an international issue with some regional variations. Plastic waste negatively affects both terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems. The effects of unethical disposal techniques worsen when chemicals are released into the environment by burning or leachates from landfills escaping. Fish that

consume plastic also develop internal ulcers, have disturbances in their digestive systems, and have their buoyancy controlled (Verme, 2016). For the Earth's natural life support systems to continue, the aquatic environment must remain intact. The majority of the oxygen we breathe comes from them, which is why they are known as the planet's lungs. They also play a significant role in the global economy by giving millions of people a source of food and income and supporting local communities all over the world. Nevertheless, the amount of waste produced worldwide keeps rising faster than efforts to lessen its negative effects on the water bodies (Blettler et al., 2020). According to Hanafi (2018), one million plastic bottles are discarded worldwide every minute, and five trillion plastic bags are produced annually; roughly ten million each minute. Additionally, according to Darshan and Gururaja (2013), at least eight million tons of plastic are thought to end up in the marine environment annually. The empirical prediction that there will be more plastic in the ocean than fish by 2050 foreshadows grave risks and demands immediate action to combat the problem.

In a statement released by African Development Bank, over 100,000 marine animals are killed by plastics and 83 percent of tap water is found to contain plastic particles (Hanafi, 2018). Nigeria's coastal regions are particularly vulnerable to plastic pollution. Given their strong resistance to natural degradation processes, plastic fragments can linger in the aquatic environment for decades or even centuries. Marine species, such as fish, mussels, crustaceans, seabirds, and marine mammals, are suffocating and becoming entangled in plastic waste, which is the most obvious and concerning effect of marine plastic pollution (Blettler, 2020). Ingestion by accident can also be fatal, hence this is cause for concern. Due to the abrasive or cutting action of the litter, entanglement can result in lacerations and infections (Ugwuegbulam, 2018). Additionally, it hinders the animals' ability to swim, find food, and flee from predators. Hence most victims go undetected as they sink, are consumed by predators, or are carried great distances. The impact of entanglement is greatly underestimated, changing biodiversity and the balance of natural ecosystems. Venon and Oliver (2014), argued that birds and marine animals confuse plastic waste particles for possible prey items and favour particular plastic shapes and colours, which reduces their actual food intake and can result in fatal injuries or death due to intestinal tract blockage. Since pollution has led to the predominance of toxic metals in the food chain, the ingestion of plastic debris is also of concern to small invertebrate organisms and may have health effects on humans who eat seafood. When floating plastics spend a long time in contaminated saltwater, their surfaces may accumulate harmful pollutants, acting as a conduit for these pollutants to enter marine organisms and accumulate there. A concerted effort from all facets of society, including manufacturers, tourists, government authorities and all other users of water bodies, is needed to tackle the problem of reducing plastic pollution in the marine environment, even in addition to the valiant efforts of volunteer beach clean-up organizers.

Our oceans and marine life are currently facing serious problems due to microplastics. These tiny plastic particles, which are less than 5 mm long, are found in everything from industrial processes to cosmetic products. At an alarming rate, they are finding their way into our water bodies. A 2050 study by the Ellen MacArthur Foundation predicts that by weight, there will be more plastic in the ocean than fish. This is a dire forecast that emphasizes how quickly the problem of microplastics needs to be addressed. Single-use plastic products like straws, bags, and bottles are among the main sources of microplastics in the ocean. These products are frequently thrown away after being used for a short while and wind up in the ocean. When plastic enters the ocean, it disintegrates into smaller particles known as microplastics, which life-marine lives may consume (Ampofo, 2017). The effects of these microplastics on marine life may be catastrophic. Many marine species, such as fish, birds, and turtles, may confuse them for food and consume them. They may starve to death if the plastic gets stuck in their stomachs. Furthermore, harmful substances that microplastics absorb have the potential to be ingested by marine life and cause a variety of health issues. Microplastics are a problem that affects more than just marine life.

Effects of Plastic Waste on the Aquatic Ecosystem's Biota

When introduced into the environment, plastics can kill aquatic life due to their very undesirable properties. The main reasons why plastic pollution affects so many species are when animals get tangled in plastic nets or swallow plastic items when they mistake plastic waste for food. Another issue with

plastic pollution is that it makes it easier for species to spread to other areas. When alien species enter a new ecosystem through floating debris, they alter the species balance or possibly drive out native species. When consumed, plastics can also release toxins into the environment or living things (Isangedighi & Samuel, 2018). A technical report analyzing the effects of marine debris on biodiversity found that 11% of all reported encounters with microplastics and over 80% of reported incidents involving organisms and marine debris involved plastic. Despite its buoyant nature, plastic can sink to the ocean floor due to certain oceanic fronts, rapid and intense fouling, or "bottom-hugging" currents. (Brown, 2020). He further stated that sediment might keep plastic on the seafloor and probable that plastic will alter the ecosystem's functioning once it reaches the seafloor. According to Goldberg (2019), the plastic sheets might function as a blanket, preventing gas exchange and resulting in hypoxia or anoxia, or low oxygen levels. Additionally, plastic waste could produce artificial hard grounds and cause issues, particularly for creatures that burrow (Ofonmbuk, 2012). The effects of plastic pollution on aquatic ecosystems are still largely poorly understood. Nonetheless, the detrimental effects they have on the marine biota are becoming more widely known. The number of plastics polluting the marine environment is rising along with the use of plastics (Nualphan, 2013). Plastic waste can harm the marine industry in addition to its effects on the environment and life (entangling propellers and blocking cooling systems).

Effects on Marine and Coastal Birds

When diving for food, many birds in the marine environment come into contact with plastic waste. Seabird entanglement is primarily caused by fishing lines and six-pack rings. Both substances are frequently translucent and obscure. They can be mistaken for jellyfish and other food if they are visible (Venon & Oliver, 2014). One species of marine bird that is at risk from plastic waste is the gannet. The gannet, a "plunge-diver," plunges into the ocean from great heights, where it may be ensnared by ghost nets or other debris. A study conducted at the German island of Helgoland, home to a sizable gannet colony, revealed that between 1976 and 1985, 29% of the dead gannets discovered had entangled themselves in broken nets (Venon & Oliver, 2020). A significant percentage of marine and coastal bird species: 36 percent of the 312 species globally consume plastic debris (Brown, 2020). Up to 80% of a population may be impacted by the ingested debris in 111 out of 312 species of seabirds. Furthermore, it is also known that the chicks pick up plastic debris from their parents when they regurgitate food.

One negative consequence of birds consuming plastic is that they lose weight because, among other things, they don't put on enough fat reserves for migration and reproduction and have a false sense of sated appetite. Plastics are primarily swallowed by birds because they confuse them for food, but they can also be found in the stomach of their prey or transferred from adult to chick through regurgitation feeding (Brown, 2020).

METHODOLOGY

The Study Area

The study was conducted in Owerri Municipal which lies within latitude 5°25' and 5°23' N and longitude 5°21' and 7°25' E. It is one of the 27 local governments that make up Imo State as well as the state capital. It is bounded to the North by Amakohia, Nekede to the south and Irete to the west. The area has a radius of about 8km and a land area of about 58 km². The study applied a descriptive cross-sectional research design in some selected residential areas in Owerri Municipal. The study population comprised residents of Owerri Municipal. One-stage sampling method which involves balloting was used in randomly selecting 10 residential units in the study area. Information on plastic waste management and awareness of the effects on marine life were obtained from the residents of the selected units using a semi-structured, self-administered questionnaire. Physical observation of the waste and the dumpsite in the area was done using an observation checklist. The data collected were analyzed using frequency counts of the responses to generate descriptive information and to illustrate the general trend of findings on the various variables that were under investigation. This involved the use of percentages, tables and mean scores for each cluster of the items. Based on the average of the four-point Likert scale, the mean score of 2.50 benchmark was used to answer the research questions of the study and those items scoring a mean below 2.5 were rejected.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Research Question 1: How do you dispose of your plastic waste?

Table 2: Responses on the methods of plastic waste disposal in the study area.

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
By Open dumping	123	41%
Municipal waste collectors	102	34
By Burning	64	21
By Contractors	11	3.7

Source: Researcher's Fieldwork, 2024

Table two shows that majority of the people (41%) dispose of their plastic waste by open dumping, 34% through municipal waste collectors and in most cases, such wastes are not sorted while the least method is the use of waste contractors. This is in line with studies conducted by Durshan and Gururaja (2013) and Ayo (2016) asserted that means of waste disposal in developing countries include open dumping and through waste collectors.

Research Question 2: What is your reason for disposing of the plastics through such method?

Table 3: Mean response of reasons for disposing of plastic waste by the various methods.

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	D	SD	N	X	ΣFX	REMARK
1	Lack of proper waste management infrastructure	136	35	0	0	171	3.9	649	Agreed
2	Convenience	150	21	0	0	171	3.9	663	Agreed
3	Ignorance to effects of plastics	148	23	0	0	171	3.9	661	Agreed
4	Citizen's indiscipline	122	49	0	0	171	3.7	635	Agreed
5	Illegal dumping	127	44	0	40	171	3.7	640	Agreed
6	Cultural practices	108	60	0	3	171	3.7	615	Agreed
	Grand mean						3.8		Accepted

Source: Researcher's Fieldwork, 2024

Table 3 above shows that the respondents from items 1-6 all agreed that the listed factors (Lack of proper waste management infrastructure, Convenience, Ignorance, Citizen's indiscipline, Illegal dumping, Cultural practices) are the reasons for their methods of disposal above, with a mean of over 2.5 and with grand mean 3.8 which is above the mean cut off mark. Thus, stating that the listed variables are all reasons for disposing of plastic waste through the methods above. This collaborates with the study by Goldberg (2019), who identified the above as the reasons for indiscriminate waste disposal.

Research Question 3: Do you agree that plastic wastes that enter the water bodies can have the following effects on marine life?

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Table 4: Mean response on the effects of disposal of plastics into water bodies on marine lives.

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	D	SD	N	X	ΣFX	REMARK
1	Entanglement of Aquatic animals	115	56	0	0	171	3.7	628	Agreed
2	Toxicity	127	44	0	0	171	3.7	640	Agreed
3	Habitat destruction	162	28	8	2	200	3.8	750	Agreed
4	Transport of invasive species	148	23	0	0	171	3.9	661	Agreed
5	Micro-plastics	117	54	0	0	171	3.7	630	Agreed
6	Ingestion	98	70	3	0	171	3.5	608	Agreed
	Grand mean						3.7		Accepted

Source: Researcher's Fieldwork, 2024.

Table 4 above shows that the respondents with items 1-6 have the same view on the effects of plastic wastes on marine life and are above the cutoff mark and with a grand mean of 3.7 which is above the cut-off mark of 2.5. Thus, stating that the listed variables are all effects of disposal of plastics into water bodies on marine lives, hence the people are aware of the effects of plastic waste disposal in water bodies. Item no 4 with the highest mean score of 3.9 shows that, disposal of plastic waste into water bodies resolves in helping invasive species to attack smaller habitats.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study concluded that the majority of the residents of Owerri Municipal dispose of their plastic waste through open dumps and Municipal waste collectors. Most of them do this because of a lack of proper waste management infrastructure in the area and convenience among others. In terms of their awareness of the effects of plastic waste on marine life, the residents are fully aware of the effects of the waste on aquatic life and therefore cannot claim ignorance of the negative effects.

Based on the findings, the study made the following recommendations:

Based on the responses obtained, the research proffers the following recommendations:

- i) Reduction in plastic consumption by choosing reusable alternatives wherever possible: This may include using reusable water bottles, shopping bags, and containers, as well as avoiding products with excessive plastic packaging.
- ii) Disposing of plastics responsibly: Always place plastic waste in designated bins or recycling facilities. Avoid littering, particularly near water bodies, and take part in local cleanup efforts to remove existing plastic debris from the environment.
- iii) Support policies and initiatives: Advocate for policies and regulations that reduce plastic pollution, such as bans on single-use plastics, plastic bag fees, and extended producer responsibility (EPR) programs. Get involved in community initiatives and campaigns to combat plastic pollution.
- iv) Choose eco-friendly alternatives: Whenever possible, replace traditional plastics with biodegradable or compostable alternatives. Support companies and industries that prioritize sustainability and environmental responsibility in their operations and products.
- v) public enlightenment: Share information about how plastic pollution affects marine lives and ecosystems with your friends, family, and community. Raise awareness about the importance of responsible plastic use and proper disposal.

By taking these actions, plastic waste can be reduced in water bodies thereby mitigating the negative effects of plastic on marine life.

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Chapter Twenty-Four**Environmental Impact of Climate Change on Sustainable Development: Focus on Gender Vulnerability in Nigeria**

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ABSTRACT

Climate change has impacted some natural resources in the environment and has aggravated resource scarcity. This has affected the livelihood of so many women, especially in developing countries. The relationship between gender vulnerability and Climate Change is significant, as women are disproportionately affected and are primarily engaged in activities that interact with the environment, such as agriculture, fishing, searching for clean water for drinking and farm activities, etc. Therefore, it is important to critically review the impacts and recommend more mitigation strategies towards achieving sustainable development. Through a systematic review, this paper investigated Gender vulnerability in sustainable agriculture and food security, clean water, sustainable fisheries and forestry, renewable energy, and climate change resilience. Women and girls may have to abandon education, farming, and fishing because of weather changes and travel further in search of other sources of livelihood. This study covers the six geopolitical zones in Nigeria. This work provides insights into the intersection of gender, climate change, environmental impact, and sustainable development, highlighting the importance of inclusive policies that address gender disparities and the need to implement Sustainable Development Goals to enable a synergy in climate change and Gender by incorporating women perspective for a successful climate change initiative. It is important to create awareness and integrate gender equality in mitigation and resilience to climate change, this will reduce the impact of climate change and support sustainable development and girl child education

KEYWORDS: Climate Change; Gender Vulnerability; Sustainable development; Agriculture

INTRODUCTION

Climate Change's impact on the environment has significantly impacted sustainable development, particularly in developing countries like Nigeria, with far-reaching consequences across various sectors such as agriculture, tourism, trade infrastructure, and coastal communities, particularly in urban areas. Nigeria, Africa's largest and most populous economy, faces challenges and opportunities in addressing climate change, despite its abundant natural resources, oil, and natural gas reserves, etc., the alarming rate of deforestation is a threat to its mangrove forests. Nigeria enacted the Climate Change Act in November 2021 to combat these issues, signing its commitment to climate objectives and social and economic sustainability. Among these, gender vulnerability to climate change impact is a great concern with women and marginalized groups often facing disproportionate risks and burdens due to climate change. The country's vast geographical and ecological diversity, spanning the six geopolitical zones (North West, North East, North Central, South West, South East, and South-South) means that the effects of climate change are varied and multifaceted. As Nigeria continues to grapple with climate change, its impact on sustainable development becomes increasingly evident, particularly when examining the intersecting issues of gender vulnerability.

Nigeria's climate is characterized by high temperatures and seasonal rainfall patterns, which vary significantly across its regions. The northern regions are predominantly arid and semi-arid, while the southern regions experience tropical rainforest conditions. Climate change has exacerbated these conditions, leading to more frequent and severe weather events such as droughts, floods, and desertification (Ezeabasili & Okoro, 2021). In the North West and North East zones, desertification is a critical issue, fuelled by increasing temperatures and decreasing rainfall. This has led to the loss of arable land, directly impacting agriculture—a primary livelihood for the majority of the population (Aminu et al., 2021). In contrast, the South-South and Southeast zones, rich in water resources and biodiversity, face rising sea levels, coastal erosion, and flooding, which threaten both the environment and the economy (Nwankwo & Ogunyemi, 2022). In recent times, there has been a growing momentum

for climate action on the continent, focusing on climate finance, carbon markets, and policy changes. On April 24-26, 2024, the UNDP Stakeholder Consultations & Validation Workshop: Nigeria Carbon Market activation plan was held in Abuja, Nigeria to discuss issues about the carbon market, as part of the instructions in Nigeria's Climate Change Act, which mandates the government to set a National Climate Change Action Plan and a five-year carbon budget, outlining quantified annual objectives for emissions reduction, and some of the Nigerian market drivers include the Nigerian government's aim to secure multi-trillion-dollar climate change financing to fund its budget, signing a strategic shift towards climate-resilient investments. Nigeria needs \$17.7 billion annually to achieve its Nationally Determined Contributions (NDC) targets and fulfil its Paris Agreement commitments to reduce carbon emissions, its Energy Transition Plan, released in August 2022, serves as the roadmap for achieving the 2060 net-zero target. Sean & Chavi (2022) These are some of the efforts the government is making to achieve these goals.

GENDER VULNERABILITY AND CLIMATE CHANGE

Gender involvement with climate issues is discussed worldwide because of the role women play in society, it covers a wide range of social learning, cultural expectations, and concerns related to shared responsibility, resource access, and inclusivity in policymaking. (Bouchama et al., 2018). There is a broad range of climate change enlightenment in society where women are involved in empowerment programs and exposure to improved agricultural techniques, notwithstanding, it is important to discuss further gender inequalities as women are particularly vulnerable to its impacts (Lau et al., 2021). By 2050, the global temperature is projected to increase by a range of 0.5°C to 3.5°C due to climate change, with increased weather unpredictability and reduced rainfall in some regions (Allen et al., 2018). The unpredictability of weather is threatening climate resilience and adaptation, particularly changes in rainfall patterns and this is crucial for agriculture. Furthermore, women are more prone to the adverse effect of climate change, (Georgalakis, 2020; Adeola. Et al, 2024) especially in agriculture, they depend solely on rainfall, (Eastin, 2018; Ajiere 2020; Cianconi et al., 2020). The majority of women in Nigeria are involved in agriculture, trade, and fishing, and gender plays a significant role in how climate change impacts communities. In Nigeria, women, particularly in rural areas, are disproportionately affected by climate change due to existing social, economic, and cultural inequalities. These inequalities limit their access to resources, decision-making processes, and adaptation strategies (Adelekan et al., 2020). Gender inequality can delay women's ability to adapt to climate change, but educating women and applying the policies that address gender disparities and the value of incorporating women's perspectives for successful climate change initiatives can enhance climate change impact in our society and sustainable solutions can be achieved.

Recent studies reveal the gendered nature of climate change vulnerabilities and their social implications. There are differences in the political, socioeconomic, and climate situations, the effects of persistent exposure to extreme weather events are felt in social interactions, ecological services, and agricultural productivity because of the varied topography, biodiversity, and variations in precipitation and microclimate. (Rao et al., 2019). In the North East and North West zones, where agriculture is heavily impacted by climate change, women bear the brunt of food insecurity as they are traditionally responsible for food production and household sustenance. As arable land diminishes and water resources become scarcer, women must travel longer distances to find water and fuelwood, increasing their exposure to physical harm and reducing their time for income-generating activities (Omotosho & Olaniyi, 2021). In the South-South zone, where fishing communities are prevalent, women who rely on fishing for their livelihoods are increasingly vulnerable due to the degradation of marine ecosystems caused by climate change. The loss of biodiversity and the decline in fish stocks not only threaten their income but also the nutritional security of their families (Idowu & Ojo, 2022). The impact of climate change on gender is intertwined with food security, water access, land use, assets, forestry resources, women migration, policy, and climate knowledge. Climate change has a disproportionate effect on women, who make up a large portion of the world's poor and bear a greater share of the risks and costs of climate change (UNFCCC, 2018). Climate change affects the livelihoods of communities dependent on natural resources, female-headed households are more likely to experience food insecurity than male-headed households due to a lack of financial support. In areas where climate change has led to drought, women have to travel long distances to access water. Assan et al., (2018) Socioeconomically, Women are more vulnerable to gender-based violence, including human trafficking, child marriage, and

conflict-related sexual violence, due to the perceived threat multiplier of climate change. Some of the women and girls have to travel far in search of water for the household, leading to increased workloads when water scarcity is heightened by climate change (Nahar & Tajuddin, 2022) and this has increased the pressure on their health which is threatened especially during a climate-related disaster rendering them homeless and unable to access health care services or hospital. (Davenport *et al.*, 2020). There have been instances where women abandoned their homes in search of alternative sources of livelihood to sustain their families, thereby, some get involved in prostitution, paid labour work on construction sites, taxi drivers, and if the women are not protected from these hard labour, it will affect the family and the society because their attention is taken from the home, which is their main responsibility, some who can't afford a decent living are forced to migrate to sustain themselves and their children (Kabir & Serrao-Neumann, 2020) which affect the economy of a nation.

Gender Vulnerability and Climate Change Resilience

Climate change is an intricate worldwide concern linked with the variation of ambient temperature and rainfall anomalies resulting in global disasters such as water and food security (Ayanlade et al., 2023). The sustainability development goals (SDGs) which tend to improve global economic and environmental sustainability for the benefit of humanity in general aim at ending poverty and hunger as well as ensure gender and human equality. Nigeria became a signatory to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) in 1992, and the Kyoto Protocol in 2004 and has subsequently assumed involvement in addressing climate change concerns (FMEv, 2020). Nigeria, susceptible to climate change problems has a very large population of over two hundred million people with the female count less than 2% male of the total count. This very close ratio shows that any form of gender inequality will hamper significant economic outputs most especially in the agricultural sector where most rural women are engaged without adequate empowerment. The Federal Ministry of Environment via the Department of Climate Change Identified the necessity for gender equality concerning the Paris Agreement and Nigeria's Nationally Determined Contributions (NDC). A 2-day National Stakeholders Consultative Workshop on Gender and Climate Change was held in 2016 with support from the Women Environmental Programme (WEP) and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Important stakeholders from various Ministries, Department, and Agencies (MDAs), Civil Society Organizations (CSOs), Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), Media, academia, youth, and gender professionals including farmers gathered at the workshop to develop a strategic approach to streamlining gender inequality in the national response to climate change in Nigeria. The main outcome of the workshop was the inauguration of the National Action Plan on Gender and Climate Change for Nigeria (FMEv, 2020). The core objective of the National Action Plan is to ensure that national climate change efforts and implementations in Nigeria give gender considerations a topmost priority so that vulnerable members of the society such as women, men, youth, and other stakeholders can have access, partake, contribute and take advantage of climate change awareness, initiatives, programs, policies, and funds.

The UNFCCC (2022) highlights the role of women as agents of change emphasizing the significant inclusive role women and other marginalized people can play in mitigating and adapting to climate change anomaly. It's noted that providing adequate occasions for women to partake in the decision-making process can contribute to the improvement and application of competent and enduring climate-resilient strategies. It was disclosed that climate change-induced weather extremes impact men and women globally most especially in the rural areas where women partake in agricultural activities. The UNFCCC report noted that in most African nations, rural-to-urban migration, men are the most vulnerable, a development motivated by extreme weather events, leaving the women behind in charge of land and the household. It was highlighted that these urban migrations tend to create a living arrangement for the women that promotes hardship in terms of overseeing necessary responsibilities. It was specified that this condition can engender capacity building for women most especially in the agricultural sector thereby improving the monetary state and stimulating the economic empowerment of women and girls.

Ayanlade et al., (2023) indicated that Nigeria's small-scale farmers play an essential role in the nation's food security as they contribute over 70% of the food production, therefore, ensuring climate change resilience is a very important way forward. Nevertheless, with the continuous impacts of climate change

effects that engender anomaly in rainfall amount most especially in the Guinea-Sudan Savannah areas of Nigeria, it is worthy to note that there will be a decline in agricultural productivity leading to food insecurity and poverty, most especially among rural dwellers whose occupation are mostly farming. Since most rural farmers are exposed to extreme climate change impact, it is important to emphasize that necessary tools and access to adequate information on conservative agricultural practices enable improved and sustainable economic well-being of vulnerable biotic environments.

GENDER VULNERABILITY: SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURE AND FOOD SECURITY

Agriculture is a very important sector in any nation's economy. The recent changes in climate and its adverse impact on food security have attracted many nations, including Nigeria, to invest in the agricultural sector to cushion the impact created by climate change. This investment involves encouraging and creating opportunities for soft loans to the vulnerable population including women. In Nigeria, there have been several interventions by the government, private sector as well as NGOs in trying to revolutionize the agricultural sector to boost food production. In Nigeria, women play a crucial role in the agricultural sector by contributing significantly to food production, processing, marketing as well as distribution of processed food products. Generally, Climate change is widely recognized as impacting agriculture by causing droughts, floods, and sporadic, unpredictable rainfall. Agriculture and agricultural activities in Nigeria are sensitive to the variability of climate change because, despite improved seedings and irrigation systems, climate and weather are still the dominant factors for agricultural production in Nigeria. Nigeria is in a tropical zone that still depends on rain-fed agriculture, where the onset and cessation of rainfall determines the cultural practices of farmers (Odekunle, 2004; Umar, 2010, Ajiere et al., 2020). The IPCC's 5th Assessment Report (AR5) identifies food insecurity as a key climate risk for developing countries (IPCC, 2014). Vulnerability differs according to multidimensional inequalities, including gender, and the greatest vulnerability is to those who are marginalized socially, economically, culturally, politically, and institutionally (IPCC 2014). Women farmers in Nigeria are marginalized in several ways as they struggle with weak land tenure, limited access to finance, resources, technology, and extension services, and persistent social inequalities that hinder their agricultural ability and productivity (Glazebrook, et al., 2020). The IPCC makes several recommendations to build climate resilience in agriculture, including technological adaptations, adaptations in agroforestry, and improvement of smallholder access to bank accounts.

Agriculture is the primary livelihood for 1.4 billion women globally who live in rural areas [Glazebrook et al., 2020]. Across Nigeria, the World Bank estimates that women account for 30 to 50 percent of the farmers and entrepreneurs as they are involved in growing crops, raising livestock and selling food in local markets. Most often, Rural women are responsible for growing, storing, processing, and preparing food, handling livestock, gathering food, fodder, and fuelwood, managing the domestic water supply, and providing most of the labor for post-harvest activities (Mbow et al., 2019). The phenomenon of women's increasing role in growing food, attributed to family income diversification that draws men away from farming, is known as the 'feminization of agriculture' in which women increasingly work as small-scale, subsistence farmers. The 'feminization of agriculture' is exacerbated by the 'feminization of poverty' that was first recognized at the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995 (UN, 2020). Nevertheless, gender equality plays an important role in agricultural development, usually women farmers tend to have different access to agricultural-related resources, land, market information, extension services, and credit, compared to male farmers (Muriithi, et al., 2018). In the last few decades, stakeholders have employed some efforts to increase gender equality in the agricultural sectors, such as providing training, technology innovation, and extension activity (Muriithi, (2014). However, gender equality is crucial to the growth of agriculture. Generally, women farmers have less access to loans, land, market knowledge, extension services, and other agricultural resources than their male counterparts (Muriithi, et al., 2018). Stakeholders have used tactics like training, technological innovation, and extension work to promote gender equality in the agricultural industries during the past few decades (Muriithi, (2014). These tactics give female farmers more possibilities to participate in agriculturally related tasks alongside males, which can boost productivity (Ball, 2020). However, it also leads to an intensification of agriculture, which may have an impact on the agriculture sector's sustainability. For example, if more women engage in agricultural activities, there may be a notable rise in the use of chemical pesticides and fertilizers. Thus, it's critical

to consider sustainable agriculture when advancing gender equality. Numerous research has examined this subject since sustainable agriculture is crucial to preserving agriculture's sustainability, particularly the factors that influence farmers' adoption of sustainable agricultural techniques. For instance, Oyetunde-Usman et al. (2021) investigated the factors influencing agricultural practices in Nigeria and found that factors including age, family size, and level of education had an impact on farmers' decisions on sustainable agricultural practices. Similarly, (Candemir et al., 2021) noted that organizations connected to agriculture, like cooperatives, improve the sustainability of agriculture. According to Bilali et al. (2019), information and communication technologies greatly improve agriculturally sustainable practices.

GENDER VULNERABILITY AND CLEAN WATER

Access to clean water is a fundamental human right, yet millions of people, particularly women and girls, remain disproportionately affected by water scarcity and poor sanitation. Gender vulnerability and clean water are intricately linked, with women and girls bearing the brunt of water-related challenges due to existing socio-cultural and economic inequalities. Addressing this issue requires a comprehensive understanding of how gender shapes water access and what interventions are needed to promote gender equity in water resources management.

In many developing regions, particularly in rural areas, women and girls are primarily responsible for fetching water for household use. This task, often involving long hours of walking to distant sources, exposes them to physical strain and potential harm, including sexual violence. A study by the United Nations estimates that women in Sub-Saharan Africa spend an average of 200 million hours daily collecting water. This burden impacts their education and economic opportunities, as time spent fetching water often results in missed school days for girls and diminished work opportunities for women. Women and girls also face unique health risks related to poor water quality and inadequate sanitation facilities. Lack of access to clean water increases the likelihood of contracting waterborne diseases such as cholera and dysentery. Moreover, menstruation adds an extra layer of vulnerability for women. Without proper sanitation facilities, managing menstrual hygiene becomes a significant challenge, often leading to absenteeism from school and work. In some cultures, women are also stigmatized or ostracized during menstruation, further restricting their access to shared water resources. The gendered disparity in water access has significant economic and social consequences. Women's role as primary water gatherers limits their ability to engage in income-generating activities or education, perpetuating cycles of poverty. The World Bank highlights that increasing access to clean water and sanitation for women can boost productivity, improve health, and reduce gender disparities in education and employment. Addressing this inequity is essential for achieving broader development goals, such as the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 6, which calls for clean water and sanitation for all, and SDG 5, which advocates for gender equality. To address gender vulnerability in water access, a multi-faceted approach is required. Policies must recognize women's roles as key stakeholders in water management. Programs like the Women's Water Fund, which empowers women through water-related training and leadership opportunities, are examples of gender-inclusive initiatives that can promote equity. Additionally, investing in infrastructure that brings water closer to households and providing gender-sensitive sanitation facilities can significantly reduce the burden on women and girls.

GENDER VULNERABILITY AND SUSTAINABLE FISHERIES AND FORESTRY

Gender vulnerability refers to the heightened risks, challenges, and inequalities individuals experience due to their gender in various social, economic, and environmental contexts. This vulnerability stems from systemic gender biases, power imbalances, cultural norms, and institutional barriers, which disproportionately affect certain groups, particularly women, non-binary individuals, and other gender minorities. Gender vulnerability in the context of sustainable fisheries and forestry refers to the unique challenges and inequalities faced by individuals, particularly women, due to their gender when participating in these sectors. The relationship between gender vulnerability and sustainable natural resource management in fisheries and forestry is critical for environmental sustainability and gender equality. Women play key roles in these sectors, yet they often face systemic disadvantages that exacerbate their vulnerability. Gender vulnerability arises from unequal access to resources, exclusion from decision-making, and disproportionate exposure to the impacts of environmental degradation and climate change. Addressing these challenges through gender-sensitive approaches is essential to

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

ensuring the sustainability of fisheries and forestry while promoting social equity, and enhancing community resilience and economic well-being.

Sustainable practices in fisheries and forestry aim to balance economic, environmental, and social factors to ensure long-term viability, and gender issues are central to achieving these goals. Below are key aspects of gender vulnerability to sustainable fisheries and forestry, along with potential solutions to address these challenges. Women contribute significantly to the fisheries sector, particularly in small-scale and artisanal fisheries. While men typically dominate the fishing activities, women are often involved in post-harvest processing, marketing, and aquaculture (FAO, 2020). Despite their substantial roles, women's work is often undervalued, and they face systemic barriers that limit their access to economic opportunities and decision-making power in fisheries management (Kleiber, Harris, & Vincent, 2015). Women in fisheries are frequently excluded from owning key fishing assets such as boats and gear, which limits their capacity to engage in more profitable activities in the value chain. Additionally, they often lack access to financial services and credit, which further hinders their ability to invest in sustainable fishing practices or expand their economic opportunities (Harper, Grubb, Stiles, & Sumaila, 2017). This exclusion from both financial and physical resources heightens their vulnerability, particularly as fish stocks decline due to overfishing and climate change. A key aspect of gender vulnerability in fisheries is the exclusion of women from formal decision-making processes. In many coastal communities, women are not adequately represented in fisheries governance structures, such as co-management bodies or policy-making forums (World Bank, 2012). This exclusion limits their ability to influence resource management practices and advocate for more inclusive and sustainable approaches. Given their critical knowledge of post-harvest activities and local ecosystems, the absence of women's voices in governance weakens the effectiveness of sustainability efforts (Coulthard & Britton, 2015). Women in fisheries are disproportionately affected by the impacts of climate change, such as ocean warming and fish stock depletion. Since women often engage in subsistence fishing or small-scale aquaculture, they are more vulnerable to declining fish stocks and habitat degradation. Furthermore, their capacity to adapt to these environmental changes is constrained by limited access to education, training, and technology (Djouidi, Brockhaus, & Locatelli, 2013). Addressing these vulnerabilities requires gender-responsive climate adaptation strategies that enhance women's resilience and capacity to engage in sustainable practices.

Gender Vulnerability in Sustainable Forestry

Women's Dependence on Forest Resources

Women, particularly in rural and indigenous communities, are heavily dependent on forest resources for their livelihoods, including food, fuelwood, and medicinal plants (Agarwal, 2010). However, their access to forest resources is often informal, and they rarely hold land tenure rights, which exacerbates their vulnerability. Without secure land rights, women have limited control over the management of forest resources and are often excluded from participating in forest conservation initiatives (FAO, 2016).

Barriers to Participation in Forest Governance

Gender inequality in forestry governance is a significant challenge to sustainable forest management. Women are frequently excluded from decision-making bodies at both the community and national levels, leaving their specific needs and contributions overlooked in policy decisions (Larson et al., 2015). Research shows that when women are involved in forest governance, forests are more likely to be managed sustainably, as women tend to prioritize conservation and equitable resource distribution (Leach, Mearns, & Scoones, 1999).

Climate Change, Environmental Degradation, and Workload

Deforestation and environmental degradation disproportionately affect women, particularly in their roles as providers of household energy and food. As forests degrade, women must travel further distances to collect firewood and water, increasing their workload and exposure to health risks (Rocheleau, Thomas-Slayter, & Wangari, 1996). Climate change exacerbates these challenges, as changing weather patterns reduce the availability of forest resources. Women's limited access to financial and technical resources further restricts their ability to adapt to these environmental changes (Mai, Mwangi, & Wan, 2011).

THE IMPLICATIONS OF GENDER VULNERABILITY FOR SUSTAINABILITY

Excluding women from decision-making in fisheries and forestry undermines the effectiveness of sustainability initiatives. Women's unique knowledge of local ecosystems, biodiversity, and non-timber forest products (NTFPs) is vital for holistic resource management strategies (Agarwal, 2001). By involving women in governance structures, fisheries, and forestry management can be more inclusive and better equipped to address the complexities of sustainable resource use. Addressing gender vulnerability in fisheries and forestry also has important implications for economic sustainability. Women's economic empowerment, through improved access to financial resources, training, and markets, can promote the adoption of sustainable practices. When women can benefit economically from sustainable resource management, they are more likely to invest in the long-term health of ecosystems (FAO, 2020). Gender-responsive strategies that enhance women's access to climate adaptation resources and technologies are crucial for building resilience in both fisheries and forestry. Women's participation in climate adaptation initiatives, such as reforestation and sustainable aquaculture, can strengthen community resilience to environmental changes while promoting sustainable livelihoods (Djoudi et al., 2013).

Recommendations for Addressing Gender Vulnerability

Governments and development agencies should prioritize policies that improve women's access to land, credit, and technology. Secure resource rights and financial support are essential for empowering women to engage in sustainable practices (FAO, 2016). Women's representation in fisheries and forestry governance should be enhanced through gender-sensitive policies. Including women in decision-making strengthens the effectiveness of resource management strategies and promotes sustainable outcomes (Agarwal, 2010). Climate adaptation programs should be designed to address the specific vulnerabilities of women in fisheries and forestry. This includes providing access to education, climate-resilient technologies, and financial resources to support their adaptation efforts (Mai et al., 2011).

Gender Vulnerability and Renewable Energy

Renewable Energy as a Pathway to Sustainable Development

Renewable energy offers a pathway to mitigating the effects of climate change while promoting sustainable development in Nigeria. The transition to renewable energy sources not only reduces greenhouse gas emissions but also provides opportunities for gender empowerment and economic growth. The country's renewable energy potential is vast, with abundant solar, wind, hydro, and biomass resources available across the six geopolitical zones (Odeyemi & Ogunleye, 2023).

Renewable energy sources, such as solar, wind, and hydroelectric power, significantly reduce carbon emissions compared to fossil fuels. This reduction is crucial for mitigating the effects of climate change, particularly in vulnerable regions where communities are most affected by environmental degradation (International Renewable Energy Agency, 2019). In the North West and North East, solar energy presents a significant opportunity to provide clean, reliable power to remote communities that are not connected to the national grid. Solar-powered irrigation systems, for example, can help mitigate the impact of desertification by providing a sustainable water source for agriculture, thereby supporting food security and reducing gender vulnerability (Aliyu et al., 2023).

The renewable energy sector offers new opportunities for women's employment and entrepreneurship. For example, women can play a significant role in the deployment of decentralized renewable energy systems, such as solar home systems, and hydropower farmsteads, particularly in rural areas. These opportunities not only provide income but also empower women to take an active role in their communities' sustainable development (IRENA, 2019). The North Central zone, with its rivers and waterfalls, has a high potential for small hydropower projects. These can provide electricity to rural areas, reduce reliance on fossil fuels, and create economic opportunities, particularly for women who can engage in small-scale businesses that require electricity (Olusegun & Bello, 2022).

Access to renewable energy can lead to improved health outcomes by reducing reliance on harmful energy sources like biomass, which is often used for cooking in developing countries. The use of cleaner energy sources reduces indoor air pollution, which disproportionately affects women and children who spend more time indoors (World Bank, 2020). In the South-South, South West and South East zones, biomass energy—derived from agricultural and forest residues—can play a crucial role in reducing dependence on traditional biomass (such as firewood) and mitigating deforestation. This not only

supports environmental sustainability but also reduces the time and labor burden on women, allowing them to pursue education and other economic activities (Umeozor & Udeze, 2021).

Integrating Gender Considerations in Renewable Energy Policies

To ensure that the transition to renewable energy contributes effectively to sustainable development and gender equality, it is essential to integrate gender considerations into energy policies and programs. Policymakers must involve women in the design and implementation of renewable energy projects. This ensures that the benefits of these projects are equitably distributed and that women's specific needs are addressed. For instance, training programs and capacity-building initiatives in renewable energy should be tailored to include and empower women (UNDP, 2018). Providing women with access to financing for renewable energy projects is crucial. Microfinance institutions and other financial mechanisms should be designed to support women entrepreneurs in the renewable energy sector, enabling them to participate fully in the energy transition (UN Women, 2021). Implementing robust monitoring and evaluation frameworks that track the gender impacts of renewable energy projects is essential. This allows the identification of gaps and adjustment of strategies to ensure that women benefit equally from renewable energy initiatives (IRENA, 2019).

CONCLUSION

The environmental impact of climate change poses significant challenges to sustainable development which is profound and multifaceted in Nigeria, particularly in terms of gender vulnerability. Gender vulnerability is a critical issue that needs to be addressed in climate adaptation and mitigation strategies. Addressing climate change in Nigeria requires a concerted effort from the government, the private sector, and civil society to promote gender-sensitive policies. Women, especially in developing regions like Nigeria, are disproportionately affected by the adverse effects of climate change due to socio-economic disparities, health risks, and increased vulnerability during displacement. However, the transition to clean water, food security, sustainable fisheries and forestry, and renewable energy offers a pathway to mitigate these impacts while promoting gender equality and offering opportunities for sustainable development that are inclusive and equitable across the six geopolitical zones of Nigeria. Access to clean water is a profound issue that limits the rights, health, and opportunities of women and girls worldwide. The intersection of water scarcity, poor sanitation, and gender inequities demands urgent attention from policymakers and development practitioners. Sustainable water management must integrate gender considerations to ensure equitable access and create opportunities for all, regardless of gender. Also, gender vulnerability in sustainable fisheries and forestry is critical for both environmental sustainability and gender equality. Therefore, Women should be involved in decision-making, and access to resources, to ensure that the benefits are equitably distributed, this will help to promote the effectiveness of sustainability efforts, and promote inclusive governance, economic empowerment, and gender-responsive climate adaptation, the different sectors will become more sustainable and equitable, benefiting both ecosystems and communities. The government should adhere to gender involvement, to implement Sustainable Development Goals to enable a synergy in climate change and Gender by incorporating women's perspectives for a successful climate change initiative, the global community including Nigeria can build resilience against climate change, reduce gender disparities, and ensure sustainable development for future generations.

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Chapter Twenty-Five**The Legend of Nwakpuda: Quixotic Environmental Chivalry or Crusading Environmentalism Arriving Before its Time?*****Okechi Dominic Azuwiki****Department of Geography and Environment Management, Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria.**EMAIL: okedazuwiki@yahoo.com***ABSTRACT**

The paper, The Legend of Nwakpuda: Quixotic Environmental Chivalry or Crusading Environmentalism arriving before its time, interrogates the proper place of the historical figure Chief Nwakpuda in the environmental history of man and the built environment. Whereas literature captures his resistance of colonial rail development and operations in his native Umuahia as some kind of tragic-comedy, it has become necessary to appraise his advocacy along the lines of modern environmental consciousness. Hence using the methods of in-depth literature review and stakeholder analysis around the apparent environmental martyrdom of the persona, this paper interrogates the dynamics of man and the built environment as a conflicted existence that is subject to diverse vistas of interpretation. It found out that consciousness of the environmental and social impact of projects was earlier in the colonies than the environmental movement; top-down projects have historically faced resistance, particularly in the Not-In-My-Back-Yard sense, welfare economics and routing of transportation facilities featured early as elements of environmental justice. In conclusion the militant environmental advocates shown by GreenPeace and others in the late 20th century and currently have a precedent and possibly a precursor in the advocacy of Nwakpuda.

Keywords: Environment; Rail; Nwakpuda; Umuahia; Colonial

INTRODUCTION

The built environment epitomizes human efforts at environmental control. It is emblematic of man's quest for an environment that best epitomizes his objectives and designs for comfort, safety, security, economy, convenience and efficiency. It therefore has its *raison d'être* in guarantees of a more livable, sustainable environment capable of extending the reach of man, upholding civilization and its tenets and improving the overall quality of human life. Whereas the contributions of the built environment to human life and survival, and the quality of the natural environment are common knowledge, there has yet remained an existential human struggle with the built environment. The ironic situation is such that the built environment – roads, railways, airports, seaports, bridges, dams, houses, industrial plants, sports arenas, and landmarks, though of very highly recognizable importance, inspire considerable resentment and concerns for sustainability and preservation of life and ecosystem. Hence, from the earliest beginnings of building structures, there have been apprehensions about their social and environmental significance. At times these apprehensions are founded on fear – reasonable or unreasonable fear. It was seen in The Construction of the London Underground (1863) which people feared would collapse; The Brooklyn Bridge (1883), The Eiffel Tower (1889), and the Tacoma Narrows (1940) which fears about its structural instability were later justified in a collapse after four months; The Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant (1986) which produced fears of radiation that later materialized in a meltdown, The Three Gorges Dam (2006) and the Burj Khalifa (2010) brought fears of elevator safety and fire.

It is therefore historically for humans, a hot existential struggle with the built environment and idea of the built environment. The built environment as shown in the examples earlier highlighted is generally considered a disruption. In Nigeria the Coastal Railway Project (Lagos to Calabar) also met environmental concerns and community relocation as one of its main challenges. Disruptions occasioned by the built environment might be in terms of aesthetics, acoustics, thermal changes, traffic impedance, fluvial changes (over land flow), air flow changes, land use adjustments and impact on urbanism, population distribution, demography and social relations. Sustainable built environment is

therefore to be desired. It preserves nature and orchestrates the least negative disruption of social systems. As proof of this, the Bussa people displaced by the Kainji dam in the 1960s and relocated at New Bussa had to remodify the prototype model houses they were given to accommodate their treasured traditional architecture (Gyuse and Gyuse, 2008).

The concerns about disruptive built environment projects were also seen in the case of a certain Chief Nwakpuda's engagement of the colonial rail lines across his Umuahia community of the colonial era between 1929 and 1932. His resistance of the construction of rail lines for evacuation of produce from across the country to Port Harcourt was managed through the deployment of security forces all through the laying of the rail tracks. He could not however be dissuaded in his stand against the rail line which he feared was going to upset communal peace, destroy the natural environment and lead to unhealthy emigration of the women folk. Having failed at stopping the project, he had to mobilize young men to bodily stop the train in its tracks when it started operations. He was documented to have died in apparent martyrdom alongside his mobilized youths when the train he confronted crushed them to death and the colonial authorities in recognition of his advocacy raised a monument at the spot of the accident. Whereas his advocacy got some kind of positive reviews in colonial narratives, stretching the symbolism of the monument, the prevalent narrative of his struggles portrayed the Nwakpuda persona as some quixotic adventurer in tragicomedy. Nwosu (nd) described him as a leader who led his subjects to a collective suicide. What is under interrogation, therefore, is the proper place of Nwakpuda in the context of resistance of built environment projects. Was it all about mindless environmental chivalry in which case he was only playing to the gallery and there is no academic merit to the advocacy? Or can he be seen as a crusading environmentalist who defined environmental ethics before the subject became commonplace? Given that massive built environment projects now attract justifiable scrutiny and the concept of Environmental Impact Assessment has become an acceptable paradigm, can it be concluded that Nwakpuda's advocacy was in all ramification's prescient, in which case he arrived before his time?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Barlow (2021) lent a voice of support to Escobar (1995) who holds the position that the conceptualization of Development from a Western viewpoint has helped to marginalize the global south. It suggests a rethinking that will see the development concept work for target people rather than against them. Incidentally, the current idealization of development that is considered hurtful is championed by well-meaning institutions and knowledge producers who might not have realized its shortcomings (Madrueno and Tezanos, 2018). Other workers had earlier asked for rethinking the idea of development and its associated modernization. Bodley (1982) found many of the social changes associated with development injurious to people who receive these. He identified what he labelled as diseases of development associated with the unsustainable embrace of new externally originated trends. He established the price of forcing progress on unwilling recipients in terms of the 'deaths of millions of tribal people', their loss of land, political sovereignty and the right to follow their lifestyle. While it is highly probable for tribal groups to be sucked up by the waves of colonial interference there are cases in which groups have been able to retain their society and moral credentials under colonial influence. One such example is shown among Native Americans in Deloria Jr. (1969). They never gave up their originality while submerged under exotic cultural counter currents. In the experience of Latin America as captured in the work of Quijano (2000) many modern-day problems of nation states are ascribed to and rooted in the coloniality of power. This was interrogated by Barletta (2023) who agreed with Quijano that 'the conjugation of race and global capitalism in the sixteenth century has to be placed at the centre of dysfunctions in both colonial powers and their colonies (and former colonies). Many projects of the colonial era were not essentially in the interest of the colonies and bore manifest elements of Eurocentrism. The idea of Eurocentrism arrogates to European powers in colonial outposts the place of superior knowledge over that of natives in their affairs. This of course translated to the marginalization of non-Western worldviews, knowledge and perspectives. Santos (2014) saw in the marginalization of local knowledge in the global south a case of epistemicide – outright deliberate neglect and annihilation of the knowledge contribution from the marginalized groups.

Colonized people were hardly credited with knowledge in colonial narratives. Hence where colonial development gambits meet native's resistance, the idea of competence of natives' perspectives is foreclosed and the superiority of the colonial viewpoint might be taken for granted. Where the

knowledge of locals is marginalized, there may not be guarantees on spatial justice for such marginalized groups in initiated and executed projects. The idea of involvement of space in issues of justice speaks to deprivation considered as a derivative of Moroni and de Franco (2024). This has been a very silent theme in colonial literature. Space is taken for granted as one of the motivations for resisting colonial occupation, particularly in Africa. Among the Aborigines of Australia and the Native Americans, it is also an important omission. People of Yuin country (of Australia) insist Captain James Cook despite his arrogance and scanty recognition of the people he met on arrival 'discovered neither our mountain (Galaga, which he had renamed Mount Dromedary for in his estimation, looking like a camel) nor us' (Hromek, 2019).

Beyond literature's engagement with space is the related engagement with place. A place is a space that is imbued with cultural meanings. Those nuances shape and evoke emotional qualities that are highly tied to identities and a sense of cultural belonging. Walter (1988) has discussed under what he described as Topstics, the dynamic interplay of shapes, powers, feelings and meanings that define a place. People are driven by these elements to engage with places at a certain civic level underserved by mere spaces. Many psychological investments go into places that make, in the words of Hromek (2019) earliest settlers take it as a moral duty to protect the space. This native attachment is rather than honoured, treated with contempt and negligence in colonial narratives. Hence there is usually a resistance to imposed landscape order characterized by Walter (1988) as a Topomorphic Revolution. Local people consider it part of their stewardship to protect the spatial status quo from colonial makeovers they may consider injurious hazardous or some kind of aesthetic disaster. The current effort will find out to what extent the conflicted relationship with colonial projects captured in literature is realized in the advocacy of Nwakpuda and his seeming radical ecology.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The Nwakpuda phenomenon under discourse and its various dimensions can be understood with the help of various theories. With the native argument that the colonial rail line was going to cart away native women and take them to unknown destinations, there is an obvious intersection of gender, power and technology that hints at power relations and a certain patriarchal responsibility to protect women as a vulnerable group. This can be situated in Feminist Political Ecology as captured in Rocheleau (1995) and also in the ecofeminism of Shiva (1998). As a social movement, the Nwakpuda initiative that organized youth to resist the rail project did not just exploit collective action; it relied on framing theory to give a certain meaning to the project that is different from the project initiators in line with the framing theory of Snow and Benford (1988). The fact of marginalization of the colonized in decision-making and their rebellion in standing against the colonial project points to Critical Resistance Theory as shown in the works of Scott (1990, 2009). While the colonial attitude was one of contempt for native resistance and whatever knowledge informed it, indigenous knowledge system theory offers insight into the veracity and admissibility of local perspectives in modern projects. Theories have called for end of epistemicide and the decolonization of methodologies (Smith, 1999). The foregoing shows that various aspects of the radical advocacy of Nwakpuda resonate with various theories and no single theory captures all the ramifications of the historical event.

Proper Place of Nwakpuda in Project Contestation

Projects have always faced the problem of contestation. This is an old problem replete in Old Testament biblical scriptures. Fearing Jewish resurgence and possible loss of power, Nehemiah's Wall rebuilding was opposed by Sanballat, Tobiah and Geshem (Nehemiah, 4:1-3). Concerns about the great demand for resources and labour led Hiram to initially oppose Solomon's Temple construction (1 Kings 5:2-6). Fear of Jewish resurgence and loss of influence made local officials and Samaritans stand against the temple rebuilding project by Ezra (Ezra 1-6). Contestation might be as trivial as mere ridicule out of unbelief and scepticism such as faced by Noah (Genesis 5:32; 6:9-10) during his Ark construction project. The lesson from the foregoing is that projects are significant interventions that border on the political economy and social standing of localities where they are sited. There are therefore interests that may be injured or served. In modern project delivery, therefore scoping has been made a major element of the Environmental Impact Analysis that establishes a business case, an environmental case for the project or otherwise. Scoping involves the identification of all interests and stakeholders that can

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

be impacted for possible impact management. It is instructive that these new concepts were not part of project planning and execution in the Nwakpuda era. As such it can be argued that these efforts from the past have added to project scrutiny in contemporary times.

A major element in project contestation is the sentiment expressed as Not-In-My-Back-Yard (NIMBY). This is the usual drive of locals who are disproportionately impacted to demand greater distance and insulation from any project that can produce deleterious effects. This is simply saying, “Take it far away from our community”. The Nwakpuda resistance happens to fall into this category. His advocacy was not against rail lines and British efforts to move goods to the port. It was a Luddite struggle against its vulgar intrusion and violation of the rustic life of his community. It was a classic case of NIMBY.

Quixotic Environmental Chivalry?

The dominant narrative is that Chief Nwakpuda overreached himself. His brand of radical advocacy is interpreted in literature as some kind of native chivalry in the face of colonial obstinacy. Hence whatever wisdom was to be found in his gambit is submerged and lost under quixotic representation. The name Nwakpuda has continued to elicit dark humour. The question is if the poorly informed public fails to relate with a Nwakpuda *raison d’etre*, is the scholarly community justified in not interrogating the apparent environmental martyrdom? In as much as the approach of confrontation with a train can be considered overboard, perhaps a reflection of the frustration in getting the attention of a stonewalling colonial administration – should the nuances and epistemic appeal of the advocacy be sacrificed and thrown away with the irrational elements?

Crusading Environmentalism

Environmentalism has in modern times been framed as a crusade. Nwakpuda however shows that the consciousness of extreme radicalism predates the modern environmental movement that got launched around the middle of the 20th century, at the close of the 1960s. The environmentalism of Nwakpuda shared a lot with every other crusade ever witnessed. It had a moral imperative, in terms of its moral obligation towards conservation; it was a binary opposition in terms of environmentalism versus exploitation; it was a call to action in terms of mobilization of people for action and perception of urgency emphasizing dangers in delaying action. Since Nwakpuda, there have been several global environmental crusade rhetorics such as ‘Save the Planet’, ‘War on climate change’, ‘Defend the Earth’, ‘Stop Extinction’, ‘Protect Biodiversity’ etc. The crusades may at times appear mindless in ignoring economic and social nuances while digging in on eco-fundamentalism. It is thus the case that many modern crusaders such as Al Gore are hardly ever regarded as realists. The case is not very different for others such as Greta Thunberg, David Attenborough, Jane Goodall and Rachel Carson. Whereas these crusaders are largely of an intellectual bent, a good number of modern crusaders are active in the field and outside of regular pedagogical engagement. Hence organizations such as Greenpeace have as will be shown later taken actions to protect the environment the radicalism of Nwakpuda. The man’s heroics therefore justifiably stand with all other historical environmental crusades that departed from expected environmental pragmatism in preference for fundamentalism.

Dynamics of Man and the Built Environment

Human imprints on earth captured in projects and attempts at buildings and all other forms of replacing natural environments with anthropogenic forms are subject to vistas of interpretation. Hence the built environment everywhere has a conflicted existence. Just as Fulani herdsmen see landscape change through built forms as irritant mosaics that hamper field navigation for them and their cattle; diverse groups have diverse reasons to object to the built environment. At times completed built environment projects are destroyed and removed as a form of environmental restoration. Dams have been removed to restore aquatic habitats, highways have been removed to protect endangered species or watersheds, mining sites have been closed and industrial sites transformed into public parks. As humans have had to relocate to accommodate projects such as the Kainji dam and railway projects, projects have had to be relocated or removed to optimize efficiency and reduce collateral damage. Recently Nigeria had to demolish several properties to make way for Lagos – Calabar Coastal Road Highway; Landmark Beach Resorts, WinHome Estates etc. (CNN, 2024).

Lessons from the Nwakpuda Phenomenon

1. The modern environmental movement started only in 1969, a clear 40 years following the opening of the rail line that was opposed by Nwakpuda. His advocacy therefore led the current consciousness by over four decades. The colonies were for colonizer's grounds for experimentation and innovative freedom beyond what regulated environments could offer. They represented regulatory wilderness that served as Guinea pigs for testing ideas. Thus, it is believed that the *Cordon Sanitarie* that separated natives and colonial residences in colonial Africa was a realization and testing of Ebenezer Howard's idea of the Garden City with the 440 yards of green that surrounded Colonial Reserved Areas. Hence, some of the earliest forms of resistance against Environmental Injustice and efforts at realizing spatial justice are pioneered in colonies.
Nwakpuda phenomenon shows that consciousness on the environmental and social impact of projects came earlier in the colonies. Much of Africa had decolonized before the environmental movement arrived at the close of the 1960s. Thought leadership in the area of bringing projects in line with environmental objectives came after development projects in Europe and highlights the efforts of persons such as Nwakpuda.
2. Top-Down Projects have Historically Faced Resistance: In the case of the colonial rail line project under discourse, factories in Britain needed raw materials inputs from the colonies. The Ports was ready but that is only a part of the logistics. From colonial hinterland where cocoa, timber, rubber, groundnuts and others were produced there was no easy way of accessing the ports of embarkation by the Atlantic Coast. A rail line was desperately needed as the colonial enterprise of the post-World War I was already in its twilight. The hurry precluded any form of stakeholder engagement and consultation beyond the British administration to which the colonial office reports. It was not in the habit of colonial authorities to court the goodwill of colonized people on such things as project delivery. Hence the Top-Down approach of project administration that has endured to plague public administration in much of Africa is seen as a colonial vestige. In the rail line construction, native-buy-in was not sought as the colonial office was not out to secure permission. All that was necessary was notification to natives, their mobilization as labourers on the project and admonition to stay away from danger. This project scenario will always elicit resistance from knowledgeable people even as domination of instruments of terror secures for the colonial office acquiescence from the majority of people. This project is not alone. History is replete with project resistance from various parts of the colonized world. Aswan High Dam (1890-1902) faced resistance from the Nubian people which its lake displaced. They saw injustice in their compensation package and forced relocation (Reynolds, 2012). In the case of the Australian Overland Telegraph line (1870-1880), Australian Aborigines resisted the project and would attack telegraph stations over the massive deployment of the unfamiliar object; metals (Jones, 2023). In modern times, the resistance of top-down projects has continued and stakeholders' engagement has been made a cornerstone of project sustainability.
3. There is Flexibility in Routing of Transportation Facilities. Most transportation facilities are high-risk oriented. A redeeming factor however is the possibility of their flexibility. Managing the risk posed by a facility such as rail line may require weighing alternatives when all elements of risk assessment are considered – engineering data, social, economic, political and ecological concerns. While more direct routing may prove financially cheaper, it may prove more expensive in terms of allowed risks. Hence risk reduction may leverage overlay technique such as the one made popular in McHarg (1969). It overlays various ecological, social and economic factors to identify optimal land use patterns. For a project such as the rail line that crossed Umuahia, application of McHarg's technique would have produced overlays with themes such as Topography, Hydrology, Vegetation, Wildlife habitats, soil quality, land use patterns, population density, economic activities, areas of conflict, compatibility and opportunity. These sheets as transparencies laid out would have yielded most sustainable route for the project. Of course, the Nwakpuda issue predates McHarg's technique and the idea of optimal routing would not have been common knowledge. Otherwise, such pockets of resistance as Nwakpuda presented could have been avoided for a less controversial route.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

4. Radical Environmental Advocacy of the 21st century has 20th century precedents. While epistemicide has characterized the western discourses and their relationship with African knowledge systems. African knowledge is well represented in modern theories and practices which the West has come to adopt and own. Many terms have been carved out for this; epistemic injustice, cognitive injustice etc. Entire continents can be affected while an entire section of the world such as the global south can be victimized. In Nwagpuda's case, the worth of his intellectual abilities of course assessed through western lens might be negligible. If indigenous knowledge systems were factored in colonial administration, perhaps his advocacy could have received prima facie attention.

Nwagpuda undoubtedly was extreme in his dissonance for danger in pursuit of his advocacy. Much radicalism has materialized that bears similarity in the 21st century. There are extreme groups such as EarthFirst, Reclaim the streets, Camp for climate action, Friends of the Earth, Earth Liberation Front, Sea Shepherd Conservation Society (SSCS) etc. Extreme actions have been taken. In the 1980s NGOs spiked trees with metals to prevent logging; SSCS will ram whaling ships and also use acid to damage their propellers, groups occupied nuclear plants; Activists have occupied trees for extended periods to prevent logging. GreenPeace occupied offshore gas rig for eight hours. Many projects have been resisted – The Istanbul Canal Project (Turkey), The Amazonian Highway (Brazil), The Gillette Coal Mine (USA), The Rio Tinto Mine (Serbia), The Brunei LNG Plant, Brunei and the Trans Mountain Railway, Canada. Where resistance has failed to stop projects, it has enabled re-appraisals that secured greater sustainability from projects. The understanding in the modern world currently is that humans and their welfare which is usually tied to quality of their environment are to be prioritized over projects. Nwagpuda is part of the pioneers that laid the foundations for this consciousness.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The paper interrogated the proper place of the historical figure Nwagpuda in the context of resistance of built environment projects. His resistance of colonial rail line across his Old Umuahia Community, a fatal and extreme measure at the time has preceded many of such forms of radical environmental advocacy and a lot of changes have been introduced into project designs to align them with environmental objectives and secure the goodwill of stakeholders. Interpretations of the actions can benefit from theories on feminist political ecology, framing and critical resistance. What is central is the worth of indigenous knowledge in the face of colonial default to epistemicide. The Nwagpuda phenomenon raises issues about colonial resistance, Not-In-My-Back-Yard sentiment factors in built environment delivery, dissonance from the scholarly community on his apparent environmental martyrdom, pioneering role in ushering the modern environmental movement. It also raises issues against top-down project delivery and poor involvement of critical stakeholders and also impact comparison techniques that can lead to more sustainable alternative project designs. Beyond the evocation of tragic comedy as the Nwagpuda persona has inspired in environmental history therefore, a review of its curricular worth is compelled by modern radical environmental advocacy as led by the likes of GreenPeace which in the footprints of Nwagpuda has forced sustainable development on the global agenda.

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Chapter Twenty-Six

Evolution of the Gambling Space in the Context of the Urban Built Environment. Insights from Owerri Metropolis**Okechi Dominic Azuwike¹; Ephraim Nwanguma²**¹*Department of Geography and Environment Management, Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria.*²*Department of Architecture, Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria*EMAIL: okedazuwike@yahoo.com**ABSTRACT**

The paper Evolution of the Gambling Space in the Context of the Urban Built Environment. Insights from Owerri Metropolis interrogates the built environment dimensions of space negotiation by the increasingly proliferated activity of gambling. It investigates spatial adjustments made by roadside gambling outfits to maintain their spaces within the city's built environment against all development control measures and how the spaces created by gambling behaviour impact the built environment (ambience, aesthetics, navigability etc.). This is done through in-depth observation of gambling business operators and residents of the city. The reasons that compel roadside orientation and the form of mushroom physical structures housing these gambling activities were identified. Through narrations and observations, it is found that the configuration of the gambling space in its extant form is driven by the privacy needs of participants in the context of societal stigmatization of the gambling space. It is also found that whereas more elaborate housing can be accessed by gambling house operators, the need for proximity to the gambling public compels a culture of roadside, makeshift shelters. It is concluded that stigmatized activities maintain stigmatized spaces amid regular activities through the evolution of spatial adjustments, spatial masks, camouflage and trade-offs in aesthetics, comfort and convenience. They therefore produce their built-environment landscapes while modifying the outlook of cities. They have to be seen as violations of developmental order worthy of control.

KEYWORDS: Gambling; Space; Urban; Environment; Built

INTRODUCTION

Urban areas with particular reference to Owerri metropolis are known for land use intensification and enlarged markets for goods and services resulting from population concentration. Space use in these settings is therefore highly nuanced. This is because various measures are employed by activity areas which may be compatible or incompatible with other spatially contiguous activities to sustain themselves in their locations despite their poor location. Hence certain activities though stigmatized are patronized. The spaces they occupy readily become spaces of stigmatization. Also, stigmatized spaces end up modifying social, economic and political experiences (Taggart *et al.*, 2022). The underworld is an urban reality. The activities therein exist on the urban surface but have to be masked as forms of underground activities to survive urban appraisal and retain clientele. In this category of activities, to various degrees in various urban cultures, are found drug dealerships, witch doctors and seers, herbalists specializing in Sexually Transmitted Diseases, brothels, abortion clinics, certain money lenders, certain food vendors, certain used cloth dealerships and gambling outfits.

The gambling space has evolved. Gambling is currently a proliferating activity in urban centres. Whereas gambling was generally about playing pools which are weekly regimented, various gambling platforms enabled by developments in Information and Communication Technology have evolved enabling gambling cycles in hours and days rather than weeks. There is a greater number of gambling promoters, and greater proportions in typology (sports betting, lotto, virtual etc). Licensed gambling operators such as Betnja, NairaBet and Sporty Bet, Casinos, online gaming platforms such as Betway Nigeria and most pool operators such as Nigerian Association of Pools Stakeholders and Perchstone and Grays (P & G) pools are compelled by requirements of their operators to fixed elaborate buildings and rooms. The case is different for those in the Bingo and Lottery categories such as Premier Lotto Ltd (Baba Ijebu), Global Gaming Ltd (Glo Bingo), DNJ Gaming Ltd (DNJ Lotto, Give & Win Lottery and Western Lotto. These have an outdoor orientation in makeshift shelters. There is a greater density of gambling agents across space as the various promoters have appointed their agents. The greater ease of

gambling has also enabled the attainment of a mass market. Rather than confinement to elaborate housing and well-appointed office spaces as known as pool offices, emergent gambling has become footloose and more invasive achieving greater spatial comprehensiveness. Most of the mentioned stigmatized activities adopt orientations of timing and space use that enable them to survive stigmatization. Measures such as temporal adjustments, say choice of nightlife in deference to unsympathetic public institutions and their activities, is adopted by some of the stigmatized activities. Gambling, however, may not afford a nocturnal orientation given the number of episodes lotto services for instance operate daily. How does an activity that attracts stigmatization maintain a presence in proximal trafficked and built-up spaces that are of interest to its markets, within the urban built environment? This paper investigates the spatial dynamics of gambling focusing on how roadside gambling outfits negotiate space amidst development control measures. It examines the spatial adjustments made by these gambling outfits and their impact on the built environment.

Aim and Objectives

The aim is to understand the evolution of gambling spaces in the urban built environment and spatial adjustments made by roadside gambling outfits to maintain their presence amidst development control measures.

Objectives: The objectives are to

Identify the reasons behind the roadside orientation of gambling outfits in Owerri Metropolis.

Examine the types of makeshift structures used for roadside gambling and their impact on the urban building environment.

Analyse the spatial adjustments made by gambling outfits to maintain visibility and accessibility.

Investigate residents' perceptions of gambling spaces and their impact on the community.

Explore the views of gambling business operators on regulation and its implications for the built environment.

Research Questions

What drives the proliferation of roadside gambling outfits in Owerri metropolis?

How do gambling outfits adapt to urban development control measures?

What are the implications of emergent gambling spaces for urban aesthetics, safety and community well-being?

How do residents perceive gambling spaces and what are their concerns?

What are the perspectives of gambling business operators on regulation and how do they impact the urban building environment?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The issue of gambling space user behaviour has been featured prominently in literature. Philander, Tabri, Wood and Wohl (2022) found a strong link between casino proximity and visit frequency which can predict addictive behaviour. This followed the work of Badji, Black and Johnston (2020) in Australia. The link between proximity and user appeal brings to the fore gambling firms' efforts to attain great densities to kill off the disincentive and impedance presented by distance. This will rather bring gambling into conflict with development control where the proliferation of gambling points challenges the ambience around and usage of built-up spaces. The proliferation of gambling spaces cannot attain their new distribution without a makeshift orientation. The aesthetic dimension of modular shelters raised for gambling therefore becomes a subject of research interest.

The necessity of production of an 'affective atmosphere' for gambling to take place is noted in the works of Waitt, Gordon, Harada, Gurnieri, Reith and Ciorari (2023). It might create tensions between the regular built environment and street-side islands of sandwiched shelters that have to provide minimal ambience for the gambler in the most inconvenient of spaces such as the frontage of office buildings and top of covered drainage channels. In all, the gambling landscape has come under spatial change. The Czech Republic has tried to bring it under legal control (Frajer, Fiedor, Kwarik, Sery, Aigelova and Charvat (2024). The idea is that the results might not be salutary if gambling were to be left to self-regulate under market forces without government intervention.

In Nigeria, the issue of gambling which rubs off on the quality of the built environment fits into the larger issues of the informality of much of the economy. Farinmade, Soyinka and Sui (2018) linked the problem

of sustainable urban development in Lagos to urban informal activities which compromise the quality of the built environment. Infrastructure planning is very inadequate in Lagos and this is central to the proliferation of urban informality.

Chattopadhyay (2024) grappled with the discourse on informality finding it indescribable in its duality of hypervisibility and illegibility; endurance and impermanence. Associated with infrastructure, it found the nexus of urban infrastructural transformation where sidewalks, streets and public spaces transform into shops. What stands out in this informality infrastructure relationship is the idea that informality is only a way of seeing where interpretation is dependent on where an observer belongs in the formality–informality divide.

Chen (2021) found the notion of informality a stigmatized one that requires architectural solutions. It found that the desire to do away with make-shift structures is linked to urban imagery, sense of place and identity. Interpretations of these are highly subjective as shown in Chattopadhyay (2024). To this extent, the makeshift gambling spaces may have a highly culturally and aesthetically nuanced relationship with the built environment in which they are ill-fittingly subsumed. It is a tension which development control may not ignore.

Gambling spaces may sometimes be concentrated in some areas to the sanity of other areas in the form of a concentrate-and-contain gambit. Hence Adeniyi, Brown and Whysall (2023) found these concentrations in areas populated by underprivileged groups. The spatial dynamics involving these gambling outfits and their outlook on the one hand and the formalized built environment on the other are at the heart of a contestation that elicits interrogation.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theory of the production of space (Lefebvre, 1991) indicates that space is socially produced in which case it bears all the trappings of social relations; power dynamics and economic forces. While space is material in essence, it is also mental and symbolic. Given that it has these diverse attributes, it is therefore subjective in interpretation and a hot platform for contestation. Diverse interests compete to shape and control space. Civic engagement is therefore involved in assigning rights to participate in shaping urban spaces or denial of such rights.

Inputs such as economic forces of capitalism and globalization, political decisions such as zoning and development control, cultural values such as social norms and values and technological advancement such as online gambling influence space use. They are mediated by processes of space production to produce the physical and social setting of gambling, changes in the spatial organization of the built environment and impacts on communities that are of a social, economic or environmental nature.

Goffman (1959) in the theory of Front Stage and Back Stage shows that spatial organization manages social interactions by limiting some activity to a front/back stage orientation considered appropriate in terms of impression management. Hence the relaxed informal, unscripted, hidden-from-public orientation of backstage activities such as gambling is contrasted with formal, scripted, audience-oriented interactions that strictly adhere to conventions and social norms. There is a realization of a shift in dialectical materialism where backstage activities emerge from the shadows to contest space with the front stage activities. It is part of the spatial dynamics under interrogation.

METHOD

The study is a qualitative one based on a purposive sampling of 250 gambling operators, gamblers and the public around the gambling points. Data collection tools include audio recording and note-taking. The method used is in-depth interviews which explore experiences; perceptions and attitudes of gambling operators, gamblers and members of the community in gambling areas. Observations involved recording of behaviours, interactions and environmental context.

The thematic analysis method was used involving coding (identification and labelling of preliminary themes and patterns, theme identification and development (relationships and patterns) and theme definition (scope and boundaries of each theme). Analysis of themes involved coding (labelling and categorization), memoing (insights and reflection), mind mapping (visualization of relationships between themes and pattern matching (identification of recurring patterns).

Themes covered include: Spatial adaptations with subthemes such as camouflage strategies and location selection.

Regulatory ambivalence with subthemes such as lack of effective regulation and poor recognition of makeshifts under the regulatory radar.

Social impacts with subthemes such as community concerns and problem gambling and insecurity.

OBSERVATIONS AND DISCUSSION

Reasons for the Proliferation of Roadside Gambling Outfits

Reasons for the proliferation of roadside gambling outfits are many and they emanate from a number of factors: economic, social administrative, technological, environmental and psychological.

Economic Factors: A whole lot of people are unemployed in Nigeria's depressed economy. Gambling outfits are seen as a way of gaining employment. However, under prevailing poverty, capital availability is highly limited. Hence there is a resort to minimalist investment in gambling entrepreneurship under existing franchise arrangements that lead to the roadside. On the side of the gambling public, erosion of income opportunities also encourages low-end gambling behaviour at roadsides.

Social Factors: There is in recent times a progressive normalization of gambling in local culture. This has not however totally eradicated stigmatization since acceptance of gambling behaviour still functions within certain social boundaries. People are yet stigmatized on the grounds of age and gender with the elderly and the very young as well as women negatively profiled.

Peer influence in gambling is heightened in locales with a certain threshold of regular gamblers. Gambling as a social activity requires the mutual reinforcement of collocated patrons. Hence territorial orientation of spheres of influence makes gambling a spatially sensitive activity. One can actually find insulation or better leverage at resistance based on location. Gambling points located at roadsides therefore are strategic in breaking individual resistance by relieving potential gamblers of investment in efforts. It gets effortless by removing the distance barrier. It is therefore incentivized,

Though gambling may provide thrills and escape, the ambience of shade provided by gambling shelters offers an oasis effect under the hot sun and in the absence of alternative moderated spaces. Its public profile also makes it unquestioningly welcoming even to stragglers. For some of these reasons, parts of the public seem to have acquiesced to gambling points as an effort at urban furniture. The roadside gambling room presents a unique subculture, allowing under its highly limited space pleasurable social occasions and interactions that would otherwise have been elusive.

Administrative Factors: The regulatory environment gets very lax out of poorly resourced planning offices that get overwhelmed with development control demands. Weak enforcement tends to incentivize proliferation of makeshift gambling structures. The state's development control institutions do not seem to prioritize makeshift spaces and such other pseudo housing as the gamblers' umbrellas even as the umbrellas are effective alterations to the landscape. Beyond the failure of state development control agencies, neighbourhoods have not evolved formalized structures to regulate the operations and spatial orientation of gambling businesses. Inadequate policy framework leading to lack of clarity in guidelines is exploited by gambling businesses to achieve greater location density.

Technological Factors: The gambling business has become very footloose on account of the digital payment systems that have evolved. The devices in use make it convenient for the business to locate at any point. Hence the locational freedom makes for gravitation to the roadside – the points that generate the most traffic.

Environmental Factors: The roadside orientation serves a public that is already in tune with the patronage of roadside traders. Visibility is another element that goes with accessibility. The public shows a reluctance to go beyond the least effort in sourcing services.

Psychological Factors: Many gamblers are victims of addiction and in their condition, they are scarcely trustworthy. If the level of gambling associated with such people is taken to inner offices in regular housing, admitting such persons of questionable character into such gambling spaces may be of high-security risk. The roadside gambling space is therefore a way of maintaining safe business relationship under difficult, trust-deficit circumstances. These show that roadside gambling is not passive but actively recreating its space in agreement with the submission of Maassen and Madeleine (2019) about informal workers of Durban who design market place, rather than accept displacement.

Typology of Makeshift Structures for Gambling

Makeshift structures in use are temporary in nature. They are also informal and adaptive. There are those that may be found in container-based structures, tent-based structures, street-side stalls, market stalls, roadside kiosks and other types of modular structures. A dominant type that dots the landscape in

Owerri metropolis is the umbrella-based shelter that comes in bright colours such as red for maximum visibility in the city scape. The makeshift arrangement is around a couple of benches under the umbrella with a table serving to give anchorage to the umbrella. The umbrella is rooted in heavy cylinder of earth for stability and the umbrella hoisted over the only table under which the sand cylinder serves as a pillar of support. The room created is hardly enough to grant elbow room to the 5 or 6 that might huddle under the umbrella researching on what numbers to stake. The roof elevation of the umbrella is such that sitting clients are virtually covered and out of view but for their exposed ankles or knees. On all sides, various materials are used as curtains to maximize the privacy of facility users, This is the most popular set-up as it is quite cheap to assemble. This however makes it highly amenable to proliferation and the aesthetic challenge it has come to assume. It is in agreement with the findings of Dodd (2000) on informal trading areas of Johannesburg. Despite the observed state however Dodd (2000) sees architectural makeovers as best practice given their economic value.

Spatial Adjustments and Adaptation of Gambling Spaces

Most operators of gambling businesses are vulnerable young ladies who may not stand up to robbers. They therefore locate on very business roadsides to find security in the public limelight. Incidentally, gambling cannot be zoned away like some other stigmatized commercial interests of the informal sector to its own 'redlight districts'. Gambling at the low level that is common has to be in the trajectories of traffic as clients will not find it economical to take a trip for the low-end transactions that are commonly done at the roadsides. Gambling points have to be sporadic in space and cannot adopt a localization orientation for dealing largely with 'small change'. Being so boxed in, the gambling businesses have to contest for space where none has been provided. They spill into sidewalks, streets and parks where they have to show flexibility and readiness to give way to vehicles as the need arises and get restored as convenience demands. Their readiness for impermanence is a fluidity that enables tolerable encroachment.

Other adaptation strategies include their outlook of camouflage to blend with similar informal shelters housing cobblers, petty traders, mobile money operators (described as POS operators), roadside catering outfits, good vendors, newspaper vendors etc.

Proximity to transportation hubs is a common feature tying the business to transportation infrastructure such as motor parks and a linear orientation following the roadways. Where there is scarcely space to maintain contiguity with the roads, open drainage systems have been covered with boards to provide platforms for the gambling shelters. Adaptive strategies have also been seen in the city of Ammon where the local community is reinventing its informal spaces (Yaghi, Abuhassan, Hamdan, Aalwneh, Khushamn, Tarawneh & Goussous, 2023).

Implications for Urban Aesthetics Safety and Security

The episodic nature of some forms of gambling implies that many gamblers hang on for extended hours keeping to regimens across the day. It is therefore a perfect spatial alibi for loafers and stragglers that would otherwise not find a foothold in some neighbourhoods and business layouts. The gambling space therefore brings reserved and private spaces into the urban commons subject to diverse abuses and vulgarity. While disruptive activities in urban areas such as refuse evacuation and clubbing are usually time-zoned away from conflict with diurnal activities yielding the usual nightscape specialities dominated by youth culture, gambling is not so amenable to such temporal adjustments. Its disruptive capacity cannot therefore be managed in this way.

There is a security risk in gambling umbrellas permanently adjusted to a low roof orientation to mask identity of clients and enable evasion of public stigmatization. The street, this way accommodates a person whose identity is unknown and apprehension about security is common. The privacy-security trade-off challenges the sustainability of the industry. The aesthetic presentation is one of poor visual and sensory experiences and even deeper negative symbolic meanings. The environments where these gambling points are found are cluttered and chaotic with bright colours, decrepit, patchy drapery and unapproved advertising and signage. Urban landscape is degraded due to the disruption of public space aesthetics and incongruence with surrounding architecture. Crowding and congestion effect is created by the loss of road verges. Navigation of the area is impaired through obstruction of vehicular lanes, pedestrian paths and visibility. The neighbourhood identity suffers. The symbolism is one of urban decay, neglect and representations of economic struggle and resilience under poverty. It reinforces in

the urban space the old aesthetic conflicts that speak to the tension between formal and informal urban design; luxury and poverty; order and disorder and planned and unplanned development. Urban beauty and ugliness and people's economic survival within those contexts emerge as a central concern and subject for debate. The link between neighbourhood deprivation and gambling concentration established in Adeniyi (2023) is made evident. What is however left for conjecture is the causal pathway – to ascertain which between gambling concentration and deprivation is the precursor of the other.

Perspective of Gambling Operators on Regulations and Impact on the Built Environment

A major point that kept showing up in submissions made by the gambling operators on regulatory pressures is the employment opportunities they have created for themselves as grounds to justify the relaxation of regulatory pressures on their business model. It is the same old logic of environmental quality considered as an inferior good to survival.

Another economic ground canvassed for relaxation of development control pressures is the tax revenue gambling firms generate that goes into government coffers. Most gambling operators consider it inconsistent for the government that tax their operations to declare them a problem for the urban ecology. Within the context of neighbourhoods, they consider the customers they attract that patronize other collocated businesses enough compensation for the inconveniences associated with their business. They reject the suggestion of relocation from the maladjusted spaces they occupy on the insistence that their extant chosen locations are where the customers are found. Besides, lack of money to rent a regular structure for the business is a regular concern. It reinforces the idea that regulations favour established operators; and starters operating at the margins need to be granted some kind of affirmative action to democratize participation in the economy.

The gambling operators do not reckon with their negative impact on the built environment and landscape. They rather hold unto the conviction that they add value. The claim is that their operations are not a disturbance or distortion to the built environment as they do not operate permanent structures. While they see the modularity of their umbrellas as an index of sustainability, the night time removal of the structure does nothing to ameliorate its several hours of cluttering the business space during business hours. Interestingly while the umbrella can be considered temporary, certain ancillary structures are left *in situ* on a permanent basis.

Another contention by the operators is that they participate in neighbourhood environmental sanitation implying their internalization of what could have been externalized; a show of goodwill and civic responsibility that should count for something in terms of social responsibility.

Their perspectives reinforce the idea of Chattopadhyay (2024) that appraisal of informal structures and decisions made about their significance depends on where one is located on the informal-formal divide.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Gambling regulators need to engage the communities to stimulate self-regulation of gambling activities. Development control agencies which currently emphasize permanent built structures while regulating makeshifts should recognize the disruptive value of makeshift structures.

Government agencies – the pools and gaming board should clarify the operational standards spelt out for gambling operators to guide the general public.

The built environment designs should be made to provide for public use such that informal activities are not essentially reduced to squatter activities ill-adjusted to built-environments.

Financial inclusion and empowerment should be pursued to reduce the number of persons dependent on gambling business. This will produce good landscape changes.

CONCLUSION

The paper interrogates the proliferation of gambling and its impact on the urban built environment. It investigates how low-end gambling negotiates space in the built-up urban context. Its investigation of the evolution of gambling spaces is to establish spatial adjustments made by roadside gambling outfits, as stigmatized activities, to maintain their spaces in the face of public disapproval and development control. It asked questions about factors that drive roadside proliferation; adaptation to urban development; implications for urban aesthetics, safety and security; public perception of gambling spaces and operators' perception of regulations and the impact of their operations.

The space production theory of Henri Lefebvre and the Frontstage and Backstage theory of Erving Goffman were invoked to analyse the placemaking and social psychology involved in informal sector spatial dynamics. The qualitative method involving thematic analysis helped to ascertain economic social, administrative, psychological, technological, and environmental reasons for roadside orientation of emergent gambling businesses. The realized gambling spaces are modular, and not amenable to district localization and spatial fidelity. While the spatial adjustment they make entails sandwiching among regularly built environments, they produce distorting effects on urban aesthetics, safety and security.

The general perspective of operators shows self-preservation, enlightened self-interest and support for the maintenance of the spatial status quo. Their perspective highlights the idea that the position held on informal businesses and their outlooks depends on where an assessor belongs in the existential formal-informal divide. The urban space contestation between formal and informal space use is therefore a class struggle and a socio-political event.

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APPENDIX



Fig. 1: Fire Service Junction Wetheral Road



Fig. 2: Wetheral /Aba Road Junction



Fig. 3: Old Timber Market by Wetheral



Fig. 4: Ogbo Osi



Fig. 5: Egbu Road



Fig. 6: Christ Church by Wetheral



Fig. 7: Ikenegbu Layout by Destiny Supermarket



Fig. 8: IMSU Junction, Okigwe Road



Fig. 9: Imo State University, Owerri

Chapter Twenty-Seven**Studio Ceramic Art: The Panacea for Change towards Sustainable Development****Victoria Ifeoma Konkwo***Department of Fine and Applied Arts, Imo State University, Owerri**EMAIL: vifeoma415@gmail.com***ABSTRACT**

This study explores the importance of ceramics studio art as a panacea for the change we need in a deprived society to achieve sustainable economic development and overall growth in Nigeria. Ceramic studio art constitutes some of the important forms of expression and representation through which the studio ceramists contribute to the growth of the Nigerian nation. The thrust of this paper is to highlight and discuss the significant roles which studio ceramic artists play in the areas of education, technology, culture, social, aesthetics, political, communication, religious, historical and entrepreneurial development of the Nigerian Nation. The paper examines the meaning of development in a broader context which is not limited to economic enterprise alone but also incorporates other aspects of human endeavors. The benefits of studio ceramic arts in achieving overall sustainable development in the above-mentioned areas were enumerated and discussed. It concluded that studio ceramic arts is a human activity aimed at helping man face the challenges of his environment. This makes it imperative that studio ceramic arts can no longer be sidelined in the drive towards developmental goals in Nigeria.

KEYWORDS: Studio ceramic arts; Deprived society; Sustainability; National Development

INTRODUCTION

Ceramics arts according to Oziogu (2011) is the act of forming objects of clay in a moist plastic condition and firing them in a kiln. Nigrosh (1996) opines that ceramics are made with soft clay, which can be easily modelled into any shape and fired to permanency. The writer asserts that ceramics is an important aspect of human life, which can be two or three dimensional involving the skill of making earthenware containers and firing them by the action of heat. Studio ceramics art therefore is the making of ceramic art in a studio setting rather than in a factory. Studio ceramists are free to experiment with many techniques and styles. Their artistic works can be functional, aesthetical, or expressional. Studio ceramists produce functional wares such as table wares, ornamental wares, sculptural pieces and a host of other items. Studio ceramist's work of art in the opinion of Duane and Seruh Preble (1994, p.12) is the aesthetic expression of an idea or experience formed with skills through the use of a medium. In support of the above view, Omaighe (2006) sees studio ceramic art as a medium of expression that dictates a certain discipline and structural standard to convey both meaning and aesthetic values. One way of studying change is through the appreciation of studio ceramists and the wares they produce in the society which play significant roles in the individual and collective lives of a society or nation. Ago (2012) asserts that all human civilization is creative imagination. Therefore, this implies that studio ceramic artists are imaginative, creative and innovative in expressing ideas or experiences formed with skill through the use of a medium (clay). In all ages, studio ceramics art is of paramount importance to the society. It consists of both a form of expression and practical convenience. Konkwo (2013) opines that studio ceramics art continued through the early civilization to the modern age. Konkwo further said that its practice and study contributed to the development of some ancient cities such as France, Britain, America, Germany and a host of others. National development in the context of this discourse is considered as the extent to which our nation has evolved ceramic art as a means towards attaining satisfying levels in areas of her economic, social, educational, cultural, environmental, technological, aesthetics, communication, historical, political and entrepreneurial needs.

Deprived society

According to Nwoke (2023), the word deprived means to keep something away from someone or society. He further stated that the state of deprivation means something is missing and this implies that Nigeria is deprived in the sense that notwithstanding the national development plans, Nigeria do not

have things or conditions such as the ever presence of many studio-ceramic artists that are usually considered necessary for a pleasant life.

National and sustainable development

National development is the capacity of a country to raise the standard of living of its residents. It could be achieved by providing individuals with basic livelihood requirements and supplying them with employment. According to Nwoko (2013), national development must be based on a country's resources both human and material. To utilize the benefits of human resources, this study focuses on studio ceramic art: the panacea for the change we need in a deprived society for sustainable development. This shows the need for more studio ceramic artist's participation in the mainstream of Nigerian society. Thus, studio ceramic art empowerment in Nigeria is recommended as contributing more to human resources than any other because, it has a lot to do with human competence, creativity and skills. Studio ceramic arts in this study will no doubt, provide the necessary professional skills, knowledge, industry, innovation, creativity and competence which leads to maximum output in studio ceramic production, decision making and leadership qualities. In all ages and in every society, studio ceramic artists have aided the development of mankind by producing necessary aesthetic, ornamental, industrial, technological, table wares and a host of other items which helps man solve its pressing problems. The reason which among other things motivated this paper is the need to highlight the significance of studio ceramic arts as the panaceas for the change we need in Nigeria for sustainable development. These changes are thus classified under the following subheadings. It is the opinion of the writer that any nation or society without these areas of studio ceramic arts is like a tree without a root.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The Concept of Culture

Culture is an inherent part of human social relations. Culture is the way of life of a people. The shared, learned behaviour of a people's Culture means different things to different people. Ojulari (2009) defines culture as that complex whole which included knowledge, belief, arts, moral, laws, custom and any other capabilities acquired by man as a member of a society. According to Peters (1973) culture is the sum total of human creation, the organized results of group experience from the past to the present time, thus it includes all that man had made of in the form of tools, weapons, shelter and other material goods. By this, culture represents the distinctive way of life of a group and their complete design for living.

Famuyide (2007) defines culture as the whole way of a society or the way people live. It is the totality of all the life and living patterns of a particular group of people. According to him this includes their ideas, the object they make or create and all the activities which go on among them. Thus, culture embraces all characteristic activities and interests of a set of people or society. Every society has a culture which members of that society transmit from generation to generation as their cultural heritage. Aspects of culture can be classified under two broad headings. First is the material culture and second is the non-material culture.

- The material culture describes an object of culture which are a creation of man and which is visible. These include buildings; works of arts, tools clothes, jewels pots, etc. Culture is very useful particularly when it comes to tracing the history of a people. This could be done through the help of archaeology by excavating relics (materials) from the ground.
- Non-material cultures are abstract and not seen physically but are of great value and importance to the people or the society. The non-material culture is reflected in attitude, values, beliefs, manner, of greetings and dressing styles for men and women, morals, languages, motivation, etc, which are shared and transmitted. Famuyide, (2007).

Studio ceramic artists contribute a lot in projecting the people's culture as it mirrors their lifestyles. Studio ceramic works at any time or place are always influenced by the physical, cultural and socio-historical factors in the environment in which he or she works and lives. Studio ceramic arts are forms of language that immediately tell a visitor the tradition or culture of that particular area.

Uzoagba (2001) notes that studio ceramic arts encourage cultural integration and promote national economy and foreign exchange. Adejumo (2007) opines that studio ceramic arts wares are a tangible creation force of any culture. Nigerian Studio Ceramic artists reflect in their works the cultural attributes

of our nation by producing creative works of high aesthetics that depict ceremonies and occupations of the people such as New Yam Festivals, Traditional ceremonial pots for carrying palm wine during traditional marriage ceremonies, Chieftaincy ceremonies, child naming ceremonies and a host of others. These artistic endeavours by the studio ceramists give a deep insight into Nigerian culture. Some cultural studio ceramic wares are used to determine cultural values, beliefs, norms and occupations of the society. Ikegwonu, (2010) opines that indigenous cultures are expressed and projected to the outside world through studio ceramists' art works.

Studio ceramic arts promote the economy of a nation or community

Studio Ceramists can be seen as vessels for change in sustainable economic and overall development in Nigeria. They are seen as instruments for employment generation. When hundreds of studio ceramic artists become self-employed and entrepreneurs, young and teaming graduates will be employed in their studios to market their wares and production, thus, reducing or minimizing the rate of unemployment in the country. According to Adejuma (2007) studio ceramic arts are a tangible creative force of any country. The artists can enrich themselves by producing diverse made-in-Nigeria ceramic wares for industrial and household needs. This will no doubt improve the standard of living of the people as many young unemployed graduates will be employed by them. This will develop sound moral values in the youths and keep them out of the streets, cultism and violence.

Studio ceramic artists produce works that are kept in museums and prominent hotels. These wares are bought by tourists as gift items and personal uses. This increases the standard of living of the artists and makes them to attain a sustainable level of economic independence.

Studio ceramic arts represent a means of communication

Ceramic wares are essential in the education of both the young and the old. Studio ceramic arts impact learning by providing young people with an authentic learning experience that engages their minds and bodies. The arts transform the environment for learning. Thus, visuals assist individuals in generating ideas, bringing ideas to life, and to communicate them in workplaces. Through studio ceramic arts, children learn their languages faster. Generally, children learn about their environment through visual communication which their mother interprets their meanings. Children from infancy appear to understand faster through visual learning. Ekeada (2007) notes that "Children at early stage of life are naturally endowed with skills but they tend to lose it at school because of discouragement from their teachers or parents." No doubt then that they scribble early on the walls, floor and ground to express their ideas and feelings about the world. We can see that it is inborn by observing children who make pictures, sculptures and model buildings before learning to read or write. Thus, Nwaughu (2005) remarks that "we cannot effectively teach the pupils with only words, these pupils are too small to express their feelings, so, they learn and understand faster and better with visuals or objects they can see, touch or hear its sound". This in effect helps the children to remember faster what they are taught in school and at home as well as promote their languages and cultural identification in Nigeria.

Studio ceramic arts play important, roles in displaying adverts for important information effectively and vividly. The space and computer technology are generating a visual culture that thrives on new ideas, new ways of doing things, new areas of explorations and experimentations very much the same way in which studio ceramic arts is constantly seeking for new sensibilities, new materials and new directions.

Studio ceramic arts and education

Studio ceramic arts perform significant roles in the education sector as they expose the child to the use of tools and instructional materials which are rooted in visual art, right from the first cave dwellers who drew on the walls of their caves. Onyejemezi (1996) states that:

Meaningful learning takes place when the learner is fully involved in the process through the use of well-prepared instructional media. This gives the learner the opportunity of experiencing as he/she observes, hears or listens, touches or manipulates things, carried out some experiments or interacts with some concrete objects and situations. According to Okere (2011, p.16) through the use of interesting studio ceramic visuals, educators can 'inject' into scholars, the vitality and zeal to

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

learn. Besides he, continues, it will lessen the severity of learning processes. Hence, he asserts that: device is to serve as a more concrete referent to learning than spoken or written word. Words are arbitrary symbolize. They don't look or sound usually like the things they represent.

Supporting the above view, Broekhuizen (1995) asserts that studio ceramic arts help to educate the illiterate masses on how to prevent certain diseases such as HIV (Human Immune Deficiency Virus) diabetes, malaria, and a host of others by producing visuals that illustrate what they are saying. He contends that "because these people cannot read, write or understand English language, it is helpful to translate what we say into studio ceramic visuals".

Studio ceramic arts education programmes in Nigerian higher institutions of learning are designed to provide intellectual background for general education as well as tailored towards manpower development in specialized practical skills, acquisition of relevant skills for creating value or applied, industrial, commercial, cultural or aesthetic and social development purposes. Konkwo (2013) opines that the philosophy of the Studio ceramic arts education programme is geared towards construction, selectivity, creativity, organization and order, which emphasize the value of "making" as a knowledge process. The Nigerian Studio ceramists are trained to be technical, professional and self-reliant which enhances self-employment, and vibrancy in the labour market as well as creates employment opportunities.

Studio Ceramic Arts and Religion

Studio ceramic arts perform vital roles in religious worship in society. The Christians of the Renaissance period interpreted religious matters symbolically through visual forms. For example, the dove represents peace, the lamb as Jesus Christ, the apple as evil, the blood as life or soul and the palm as triumph over death. Adams (2001) opines that the use of Studio ceramic arts for religious purposes started earlier than the 16th century when Michelangelo (1475-1564) was commissioned to paint the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel by Juliana II. The ceiling, which covered about 5800 square feet and a long corridor was covered with visual arts numbering about 300 figures drawn from the theme "the creation, fall and redemption of man". These sceneries, which provoke some inspiration to ardent Christians in our contemporary period, are seen in various, churches around us. We can see some sculptural ceramic pieces of the crucifix, the Last Supper, the Blessed Virgin Mary, the shepherds, the three wise men and a host of others in our churches today. Studio ceramic wares such as flower pots, candle stands, ceramic cups for Holy Communion, ceramic tiles and ceramic bricks are used in decorating and beautifying Christian Churches. Hence, the use of studio ceramic arts to project religion is not a new idea.

Studio Ceramic Arts and Economics

From the prehistoric time to the modern period, studio ceramists have created, a myriad of interesting artworks, and designs used for different purposes. The objectives of engaging in such activities were often inspired by the need to express themselves. These creative activities have led to creative experiences resulting in creating gainful employment and opportunities for financial rewards to the studio ceramists.

This human endeavour "Studio ceramic arts" can be used to enrich an individual, the entire nation the environment where it is practised, and the community and the society at large. Ceramic art techniques and processes are technically applied to reflect human achievements, needs and feelings. According to Eze (2011), "most people are now becoming aware of the relevance of the discipline in manpower development. For example, many non-governmental organizations have incorporated Studio ceramic arts as an aspect of their entrepreneurship".

In Nigeria, Mbiri, Ife, Igbo and Yoruba arts are other classes of ceramic arts and design used as creative traditional enterprises for tourist attractions and fundraising. Tourists buy Nigerian ceramic art as gifts to their loved ones thereby, increasing the economic growth of the nation.

Studio ceramic arts and Crafts

Studio ceramic arts cannot be separated from crafts. The traditional system could not have made substantial development without input from the crafts. Artifacts such as woven textiles, ropes, diggers,

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

hoes, pots, knives, fans, pottery, carved architectural doors, cane chairs, beds, trays and a host of others contribute to the economic well-being of Nigerian society.

Studio Ceramic Arts and Aesthetics

Studio ceramic arts develop man's sense of beauty by training one to appreciate the importance of harmony and beauty in both objects and society. According to Idiong, (1999), "one can also see artistic Studio ceramic wares and ideas used aesthetically in designing and decorating Nigerian hotels and recreational parks. These aesthetic developments might not be unconnected to the declaration of Owerri as the cleanest state capital in Nigeria, during the Babangida administration. In this era of industrialization, one observes that technology must not be devoid of aesthetics. For instance, a technician or cabinet maker will only reach aesthetic value if he employs a sense of balance, beauty and ugliness. He can arrange a living room and its environs to needed interior standards.

He also knows what fits where and what must be kept or removed in a space. Positively Nigerians have made a great stride in their artistic development through studio ceramic arts.

Today, ceramic arts because of their aesthetic value attract tourists to the country. By such interaction, they migrate from one area to another to view beautiful landscapes and environments decorated with ceramic wares. These landmarks educate people and unite Nigeria as a country. It therefore implies that Studio ceramic arts can be used to improve the aesthetic quality of an environment. Studio ceramic wares are environmentally friendly products (s) that give(s) an intrinsic perceptual appeal to the viewer. It must be noted that the modern African artist not only works in pictorial and plastic forms, he/she also designs and beautifies his society through his artistic contributions to the environment. He/she sees periodic art exhibitions as an indispensable platform from which his/her art can speak to his environment. In support of this view, Azikiwe in Osita (2012) asserted that "No modern society can develop industrially or meaningfully without products. from studio ceramic arts ".

Ceramic pots produced by studio ceramists are used to decorate the environment by planting beautiful flowers on them and placing them in strategic places to attract the attention of their beholders. It is an important aspect of visual art that could be used to improve upon the standard of a given environment economically, domestically and aesthetically.

The functional roles of these areas of endeavour cannot be over-emphasized. From the aforesaid, it is the writer's view that any environment or society without this area of studio ceramic arts is like a tree without a root.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Studio ceramic arts in our national life contribute to all facets of human endeavour, socio-economically in the production of a wide variety of objects, which serve as functional items, conceptual or decorative objects. The Studio ceramic art objects could be used for various purposes ranging from private, pleasure, social use, domestic or public environment as well as for commercial production. Studio ceramic arts preserve our culture unite society and speak to our souls.

Ecoma (2011) asserts that " Studio ceramic arts could be a source of powerful influence for positive change and a voice for artists who otherwise might not be heard." The universal language of art can cross barriers and boundaries, thereby bringing Nigerians of diverse ethnic backgrounds together to promote greater understanding of one another.

A nation that is weak in arts and creativity lacks development organization hence, will be weak and dependent on developed cultures for developmental strategies.

Visual art is important in foreign relations as an instrument of cultural diplomacy. Nigeria's artistic heritage and contemporary visual culture are sometimes shown overseas. "The artist is a seer and a prophet, through his arts, he makes available both truth and mode of existence that are essential to a human being".

Recommendations

Given the aforementioned, I hereby recommend that:

- Studio ceramic arts should be made compulsory core subjects from primary and junior secondary levels.

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- More Art galleries and national museums should be established in all the stages of the country and those already in existence should be made to be functional, for the public to appreciate studio ceramic art forms.
- Studio ceramists should be empowered by the government by giving them loans to set up viable ceramic studios and industries in order to employ more youths.

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Chapter Twenty-Eight**Effect of Drug Abuse on the Academic Performance of Undergraduate Geography Students in Kano State, Nigeria*****Abubakar Yamusa Abdullahi; Fatima Bello Muhammad***

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EMAIL: abubakaryamusa79@gmail.com**ABSTRACT**

This paper examines the effect of drug abuse on the academic performance of Undergraduate Geography students in Kano State, Nigeria. However, drug abuse is rampant among teenagers because of their ignorance they do not understand the effects and repercussions of drug addiction. Moreover, many students acquire it through their friend's influence, experimental curiosity, and personal problems due to socio-background conditions while many need it for energy to work for long hours. Similarly, some need drugs to prevent the occurrence of withdrawal symptoms etc. In addition, students are encouraged to abuse the following drugs Alcohol, cocaine, Nicotine Phencyclidine etc. but all these drugs have negative effects on the body. For instance, many students find it cumbersome to read and even it kills their moral of reading culture. Consequently, after they have taken the drugs, many students behave abnormally while others fall sick based on their body system even it affects their ability to reason all these problems contribute to their reading culture and many students fail honourably in public examinations such as WAEC, NECO and other external examinations yearly in Nigeria. Therefore, parents, teachers and the Ministry of Education neither the federal nor state must contribute positively to reducing the use of drugs among teenagers in private and public secondary schools in Nigeria.

KEYWORDS; Drug Abuse; Academic; Performance; External. Examination; Student

INTRODUCTION

Historically, herbs, leaves and plants are forms of drugs that are used to heal and control diseases. Plants have been utilised as medicines since their creation. The specific plants to be used and the methods of application for particular ailments were passed down through oral history from one generation to the other (Khalid, Zaidi, & Ahmad, 2014). There is evidence that intentionally fermented alcohol existed from as early as 10,000 BC when it was used in religious worship, for recreation, medicinal use and for quenching thirst by long-distance travellers. Marijuana was used as medicine from 2,737 BC in China then later in the 19th century, active substances used in the production of drugs like cocaine and morphine were extracted and freely prescribed by physicians for various ailments and even sold over the counter (Magidson & Jessica, 2016).

A drug is referred to as a substance that could bring about a change in the biological modifies perceptions, cognition, mood, behaviour and general body functions (Balogun, 2016). actions (Chebukaka, 2017). It is also considered as a substance that could thus be considered as a chemical modifier of the living tissues that could bring about psychological and behavioural changes (Nnachi, 2017). The use of drugs in itself does not constitute any danger, because drugs correctly administered have been a blessing to bring healing. Unfortunately, in contemporary times certain drugs that initially produced effects such as ecstasy, a sense of feeling good, serenity and power have grown into a problem of dependence and abuse (Ekpenyong, 2012). Drugs such as tobacco, cocaine, marijuana, and alcohol among others tend to stimulate the nervous system of an individual to behave abnormally and extraordinarily, leading such an individual to lose his/her sense of being. The abuse of drugs can cause serious irreversible damage to such individual's physical and psychological development. As Manbe (2018) pointed out, a common incident that happens around us today is as a result of drug abuse and if care is not taken, this could lead to mental disorders.

The World Health Organization defined drug abuse as a "state" of periodic or chronic intoxication, detrimental to the individual and the society, produced by the repeated consumption of a drug (natural or synthetic) (WHO, 2016). Drug abuse are disorder evident in the deliberate use of chemical substances for reasons other than intended medical purposes and which occasion physical, mental, emotional, or

social impairment to the users (Mehta & Rouf, 2013) argued that the use of drugs like Benylin with codeine, Tutolin with codeine, for medical purposes like the whooping cough is not drug abuse but becomes abused only when it is geared towards producing some desired behaviours, physical dependency, addiction, and/or constitute a nuisance to the society. More so, drugs can be said to be abused when they are used without due care, must approve their use. This observation is borne out by several studies on ill behaviours of qualified and registered persons who, according to the laws of the particularly among undergraduate students in tertiary institutions (Abdullahi, 2015, Obiamaka, 2014, Fawa, The causes of drug abuse among undergraduate students may be sociological, psychological, out of inquisitiveness, boredom, to ease fear, develop sexual and physical pleasures, or as a result of family background among other things (Ngesu, 2018). The sequence of usage ranges from tobacco, alcohol, marijuana and other higher substances. Undergraduate students are gradually engaging in prescribed drugs, particularly narcotics which are given to relieve severe pain and stimulant medications, which treat conditions like attention deficit disorder and narcolepsy (Turner in Dankano & Garba, 2020). A long-lasting effect on the learning abilities of the user is common for those students who start using drugs at a younger age. Drug abuse causes some areas of the brain not to develop properly leading to learning disabilities. Persistent abuse of drugs further leads to loss of memory and judgment. Many undergraduate students who engage in drug abuse tend to be forgetful and can hardly focus particularly in their studies; it can also lead to loss of short-term memory. Drug abuse may weaken memory by slowing down the coordination of materials and may decrease students' ability to remember such field materials that were learned before using the drugs (Magidson & Jessica, 2016).

In a similar vein, undergraduate students found in the acts of drug abuse are often academically and socially less developed as they are not respected and recognized to make reasonable contributions to any development. This is because drug abuse does not only downgrade the academic performance of students but also affects the moral, physical and general buildup of the students (Dankano & Garba, 2020). Thus, youths who are perceived as the veered to the act of abusing drugs. This act does not in any way contribute to the development of being trained in various tertiary institutions in diverse field have the students and as such the expected output of these students can greatly diminish their academic performances because of their persistence in drug abuse (Staff, 2012). It is against this background that the study sought to ascertain the effect of Drug Abuse on the Academic Performance of Undergraduate Students in Kano State.

Statement of the Problem

Over the years, the abuse of drugs such as tobacco, sedatives, Marijuana (Indian hemp), cocoa leaves, alcohol, heroin, morphine, cocaine, inhalants (such as glue), and amphetamines to mention but a few have drastically been on the increase. This is disturbing globally as well as in our circumstantial setting among undergraduate students in Kano State. It is widely believed that drug abusers are often mentally derailed and are unable to perform well in their academics. This is more pronounced in science courses, such as computer science, medicine and allied studies, which require high attentiveness for better understanding. Profligacy in drug abuse by undergraduate students does not only tend to affect their academic performance but also affects their cognitive quotient thus exposing them to crime and health challenges (Jonathan & Samuel, 2018). Despite worldwide concern and education about the dangers of drug abuse, many undergraduate students ignorantly or knowingly depend on one drug or the other for their daily lifestyle. From the assertion of the above, it is therefore becoming necessary to carry out this study to determine the effect of drug abuse on the academic performance of undergraduate students in Kano State Particularly Geography Departments.

Objective of the Study

The Objective of the Study is to Examine the Effect of Drug Abuse on the Academic Performance of Undergraduate Geography Students in Kano State. Specifically, the Study Sought to;

1. identify Causes of Drug Abuse among Undergraduate Geography Students in Kano State.
2. Examine the Causes of Drug Abuse on the Academic Performance of Undergraduate Geography Students in Kano State

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are formulated for the study:

1. There is no significant difference in the mean ratings of causes of drug abuse among Undergraduate students in Kano State based on gender.
2. There is no significant relationship in the mean ratings of effect of drug abuse on academic Performance of undergraduate students in Kano State based on location.

METHODOLOGY

The descriptive survey research design was applied for this study which examined the effects of drug abuse on the academic performance of undergraduate students in Kano State. The population of the study was made of 9,805 undergraduate students from Five (5) universities and Colleges of Education in Kano State. The Universities and Colleges include: Bayero University Kano (BUK), Sa'adatu Rimi University of Education, Yusuf Maitama University, Aliko Dangote University of Technology Wudil, and Federal College of Education (FCE Kano) The simple random sampling technique was used to select 245 students used for the study. The instrument for data collection was a structured questionnaire on a four (4) point rating scale. The order was used to determine the reliability of the instrument which yielded a reliable instrument was validated by the experts from Bayero University, Kano.

Spearman rank coefficient of 0.86. Two hundred and forty-five (245) copies of the questionnaire were administered to the respondents by the researcher and two other research assistants. Out of the 245 questionnaires administered, 218 copies were retrieved and used for analysis. Mean and standard deviation were descriptive statistical tools that were used to analyse the two research questions while the t-test was the inferential statistics used to test the null hypotheses at a 0.05 level of significance. For the research questions, the decision was based on the criterion mean of 2.50. Thus, any item whose mean value is 2.50 or above was accepted while any item having a mean value lower than 2.50 was rejected. For the hypotheses, since the calculated value of t (t-cal) was less than the table value of t (t-crit), the hypothesis was accepted.

RESULTS

Research Question 1: What are the causes of drug abuse among undergraduate students in Kano State?

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of Responses on the causes of drug abuse among undergraduate students in Kano State?

S/N	STATEMENT	SA	A	D	SD	MEAN	S.D.	REMARK
1	Peer pressure is most likely to drive students into drug abuse under the false impression that the same drugs stimulate appetite for food, increase strength and give wisdom as well as courage to face life.	120	85	11	2	3.48	0.64	Agree
2	Parental neglect is most likely to lead musicians or television personalities abusing undergraduate students into drug abuse	209	8	1	-	3.95	0.23	Agree
3	Low grades tend to create negative feelings among undergraduate students, and so to ease the pain and low morale, they resort to drug abuse as a remedy to their failures in an effort to gain self-confidence	119	76	15	21	3.40	0.77	Agree
4	Influence of role models from movie stars to drugs tend to drive undergraduate students into drug abuse	18	3	176	15	2.08	0.66	Disagree
5	Students may abuse drugs for reasons like relaxation, relieving stress, showing independence, getting rid of boredom, being included in a social group, curiosity among others	88	101	14	-	3.20	0.84	Agree

Source: Researcher's field survey data, 2024.

From Table, the grand mean of 3.22 which is clearly above the cut-off point of 2.50 (agree) as well as the standard deviation of 0.63 indicated that the respondents agreed that peer pressure, parental neglect, influence of role models, as well as relaxation, relieving stress, showing independence, getting rid of

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boredom, being included in a social group, curiosity among others are causes of drug abuse among undergraduate students in Kano State.

Research Question 2: How does drug abuse affect the academic performance of undergraduate students in Kano State?

Table 2: Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of Responses on Drug Abuse effects on academic performance of undergraduate students in Kano State.

S/N	STATEMENT	SA	A	D	SD	MEAN	S.D.	REMARK
1.	Undergraduate students are most likely to stay away from lessons and classes due to the effect of drug abuse and this could lead to poor academic performance	192	23	3	-	3.87	0.38	Agree
2.	Drug abuse is most likely to make undergraduate students less serious in their academic work leading to poor performance	183	-	3	3	3.80	0.52	Agree
3.	Drug abuse has a negative effect on the memory and cognitive capacity of students as they tend to forget what was taught previously	123	77	18	-	3.48	0.64	Agree
4.	Drug abuse tends to give room for poor scores and results due to students' inability to keep up with their studies	117	101	-	-	3.54	0.50	Agree
5.	Drug abuse such as heavy drinking may lower undergraduate students' expectations about their academic performance which could lead to dropping out of school	198	11	9	-	3.87	0.44	Agree
	Grand Mean					3.71	0.50	Agree

Source: Researcher's field survey data, 2024.

From Table 2, the grand mean of 3.71 which is above the cut-off mark of 2.50 (agree) as well as the standard deviation of 0.50 showed that the respondents are in unison that drug abuse affects negatively the academic performance of undergraduate students in Kano State.

Hypotheses

Ho₁: There is no significant difference in the mean ratings of causes of drug abuse among undergraduate students in Kano State based on gender.

Table 3: T-test Analysis of Undergraduate Students on the Causes of Drug Abuse among Undergraduate Students in Kano State based on Gender

Respondents	N	S ²	Df	t.cal	t.crit	α	Remark
Male	103	3.65	0.62	216	0.497	1.971	0.05
Female	115	3.61	0.56				
Retain Ho							

Source: Researcher's field survey data, 2024.

From the t-test table in Table 3 since t-cal (1.41) < t-crit (1.97), we retain Ho. The null hypothesis is hereby retained that there is no significant difference in the mean ratings of undergraduate students on the causes of drug abuse among undergraduate students in Kano State based on gender.

Ho₂: There is no significant relationship in the mean ratings of undergraduate students on the effect of drug abuse on the academic performance of undergraduate students in Kano State based on location.

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Table 4: T-test Analysis of Undergraduate Students on the Effect of Drug Abuse on Academic Performance of Undergraduate Students in Kano State Based on Location.

Respondents	N	S ²	Df	t.cal	t.crit	□	Remark	
Urban	120	3.71	0.62	216	0.249	1.971	0.05	Retain Ho
Rural	98	3.69	0.56					

Source: Researcher's field survey data, 2024.

From the t-test result in Table 4 $t\text{-cal} (1.41) < t\text{-crit} (1.97)$, we retain H_0 . The null hypothesis is hereby retained that there is no significant relationship in the mean ratings on the effect of drug abuse on the academic performance of undergraduate students in Kano State based on location.

Discussion of Findings

Research Question 1 sought to find out the causes of drug abuse among undergraduate students including: the influence of peer pressure on drug abuse under the false students in Kano State. The finding of the study revealed that the causes of drug abuse among the impression that the same drugs stimulate appetite for food, increase strength and give wisdom as well as courage to face life. Parental neglect which has driven undergraduate students into drug abuse; influence of role models from movie stars to musicians or television personalities abusing drugs; low academic grades which create negative feelings among undergraduate students has also contributed. Other causes of drug abuse among undergraduate students include: relieving stress, being included in a social group, showing independence, relaxation, getting rid of boredom, and curiosity. This finding is in consonant with Ngesu (2018) who submitted that the causes of drug abuse among undergraduate students may be sociological, psychological, boredom, out of curiosity, to alleviate fear, derive sexual and physical pleasures, or as a result of family background among other things.

Research Question 2 sought to examine how drug abuse affects the academic performance of undergraduate students in Kano State. The finding of the study as shown in Table 2 revealed that drug abuse impact negatively on academic performance of undergraduate students in Edo State. This is buttressed by the fact that undergraduate students due to the effects of drug abuse stay away from lessons and classes; become less serious in their academic work; develop low memory and cognitive capacity leading to forgetfulness of previously taught lessons; unable to keep up with their studies; as well as low expectations about their academic performance which could lead to dropping out of school. This finding is in line with the findings of Dan Kano and Garba (2020) which revealed that drug abuse does not only downgrade the academic performance of students but also affects the moral, physical and general build-up of the students

Hypothesis 1 focused on the t-test analysis of undergraduate students on the causes of the null hypothesis (H_{01}) was accepted that there is no significant difference in the mean drug abuse among undergraduate students in Kano State Based on Gender. The analysis revealed

ratings of undergraduate students on the causes of drug abuse among undergraduate students in Kano State based on gender. While

Hypothesis 2 focused on the t-test analysis of undergraduate students on the effect of drug abuse on the academic performance of undergraduate students in Kano State based on location. The analysis revealed that the null hypothesis (H_{02}) was accepted that there is no significant relationship in the mean ratings of undergraduate students on the effect of drug abuse on the academic performance of undergraduate students in Kano State based on location.

CONCLUSION

This study focused on the effects of drug abuse on the academic performance of undergraduate students in Kano State, Nigeria. From the findings of the study, it can be concluded that there are various causes of drug abuse among undergraduate students and its effect is numerous. Some of the causes are psychological, while others are social and biological, more so, drug abuse has a negative effect on undergraduate students' academic performance because it makes them stay away from lessons and classes, become less serious in their academic work as well as make them unable to keep up with their studies and all these factors leads to poor academic performance, indiscipline, mental imbalance, school dropout and so on.

Recommendations

From the findings of the study, the following recommendations were put forward.

1. The government should make drug education compulsory at all levels of our educational system. This will reduce the ignorance level of what constitutes drug abuse and the likely causes and effects.
2. Government at all levels as well as other stakeholders should run constant awareness programmes on the threats of drug abuse on the Academic Performance of Students starting from freshers to those in their final Years
3. Parents and religious bodies should inculcate the habit of constant monitoring and advising their wards on the implications and effects of taking hard drugs. Mass Media should be a Driving force in Carrying out Jingles and Campaigns on the Effects of Drug Abuse.

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PART 5: Physical and Social Environment; Climate Change and Human Ecology

Chapter Twenty-Nine

Effects of Artisanal Refining Activities on Property Development among Communities in South-South, Nigeria: An Environmental Perspective*Nwanekezi Silver C.¹; Onyike Joachim A.²; Okeahialam Stanislaus²*¹*F Department of Estate Management & Valuation, Federal University of Technology, Owerri, Nigeria.*²*Department of Estate Management, Imo State University Owerri, Imo State, Nigeria.*EMAIL: silver.nwanekezi@futo.edu.ng**ABSTRACT**

Artisanal refining poses a series of effects on various aspects of the human environment and ultimately affects property development. The study considered the environmental effects of artisanal refineries on property development in affected communities in the South-South Region of Nigeria. The survey research method was adopted for the study through the use of a questionnaire; three (3) states (Rivers, Bayelsa and Delta), six (6) LGAs and eighteen (18) communities were selected, leading to 427 respondents selected for the study. Data was analyzed using frequency counts, response percentages, mean values and Pearson correlation coefficient. The findings revealed that respondents agreed that artisanal refining activities have decreased returns on investment due to toxic air, soil quality and water quality (Bayelsa-59.6%, Delta-53.6%), increased the risk of fire incidents in the community (Rivers-50.4%, Bayelsa-50.9%, Delta-62.2%), resulted in premature wear and tear on properties (Rivers-50.4%, Delta-61.4%), air and water quality concerns have reduced demand for property sale/rent (Rivers-58.2%, Bayelsa-47.4%, Delta-52.8%), and is causing more oil spill on land thereby making it difficult for property development activities (Rivers-52.8%, Bayelsa-53.8%). The findings showed a statistically significant relationship between property development and various environmental effects variables due to Artisanal refining activities in the study area. The relationship/correlations were significant (where $p \leq 0.05$, $r \geq 0.5$). The study concluded that artisanal refinery activities in these communities have affected property development; hence, the a need for stricter enforcement of regulations that will forestall the activities of artisanal refineries. Also, stakeholders need to be committed to effective land remediation and restoration management, ensuring suitable conditions for property development within the communities.

KEYWORDS: Artisanal refinery; Environmental pollution; Property development; Oil theft

INTRODUCTION

Land as a natural resource is vital to hosting various property development activities and sustaining all living organisms, fauna and flora. Land is a fixed asset that aids the production of socio-economic goods and services, hosting virtually all activities on the earth's surface (Magel, 2001). According to Abegunde (2011), the land's nature and its components' types dictate what exists on it. Land is indispensable in property development and is complex in social relations to production in the economic world, which is central to the continuity of human life (Abegunde, 2011). Consequently, many land areas in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria have been subjected to various anthropogenic activities leading to land degradation and pollution over time (Afolabi and Adesope, 2022). Recently, oil bunkering and artisanal refining activities have been on a rapid rise, leading to environmental degradation, including rendering land resources unsuitable for property development. According to Obenade and Amangabara (2014), oil theft and artisanal refining in the South-South region are massive and growing problems; it is estimated that between 200,000 and 300,000 barrels of oil are lost daily to theft, known in the country as bunkering.

Artisanal refining activities, as used in this study, refers to individuals or groups of persons engaging in siphoning crude oil from oil pipes and refining it into other petroleum products such as diesel and kerosene for local markets to earn their living, which is contrary to the Hydrocarbon Oil Refineries Act 1965 (Mezie-Okoye, 2022). This often leads to hazards and pollution of the environment. Activities of artisanal refineries due to air pollution not only affect human health but also negatively affect

agricultural activities, resulting in huge losses. The direct economic loss on farm production and the indirect harm on other receptors is a worldwide political and scientific issue (Vallero, 2014). The operation of artisanal refineries brings direct losses on property development, reflecting in the loss of farmland, waste of mineral resources on land, urban land degradation during and after their operations, inability to conserve landed properties with cultural or historical values, inaccessibility to urban land for meaningful socio-economic or property development schemes among others (Addison, 2001; Abegunde, 2010). Significantly, artisanal refining operation in the South-South geopolitical zone is initiated by tussle over resource control on land, which results in further losses on land and its attachments. The land is seen as an impetus for development that can impede the built environment. Several studies have considered the effect of artisanal refineries as various aspects of socio-economic and environmental factors such as physicochemical and microbiological properties of soil and water (Nwakwoala et al., 2017; Douglas & Cornelius, 2019; Onwuna et al., 2022a) vegetation (Yabrade & Tanee, 2010), cultural and religious beliefs (John & Nnadozie, 2021), socio-economic (Goodnews & Anale, 2019; Ogele & Egobueze, 2020; Ikezam et al., 2021), sustainable food production (Odubo & Onyige, 2019; Richard et al., 2022) and air quality (Onwuna et al., 2022b); however, the present study examined the environmental effect of artisanal refining activities on property development among communities in South-South region of Nigeria.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Study Area

The South-South Region of Nigeria is located on $4^{\circ}21' 43.2''\text{N}$, $7^{\circ} 40' 52.8''\text{N}$ and longitude $5^{\circ} 8' 42''\text{E}$, $9^{\circ} 30' 7.2''\text{E}$ (Figure 1) protruding towards the Gulf of Guinea on the Atlantic coast of West Africa (Shittu, 2014). The region is a densely populated area in Nigeria. Its population is about 31 million (National Population Commission, 2006). The land mass extends about 70,000 km², making up 7.5 percent of Nigeria's landmass.



Figure 1: Overview of the Study Area Source: GIS Unit, University of Port Harcourt (2024)

Population of the Study

The research population refers to the aggregate of all possible respondents from which the sample is selected. The population of the study comprises all six states in the South-South region of Nigeria (that is, Rivers, Bayelsa, Delta, Edo, Akwa-Ibom and Cross-Rivers); however, based on eligibility criteria,

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the population of the study was limited to three states, Rivers, Bayelsa, Delta and their artisanal refineries activities. The selected LGAs for the study are found within the states from the region, involved in artisanal refinery activities with a history of fire incidents due to artisanal refinery activities (Odubo and Onyige 2019; Ikezam et al., 2021; Onwuna et al., 2022b). The selected study communities are found within the states and LGAs involved in artisanal refinery activities.

Sample Size and Sampling Technique

With the aid of the Taro Yamane formula for sample size determination based on the target population of 2,312,454, four hundred and twenty-seven (427) respondents from three (3) states and six (6) local government areas were selected for the study. The respondents which were represented by heads of households were selected through a simple random sampling technique.

Table 1: Sample Size, Questionnaire Distribution and Retrieved Number

States	LGAs	Projected Population (2023)	Percentage in Projected Population	Distribution of the Questionnaire	Number Retrieved
Rivers	Ikwerre	306,067	13.2	63	60
	Ahoada	378,594	16.4	79	69
Bayelsa	Southern Ijaw	517,449	22.4	108	95
	Ekeremor	437,816	18.9	91	76
Delta	Ndokwa East	167,137	7.2	34	30
	Warri South	505,391	21.9	105	97
Total		2,312,454	100	480	427

Data Sources

The study adopted primary data sources through the use of a questionnaire. The study's data collection was carried out using a questionnaire. The questionnaire adopted for the study used a Likert 5-point scale and was closed-ended. The Likert 5-point scale was expressed as follows: 1: Undecided (U), 2: Strongly Disagreed (SD), 3: Disagreed (D), 4: Agreed (A), and 5: Strongly Agreed (SA). The respondent's decision was represented by a 0 – 3 Mean point, “Disagreed”, while 3.1 Mean points and above, “Agreed.”

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The retrieved copies of the questionnaire were coded and subjected to statistical analysis using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). For proper analysis, descriptive statistics tools such as frequency counts, percentages of response, and mean values were adopted for the presentation and analysis. The research hypotheses of the study were tested through inferential statistics (Pearson correlation) at a 95% significance level.

Socio-Demographic Details of the Respondents

The socio-demographic details of the respondents in individual states are presented in Figure 2. The outcome revealed that 62.8% of the respondents were male while the female respondents were 37.2%. Also, most respondents were 30 – 40 years old, representing 45.0% of the respondents. Considering the marital status of the respondents, it was deduced that 37.0% of the respondents were single, 38.9% were married, and 17.3% and 6.8% were divorced and widowed, respectively. Regarding the educational qualifications of the respondents, the outcome indicated that most respondents possess secondary school level education, which represents 34.0% of the respondents, while the least respondents possess a

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tertiary level of education, which represents 13.1%. The combination of these categories indicated that most respondents could understand and participate in the study. On the respondents' occupations, it was revealed that 17.8% of the respondents are students, 23.9% are salary workers, 26.2% are farmers, and 16.4% are traders. In comparison, 9.6% and 6.1% of the respondents are involved in fishing and other forms of occupation, respectively.

Environmental Effect of Artisanal Refining Activities on Property Development

The environmental effect of artisanal refining activities across the study area was examined, and the feedback was presented in Table 2. From the findings, it was revealed that respondents agreed that artisanal refining activities have affected air quality of the environment (Rivers-60.5%, Bayelsa-58.5%, Delta-55.1%), the air in the community is no longer fresh and smell of oil all the time (Rivers-50.4%, Bayelsa-53.2%, Delta-47.2%), there are more issues of respiratory diseases in the community now than before the incident of artisanal refining activities (Bayelsa-50.9%, Delta-52.0%), there is decreased returns on investment due to toxic air, soil quality and water quality (Bayelsa-59.6%, Delta-53.6%), land/soil contamination from artisanal refining activities has made property development less attractive in the communities (Bayelsa-53.2%, Delta-50.4%), artisanal refining activities have exposed the soil to toxic chemicals and made land difficult for development (Rivers-44.1%, Bayelsa-53.2%, Delta-52.8%), artisanal refining activities have increased the risk of fire incidents in the community (Rivers-50.4%, Bayelsa-50.9%, Delta-62.2%), artisanal refining activities has resulted in premature wear and tear on properties within the communities (Rivers-50.4%, Delta-61.4%), air and water quality concerns have reduced demand for property sales/rent (Rivers-58.2%, Bayelsa-47.4%, Delta-52.8%), environmental effect of artisanal refining in the community has made it difficult to secure loans using properties (Rivers-62.0%, Bayelsa-55.6%, Delta-58.3%) and artisanal refining is causing more oil spill in their land thereby making it difficult for property development activities (Rivers-52.8%, Bayelsa-53.8%).

Although in Rivers and Delta states, the respondents disagreed that there are more issues of respiratory diseases in the community now than before the incident of artisanal refining activities (Rivers-48.8%), there are decreased returns on investment due to toxic air, soil quality and water quality (50.4%), land/soil contamination from artisanal refining activities has made property development less attractive in the communities (Bayelsa-50.9%) and artisanal refining activities is causing more oil spill into our community land making it difficult for development (Delta-47.2%). In Table 4.6, the overall mean of the environmental effect variables ranged from 3.29 to 3.62, which indicated that respondents agreed with each variable across the study area.

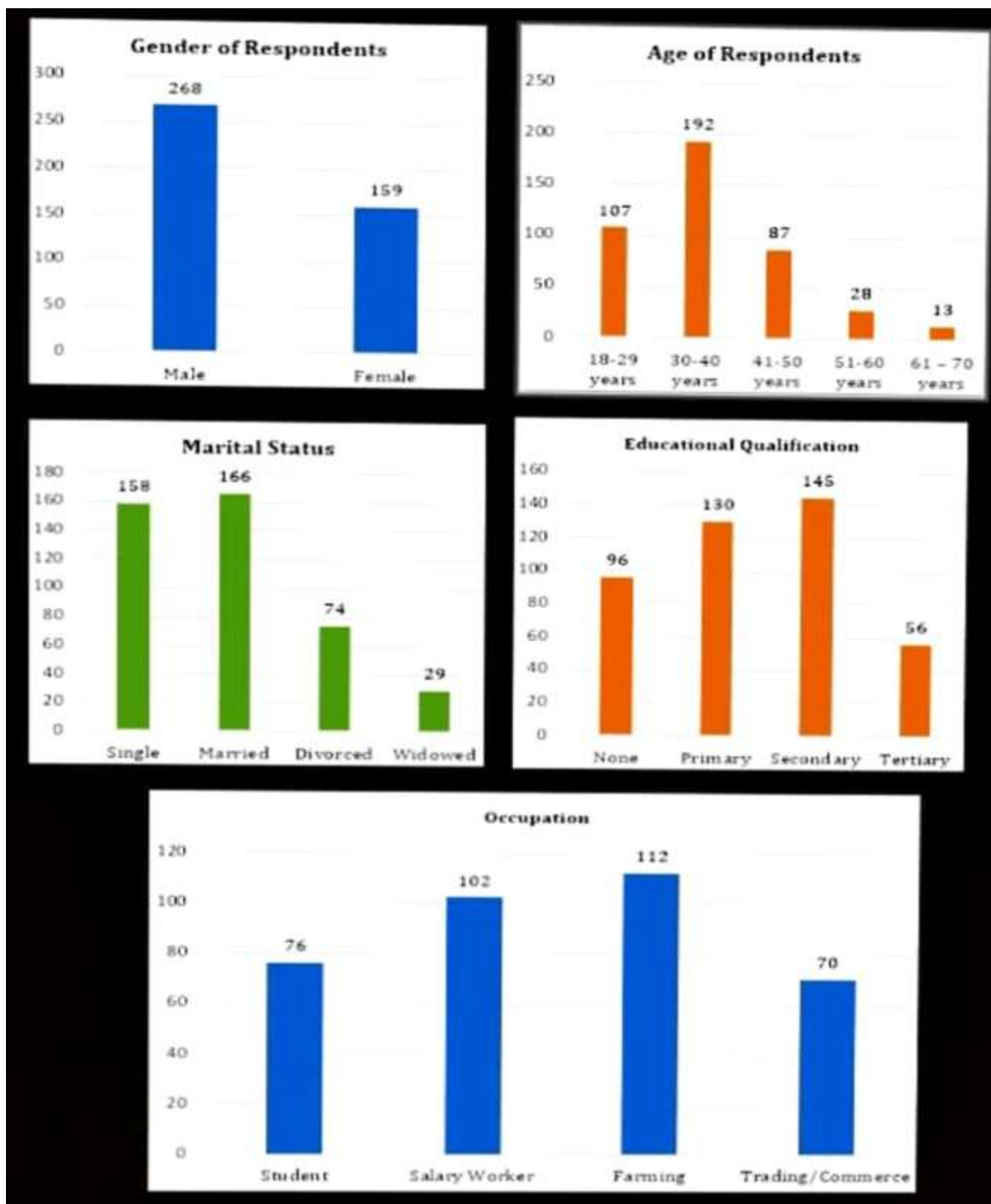


Figure 2: Socio-Demographic Details of the Respondents

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Table 2: Environmental Effects of Artisanal Refining Activities

Variables	Rivers State				
	U	D	A	Mean	Total
EE1	5 (3.9)	46 (35.6)	78 (60.5)	3.82	129 (100)
EE2	20 (15.5)	44 (34.1)	65 (50.4)	3.27	129 (100)
EE3	18 (14.0)	63 (48.8)	48 (37.2)	2.96	129 (100)
EE4	8 (6.2)	65 (50.4)	56 (43.4)	2.98	129 (100)
EE5	21 (16.3)	55 (42.6)	53 (41.1)	2.71	129 (100)
EE6	22 (17.1)	50 (38.8)	57 (44.1)	3.08	129 (100)
EE7	20 (15.5)	44 (34.1)	65 (50.4)	3.27	129 (100)
EE8	8 (6.2)	56 (43.4)	65 (50.4)	3.43	129 (100)
EE9	8 (6.2)	46 (35.6)	75 (58.2)	3.62	129 (100)
EE10	5 (3.9)	44 (34.1)	80 (62.0)	3.72	129 (100)
EE11	7 (5.4)	54 (41.9)	68 (52.8)	3.66	129 (100)

Source: Researcher's fieldwork, 2024 NB: A-Agreed (Strongly Agreed + Agreed), U-Undecided, D-Disagreed (Strongly Disagreed + Disagreed); Mean/Overall Mean Interpretation: 0.1 – 1.9 (Neutral), 2.0 – 2.9 (Disagreed) and 3.0 – 3.9 (Agreed)

KEY I: EE1: Artisanal refining activities have affected air quality of the environment, EE2: The air in the community is no longer fresh and smell of oil all the time, EE3: There are more issues of respiratory diseases in the community now than before the incident of artisanal refining activities, EE4: There is decreased returns on investment due to toxic air, soil quality and water quality, EE5: Land/soil contamination from artisanal refining activities has made property development less attractive in the communities, EE6: Artisanal refining activities have exposed soil to toxic chemicals and made our land difficult for development, EE7: Artisanal refining activities have increased the risk of fire incidents in the community, EE8: Artisanal refining activities has resulted in premature wear and tear on my property, EE9: Air and water quality concerns have reduced demand for property sale/rent, EE10: Environmental effect of artisanal refining in the community has made it difficult to secure loans using my property, EE11: Artisanal refining activities is causing more oil spill in our community land making it difficult for development.

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Table 3: Environmental Effects of Artisanal Refining Activities

Variables		Bayelsa State		
U	D	A	Mean	Total
11 (6.4)	60 (35.1)	100 (58.5)	3.59	171 (100)
17 (9.9)	63 (36.9)	91 (53.2)	3.39	171 (100)
16 (9.4)	68 (39.7)	87 (50.9)	3.53	171 (100)
23 (13.5)	49 (26.9)	102 (59.6)	3.41	171 (100)
10 (5.9)	70 (40.9)	91 (53.2)	3.43	171 (100)
3 (1.8)	77 (45.0)	91 (53.2)	3.43	171 (100)
4 (2.3)	80 (46.8)	87 (50.9)	3.29	171 (100)
10 (5.8)	87 (50.9)	74 (43.3)	3.16	171 (100)
19 (11.1)	71 (41.5)	81 (47.4)	3.31	171 (100)
11 (6.4)	65 (38.0)	95 (55.6)	3.64	171 (100)
6 (3.5)	73 (42.7)	92 (53.8)	3.45	171 (100)

Source: Researcher's fieldwork, 2024. NB: A-Agreed (Strongly Agreed + Agreed), U-Undecided, D-Disagreed (Strongly Disagreed + Disagreed). KEY II: Mean/Overall Mean Interpretation: 0.1 – 1.9 (Neutral), 2.0 – 2.9 (Disagreed) and 3.0 – 3.9 (Agreed)

KEY I: EE1: Artisanal refining activities have affected air quality of the environment, EE2: The air in the community is no longer fresh and smell of oil all the time, EE3: There are more issues of respiratory diseases in the community now than before the incident of artisanal refining activities, EE4: There is decreased returns on investment due to toxic air, soil quality and water quality, EE5: Land/soil contamination from artisanal refining activities has made property development less attractive in the communities, EE6: Artisanal refining activities have exposed soil to toxic chemicals and made our land difficult for development, EE7: Artisanal refining activities have increased the risk of fire incidents in the community, EE8: Artisanal refining activities has resulted in premature wear and tear on my property, EE9: Air and water quality concerns have reduced demand for property sale/rent, EE10: Environmental effect of artisanal refining in the community has made it difficult to secure loans using my property, EE11: Artisanal refining activities is causing more oil spill in our community land making it difficult for development.

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Table 4: Environmental Effects of Artisanal Refining Activities

Variables		Delta State				
U	D	A	Mean	Total	Overall Mean	Grand Total
8 (6.3)	49 (38.5)	70 (55.1)	3.26	127 (100)	3.56	427 (100)
9 (7.1)	58 (45.7)	60 (47.2)	3.18	127 (100)	3.29	427 (100)
9 (7.1)	52 (40.9)	66 (52.0)	3.40	127 (100)	3.32	427 (100)
9 (7.1)	50 (33.9)	68 (53.6)	3.40	127 (100)	3.36	427 (100)
2 (1.6)	61 (48.0)	64 (50.4)	3.47	127 (100)	3.31	427 (100)
-	60 (47.2)	67 (52.8)	3.43	127 (100)	3.32	427 (100)
-	48 (37.7)	79 (62.2)	3.59	127 (100)	3.37	427 (100)
-	49 (38.6)	78 (61.4)	3.54	127 (100)	3.35	427 (100)
2 (1.6)	58 (45.6)	67 (52.8)	3.46	127 (100)	3.45	427 (100)
2 (1.6)	51 (40.1)	74 (58.3)	3.50	127 (100)	3.62	427 (100)
11 (8.7)	60 (47.2)	56 (44.1)	2.20	127 (100)	3.44	427 (100)

Source: Researcher's fieldwork, 2024. B: A-Agreed (Strongly Agreed + Agreed), U-Undecided, D-Disagreed (Strongly Disagreed + Disagreed). KEY II: Mean/Overall Mean Interpretation: 0.1 – 1.9 (Neutral), 2.0 – 2.9 (Disagreed) and 3.0 – 3.9 (Agreed)

KEY I: EE1: Artisanal refining activities have affected air quality of the environment, EE2: The air in the community is no longer fresh and smell of oil all the time, EE3: There are more issues of respiratory diseases in the community now than before the incident of artisanal refining activities, EE4: There is decreased returns on investment due to toxic air, soil quality and water quality, EE5: Land/soil contamination from artisanal refining activities has made property development less attractive in the communities, EE6: Artisanal refining activities have exposed soil to toxic chemicals and made our land difficult for development, EE7: Artisanal refining activities have increased the risk of fire incidents in the community, EE8: Artisanal refining activities has resulted in premature wear and tear on my property, EE9: Air and water quality concerns have reduced demand for property sale/rent, EE10: Environmental effect of artisanal refining in the community has made it difficult to secure loans using my property, EE11: Artisanal refining activities is causing more oil spill in our community land making it difficult for development.

From Table 5, the study's hypothesis was tested using the Pearson correlation analysis. The hypothesis was tested based on the following statement:

H₀: There is no significant relationship between the environmental effects of artisanal refining activities and property development within the study area

H₁: There is a significant relationship between the environmental effects of artisanal refining activities and property development within the study area

In explaining the outcome from the multivariate tests of significance, the Pearson correlation (r) was used in ascertaining the extent of the relationship between the environmental effects of artisanal refining activities and property development, while the p-value was adopted for the level of significance in the relationship (where $p \leq 0.05$ reject the null hypothesis). The analysis revealed that there is a relationship between property development and various environmental effect variables due to Artisanal refining activities in the study area, and the relationship/correlations were significant (where $p \leq 0.05$, $r \geq 0.5$).

Discussion of findings

Across the studied communities, it was established that artisanal refining activities have affected the air quality of the environment, caused the air in the community to smell of oil all the time, increased the risk of fire incidents in the communities, reduced demand for property sales/rent due to poor air, soil and water quality, caused difficulty to secure loans using their properties and difficulty in property development activities due to consistent oil spills. Also, the communities in Bayelsa and Delta states suggested that there are more issues of respiratory diseases in the community now than before the incident of artisanal refining activities, decreased returns on investment due to exposure of the soil to toxic chemicals and property development becoming less attractive in the communities due to land/soil contamination from artisanal refining activities.

Table 5: Tests of Significance Relationship for Property Development and Environmental Effects of Artisanal Refining Activities

S/N	Environmental Effect of Artisanal Refining Activities	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N	Remark
1	Property Development	1		427	
2	Artisanal refining activities have affected the air quality of the environment	0.922	0.058	427	H ₁ Accepted
3	The air in the community is no longer fresh and smells of oil all the time	0.712	0.040	427	H ₁ Accepted
4	There are more issues of respiratory diseases in the community now than before the incident of artisanal refining activities	0.813	0.000	427	H ₁ Accepted
5	There are decreased returns on investment due to toxic air, soil quality and water quality	0.561	0.000	427	H ₁ Accepted
6	Land/soil contamination from artisanal refining activities has made property development less attractive in the communities	0.614	0.000	427	H ₁ Accepted
7	Artisanal refining activities have exposed soil to toxic chemicals and made our land difficult for development	0.955	0.003	427	H ₁ Accepted
8	Artisanal refining activities have increased the risk of fire incidents in the community	0.721	0.000	427	H ₁ Accepted
9	Artisanal refining activities have resulted in premature wear and tear on my property	0.571	0.038	427	H ₁ Accepted
10	Air and water quality concerns have reduced demand for property sale/rent	0.591	0.001	427	H ₁ Accepted
11	The environmental effect of artisanal refining in the community has made it difficult to secure loans using my property	0.674	0.000	427	H ₁ Accepted
12	Artisanal refining activities are causing more oil spills in our community land, making it difficult for the development	0.711	0.011	427	H ₁ Accepted

Source: Researcher's fieldwork, 2024.

The outcome is similar to Onwuna et al. (2022b), which asserted that artisanal refining activities are a source of environmental concerns. According to Onwuna et al. (2022a), the operators of artisanal refineries in the Niger Delta are driven by financial motives, with an apparent disregard for the environmental and health impacts of their operations. Consequently, their operations lead to air, water, vegetation and soil pollution within the vicinity of their operations, which can discourage investment willingness, reduce demand for property sales/rent and reduce ease of property development. The present study finding is similar to that of Ikezam et al. (2021), who noted that artisanal refinery activities have reduced various human-related activities such as farming and housing due to oil spills, soil and air pollution in their study area. The finding corroborated with that of Amangabara and Njoku (2012), who asserted that the groundwater of their study area is highly polluted due to the activities of artisanal refineries, which could influence decisions towards property development in the area. Similarly, Richard et al. (2022) opined that artisanal crude oil refiners harm the vegetation cover, alter the physicochemical and microbial composition of the soil, and release hydrocarbons into the environment, making it difficult for property development or demand extra cost for clean-up. The present study shares similarities with that of Richard et al. (2022).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Artisanal refining activities involve the use of local facilities to refine stolen oil. These activities are dangerous and, therefore, have several implications. They have caused significant damage to the environment of many communities in the south-south region of Nigeria. The environmental effects of artisanal refineries in the study area have led to severe environmental pollution and degradation, adversely affecting property development and investment attractiveness in the study area. These effects have affected air quality of the environment, caused premature wear and tear on properties, exposed soil to toxic chemicals and made land difficult for development, increased the risk of fire incidents in the community and decreased returns on investment. Therefore, there is an urgent need for stricter enforcement of regulations that will forestall the activities of artisanal refineries as well as land remediation and restoration management practices should be encouraged in the communities to improve the land's suitability for property development.

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Chapter Thirty**Bush Burning Effects on the Physical Properties of Soil in Omuma, Oru East Local Government Area of Imo State*****Christian N. Chibo¹; Patricia N. Duru¹; Chiamaka R. Igweanuba²***¹*Department of Geography & Environmental Management, Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria.*²*Department of Environmental Management, Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu University, Uli, Nigeria.*EMAIL: nadeo2k6@yahoo.com**ABSTRACT**

For many years, the relationship between agricultural practices and the environment remained stable and favourable. However, this relationship got disturbed or upset when due to certain forces agricultural exploitation of natural resources led to serious environmental degradation. Bush burning leads to land/soil degradation as these affect soil's physical properties. This study investigated the effect that bush burning has on the physical properties of the soil in the study area. the reasons for bush burning, the time/period of the year of the burning as well the physical properties of the soil affected by bush burning were all examined and investigated. The research made use of both survey and experimental designs. Six (6) samples of soil were collected from the study area. These samples were collected from the area of controlled burning for 6 years, and the area of alternate burning for 3 and 6 years respectively. Soil physical parameters like clay, silt, aggregate stability, porosity, and moisture content, among others, were analyzed. Clearing of land for farming was identified as the major reason for bush burning in the study area, and also farming period is the period most of the burnings take place. For soil textural properties, all of them are affected more when the burning takes place annually than when it is done biannually as the mean result for the control variable, biannual burning and consecutive burning respectively shows 75.88%, 81.6% and 81.08% for sand; 12.12%, 10.25% and 7.77% for silt; and 12.00%, 8.19% and 11.22% for clay. For physical properties, the result showed that bush burning increases the bulk density of the soil and leads to a reduction in the soil porosity, water stable aggregate and soil moisture. There is a statistically significant difference between the controlled samples and experimental samples at 0.05 confidence level of chi-square test (χ^2). Law enforcement and the provision of farm tools are important in curtailing this environmental damage owing to the lack of mechanization to clear the forest within the study area. Also, some level of awareness of the hazards of indiscriminate burning needs to be created in the community.

Keywords: Bulk density, Bush Burning, textural and physical properties, Soil, Water Stable Aggregate

INTRODUCTION

Historically, humans have thought that all fires were detrimental because they blackened landscapes and burned trees (Vogl, 2018). Plants and animals evolved together with fire, making it a necessary element in the survival of many ecosystems. (Vogl, 2018). For millions of years, natural selection and adaptations have acted on plants' and animals' lives as a result of life in a fire-dependent ecosystem. Many farmers depend on fire to heat and scar their seeds as a process for germination (Vogl, 2015). Burned-out trees provide useful shelter for birds, reptiles, and small mammals. Decaying trees release nutrients into the soil and serve as a base for new plants to sprout (Vogl., 2018). Many ecological regions of the world are dependent on fire to sustain the natural balance of life. Fire is an important natural phenomenon that encourages the re-growth and diversity of vegetation in many forests, deserts, and grasslands that cover the earth's continents. Humans populate many of the world's regions that depend so heavily on fire to sustain a natural equilibrium. To live successfully in accord with nature and get the most out of its resources without depleting them, humans must develop a successful policy of fire management (Vogl, 2015). Proper management involves an accurate knowledge of the several classifications of fire, along with the topography of a region. Fire can

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be extremely fierce and swift, thus making weather and climate conditions the most important factors in assessing a fire.

Before humans inhabited the regions susceptible to fire, weather conditions, (lightning and volcanoes) were the only source for ignition (Vogl., 2015). When humans settled in these regions, they used fire in numerous ways to ensure their living conditions. Native Americans, and Africans, for example, used fire as a tool to clear land and facilitate hunting. On peninsulas, the fire could be used to trap animals, or in open regions, it could be used to burn soil cover. Fire became more of a detriment because populations increased and permanent cities were established. Similarly, regions rich in natural resources served as important economic interests in preventing the destruction of land by fires.

In the 19th century, a series of large fires that resulted in the loss of many lives and property damage encouraged a fire policy of suppression into this century. An attempt to extinguish all fires was made to save lives and property before the blazes burned out of control. The policy of fire suppression proved to be an important educational experience in the necessity of fire to maintain the balance of nature. The enormous fires in Yellow Stone National Park in 1988 which resulted in over a million acres of charred land, were believed to have been a result of the accumulation of forest litter (Vogl, 2015). The debris that gathered on the forest floor, which was usually burned in small, low-intensity fires every few years, was allowed to accrue and serve as an awesome source of fuel for the fire in 1988. Many studies on the nature of fire and how it affects ecosystems have been conducted to evaluate fire situations for their proper management. Fire is a major disturbance even leading to numerous changes in ecosystem cycling and in the floral and faunal composition of the communities affected. The effect of bush burning and prescribed burns on the biota of natural areas needs to be accurately documented and analyzed in all attempts to ensure that management practices do not impact on the diversity and species richness of the habitats affected. Numerous studies have been carried out and the findings have suggested both increases and decreases in the abundance of arthropods (Chikelu and Ogbuagu, 2014). However, many of these studies lack preferred data as a baseline with which to compare the effects of the fire on the soil nutrients after the burning.

Fire has played a major role in the evolution of the present vegetation cover, and is responsible for most of the tussock grasslands below the natural tree line (Vogl., 2018). Over time, it was recognized that repeated burning of tussocks at short intervals followed by intensive grazing was weakening the plant to the point where being replaced by short tussock species or grassland, or in more recent years by herbarium, an invasive flat weed. Thus, tussock burning has declined to a relatively low frequency. Grazing and associated frequent broad-scale burning is a principal cause of degradation and loss of biodiversity in some of our forests. In most forestry management areas, the principal cause of wildfires is burning by grazes, and this is also a major cause of the high incidence in most areas of low-intensity broad-area deliberate burning. The impact of associated burning is additional to direct impacts, such as destruction of under Storley, local and regional loss of species of flora and fauna, removal of nutrients, introduction and spread of weeds, compaction and degrading of soil, damage to stream banks and elimination of regeneration.

Nowadays, fire is still a very important land management tool, but is used much more judiciously than previously. The necessity for man to produce food, clothing and shelter involves methods that have seriously interfered with the complex balance in the soil. Large areas have been denuded of their natural cover of vegetation through bush burning. Vast areas of forest have been destroyed by bush burning and tree felling. The destructive activities of man constitute a profound upsetting of the natural order in the soil. The rate of bush burning within Imo State of Nigeria with particular reference to Omuma in Oru - East Local Government Areas of the State is very alarming. Bush burning does encourage erosion because it removes the soil's protective covering. It has also been responsible for the movement of wild animals from one location to another because the cover available for their breeding and protection has been destroyed.

The humus that makes phosphates available is destroyed. Nitrogen in grass is completely lost to air by burning. Efforts to educate the farmers, land users and land managers on the effects of bush burning have been hampered largely because of lack of adequate research information. Information or data on the rate of decline in soil fertility could create an awareness of the magnitude and dangers of the problem of bush burning on the environment.

Many people set the fire deliberately to the bush for hunting or to make new grasses to grow for cattle to feed on. Bush burning could even be accidental, either by wind spreading the fire used for cooking to the bush or by cigarette fire dropped carelessly around the bush. No matter the cause of burning, it exposes the surface of the soil to high temperatures through the sun.

Bush burning is the most common traditional way of controlling insects by some locals such as the cattle headers who habitually use moderate, localized fire to fight off insects and harmful pests from their homes. We must make it clear that when they set fire, their intention is not to generate heat, but to send out dense smoke that repels the ticks, ants, bugs bees, locusts, rodents and reptiles (NEAP, 1985).

Some farmers option for bush burning (burning their farmlands) in other to save time for easy clearing of the farmland for quick cultivation of crops. This also conserves energy for the farmers/land users. Over time it has been observed that bush burning clears the grasses, and weeds (vegetation) better than cutting with cutlass (Belnap and Sandford, 1996).

Bush burning as it is being studied not only poses a health hazard to man alone but also affects the environment in general via the emission of the various pollutants (NEMA, 2001). From the data above, it is glaring that particulate, carbon monoxide, hydrocarbons, oxides of nitrogen a negligible percentage of oxides of sulphur are the major pollutants of bush burning and they all have various effects on man and the environment, like reduction of visibility by particulate matters, especially during periods of air stagnation and causing some respiratory diseases. Oxides of sulphur and nitrogen are also hazardous as they cause respiratory disorders and irritants, respectively. Apart from the soil destruction and desert encroachment caused by bush burning, it has also had a marked increase in global warming due to the emission of NO₂, SO₂, SO₃, NO, CO and CO₂ gases which have tremendous effects on the ozone layer and also, formation of acid rain which deteriorate plant life, damage calcium containing soils and also increase the acidity of surrounding lakes and rivers (Addo *et al.*, 2020). Bushfires are part of some country's way of life. All states and territories have experienced catastrophic fires over the years and observed the adverse effects on air quality as one of the consequences. Smoke from prescribed burning is also common in some countries like Australia and the levels of smoke from this source vary depending on the nature of the vegetation and the extent of the fire (Maxine Lamote, 1985). Smoke from prescribed burning can be minimized if fires are lit at the right time of year and managed correctly smaller hotter fires are preferred as this minimizes air pollution (Kazoora, 2002).

Because of this, the involvement of farmers, land users and land managers on environmental management through good farm and land practices has become necessary; this task requires some basic research information on acceptable existing burning management systems, and farming systems including forestry, crops and livestock.

Statement of the Research Problem

The study verified the role of bush burning and its effects on the soil properties in Imo State of Nigeria with particular reference to Omuma in Oru - East Local Government Area of the state. Fire has both short or immediate and long-term effects. The short-term effects on soil are easy to monitor and quantify even as they vary among soil types, but there is little scientific data about the long-term ecological effects (Bourlieve, 1995). It is only recently that attempts have been made to standardize the terminology used so that the results of different researchers are comparable (Dembele, 1998). The physical effect of bushfire depends on the fire intensity, available fuel energy, combustion rate and rate of spread (Deubmire 1997).

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These factors influence the volatilization of plant nutrients and changes in soil properties. The effect of fire on variants of soil dynamics has recently been extensively reviewed (Gallon, 1995). The findings of these researchers are widely varied depending on the climate, soil, and vegetation duration of the application of repeated fire and whether the fire is natural or man-induced (Huntley, 1996).

Perhaps the most damaging effect of burning is erosion. The effect of erosion can linger for years following a devastating fire. The effects of bush burning and prescribed burns on the biota of natural areas need to be accurately documented and analyzed in an attempt to ensure that management practices do not impact the diversity and species declines of the habitats affected. To live successfully in accord with nature and get the most of its resources without depleting them, humans must develop successful policies on fire management.

Aim and Objectives

The aim of this study is to ascertain the effect of bush burning on the physical properties of soil in Omuma, Oru-East Local Government of Imo State. In pursuit of this aim, the following objectives will be vigorously pursued.

- i. To examine the effect of bush burning on the soil textural properties of the study area
- ii. To investigate the effect of bush burning on the physical properties of soil in the study area
- iii. To investigate the reason for bush burning in the study area.

Research Questions

- i. What are the implications of bush burning on the textural properties of the study area
- ii. What effects of bush burning on the physical properties of Omuma Soil
- iii. What are the reasons for Bush Burning in the Study Area?

Research Hypotheses

Ho. Bush burning does not affect the physical properties of the soil in Imo state

Hi. There is no significant difference in the physical and textural properties of the soil in the study area resulting from bush burning.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The Study Area

Location of the Study Area

The study area, Omuma in Oru-East Local Government Areas of Imo State is one of the ten (10) towns in the local government. Omuma town is the headquarters of Oru East Local Government Area of Imo State. It is one of the oldest towns in Imo State. Omuma is located at latitude 5.95° N and longitude 6.59° E with a total area of about 110.8 sq. km (Figure 1.1). Its boundary to the west is Mgbidi, to the east by Akatta and Attah, to the North by Eleh and Nempi and to the South by Amiri and Otulu. Omuma has four communities: Abia-Omuma, Ozuh-Omuma, Umuhu-Omuma, and Etit-Omuma. It is made up of four villages which are Umuhu, Abia, Atti and Ozuh. Omuma has abundant land for agricultural activities, most of the inhabitants' occupations are farming and trading. Farming in this area is still practised at the subsistence level. Major food crops grown include Yam, Cassava, Maize, Cocoyam, Melon and Vegetables, while the cash crop is Oil Palm.

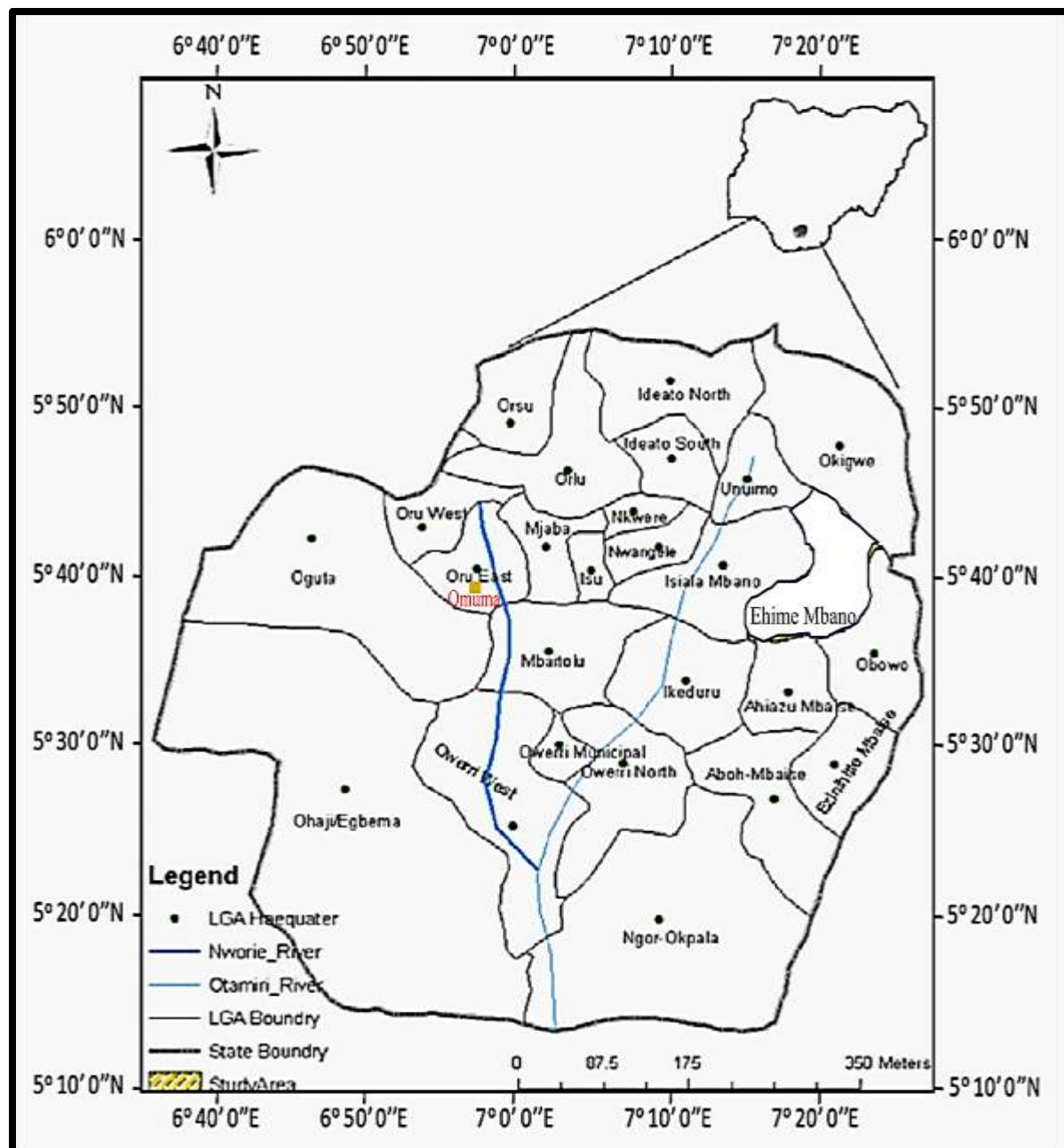


Figure 1.1: Map Imo State showing the Study Area. (Modified from Vogl. R.T., (2018).

Research Design

To carry out this research, both experimental and survey design was adopted. Some samples of soil from the study area were collected and a laboratory analysis was conducted to determine the physical characteristics of the soil. Furthermore, copies of the questionnaire were also distributed to obtain information from the respondents on the research topic.

Population and Sample Collection

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The population for this study constituted the entire population of farmers in Omuma, Oru East Local Government Area of Imo State. Data obtained from the Imo Agricultural Development Program (ADP) showed that Oru East LGA consists of 1142 registered farmers, and 311 came from Omuma. The researcher therefore randomly sampled 100 registered farmers and this number constituted the sample size for the research.

Soil samples A, B and C were also collected from three different locations in the study area, with samples B and C having been exposed to bush burning, while sample A has not been exposed to any form of bush burning, and this sample constituted the control sample. 1kg of soil samples from each plot was collected using the soil auger at a depth of 0-10cm for each sample, measuring tape for quadrant demarcation, cutlass for clearing and cutting the weeds to enable easy auguring. The samples were comprised of:

1. Sample A: (Control) Unburnt for 6 years.
2. Sample B: Experienced alternate burning for 6 years at 2 years interval.
3. Sample C: Experienced consistent\yearly burning for 6 years.

In the end, a total of six soil samples were collected and taken to the laboratory for soil test

Variables of interest for Soil Test

The information presented in Table 1 constitutes the variables of interest. This is because these variables were considered important in both soil fertility and gully erosion

Table 1. Variables of Interest and Units of Measurement

Variables	Source	Unit
Sand	Laboratory	%
Clay	Laboratory	%
Loam	Laboratory	%
Bulk density	Laboratory	gmc-3
Porosity	Laboratory	%
Water Stable Aggregate	Laboratory	%
Soil Moisture	Laboratory	%

Methods of Data Collection

Laboratory Test

The researcher established three plots in three different areas within the same location that were last burnt by a bushfire in

1. 2004 baseline (control)
2. 2005, 2007 and 2009
3. 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008,2009 and 2010.

Each plot was located 25 meters away from the nearest road or from the walking track (to reduce edge effects) in the farmland of Omuma Oru-East Local Government Area of the Eastern Zone of Imo State. The soil samples A, B and C were subjected to laboratory tests to determine the effect of bush burning on the nutrient richness\levels in the soil. In general, a total of six soil samples were collected and subjected to laboratory analysis

Questionnaire Administration

A total of 100 copies of the questionnaire were administered to registered farmers in Omuma community. The reason for the questionnaire was to elicit data and information on the human aspect of the research and the information obtained through the questionnaire was used to treat objectives 1 and 2 of the research

Reconnaissance Survey

A reconnaissance survey was carried out at the early stage of fieldwork for this research. The reason is for the researcher to get first-hand information from the farmers to indicate some of the plots and farmlands that have experienced bush burning and the rate at which they were burnt. This also serves as a guide for soil sample collection

Methods of Analysis of Soil Physical Properties

Particle Distribution of the Soil

Soil particle density or distribution (ρ_s) is a measure of the oven-dry unit volume of solids only. Each Individual soil mineral has a characteristic particle density. Quartz, a predominant soil mineral, has a value of about 2.65 Mg m^{-3} , which is why this value is frequently given as representing all soils. In contrast, gypsum has a value of 2.32 Mg m^{-3} , biotite a value of $2.80 - 3.20 \text{ Mg m}^{-3}$ and hematite a value of $4.80 - 5.30 \text{ Mg m}^{-3}$ (Kalikinkaret *et al.*, 2012). The particle density of soil is an average for the distribution of soil particulates present in a given soil. Organic matter (OM) which is also a soil solid can influence particle density. Soils with high OM may have much lower average particle density than soils similar in texture that are low in OM. Standard procedure calls for the removal of OM before particle density analysis of these soils. However, this may produce significant error while calculating the porosity of soils using density data. The particle density of most mineral soils is in the range of $2.60 - 2.75 \text{ Mg m}^{-3}$, representing the particle density of quartz, feldspar and colloidal silicates, which dominate the mineral fraction of the soils (Kalikinkaret *et al.*, 2012).

The particle density is determined using the Archimedes principle. The most common method is the use of a pycnometer. A pycnometer is a device which is made to retain a reproducible or measurable volume. A known weight of oven-dry soil sample is introduced into the pycnometer and the volume of soil is determined by the volume of liquid displaced when soil is immersed.

Mathematically, Soil Particle Density (ρ_s) is given by

$$(\rho_s) = \frac{[w_s]}{[w_{pw} + w_s - w_{psw}]} \text{ gcm} - 3$$

Where, W_s , W_{pw} , and W_{psw} are the weight of oven-dry soil, water-filled pycnometer and pycnometer + soil + water, respectively (Kalikinkaret *et al.*, 2012).

Bulk Density of the Soil (bd)

Soil bulk density (bd) is a measure of the oven-dry mass per unit volume of the bulk soil. The ratio of the bulk density of soil to the density of water is called the apparent specific gravity. Bulk density varies with the packing of the soil particles. Typically, sands more closely and values range from 1.9 Mg m^{-3} (Kalikinkaret *et al.*, 2012). Bulk density depends on several factors like texture, structure, organic matter content, state of compaction etc. Clays tend to be bridged and cannot pack tightly, giving values from 0.9 to 1.4 Mg m^{-3} . Textures between sand and clay vary in their density accordingly. The wide range in bulk densities for a particular texture indicates that other factors (such as organic matter) have an important influence on this property. Bulk densities of loam and clay soils vary from $1.1 - 1.5 \text{ Mg m}^{-3}$, those of sandy soils from $1.4 - 1.8 \text{ Mg m}^{-3}$ and that of organic soils is as low as 0.5 Mg m^{-3} (Kalikinkaret *et al.*, 2012). A comparison of the bulk density of bulk soil and that of soil aggregates provides a measure of the importance

of inter-aggregate spaces in well-structured soils. Bulk density tends to increase with depth in the soil profile.

Mathematically, Soil Bulk Density (ρ_b) is given by

$$\text{Soil bulk density } (\rho_b) = \frac{\text{Oven – dry weight of soil}}{\text{volume of soil}}$$

Where volume of soil(cm^3) = total gravelly soil volume – volume of rocks (Kalikinkaret *al.*, 2012).

Soil water Stability Aggregate

Soil structure, its arrangement and organization of the particles in the soil, determines the total porosity as well as the shape of individual pores and their size distribution. Hence, soil structure affects the retention and transmission of fluids in the soil, seed germination, root growth, tillage, erosion etc. The direct method of measuring soil structure involves the determination of total aggregation, strength and size distribution of aggregates. Measuring soil structure by aggregate analysis is concerned directly with the size distribution of aggregates and indirectly with the size distribution of soil pores associated with each particular aggregate size distribution. An aggregate may be defined as a group of primary particles joined together to each other more strongly than to other surrounding soil particles (Kalikinkaret *al.*, 2012).

Soil Moisture Content

The gravimetric method is based on the principle that the water in the porous material is lost by evaporation on heating and the porous material undergoes an equivalent loss in its weight. However, the water loss may be limited by the internal operation within the complex porous material such as soil. This method is simple, routine, reliable and easy to use. The major limitations of this method are that it is destructive, laborious and time-consuming.

Methods of Data Presentation and Statistical Analysis

Data obtained in the course of this work were presented in tables and bar charts. Data analysis was done using percentages and simple analytical techniques like measures of central tendencies (mean, mode and median). The analytical technique employed to test the hypothesis was the chi-square

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Bush Burning and Textural Properties of the Soil

The data presented in Table 2 represents the effect of bush burning on soil textural properties in Omuma community for the various soil samples analyzed in the laboratory.

The information in Table 2 shows how the soil textures have varied in the study area as a result of bush burning. Analysis of the information from the table showed that the textural values (sand, silt and clay) in the controlled variables (soil that has not experienced burning for six years) have a sand composition of 75.25% for the sample collected at a depth of 2cm. The percentage sand composition increased to 76.50% from 4cm depth, which is an indication that in the study area, there is an increase in a sandy fraction of the area with an increase in the depth of the spoil. This has a calculated mean value of 75.88%. Findings also revealed that when the soil experienced bush burning for alternate 2-year intervals, the mean percentage sand composition increased to 81.06 percent. But when the soil is burned annually for six years the mean sand fraction was 81.01 percent. For silt fraction, the percentage in the control variable was 12.50% for soil samples collected at a depth of 2cm and 11.75% for soil samples collected at a depth of 4 cm with a mean of 12.12%.

Table 2. Result of Bush Burning on Soil Textural Properties in Omuma Community

Textural class	Control variable (unburnt for six years)			Experienced alternate burning for six years @ 2 yrs intervals			Experienced consistency/yearly burning for six years		
	R ₁ (2cm)	R ₂ (4cm)	Mean	R ₁ (cm)	R ₂ (cm)	Mean	R ₁ (cm)	R ₂ (cm)	Mean
Sand (%)	75.25	76.50	75.88	80.20	82.10	81.06	77.01	85.01	81.01
Silt (%)	12.50	11.75	12.12	11.25	10.25	10.75	8.74	6.79	7.77
Clay (%)	12.25	11.75	12.00	8.73	7.65	8.19	14.25	8.20	11.22

R₁ = horizon A; R₂ = horizon B

This showed that silt composition decreases with an increase in depth in the study area. When the soil was subjected to burning for alternate 2 years for 6 years the mean silt composition decreased to 10.25 cm, and when the soil was burned annually for 6 years, the mean value reduced further to 7.77%. This by implication is revealed to mean that consistent bush burning reduces the silt composition of soils in the study area. For clay composition, the mean value of the controlled variable was 12.00 %. This value decreased to 8.19% when the soil experienced alternate bush burning for six years and also decreased from 12% to 11.2 % when the soil was burned annually for six years. The finding summarises that bush burning increases the sand composition of the soil particles, while it in turn reduces the silt and clay composition of the soil. This by implication means that the increase in sand composition results in a reduction in soil cohesion. The reduction in silt and clay content means that those materials that held the soil particles together have been reduced; hence there is a reduction in the soil cohesion. This feature will make the soil vulnerable to various forms of soil erosion. Furthermore, since research has shown that sandy soil is generally lacking in soil nutrients, it can be affirmed that bush burning leads to a reduction in soil nutrients, thereby constituting a threat to food security in the study area.

Variation in Soil Clay Ratio in Omuma

Information in Table 3, Presented the statistical analysis of the results of the variation in the clay soil for the controlled samples, alternately burnt and yearly burnt samples respectively.

Table 3: Variation in Clay Ratio of Soil Samples in Omuma

Horizons	Control	Yearly	Two years interval
R ₁ (2m)	12.25	14.25	8.23
R ₂ (4m)	11.75	8.20	7.65
Mean	12.00	11.23	8.19

As observed from Table 3, the mean clay content of the control variable was 12.00 %, and this value decreased to 11.23 for yearly burning, and 8.19 for 2-year interval burning. This shows that the clay content of the soil in Omuma decreased with increased bush burning. According to Lal., 1993 soil with a narrow (small) clay ratio will resist erosion more than a soil with wide clay ratio. Based on this unburnt soil has a clay content of 12.00, and a yearly burnt ratio of 11.23. Therefore, the implication of the finding is that bush burning makes soil vulnerable to soil erosion due to the reduction in clay content which helps to compact the soil particles together

Variation in Soil Silt Ratio in Omuma as a Result of Bush Burning

Data in Table 4, Presented the statistical analysis of the results of the soil silt ratio of controlled samples, alternately burned and yearly burnt samples respectively of the study area.

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Table 4.: Variation in Soil Silt ratio of Omuma Community

Horizons	Control	Yearly	Two-year interval
R ₁ (2m)	12.60	14.25	8.23
R ₂ (4m)	11.75	8.20	10.75
Mean	12.12	7.77	8.19

Analysis of the information in Table 4 shows that there is a reduction in silt content of the soil in the study area from the control sample both when the soil is burned annually or alternatively for 6 years. it was observed the silt composition reduced more when the soil is burnt annually. This by implication means that there is a reduction in the material particles that binds the soil together and therefore the soil cohesion is greatly reduced and also the soil fertility is equally affected

Variation in Soil Sand Ratio in the Study Area

Information in Table 5 presented the statistical analysis of the results of the soil sand ratio of controlled samples, alternately burned and yearly burnt samples respectively in Omuma community.

Table 5: Variation in Soil Sand ratio of Omuma Community of Imo State

Horizons	Control	Yearly	Two years interval
R ₁ (2m)	75.25	80.20	77.01
R ₂ (4m)	76.50	82.10	85.01
Mean	75.88	81.06	81.01

Analysis of the information from Table 5 shows that there is an increase in sand ratio when the soil is burnt both annually and alternately for years. The mean value for the control samples was 75.88 % and this increased to 81.06 % when the soil experienced yearly burning and 81.01% when the soil experienced two-year interval burning. The result shows that the value of sand ratio increases more when the soil experienced yearly bush burning and this will lead to reduction in fertility of the soil because sandy soil soils are generally not known to be fertile for agricultural purposes.

Bush Burning Effect on the Soil Physical Properties in the Study Area

The physical properties identified and chosen for this study are the bulk density, porosity, water stable aggregate, and moisture content. The reason for these physical properties is because they are of utmost importance is soil compatibility and cohesion, and these are factors considered important in soil erosion. The information in Table 6, Presented the statistical analysis of the results of the physical properties of soil in Omuma Community

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Table 6: Result of soil physical properties of the soil in Omuma Community

Soil Physical Parameter (%)	Control Burning for six years			Experienced alternate burning for six years @ 2 yrs intervals			Experienced consistence/year burning for six years		
	R ₁ (2m)	R ₂ (4m)	Mean	R ₁ (m)	R ₂ (m)	Mean	R ₁ (m)	R ₂ (m)	Mean
Bulk Density (gcm ⁻³)	1.40	1.39	1.40	1.49	1.46	1.48	1.49	1.52	1.51
Porosity (%)	47.17	47.55	47.36	43.77	44.91	44.34	43.77	42.64	43.21
Water stable Aggregate (%)	30.25	31.77	31.01	25.20	25.09	25.15	22.50	21.99	22.25
Moisture content (%)	20.72	18.27	19.50	16.25	14.25	15.25	10.27	12.99	11.63

Observation made on the information in Table 4.8 shows the mean bulk density for the controlled sample was 1.40 gcm⁻³. This increased to 1.48 gcm⁻³ when the soil is burnt at the two-year interval and further increased to 1.51 when bush burning is done annually. This implies that bush burning increases the bulk density of the soil. Analysis of the soil porosity or retention capacity indicated that the mean value for the controlled sample is 47.36%. This value reduced to 44.34% for two-year interval burning, and further to 43.21% when the soil experienced yearly bush burning. The result is an indication that bush burning reduces the soil-water retention capacity. There is also a reduction in the mean value of both the water-stable aggregate and moisture content of the soil in Omuma community as a result of bush burning.

The high value of the soil bulk density of the three samples could be a result of the high sand percentage and heavy rainfall experienced in the area (Chibo, 2022). This leads to the washing down of the organic matter content of the soil that binds the soil particles together. Enyankwere et al (2015) observed that if the bulk density value is high, it causes a reduction in infiltration, leading to water logging and thereby reducing soil stability and resistance to erosion.

Reasons for Bush Burning in the Study Area

Bush burning has been identified as a common practice in different parts of the world. The reason why farmers in Omuma engage in this activity was investigated and the result obtained is presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Reason for Bush Burning in Omuma Community

Reason for bush burning	Respondents	% Respondents
Clearing of farmland	61	63.5
Hunting	28	29.2
destruction of pests	2	2.0
Warding off of invasive species of animals	6	6.3
Total	96	100

Analysis of the information in Table 8 shows that there were two main reasons why farmers in Omuma resort to bush burning in their community. The two reasons were for clearing of farmland and hunting.

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These two activities were the opinion of 92.7 percent of the sampled respondents. The result of the finding of the study showed that clearing farmland for agricultural activities is the major reason why bush burning is taking place in Omuma community of Imo state. This is the view of 61 respondents or about 63.5% of the sampled population. The implication is that over 63 percent of farmers in Omuma community practice bush burning for farming purposes. Clearing of farmland is followed distantly by hunting. This is an indication that hunting is also another major reason for bushes are set on fire bur in Omuma community of Imo state. This was the opinion of 28 respondents or about 29.2 percent of the sample population. Other minor reasons for bush burning as indicated by the respondents are the destruction of pests (2%) and the warding off of invasive animals (6.3%).

Data Analysis

The hypothesis was tested using test statistics of chi-square (X^2).

Table 8. Chi-square (X^2) table for soil textural and Physical Properties

Parameters	<i>O</i>	<i>E</i>	<i>O – E</i>	$(O - E)^2$	$\frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$
Sand	75.88	81.01	-5.1	26	0.32
Silt	12.12	9.3	2.8	7.8	0.84
Clay	12.00	9.71	2.3	5.3	0.55
Clay ratio	3.15	4.41	-1.3	1.7	0.39
Bulk density	1.40	1.50	-0.1	0.01	0.01
Porosity	47.36	43.8	3.6	13.0	0.3
Aggregate stability	31.01	23.7	7.3	33.3	2.23
Moisture content	19.50	13.4	6.1	37.2	2.78
X^2 calculated = 7.42; X^2 calculated (0.05) = 3.21; X^2 calculated (0.02) = 1.76					

Since at both 0.01 and 0.05 confidence levels, the calculated value is greater than the tabulated value; therefore, we reject the Null hypothesis (H_0) and conclude that there is a significant difference in the observed and expected soil physical properties of the study area, owing to bush burning. Therefore, bush burning has an effect on the soil physical properties

One-way ANOVA for Soil Textural and Physical Properties*Table 9. One-Way ANOVA for Soil Textural and Physical Properties*

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	
sand composition	Between Groups	70.729	5	14.146	.	
	Within Groups	.000	0	.		
	Total	70.729	5			
silt composition	Between Groups	24.711	5	4.942	.	
	Within Groups	.000	0	.		
	Total	24.711	5			
clay composition	Between Groups	96.938	5	19.388	.	
	Within Groups	.000	0	.		
	Total	96.938	5			
bulk density of the soil	Between Groups	.014	5	.003	.	
	Within Groups	.000	0	.		
	Total	.014	5			
Porosity of the soil	Between Groups	19.809	5	3.962	.	
	Within Groups	.000	0	.		
	Total	19.809	5			
water stable aggregate of the soil	Between Groups	81.047	5	16.209	.	
	Within Groups	.000	0	.		
	Total	81.047	5			

The result of the ANOVA shows that it is only bulk density that there is a significant difference in the soil's physical and Textural properties resulting from bush burning in the study area

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The information presented in this section represents the summary of findings derived from this study. Bush burning affects the physical properties of soil. Some nutrient elements are more prone to the effect of bush burning than others. Consistence bush burning on a particular piece of land could surely lead to complete loss of certain nutrients in that soil. Soil and water temperature are also greatly affected by fire; when the canopy of leaves and branches is destroyed, sunlight reaches regions that are not used to the added heat. Nutrients of the soil are seriously and negatively affected by bush burning (fire). When a fire destroys the intricate matrix of roots and grasses devastating landslides and soil erosion can occur. Bush burning has been found to lead to the reduction of animals from their habitat destruction by bush fire. Soil and water temperature are greatly affected by fire, which serves many positive purposes in plant and animal life in the ecosystem but it can also damage communities just as well. Perhaps the most damaging effect on bush fire is in erosion. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made to the farmers, land managers, and policy formulators.

1. land managers should be encouraged to always apply the practice of soil conservation and management.
2. Farmers should be educated on the effects if bush burning (fire) on the soil.

3. Land users should be enlightened on the need to allow the land to regenerate on its own by allowing it to fallow for a certain number of years.
4. Database should be provided by the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources and Ministry of Environment to help farmers.
5. Regular work/seminars should be organized for land users and farm managers on soil management practices

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Chapter Thirty-One

Analysis of the effects of rainfall and temperature variation on crop yield across agricultural lands in Imo State, Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

Temperature and precipitation affect crop growth and resultant productivity disproportionately. The variation in climate impacts on crop yield over time has received less attention which is significant to understand their nexus for ensuring future food security. This study seeks to assess the influence of historical climate variability in explaining crop yield variability across selected agricultural areas in Imo State, Nigeria's diverse forest belt. A descriptive historical survey guided the study and climate change provided the conceptual framework of this study. Secondary data used include monthly temperature and rainfall data for a period of 30 years (1993-2023) across the study area, while descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis were used at $\alpha 0.05$. The findings revealed significant variations in both temperature and precipitation on crop yield across the diverse agricultural lands in Imo State. The coefficient of variation, or yield variability normalized by mean yields was lower in the top crop production regions of the state on account of their higher yields and conversely higher in the areas of lower yields. Proper and adequate funding, use of early maturing, drought and disease-resistant crops and good extension services are recommended.

KEYWORDS: Climate; Variability; Temperature; Rainfall; Crop Yield.

INTRODUCTION

Understanding climate impacts on crop yields is fundamental for enhancing agricultural resilience in a changing climate. Numerous studies have been conducted to assess the impacts of climate change on crop yield at the regional and global scales (Olesen and Bindi 2002, Jones and Thornton 2003, Parry *et al* 2004, Tao *et al* 2006, Yao *et al* 2007, Schlenker and Roberts 2009, Reidsma *et al* 2010, Schlenker and Lobell 2010, Bindi and Olesen 2011, Müller *et al* 2011, Urban *et al* 2012, Rosenzweig *et al* 2014). In general, high temperature exerts a negative impact on yields directly through heat stress and indirectly via soil moisture deficits, while low precipitation tends to induce closure of stoma, reduction of carbon uptake and decrease of yields (Peng *et al* 2004, Schlenker and Roberts 2009, Butler and Huybers 2013, Asseng *et al* 2015; Ray *et al* 2015, Liu *et al* 2016, Zhao *et al* 2016, Schauburger *et al* 2017, Wang *et al* 2017). Crops are most sensitive to high temperatures at the reproductive stage and grain-filling/fruit maturation stage (Hatfield *et al.*, 2011). However, plant responses to each type of temperature alteration are species-specific and mediated through both photosynthetic activity for biomass accumulation, which is responsible for plant growth, and the phenological and morphological changes, which occur during plant development. Each type of temperature stress has a different effect on crop duration and overall plant productivity. The effect will depend on how sensitive each species is at its stage of development when the temperature alteration occurs. Adapting to these effects will require different types of responses. The increase in average temperature during the growing season typically causes plants to use more energy for respiration for their maintenance and less to support their growth. With a 1°C increase in average temperatures, yields of the major food and cash crop species can decrease by 5 to 10 per cent (Lobell and Field, 2007; Hatfield *et al.*, 2009). With higher average temperatures plants also complete their growing cycle more rapidly (Hatfield *et al.*, 2011). With less time to reproduce, reproductive failures are more likely and this will also lower yields (Craufurd and Wheeler, 2009).

Statement of the Problem

Climate change and climate variability affect weather patterns and cause shifts in seasons with serious repercussions such as declining food production and productivity for communities and households (Kabubo-Mariara and Mulwa, 2019). Studies have examined the effects of droughts on agricultural production (Leng and Hall 2019) and the impacts of concurrent droughts in different locations (Gaupp *et al* 2019). Crop production is highly sensitive to climate. It is affected by long-term trends in average rainfall and temperature, interannual climate variability, shocks during specific phenological stages, and extreme weather events (IPCC, 2012). Some crops are more tolerant than others to certain types of stresses, and at each phenological stage, different types of stresses affect each crop species in different ways (Simpson, 2017). Climate change can make conditions better or worse for growing crops in different regions. For example, changes in temperature, rainfall, and frost-free days are leading to longer growing seasons globally. Climate change is the worldwide environmental threats that seriously affect agricultural productivity and it affects mankind in numerous ways, including its direct influence on food production (Enete and Amusa, 2016). Even though climate change is global, developing countries, like Africa are the most adversely affected by climate change due to their low level of adaptation capabilities (Enete and Amusa 2016; Nwafor *et al.* 2007). The livelihoods of millions of people who are poor and susceptible are presently threatened by Climate change which altering the natural and physical resources they depend on generally and agricultural production particularly (Mesfin and Bekele 2018).

Many countries in tropical and sub-tropical regions are expected to be more vulnerable to climate change which will affect their marginal water balance and harm their agricultural sectors. Like other continents of the world, Africa is under pressure from climate stresses and is highly vulnerable to the impacts of climate variability which accounts for one-third of African people (i.e. 220 million are exposed to drought each year) (Philemon, 2016). However, different research has been done on tropical countries on the extent of damage of climate variability on agricultural productivity. In Africa and some parts of the world, climate change is expected to change the dynamics of drought, rainfall and heat waves, and prompt secondary stresses such as the spread of pests, increased competition for resources, and consequent biodiversity losses (Enete and Amusa, 2016). Changes in precipitation regimes include changes in seasonal mean, the timing and intensity of individual rainfall events, and the frequency and length of droughts. Each of these factors is critical to crop productivity. The impact of changes in precipitation will be particularly marked when they are combined with temperature alterations that affect the crop's evaporative demands. This may lead to different forms of moisture stress depending on the phenological stage the crop has reached. The specific impacts of changes in precipitation regimes on crops vary significantly because around 80 per cent of the cropped area is rainfed and produces 60 per cent of the world's food (Tubiello *et al.*, 2007). The levels and distribution of precipitation determine whether a crop can be grown without irrigation and/or drainage, or whether investments in this area are necessary. The general prediction is that with climate change, areas that already receive high levels of rainfall will receive more, and those that are dry will become drier (Liu and Allan, 2013). The reduction in seasonal mean precipitation will have a greater impact on areas with degraded soils. Soils with lower organic carbon levels retain less water at low moisture potentials. Furthermore, crops grown in nutrient-poor soils, especially those lacking potassium, recover less quickly from drought stress once water is again available (Lipiec *et al.*, 2013).

MATERIALS AND METHODS**Study Area****Location, Population and Area Extent of Imo State**

Imo State came into existence in 1976 along with other new states created under the leadership of the late military ruler of Nigeria, Murtala Muhammad, having been previously part of East Central State. The state is named after the Imo River. Part of it was split off in 1991 as Abia State, and another part became Ebonyi State. The main cities in Imo State are Owerri (the state capital), Orlu and Okigwe. The local language is Igbo and Christianity is the predominant religion. Imo State lies within latitudes 4°45'N and 7°15'N, and longitude 6°50'E and 7°25'E with an area of around 5,100 square Kilometre. It is bordered by Abia State

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on the East, by the River Niger and Delta State on the west, by Anambra State to the north and Rivers State to the south. Besides Owerri, Imo State's major towns are Isu, Okigwe, Oguta, Orlu, Mbaise, Mbano, Mbieri, Orodo and Orsu. Imo State has a population of over 4.8 million with a population density that varies from 230 persons per square kilometre in Oguta/Egbema area to about 1,400 persons per square kilometre in Mbaise, Orlu, Mbano and Mbaitoli areas. This high population density has led to intensified pressure on land, forests and other natural resources, leading to increasing rural poverty which is characteristic of densely populated rural areas. The fallow period rarely exceeds one year and, in some areas, continuous cropping is the rule. Low crop yield and loss of land to erosion have combined to induce people to migrate in search of jobs and even farmland in other parts of the country.

Agriculture, Natural Resources and Climate of Imo State

The state has several natural resources which include, crude oil, natural gas, lead, calcium carbonate, solar and wind power, and zinc. Profitable flora including iroko, mahogany, obeche, bamboo, rubber tree and oil palm. Additionally, white clay, fine sand and limestone are also found in the state. The rainy season begins in April and lasts until October, with annual rainfall varying from 1,500 mm to 2,200 mm (60 to 80 inches). An average annual temperature above 20 °C (68.0 °F), creates an annual relative humidity of 75%. With humidity reaching 90% in the rainy season. The dry season experiences two months of Harmattan, from late December to late February. The hottest months are between January and March. With high population density and overfarming, the soil has been degraded and much of the native vegetation has disappeared. Agriculture is the primary occupation, but due to over-farming and high population density, the soil has greatly degraded. This could be a result of inefficient production techniques, poor resource base, declining soil productivity, the predominance of primitive techniques of agricultural production, inadequate supply of credit, low capital investment, and use of crude implements to mention but a few. The Agricultural sector in Imo State needs the intervention of the state government and other huge private companies, this is because having a strong economy based on crude oil, natural gas and palm oil will not aid the development of the state.

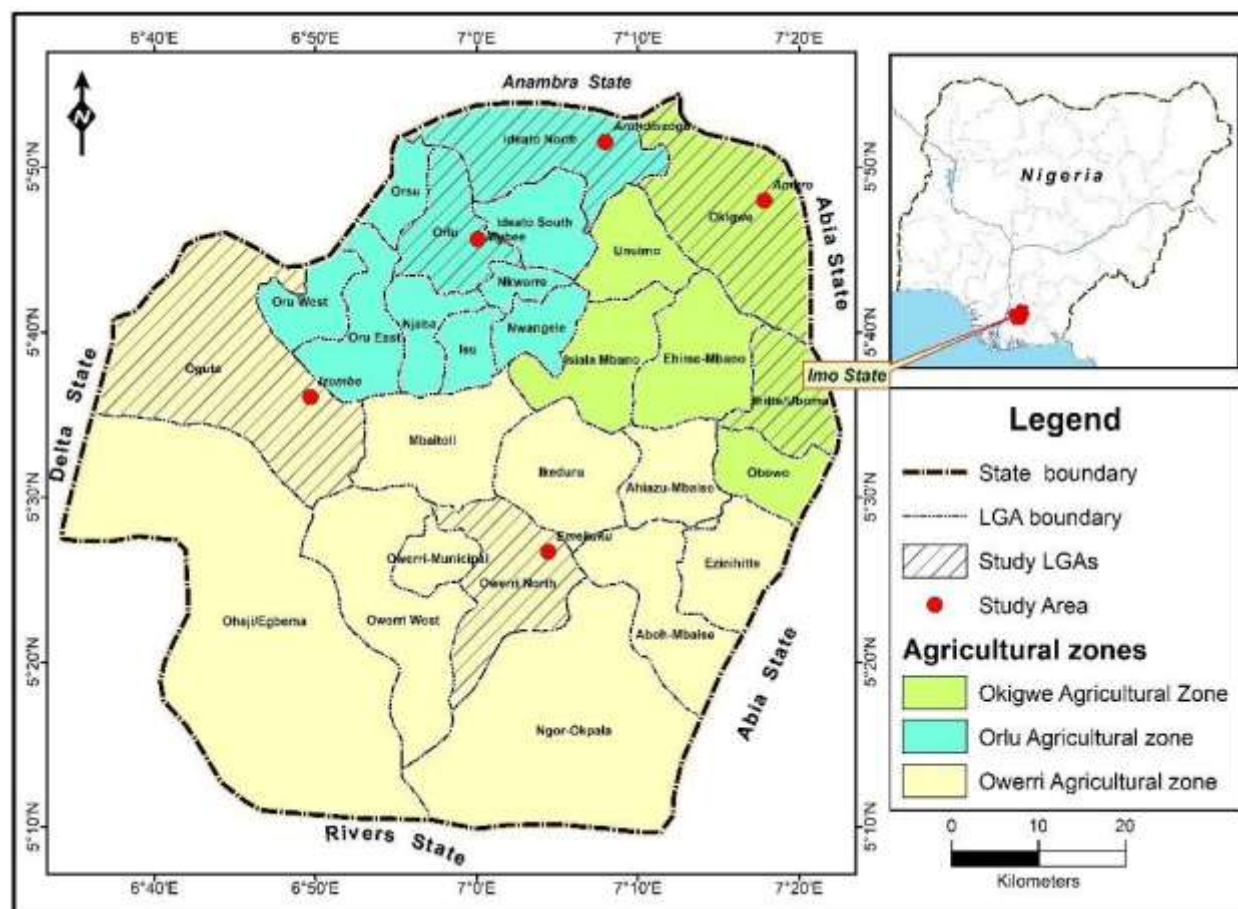


Figure 1. Study Area showing the different agricultural zones in Imo State

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Spatial and temporal trends in meteorological variables

Minimum and maximum temperatures varied over the climatological period between 1993 to 2023 across Imo State. Minimum temperatures (Figure 2) ranged between 18.2°C to 33°C with average temperatures of 22°C to 25°C reflecting across March to October across the state within the climatological period. Maximum temperatures (Figure 3) ranged between 29°C to 36.1°C with average temperatures of 31°C to 33.3°C showing across the months of January to November within the 30-year periods of 1993 to 2023. Rainfall (Figure 4) ranged between 1.8mm to 609mm across the state and climatological period. The wet season months of April to October revealed higher rainfall values with double maxima of between 251mm to 609mm while the dry season months of January to March and November and December showed lower rainfall values of between 0 to 70mm

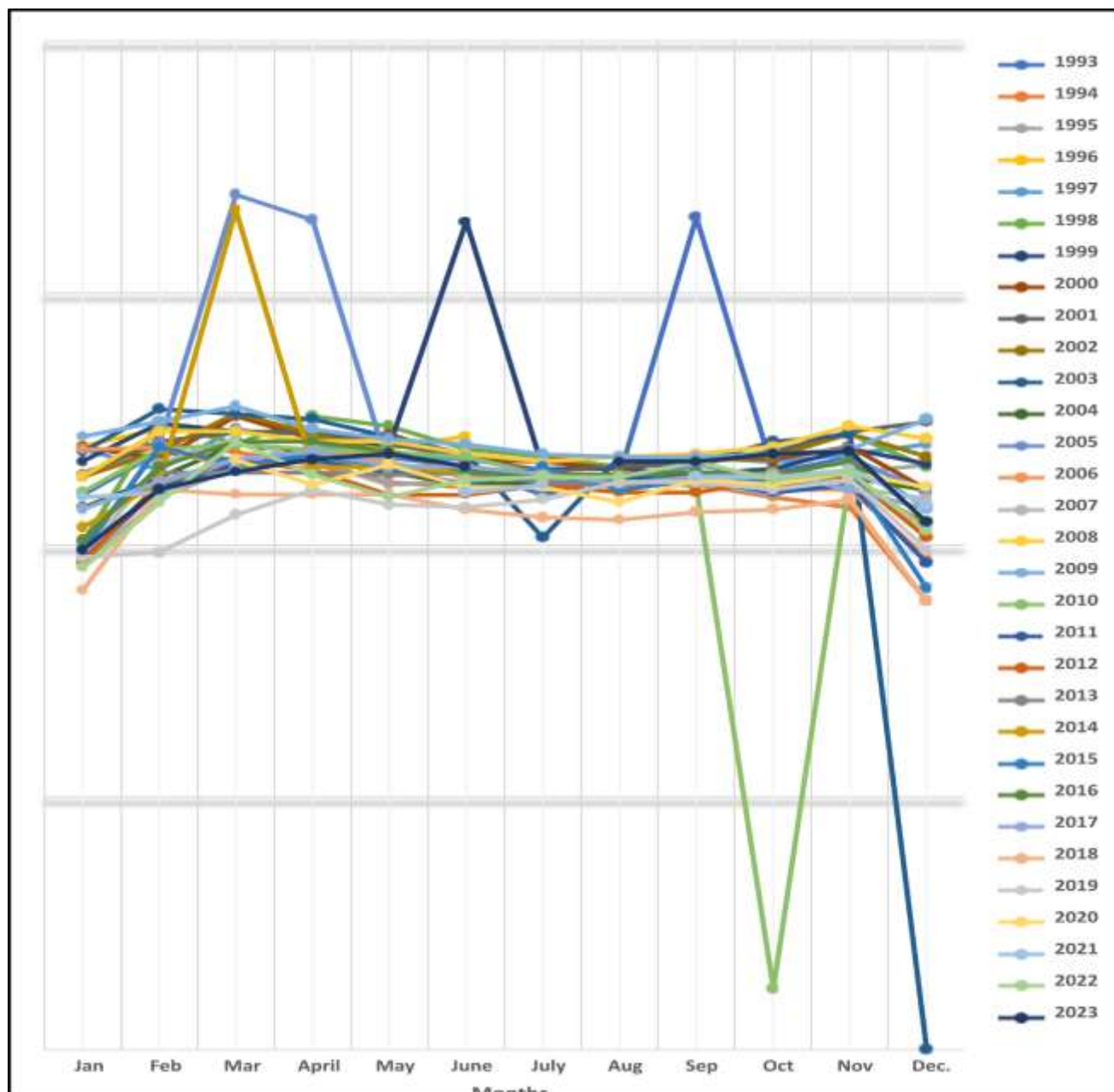


Figure 2. Minimum temperatures across Imo State from 1993 to 2023

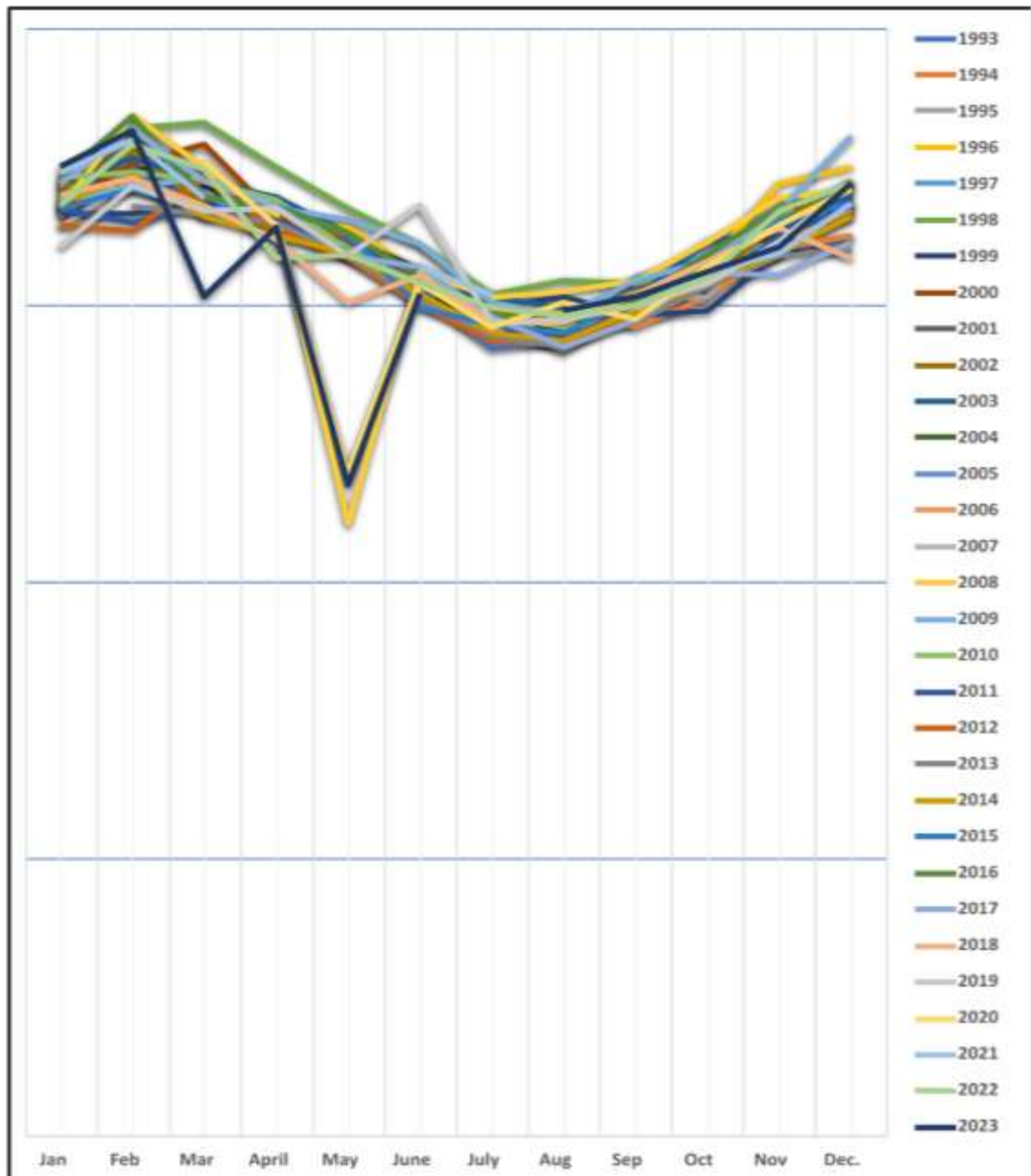


Figure 3. Maximum temperatures across Imo states from 1993 to 2023

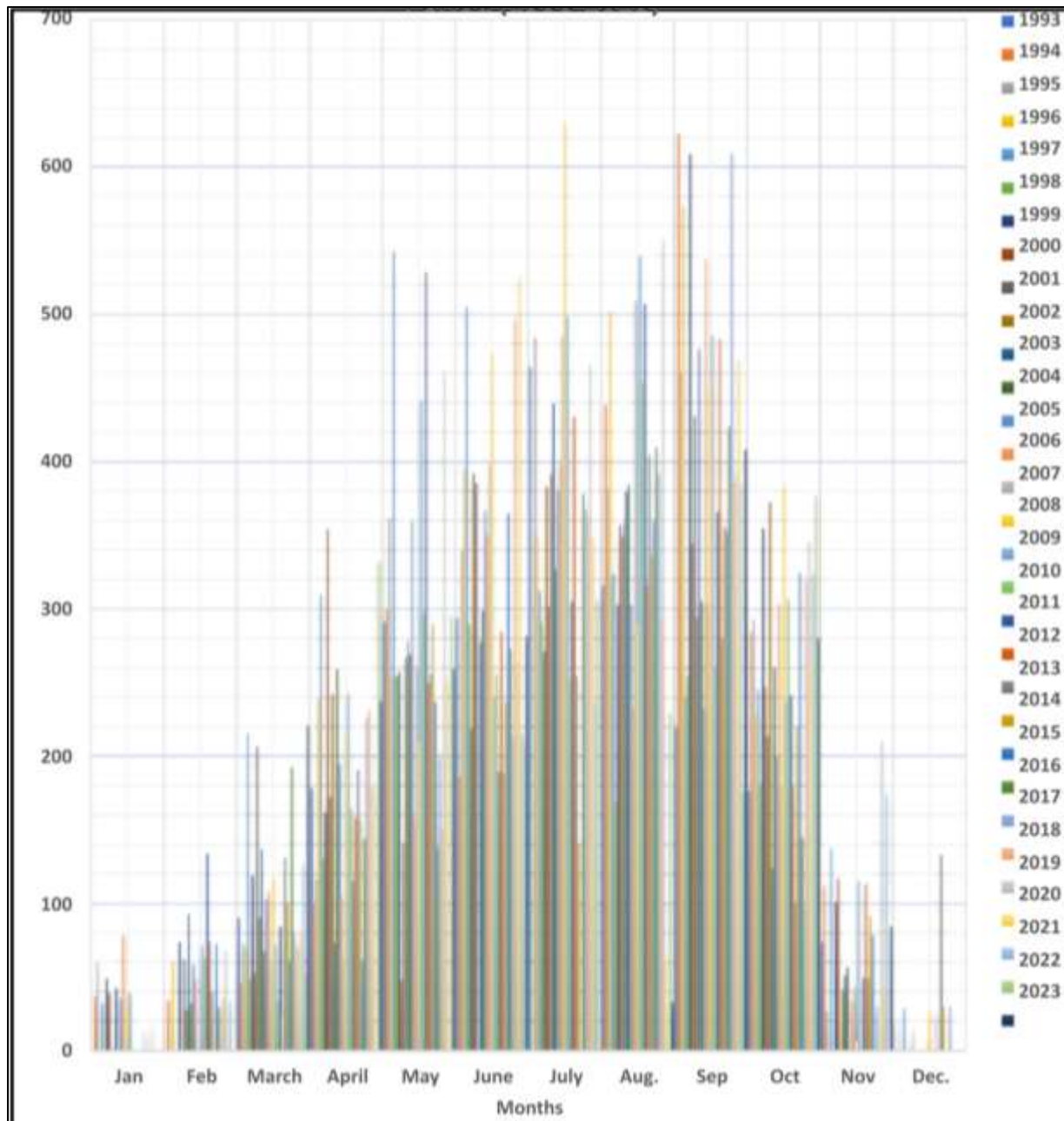


Figure 4. Variation in Rainfall across Imo states from 1993 to 2023

Multiple linear regression was employed to test for the relationship between rainfall, temperature and relative humidity, on crop yields for a climatological period. (Table 1 to 3). The dependent variable (climate) was regressed with monthly crop yields for (Rice, Cassava and Yam). The independent variables significantly influenced monthly crop yields for Rice, Cassava and Yam for the climatological period under review. For Rice, (Table 1) Climate variables of temperature and rainfall averagely influenced rice yield

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($\beta=6.61$, $p=0.00$), also the $R^2=0.173$ depicts that the model explains 17.3% of the monthly variation in rice yields throughout 1993 to 2023. Additionally, the coefficients were also assessed to ascertain the influence of the temperature and rainfall on rice yields and the results revealed an insignificant influence of the regression coefficients on rice yields ($p > 0.05$). For yam, (Table 2) Climate variables of temperature and rainfall averagely influenced yam yields ($\beta= 10.09$, $p=0.00$), also the $R^2=0.021$ depicts that the model explains 2.1% of the monthly variation in yam yields throughout 1993 to 2023. Additionally, the regression coefficients were also assessed to ascertain the influence of the temperature and rainfall on yam yields and the results revealed an insignificant influence of the regression coefficients on yam yields ($p > 0.05$). For Cassava (Table 3) Climate variables of temperature and rainfall averagely influenced cassava yields ($\beta= 64.65$, $p=0.00$), also the $R^2=0.048$ depicts that the model explains 4.8% of the monthly variation in cassava yields for 1993 to 2023. Additionally, the regression coefficients were also assessed to ascertain the influence of the temperature and rainfall on cassava yields and the results revealed an insignificant influence of the regression coefficients on cassava yields ($p > 0.05$).

Table 1. Climate and Rice

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.611	1.024		6.455	.000
	Temp	-.009	.011	-.146	-.812	.424
	Rainfall	.001	.003	.059	.283	.779
	R^2	0.173				
a. Dependent Variable: Rice						

Table 3. Climate and Cassava

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	64.651	12.673		5.102	.000
	Temp	-.149	.142	-.203	-1.050	.303
	Rainfall	.013	.032	.090	.406	.688
	R^2	0.048				
a. Dependent Variable: Cassava						

Discussion

Rainfall and temperature variables revealed a fluctuating trend across the agricultural zones. The impacts on Cassava, rice and yam yields are manifold which is consistent with similar studies globally. Globally, climate change greatly impacts the production of major crops, and there have been many attempts to model future yields under warming scenarios in recent years (Mohammadi, *et. al.* 2023). A study by Sule *et al.* (2020) to investigate the effects of climate variability on crop yield and its implication for smallholder farmers in the Guinea Savanah region of Nigeria revealed a rising trend in both temperature and precipitation and a moderate to strong positive relationships between climate variables and yield with Maize, Bambara nut and Groundnut showing significant relationships. Ahmad, *et. al.* (2021) investigated the impact of climate variability on crop yield in South Asia and found that 27–72% variations in wheat and 17– 55% in rice crop yields are linked with temperature variations while precipitation changes were closely linked with 39% variations in wheat and 75% variations in rice crop yields in all study sites. Mohammadi, *et. al.* (2023) evaluated the links between changes in temperature and precipitation and changes in wheat, barley, and potato yields at the county level during 1980–2019 in Norway, a Nordic country with a range of climates across a relatively small spatial scale. The results show that the impacts of climate variables on yield vary widely by county, and the strength and direction of the link depend on underlying local bio climate. Atiah, *et al.* (2021) investigated the vulnerability of maize yield to rainfall, soil moisture, and minimum and maximum temperature variability in Ghana and found a decreasing trend in rainfall and soil moisture and an increasing trend in the maize yield and minimum and maximum temperature in Ghana. Rainfall, soil moisture, and minimum and maximum temperature accounted for approximately 4.2, 22.5, 39.2, and 23.1%, respectively, of the annual maize yield variations throughout the study period while multivariate regression analysis revealed that soil moisture and minimum and maximum temperature accounted for approximately 75% of the variation of maize yield under wetter-than-normal conditions in Ghana. Ajala and Ajetomobi (2018) study investigated the relationship between the unadjusted mean yield, yield variance and adjusted mean yield of maize, rice, beans and groundnut, and temperature and precipitation for the period 1981 – 2018 in Nigeria. The result indicated that an increase in temperature negatively influences maize and rice adjusted mean yield and positively influences beans and groundnut adjusted mean yield. However, an increase in precipitation positively influences the yield level of maize and rice and it negatively influences the yield of beans and groundnut.

CONCLUSION

While predicting crop yield response to climate change and variability has received a lot of attention, it is not well explored in terms of yield variability and extremes. Agriculture is the most vulnerable sector to climate change and variability. Among the agriculture sector crop production livestock production, apiculture (beekeeping), horticulture and aquaculture (fish production) are the most susceptible to climate change. Similarly, those countries who are dependent on agricultural activities are affected more than those of agricultural-independent countries. Climate change impacts on crop yield are often integrated with its effects on water productivity and soil water balance. Global warming will influence temperature and rainfall, which will directly have effects on the soil moisture status and groundwater level. Crop yield is constrained to crop varieties and planting areas, soil degradation, growing climate and water availability during the crop growth period. With temperatures increasing and precipitation fluctuating, water availability and crop production will decrease in the future. If the irrigated areas are expanded, the total crop yield will increase; however, food and environmental quality may degrade. Soil evaporation and plant transpiration will be changed with climate change; thus, water use efficiency may decrease in the future. Improving water productivity and keeping stable relations with global food suppliers will be vital for food security. To help their crops use water more efficiently, farmers must pay attention to improving and maintaining soil fertility on sustainable soil and land management for climate-smart agriculture on sustainable soil management for increased crop productivity and on crop residue management for soil carbon conservation and sequestration.

Recommendations

Climate change harms the agricultural sector. To reduce the impact of climate change on production and productivity adopting and exercising different adaptation strategies is important. Among adaptation strategies: - using traditional ecological knowledge, irrigation activities, water harvesting, strong policy, using advanced technology, strong institutional framework, use of existing opportunities, and introducing stress-tolerant crop varieties are very important to minimize the effect of climate change. In addition to adaptation strategies mitigation measurement also plays a great role in moderating the impact of climate change. Sustainable forest management, afforestation, reforestation, agroforestry practices, and wetland protection are some of the mitigation measures to climate change impact. The uptake of technologies such as early planting, the use of improved crop varieties, and crop diversification are some of the ways to manage the impacts of climate variability on crop yield (Kabubo-Mariara and Mulwa 2019).

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PART 6: Infrastructure Development, Construction and Project Management; Cost and Financial Management

Chapter Thirty-Two**Construction Scheduling Technique and Inventory Management Model: Panacea for Sustainable Public Building Project Delivery*****Ugochi Agatha Asikogu****Department of Building, Imo State University Owerri Nigeria.**EMAIL: asklin2007@gmail.com***ABSTRACT**

Sustainable building project delivery requires that a necessary model of construction management scheduling techniques and inventory management be adopted such techniques include critical part analysis, (CPM); ABC Analysis; and economic order quantity just to mention a few. Initial studies conducted by some Researchers in the study area showed that project planning scheduling and inventory materials management of most public building projects were far from being effective, at best arbitrary in application. This has resulted most time, in project cost and time overruns, disputes among the parties, unnecessary claims and either partial or total abandonment. To stem this ugly incident, this study as a pilot scheme was carried out in Owerri Metropolis Imo State, Nigeria. Using field survey research design with a study population of 50 composed of construction industry stakeholders. To obtain reliable data, a random sampling method was adopted, while data collated were analyzed using the Chi-square statistical tool empowered by SPSS. From the test of descriptive statistics, the study established that workshops, seminars and training/retraining contributed immensely to project performance. Major findings also showed that the critical path had zero floats: For the ABC analysis model, chipping and cement were the major A items and should be purchased with tightened control. It is strongly believed that with more advocacies to sensitize the relevant construction stakeholders, the adoption of the ABC inventory model and critical path method (CPM) would greatly enhance sustainable public building project delivery in the study area.

KEYWORDS: Sustainable; Construction; Scheduling; Techniques; Public

INTRODUCTION

Construction project encompasses several processes and sub-processes. The construction process is broad and complex to execute (Chris, 2009). It encompasses different kinds of projects which are interdependent and interconnected in tasks and work packages. Adding to this complex nature, the industry involves many components. Moreover, the involvement of people from different cultures who interact together to deliver projects exacerbates this complication. Project plans, inventory management and schedules are indispensable for delivering projects within budget, time, and quality. The critical path method (CPM) and ABC analysis are two separate management techniques used in project management and inventory control, respectively. While they serve different purposes, they can be related in certain contexts. Both share commonalities in prioritization, resource allocation, risk management, and optimization. Integrating these techniques can lead to more effective project management and inventory control, (Kerzner, 2020).

According to Ochieng, et al., (2013), a project schedule is a document containing a clear plan of all the work needed to be timely delivered by a project, and thus project schedule is essential if a project is to meet the client's requirements (). To come up with a successful project plan and schedule, an extensive knowledge of the basics of project management is required according to Heagney (2011). According to Harris and McCaffer (1985), adequate coordination of materials requirements is very necessary during the overall planning of a building project execution, before the commencement of the work on-site, as well as adequate control and monitoring during the execution processes. It will also necessitate the involvement of those responsible for the production to sort out building materials constituents and decide on how, in what order, and at what time to use them.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Every construction project consists of several activities involving the consumption of labour, time, materials, equipment money etc. Many of these activities are interdependent and the rest can be carried out independently. According to Harris and McCaffer (2013), the entire reason why construction projects are managed is to ensure stakeholders' desires for any project are met through effective planning, controlling, and coordinating in the implementation of the project objectives. Project managers should not only plan, schedule, coordinate and optimise the activities in the project effectively but should also identify and watch closely those critical activities which must be completed within their allotted duration. Management should take advantage of those activities which have some spare time and allow flexibility in planning and economic utilization of resources. Critical path method/analysis (CPM) is such a scheduling tool for laying out all the activities of the project in the time order in which they are to be performed, keeping given the logical sequence of the activities. On the other hand, proper management of building materials could be achieved through inventory management and the application of the appropriate inventory models such as the ABC analysis model. Inventory materials management models are highly essential for every construction project delivery, (Perera 2015). Nagarigan (2012), opined that well-planned inventory (determining the timing and size of the order) can contribute to the effective operation of a firm and to a firm's profit. According to Kerzner (2009), it has been argued that a successful project schedule should fulfil the following criteria: (1) completed without delay, within the as-planned time and cost; (2) implemented at the specified levels of project performance; (3) delivered according to project stakeholder needs and expectations.

Research Problem

The impact of project scheduling techniques and materials inventory management models as instruments of effective public building projects cannot be over-emphasized. Poor scheduling and control often lead to unrealistic schedules and budgets, low productivity and increased delay, (Harris & Mc Caffer, 2005). Without adopting the critical path method/analysis and ABC analysis identifying critical tasks that determine the minimum duration required to complete a project as well as prioritizing inventory items based on their value and importance would be an impossible task in project implementation. By identifying critical tasks and high-priority inventory items, organizations can streamline processes, reduce waste, and improve efficiency. Many kinds of research in the building construction industry were able to identify inefficiency in planning but did not provide a holistic approach to understanding current methods of planning inventory management that can be used by contractors. This study, however, tends to provide solutions on how to improve construction planning through adopting effective project scheduling and inventory management models in project delivery.

Based on an extensive literature review of theories and practices in materials management, the existing research gaps in project scheduling and materials management particularly in a developing economy like Nigeria could be summarized as follows:

- i. These days, projects are hardly completed without delay, within the as-planned time and cost;
- ii. they implemented at the specified levels of project performance;
- iii. level of competence of personnel are undersupplied in the industry
- iv. lack of a universally accepted inventory model for every type of building project in the study area;
- v. The complexity and logistic nature of the scheduling processes have been increasing in recent times, without an equivalent increase in trained personnel.

Aim and Objectives

The study aimed to examine the adoption of project scheduling techniques and inventory management models for sustainable public building project delivery to proffer an appropriate approach for timely project delivery. The objectives are to:

- i. Examine factors that limit the implementation of techniques;

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

- ii. ascertain the effects of non - implementation of the techniques for construction project performance and
- iii. develop frameworks for critical path method planning scheduling and ABC inventory management models for sustainable public building project delivery.

Hypothesis

H1: Effects of non-implementation of planning scheduling and management models have no significant relationship with sustainable construction project delivery

H2: Factors to improve the usage /awareness of the techniques do not vary significantly among themselves.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Incomplete or poor project plans and scheduling could be a direct result of a lack of knowledge of the project management basis. There must be a clear definition of those influencing factors in developing and controlling project plans and scheduling at the early stages of the project. Without this, contract disputes usually erupt. Ahern et al. (2014) added through their research findings that inadequate depth of knowledge of practical theories of project management accounts for poor project plans and schedules. Furthermore, Kerzner (2009) maintains that a reasonable level of knowledge of the fundamentals was required for successfully applying project plans and schedules. Every construction project consists of several activities involving the consumption of labour, time, materials, equipment money etc. Many of these activities are interdependent and the rest can be carried out independently. According to Harris and McCaffer (2013), the entire reason why construction projects are managed is to ensure stakeholders' desires for any project are met through effective planning, controlling, and coordinating in the implementation of the project objectives. Baldwin and Bordol (2014) stressed the importance of project scheduling and planning. They agreed that project scheduling should be viewed as integral to project success and not just any necessitated function at the preliminary stages. Project scheduling can be a useful tool for optimizing the efficient execution of projects in maximizing cost, time, and quality (Baldwin & Bordoli, 2014). The common practice in the construction industry is the failure to develop excellent project schedules and thus failure to achieve project objectives (Alias et al, 2014).

There are many scheduling techniques as well as inventory available to manage construction projects with some, more suitable and useful types of projects Askew et al. (2004). This implies that no single technique suitably applies to schedule every construction project irrespective of the type and nature of the project. En.m.wikipedia.org. observed that construction planning is more difficult in some ways since the construction schedule and process are dynamic as the site and the facility change over time as construction proceeds. On the other hand, construction operations tend to be fairly standard from one project to another, whereas structural or startup details might differ considerably from one project to another. Halpin (1985) observed that forming a good construction plan and schedule is an exceptionally challenging problem. There are numerous possible plans available for any given project hence evolving different schedules. While experience is a good guide to construction planning, each project is likely to have special problems or opportunities that may require considerable ingenuity and creativity to overcome or exploit. Unfortunately, it is quite difficult to provide direct guidance concerning general procedures or strategies to form good plans and schedules in all circumstances. Some recommendations or issues can be addressed to describe the characteristics of a good plan. However, as in the design process, strategies of decomposition in which planning is divided into sub-problems and hierarchical planning in which general activities are repeatedly subdivided into more specified tasks can be readily adopted in many cases. Hence, management is expected to select the most appropriate scheduling technique(s) when scheduling for any particular project to ensure optimum use of available and most economic resources (man, money, machine and materials). This study examines how critical path method/analysis (CPM) scheduling techniques and inventory model of construction management have impacted building construction projects.

Critical Path Method/Analysis (CPM)

According to Akpan and Chizea (2005), the critical path method (CPM) is one of the many classes of network scheduling techniques. The entire reason why construction projects are managed is to ensure stakeholder's desires for any project are met through the effective planning, controlling, and coordinating in the implementation of the project objectives, (Harris and McCaffer 2013). This is a projected timetable of dates of start and finish for each job or activity. The introduction of these into the jobs or activities is a necessary ingredient towards reducing the scheduled plan into a graph. The CPM is a common analysis tool for scheduling time in the industry. CPM as a tool is used by managers to ascertain the longest path from start to finish in a network. This path is called the critical path. To Mubarak (2010) other terms include the analyzing usage of resources, float calculations, and accelerating schedules at minimum allowable costs. The following is the procedure for preparing the schedule of the critical path (Mubarak, 2010):

- i. Study the particular project to decide on the general approach to adopt, then specify the individual activities or operations involved in the project: From the work breakdown structure; a listing can be made of all the activities in the project. This listing can be used as the basis for adding sequence and duration information in later steps.
- ii. Determine the Sequence of the Activities: Some activities are dependent on the completion of others. A listing of the immediate predecessors of each activity is useful for constructing the CPM network diagram.
- iii. Draw the Network Diagram: Once the activities and their sequencing have been defined, the CPM diagram can be drawn. CPM originally was developed as an activity on node (AON) network, but some project planners prefer to specify the activities on the arcs.
- iv. Estimate Activity Completion Time: The time required to complete each activity can be estimated using experience or the estimates of knowledgeable persons. CPM is a deterministic model that does not take into account variation in the completion time, so only one number is used for an activity's time estimate.
- v. Find out the floats in each separate activity ensuring that the scheduled total duration is not exceeded in the network: Floats enable the project planning team especially the project manager to ascertain if the project will be completed on schedule. When all the activities have positive floats, then, the target time is greater than the total project time and vice versa when the floats are negative. Negative floats give a measure of the time, in which the associated activities must be reduced for the project to meet the target time.
- vi. Identify the Critical Path: The critical path is the longest-duration path through the network. The path in the network consuming activities with the least float (or no float) signifies the critical path. The path (route) is critical in the sense that no delay must be allowed here if the project must be completed on schedule or at the appropriate time, all things being equal.

Pareto Or ABC Analysis Model

Stevenson (2005), defines inventory management as an attempt to balance inventory needs and requirements with the need to minimize costs resulting from obtaining and holding inventory. Inventory management/ control according to Nagarjan (2012), refers to those items that are yet to be utilized in the execution of a building project. Since projects consume /utilize materials resources, inventory control is also an aspect that is of great importance during the execution of projects. According to Sadiwala (2007), inventory is defined as a stock of goods which would be carried and stored to ensure the smooth and efficient running of affairs of production and business. All these materials and goods have value and cost and they are the assets purchased and used for building project delivery. Proper management of building materials could be achieved through inventory management and the application of the appropriate inventory models such as the ABC analysis model. This is a method in which inventory is divided into three categories, i.e. A, B, and C in descending value. The items in the A category have the highest value, B category items are of lower value than A, and C category items have the lowest value. Inventory control and management are critical for a business or construction project delivery, (Perera 2015). Nagarigan (2012), opines that well-planned inventory (determining the timing and size of the order) can contribute to the effective operation of a firm and to a firm's profit.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

The model categorizes items based on their value to the business, helping managers focus on the most critical products. It's commonly used in inventory management and supply chain optimization. According to Baguley, (1999), this is a popular inventory control technique, which is an adaptation of Paretos' law in Italy. Pareto identified the empirical relationship that is often called the 80-20 rule. When used to control inventories, this identifies the 20 percent of the stocks that are responsible for 80 percent of total inventory costs. These are called class A items. This rule can be used to identify the 20 percent of activities that is responsible for 80 percent of project labour costs or the 20 percent of materials that is responsible for 80 percent of the project's material costs. Once these Class A activities or materials are known, then measurement and reporting routines can be adjusted to make sure that they are measured and monitored more frequently. The 80-20 rule can also be extended so that it takes into account more than just cost. For having identified the A class items or activities, their use on the project's critical path activities can be reclassified and then monitoring and reporting can be readjusted accordingly. This way, those items and activities that are important to two of a project's dimensions – Cost and Time are monitored. Orilicky, (1975), states that the idea behind ABC analysis is to apply the bulk of the (limited) planning and control resources to the A – items where the money is, at the expense of the other classes that have demonstrated much less effect on the overall inventory investment. The ABC concept is to be implemented by controlling A- items more tightly than B – items and so on. Controlling “tightly” means reviewing frequently. The frequency of review, in turn, tends to determine order quantity. A –items would be reviewed frequently and ordered in small quantities, to keep inventory investment down.

According to Payne et al (1999), ABC inventory control based on Paretos Law could be roughly interpreted as 80 percent of a problem which comes from 20 percent of the possible causes. In most material flows where large numbers of different parts of items are involved, it will be found that about 80 percent of the value derives from about 20 percent of the items. This means that inventory control can be exercised efficiently by concentrating on about 20% of the items, and using simple rules to control the other 80 percent of the items.

Nagarajan (2012), is of the view that ABC analysis is based on the principle of vital few and trivial many. The model segregates the material items that are consumed in a building project into three groups, viz, A-items, B-items and C-items. In ABC analysis, the following categories of materials apply:

1. A-Item (very important material items)

Among these three categories of materials, A-items are the most important material items used in the construction process. In analyzing the amount of money spent on twenty different materials used in the construction of the shopping plaza, it was discovered that about 70 to 75 percent of the total money involved in the different materials is spent on a few items. Such items may account for about 5 percent to 10 percent of the total items of materials consumed; such materials which form part of only 5 percent to 10 percent of the total items of material consumed, yet account for a major amount of the expenditure is called A-items. In the construction of a shopping plaza, for example, cement and chippings are the A-items and inventory is monitored to control the cost of the project.

2. B-items (Pseudo vital items)

These are those items that normally form part of about 10 percent to 15 percent of the total number of items and account for about 10 percent to 15 percent of the total expenditure on the materials. The B-items do not require a rigid control as required for A-items. In the construction of the shopping plaza for example, reinforcement bars 8-25mm dia. are the B-items.

3. C-items (trivial items)

These are those items which normally form about 70 to 80 percent of the total number of items but account for only about 5 to 10 percent of the total cost of materials. In the construction of shopping plaza, for example, sandcrete blocks are the C items, (Nagarajan 2012).

The frameworks for critical path method scheduling technique for sustainable construction project delivery;

Activities B, C, D follow activity A while E, F, G precede H. I, J follow H concurrently while K, L also proceed M as concurrently. Activities K, L Follow I, J respectively. M cannot start until K; L has been completed. Draw the network. If A=2, B=10, C=5, D=4, E=6, F=4, G=8, H=2, I=5, J=4, K=6, L=3, M=2.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURE

The study adopted a survey design approach and obtained responses from 50 respondents using a structures questionnaire, administered online to Architects, Builders, Civil Engineers and Quantity surveyors across Owerri Metropolis Methods of data analysis. A combination of descriptive and inferential statistics was employed for the presentation and analysis of the data. From the descriptive aspect, frequency and percentage descriptions were employed. Mean scores and Chi-square were used to analyse the hypotheses posed. Data were collected on a five-point scale of 2, 1, 0, -1 and -2 assigned to (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree) and to (very high; high, medium-low and very low) respectively adopted from Aikharusi et al (2022). The Chi-square was used to test: the effects of the non-implementation of planning scheduling and management models have no significant relationship for sustainable construction project delivery and the factors to improve the usage /awareness of the techniques do not vary significantly among themselves.

Job/ Activities and Assigned Duration

A. Site clearance; B. Excavation; C. Blinding; D. Block work; E. Backfilling; F. Formwork; G. Concreting; H. Framing; I. Roofing; J. Plastering; K. External works; L. Painting and M. Tiling.

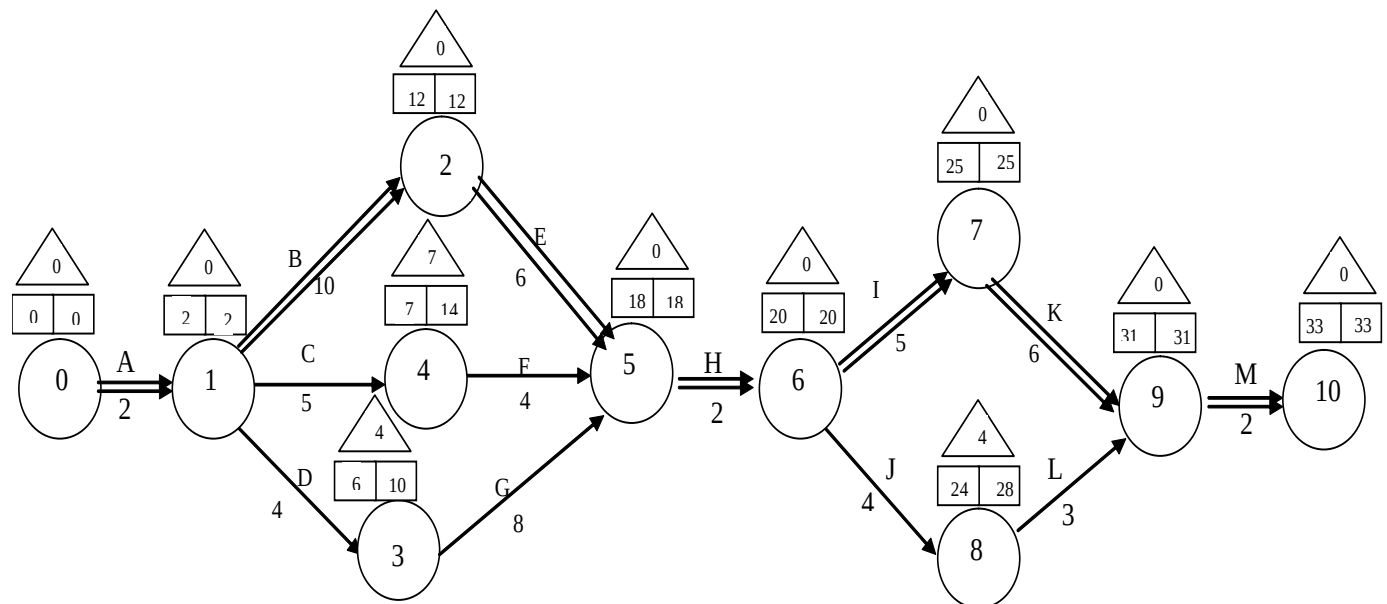


Fig 3. Critical Path

Table 1: Schedule of Project Activities

S/N	No of Activity	Activity letter	Duration	Start Time		Finish Time		Float
				Earliest (EST)	Latest (LST)	Earliest (EFT)	Latest (LFT)	
i.	0 – 1	A	2	0	0	2	2	0
ii.	1 – 2	B	10	2	2	12	12	0
iii.	1 – 3	D	4	2	2	6	10	4
iv.	1 – 4	C	5	2	2	7	14	7
v.	2 – 5	E	6	12	12	18	18	0
vi.	3 – 5	G	8	6	10	18	18	0
vii.	4 – 5	F	4	7	14	18	18	0
viii.	5 – 6	H	2	18	18	20	20	0
ix.	6 – 7	I	5	20	20	25	25	0
x.	6 – 8	J	4	20	20	24	28	4
xi.	7- 9	K	6	25	25	31	31	0
xii.	8 – 9	L	3	24	28	31	31	0
xiii.	9 – 10	M	2	31	31	33	33	0

Source of Data: Author

In a situation where two or more activities precede the next activity, choose the highest number to be the critical activity. Use the highest critical activity to balance the preceding events as the forward pass. For example, in activity 3-5, the forward pass was 14 i.e (6+8), in activity 4-5 the forward pass was 11 i.e. (7+4) and in activity 2-5 the forward pass been 18 was the higher number resulting in from the earliest finish time of the activity, hence it was used in balancing up the network.

Again, initially, activities 1-3 had the backward pass to be 6 i.e (10-4), Also in activities 1-4 the backward pass was 9 i.e. (14-5), but after the balancing resulting from the critical path, the backward pass becomes 2 i.e. (12-10) which is the lowest number. Forward pass = Earliest start + the Duration. While backward pass or latest time = latest time for every activity – Duration

The float is based on the start activity. It is the difference between either the Latest (LST) and the Earliest (EST) or the Latest (LFT) and Earliest (EFT). A float is a period of freedom from work, waiting for the completion of critical activities. E.g after the casting of the suspended floor which is a critical activity, the setting time for the suspended floor without any work in progress is an example of the float time. In all critical paths, the float is 0.

Developing a Framework for ABC Analysis Inventory Planning and Control

The steps for developing the ABC analysis materials management model for different building materials used in the construction of a shopping plaza, in Owerri Imo state are shown below:

- i. articulate the different building materials for the Construction of a Public Building Project (not more than 20

items).

- ii. state the unit of measurement, quantities required, rate /unit cost and cost of each of the selected materials.
- iii. rearrange the items in descending order of cost of individual items.
- iv. determine the cumulative cost (this is obtained by retaining the first cost and adding the next cost to the previous total).

- v. derive the cumulative percentage cost. This is expressed in terms of percentage of the total cost;

$$\frac{\text{Cumulative Cost} \times 100}{\text{Total Cost}} = 1$$

...Equ.1

- vi. derive the cumulative rate percentage based on their cumulative percentage cost;

$$\frac{\text{Amount/Cost} \times 100}{\text{Total Cost}} = 1$$

... Equ.2

- vii. rank the derived cumulative rate percentage in terms of importance.

STUDY RESULTS

Table 2 shows material items according to their ABC grouping. This grouping allows the identification of those items of the materials that have a direct effect in tying up project capital and thus will require tighter control in deciding how and when they would be purchased. Those in A group will require tighter control than those in B and C.

Table 2: Material Items A, B & C

S/N	A (5-9)%	B (10-15)%	C (35-58)%
i.	Chippings (7.08)%	Reinforced bars 8-25mm Ø	Sandcrete blocks (150,225)mm
ii.	Cement (50kg) 8.03%	High yield bar (10.27%)	(57.4%)

Source of Data: Author's Fieldwork, August 2024

From a field survey carried out using ABC analysis, chipping and cement are the major A items and shall be purchased with tighter control while B items (Reinforced bars and High-yield bars) need fairly tight control. C-items need moderate control and would not tie up the capital; neither will it be controlled infrequently and in large quantities as compared to the total requirement, (Nagarajan 2012).

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Table 3: Ranking the effects of non-implementation of Scheduling techniques on construction cost, time, quality and overall construction performance

Source of Data: Author's Fieldwork, August 2024

S/ N	Effects	2 VH	1 H	0 M	-1 L	-2 VL	Total	Mean Score	Rank
i.	Inefficient use of resources: Without a planning schedule, resources may be allocated haphazardly, leading to waste and inefficiency.	32	10	0	8	0	50	1.32	5.5
ii.	Stockouts and overstocking: Poor inventory management can result in stockouts (running out of stock) or overstocking (holding excess stock), both of which can lead to lost sales and unnecessary holding costs.	34.7	12 ..3	0	3	0	50	1.74	3
iii.	Inaccurate time forecasting leading to time overruns	46	4	3	0	0	50	1.92	2
iv.	Increased labour costs: Inefficient planning and inventory management can lead to increased labour costs due to overtime, rework, and wasted time	34	11	0	5	0	50	2	1
v.	Reduced productivity: Inefficient planning and inventory management can lead to reduced productivity and increased stress on employees.	34	11	0	5	0	50	1.48	4
vi.	Reduced customer satisfaction: Stockouts and delayed deliveries can lead to reduced customer satisfaction and loyalty.	17	29	1	3	0	50	1.2	7
vii.	Reduced quality control: Poor inventory management can lead to reduced quality control, resulting in defective products or services.	26	19	0	5	0	50	1.32	5.5

Table 3 above on the effects of scheduling techniques on construction performance. Increased labour costs ranked 1 with a mean score of 2. Inaccurate time forecasting leading to time overruns ranked 2 with a mean score of 1.92. Stockouts and overstocking ranked 3 with a mean score of 1.72. Reduced productivity ranked 4 with a mean score of 1.48. Inefficient use of resources and reduced quality control ranked 5 respectively with a mean score of 5.5. Finally, there was reduced customer satisfaction with a 1.2 mean score.

Data Presentation on the factors that limit the implementation of techniques and improve the usage /awareness of construction scheduling techniques in the study area which of the under-listed channels of advocacy is most preferred.

Table 4: Factors on improving the usage /awareness of construction scheduling techniques and inventory management models

S/ N	FACTORS	2 SA	1 A	0 UD	-1 DA	-2 SA	TOTAL	MEAN SCORE	RANK
i	Legislation	7	43	0	0	0	50	1.14	4
ii	Workshop/Seminar	34	16	0	0	0	50	1.68	1
iii	Incentive	10	40	0	0	0	50	1.2	3
iv.	Training/Retaining	21	29	0	0	0	50	1.42	2

Source of Data: Author's Fieldwork, August 2024

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Table 4 above on factors on improving the usage /awareness of construction scheduling techniques and inventory management models, workshop/seminar ranked 1 with the mean score of 1.68. While training/retaining has a mean score of 1.42 and is ranked 2. This was followed by Incentive with a 1.2 mean score. Impliedly, the study established that workshops, seminars and training/retraining contributed immensely to project performance.

Test of Hypotheses

H₀₁: the effects of non-implementation of planning scheduling and management models have no significant relationship for sustainable construction project delivery.

The Table compares several factors related to the non-implementation of planning, scheduling, and management models with three response categories: Very High (VH), High (H), and Low (L). These factors include inefficient use of resources, stockouts and overstocking, inaccurate time forecasting, increased labour costs, reduced productivity, reduced customer satisfaction, and reduced quality control.

*Table 5: Factors * Response Crosstabulation*

		RESPONSE			Total
		VH	H	L	
Inefficient use of resources	Count	32	10	8	50
	Expected Count	34.7	12.3	3.0	50.0
Stockouts and overstocking	Count	37	13	0	50
	Expected Count	34.7	12.3	3.0	50.0
Inaccurate time forecasting	Count	46	4	0	50
	Expected Count	34.7	12.3	3.0	50.0
Increased costs	Count	50	0	0	50
	Expected Count	34.7	12.3	3.0	50.0
Reduced productivity	Count	34	11	5	50
	Expected Count	34.7	12.3	3.0	50.0
Reduced customer satisfaction	Count	17	29	3	49
	Expected Count	34.0	12.1	2.9	49.0
Reduced quality control	Count	26	19	5	50
	Expected Count	34.7	12.3	3.0	50.0
Total	Count	242	86	21	349
	Expected Count	242.0	86.0	21.0	349.0

Source of Data: Author's Fieldwork, August 2024

Table 6: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	87.353 ^a	12	.000
Likelihood Ratio	101.387	12	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	10.136	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	349		

a. 7 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.95.

Pearson Chi-Square: The value of 87.353 with a p-value less than 0.000 indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between the non-implementation of planning, scheduling, and management models and sustainable construction project delivery. The small p-value (< 0.05) leads to the rejection of the null

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

hypothesis. This suggests that the non-implementation of these models indeed has a significant impact on the project delivery.

Since the p-value for the Pearson Chi-Square test is less than 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis. There is a significant relationship between the non-implementation of planning, scheduling, and management models and sustainable construction project delivery. This implies that the lack of such models negatively affects project outcomes, making their implementation critical for the success of construction projects.

Ho₂: The factors to improve the usage /awareness of the techniques do not vary significantly among themselves.

A crosstabulation analysis was performed between four factors (Legislation, Workshop/Seminar, Incentive, and Training/Retaining) and the response categories (Strongly Agree (SA) and Agree (A)). Observed counts were compared against expected counts.

*Table 7: Factors * response Crosstabulation*

			Response		Total
			SA	A	
Factors	Legislation	Count	7	43	50
		Expected Count	18.0	32.0	50.0
	Workshop/Seminar	Count	34	16	50
		Expected Count	18.0	32.0	50.0
	Incentive	Count	10	40	50
		Expected Count	18.0	32.0	50.0
	Training/Retaining	Count	21	29	50
		Expected Count	18.0	32.0	50.0
	Total	Count	72	128	200
		Expected Count	72.0	128.0	200.0

Source of Data: Author's Fieldwork, August 2024

Table 8: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	39.063 ^a	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	40.115	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.399	1	.237
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18.00.

The Pearson Chi-Square test yielded a statistically significant result with a p-value of 0.000, which is less than the common significance level of 0.05, indicating substantial variation among these factors. that the null hypothesis can be rejected. This demonstrates that the factors under consideration (Legislation, Workshop/Seminar, Incentive, and Training/Retaining) do not behave uniformly; they differ significantly in how they influence the usage and awareness of the techniques.

Given the statistically significant results from the Chi-Square tests, we reject the null hypothesis. Thus, the factors for improving the usage and awareness of the techniques do vary significantly among themselves, which implies that they impact the responses in different ways. This highlights the importance of addressing each factor independently when developing strategies for improving awareness and usage of these techniques.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The cumulative assessment of the critical path had zero floats signifying that the target time is less than the total project time. This implies that no delay must be allowed here if the project must be completed on schedule or at the appropriate time, all things being equal. For the ABC analysis model, chipping and cement were the major A items and should be purchased with tighter control.

The cumulative assessment of the test of descriptive statistics, the study established that workshops, seminars and training/retraining could contribute immensely to project performance; and the effects of scheduling techniques on construction performance. Increased labour costs ranked 1 with a mean score of 2. Inaccurate time forecasting leading to time overruns ranked 2 with a mean score of 1.92. Stockouts and overstocking ranked 3 with a mean score of 1.72.

From the test of Chi-square on the effects of non-implementation of planning scheduling and management models have no significant relationship for sustainable construction project delivery.

Pearson Chi-Square value of 87353 is statistically significant ($p < 0.000$), The null hypothesis was rejected while the alternative was accepted and concluded that the effects of non-implementation of planning scheduling and management models have a significant relationship for sustainable construction project delivery. Also, the factors to improve the usage /awareness of the techniques do vary significantly among themselves as the Pearson Chi-square value of 39.063 yielded a statistically significant result ($p < 0.000$). Given the statistically significant results from the Chi-Square tests. The null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that the factors for improving the usage and awareness of the techniques vary significantly among themselves

RECOMMENDATION

To achieve the purpose and objective of any specified project, it is expediting that management techniques be applied to resource allocation, scheduling and cost control to avoid time over-run, cost over-run and quality deviation. The cumulative assessment of the test of descriptive statistics. It has been established that training and retraining were not practised by a majority of firms. This could attest to the high rate of abandoned projects, incessant building collapse and overruns in public project delivery in the study area. However, the responses ascertained that these could contribute immensely to project performance if more advocacies to sensitize the relevant construction stakeholders were adopted.

The services of a registered builder at an early stage of construction projects are very necessary as this is the only professional saddled with the responsibility of preparing and implementing construction documents/programmes. Every client and contractor in the building industry should ensure the implementation of project scheduling techniques measures. The government should make provision for appropriate penalties and corrective measures to ensure effective enforcement or they should have their sites sealed up. The government, clients and contracting firms should provide appropriate inspection services to supervise the application of the techniques.

CONCLUSION

The importance of construction project scheduling techniques and inventory materials management models cannot be relegated to the background. Every client, professional, contractor, government agency and other built environment participants should ensure the implementation of these techniques or strategies. Every effort should be made to ensure adequate and regular training/ retraining; workshops/seminars, incentives and less legislation. The adoption of the ABC inventory model and critical path method (CPM) would greatly enhance sustainable public building project delivery in the study area as the ugly scenario of project cost and time overruns, disputes among the parties, unnecessary claims and either partial or total abandonment would be reduced to the barest minimum.

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PART 7: Geospatial Information Technology; Remote Sensing Application in Environmental Management

Chapter Thirty-Three**Assessment Of Land Use / Land Cover Changes in Mbaise, Imo State From 2013 to 2023*****Sylvanus Ibeabuchi Iro¹; Chukwuemeka O. Ulor²***¹*Department of Geography & Environmental Management, Imo State University Owerri, Nigeria.*²*Department of Environmental Management, Federal University of Technology Owerri, Nigeria.*EMAIL: sylvanusiro@gmail.com**ABSTRACT**

The study assessed changes in land use/land cover in Mbaise, Imo State between 2013 and 2023. The study was motivated by the prevalence of unplanned and unorganized land use in the study area, which has led to urban sprawl, disorderliness, and environmental degradation. Study results identified and delineated different land use categories and patterns, estimated the extent of the changes in land use and determined the importance of urban sprawl encroachment on agricultural farmland in Mbaise. GIS, remote sensing, and Landsat imagery were used to collect data in 2013, 2018 and 2023. Arc GIS 10.8 processed these images using the same classification scheme. In 2013, vegetation dominated with 49% and urban land with 43%, respectively. In Mbaise, agriculture, water bodies, and bare land covered 6%, 1%, and 0% of the land, respectively. As of 2018, urban land accounted for 47% of all land area, while vegetation accounted for 45%. In 2023, it was observed that reduction continued in vegetation area; with urban occupying 55% of the land cover and vegetation 38%, Agriculture, bare land, and waterbodies with 6%, 0% and 1% respectively. In addition, water bodies remained the same throughout the study period. The vegetation class has been shown to have changed from 2013 to 2023 to -11% while urban land changed with 12%. Based on the findings, it has shown that urban land is fast taking over the study area. Therefore, the study area should be well planned in consideration of land use of the area. In addition, further research should be carried out on the factors influencing urban growth in the area for an organized environment.

KEYWORDS: LU/LC; Mbaise; GIS; Urban sprawl; Vegetation

INTRODUCTORY BACKGROUND

The global increase in human population has led to significant urban growth, particularly in Asia and Africa. This rapid urbanization has resulted in the expansion of cities into rural areas, impacting the livelihoods of rural communities and causing significant land use and land cover changes (Ahmad, 2014). These changes are influenced by both natural and socio-economic factors and are particularly prevalent in developing countries where population growth is a leading cause of these changes. In sub-Saharan Africa, urbanization often occurs without corresponding economic growth, leading to the encroachment of urban infrastructure in rural areas. This has negatively affected the livelihoods and quality of life of rural communities that depend on agriculture (Adebola, 2015). The expansion of cities due to urban population growth has also led to property speculation in peri-urban areas (Ngana et al., 2009).

Land use and land cover changes have long-term environmental implications, including impacts on climate, biodiversity, and food security (Geremew, 2013). Assessing and detecting these changes is crucial for proper planning and sustainable management of natural resources (Lambin et al., 2003). Geographic Information System (GIS) and remote sensing techniques are widely used for analyzing and understanding land use and land cover changes, providing valuable spatial information for decision-making processes (Dewan & Yamaguchi, 2009). Studying land use and land cover changes is essential for the sustainable management of natural resources and the environment (Asselman & Middelkoop, 1995). Understanding these changes is crucial for proper planning and management of land resources to meet the increasing demands for basic human needs and welfare (Akpote et al., 2016). This study aims to analyze and assess land use and land cover changes in Mbaise, Imo State, to understand the level of changes in each land cover and assess the

rate of urban sprawl (Birhane et al., 2019). The findings of this study will be used to make recommendations for achieving a proper balance in the ecosystem and the environment.

Statement Of the Research Problem

The assessment of land use and land cover (LU/LC) is a precise technique used to understand how land is utilized, the types of changes that occur, and the forces and processes behind those changes. The interaction between humans and the environment has become increasingly complex, especially in the exploitation and development of natural resources. In Nigeria, particularly in Mbaise, there is a lack of comprehensive and up-to-date plans or maps showing land use and land cover patterns and categories. As a result, access to information on LU/LC categorizations and patterns has become a serious challenge. In Imo State, and particularly in Mbaise, changes in land use are characterized by unplanned and unorganized development. Urban sprawl, which is supposed to be a source of development, has created disorderliness in the environmental space. Uncontrolled urbanization in some areas, such as Mbaise area, has resulted in disorder and environmental decay. This type of urbanization may not lead to sustainable economic growth because non-agricultural activities may fail to develop at the same rate as urbanization. In addition to urbanization challenges, land use changes also have adverse effects on the ecology of an area and its vegetation. Deforestation, mainly due to agricultural expansion, has been identified as the biggest cause of loss of terrestrial biodiversity. Another consequence of urban sprawl is the loss of open space, as urbanization encroaches into suburban areas and agricultural farmland, putting pressure on lands for food crops. Studies have also shown that in the peri-urban areas of Osun State in Nigeria, farmers have expressed fears of losing their agricultural lands to development projects. The encroachment of urbanization has led to deforestation and colonization of adjacent farmlands, further stressing the availability of land for food crops. While various studies have identified problems relating to land use changes in Nigeria and other parts of the world, there is a lack of literature on LU/LC changes in Mbaise. Therefore, this research aims to assess the land use changes in Mbaise, Imo State, to facilitate proper environmental planning and avert the devastating effects of unorganized land use changes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Area

The study area for this research is Mbaise area of Imo State Figure 1. Mbaise is made up of three local government areas (LGAs) in Imo State Figure 2, Nigeria. These local government areas are: Aboh Mbaise, Ahiazu Mbaise and Ezinihitte Mbaise. Each of these LGAs has its unique characteristics and communities contributing to the overall cultural and social fabric of Mbaise. It is located between latitudes 5°38'11.80"N to 5°37'26.06"N and longitudes 7°11'37.00"E to 7°20'43.33"E. It is bounded to the North by Ehime Mbano LGA and Ihitte Uboma L.G.A, to the East by Obowo and Ngor Okpala and Isiala Ngwa in Abia State to the South by Owerri North and west by Ikeduru LGA of Imo State. Mbaise has grown into a major cattle transit town for Imo state and parts of Abia State of Nigeria. In 2006, Mbaise had a population of about 530, 000 which is projected to have a population of about 751,000 in 2022. Mbaise remains one of the food baskets of Nigeria with yam and cassava cultivation practiced on its farmlands.

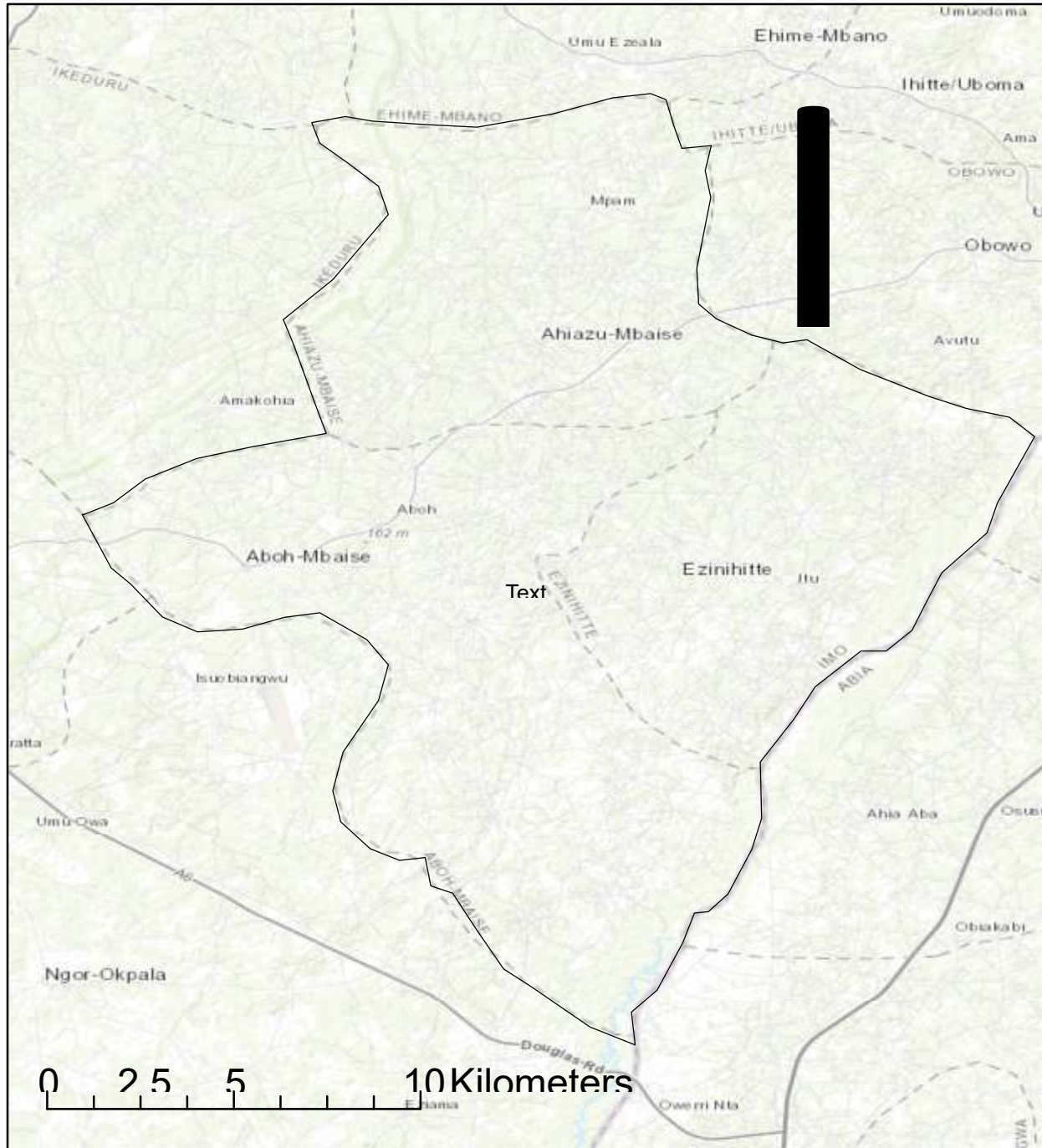


Figure 1: Map of Mbaize (The Study area) Source: GIS Lab Imo State University, Owerri.

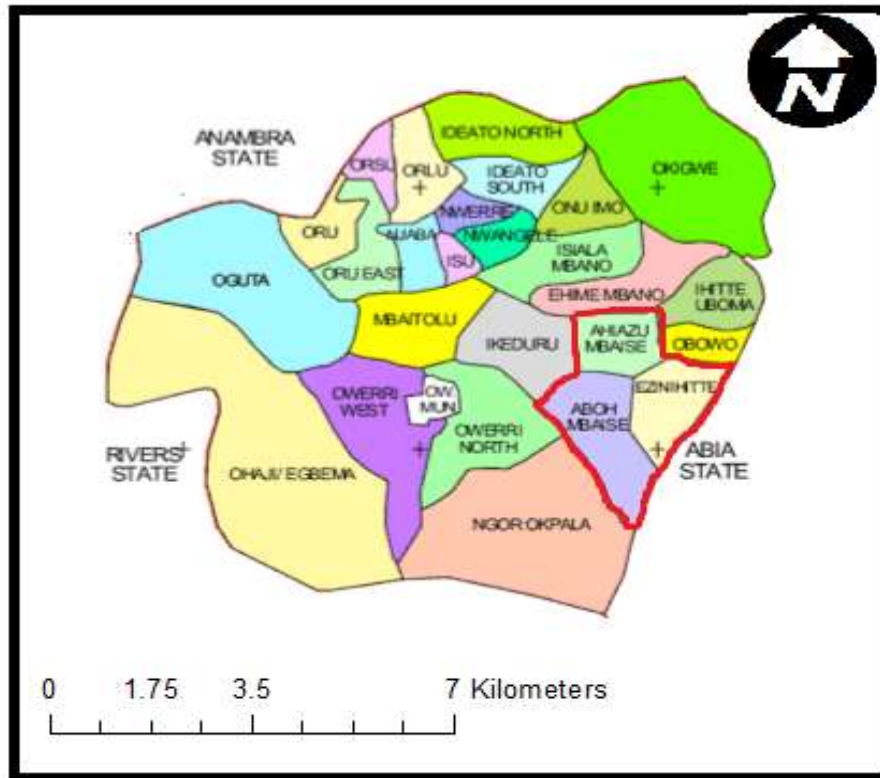


Figure 2: Map of Imo State highlighting the study area Mbaize

Climate and Weather

In Mbaize, the climate features oppressive, overcast wet seasons and muggy, partly cloudy dry seasons, with warm temperatures year-round. The temperature typically ranges from 18.33°C to 30.56°C, rarely falling below 14.44°C or exceeding 32.22°C (Weather Spark, 2016). The region has an average humidity level of 27 degrees centigrade and a moderate terrain, with two major seasons: dry and rainy. It is characterized by numerous rivers and streams, with an average humidity level of 59 percent. The clearer part of the year in Mbaize starts around November 22 and lasts for 2.7 months, ending around February 14 (Iloeje, 2008). The cloudier part of the year begins around February 14 and lasts for 9.3 months, ending around November 22. A wet day in Mbaize has at least 0.04 inches of precipitation and varies significantly throughout the year. The wetter season lasts 7.3 months, from March 30 to November 7, with a greater than 42% chance of a given day being wet. The drier season lasts 4.7 months, from November 7 to March 30, with the smallest chance of a wet day being 3% on January 1. Rain alone is the most common form of precipitation, with a peak probability of 82% on September 11. Mbaize experiences extreme seasonal variation in monthly rainfall. The rainy period of the year lasts for 10 months, from February 6 to December 9, with a sliding 31-day rainfall of at least 0.5 inches. The rainless period of the year lasts for 1.9 months, from December 9 to February 6. The length of the day in Mbaize remains relatively consistent, with only a 27-minute difference from 12 hours on any given day. In 2021, the shortest day is December 21, with 11 hours and 47 minutes of daylight, and the longest day is June 21, with 12 hours and 28 minutes of daylight (NIMET 2009).

Topography and Relief

Mbaize has a diverse topography, featuring flat lands, valleys, and plains, creating a varied landscape (Enyoh et al, 2017). The region's elevations contribute to topographical diversity, while fertile valleys

support agriculture. Rivers and streams like the Imo River provide essential water resources (Enyoh et al, 2017). The fertile soil supports agricultural activities, influencing the region's economy and vegetation. Mbaise's landscape, a blend of hills, valleys, and plains, has implications for agriculture, settlement patterns, and the overall lifestyle of the people in the region (Christopher et al, 2019).

Sources of Data

The Secondary Sources of Data

The data for this study is secondary data; the secondary sources of data used include Landsat Satellite imagery of the study area of the year 2013, 2018 and 2023 which was obtained from (USGS United States Geophysical Survey). The base map of Mbaise was obtained from Imo State Ministry of Land and Survey. The documented materials from unpublished and published dissertations and thesis, journals, textbooks, internet materials, seminars, and conference papers were used for literature review.

Method Of Data Analysis

Landsat Thematic Mapper at a resolution of 30 meters was used for land use/cover classification. The satellite data covering the study area were obtained from the Earth Explorer site (<http://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/>). The layer stack option in the ArcGIS toolbox was used to stack the various Landsat bands of the study areas. The sub-setting of satellite images was performed for extracting the study area from both images by taking geo-referenced out polygon boundary of Imo State AOI (Area of Interest). All satellite data were studied by assigning per-pixel signatures and differentiating the area into five classes based on the specific Digital Number (DN) value of different landscape elements. The delineated classes were: Forest, Urban Areas, Water Bodies, grassland, and agriculture. For each of the predetermined land cover/use types, training samples were selected by delimiting polygons around representative sites. Spectral signatures for the respective land cover types derived from the satellite imagery were recorded by using the pixels enclosed by these polygons. After that maximum likelihood algorithm was used for the supervised classification of the images. All the 3 images of 2013, 2018 and 2023 were classified with supervised classification. This method was used because the author is conversant with the area of study and also Google Earth assisted in assigning class and signature values to the images. The classes were grouped into 5 namely: Vegetation, urban area, water bodies, grassland and agriculture. This methodology was repeated in the three images representing 2013, 2018 and 2023.

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Land Use / Land Cover of Mbaise

The study area is identified and delineated with different land use and land cover categories and patterns for 15 years. These are Vegetation, Urban land, Water bodies, Grassland, and Agricultural land.

Landsat imagery of Mbaise of the Year 2013

Figure 3 shows landsat imagery of Mbaise of the Year 2013

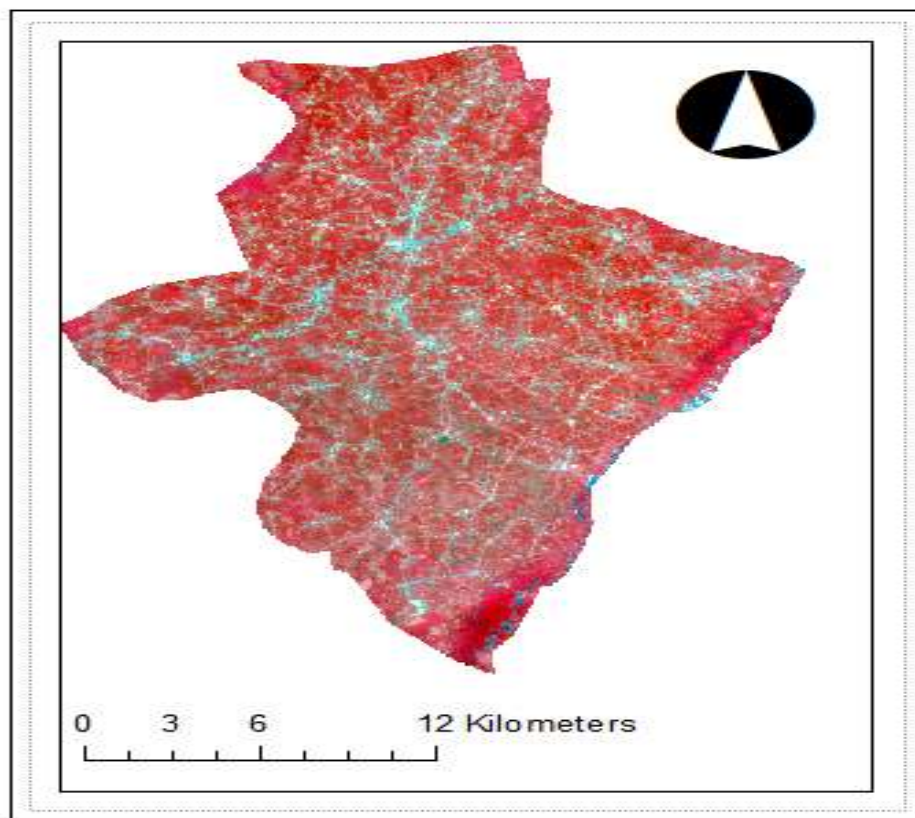


Figure 3: Land sat imagery of Mbaise of the Year 2013 (USGS 2013)

Land use / Land cover Classification of Mbaise for the Year 2013

Figure 4 shows land use/land cover classification for the year 2013

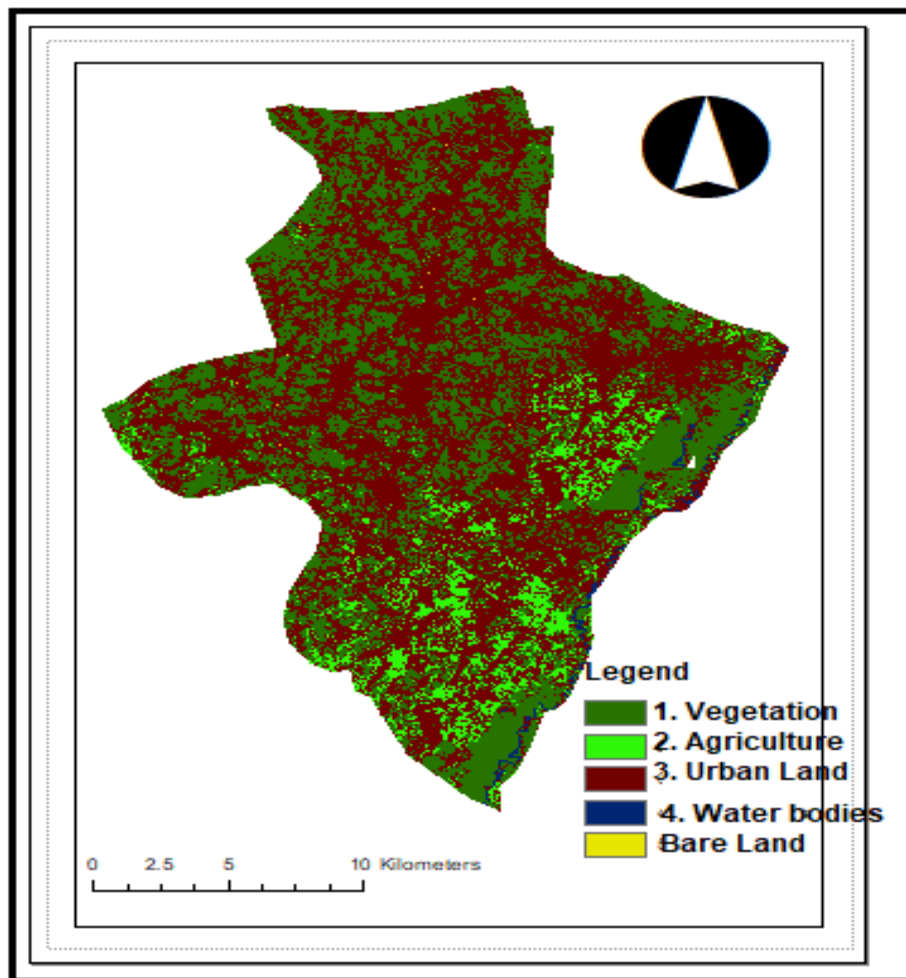


Figure 4: Land use/land cover classification of Mbaise in the year 2013

The land use/land cover classification of Mbaise in 2013 shows the forest, urban areas, water bodies, grassland, and agriculture of Mbaise LGA. Different LU/LC classes, the pixel count, and the area of coverage in the percentage of Mbaise in 2013 are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Land use/land cover of Mbaise for the year 2013

Classes	Pixel Count	Area Class in %
Vegetation	214810	49%
Agriculture	28048	6%
UrbanLand	189202	43%
Water bodies	3804	1%
Bare Land	1938	0%
Total	437802	100%

The pie chart representation of land use land cover classes of Mbaise for 2013 is shown in Figure 5.

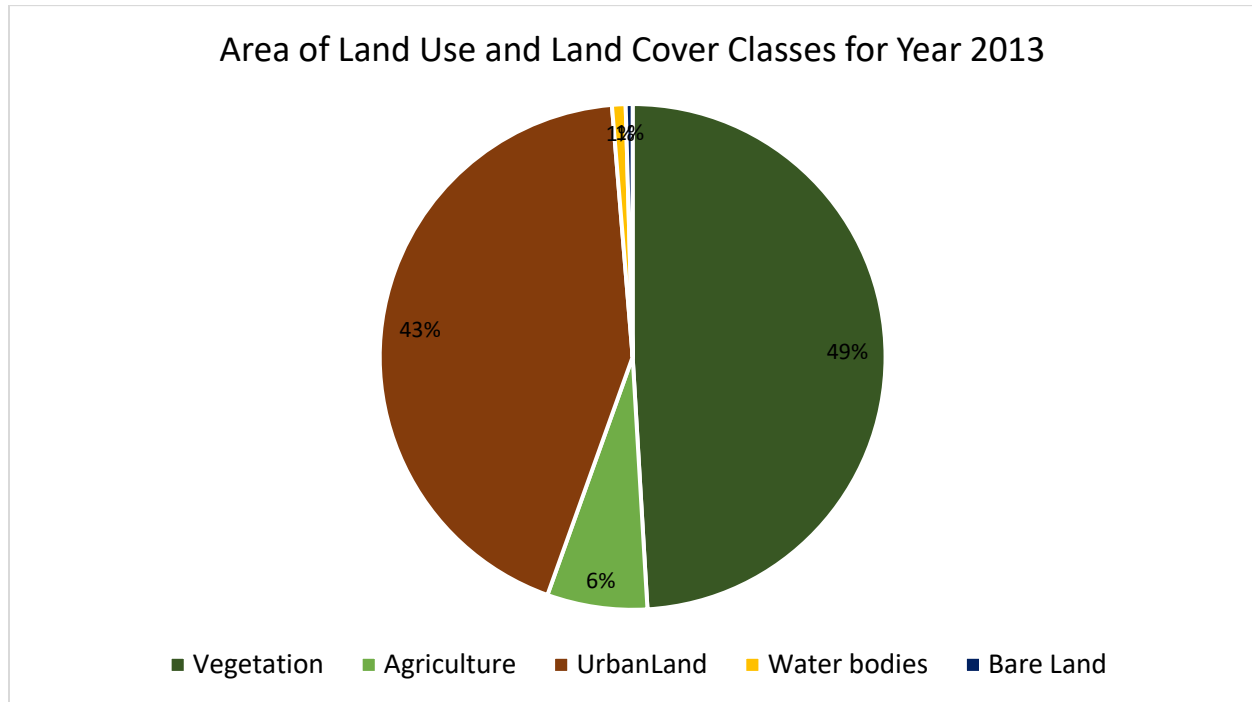


Figure 5: Pie chart of Land use/land cover classification for the year 2013

From **Table 1 and Figure 4**, it was observed that in 2013, the higher land use/cover of Mbaise was vegetation which covers about 49% of the area, followed by urban land which covers about 43% of the area. Meanwhile, Agricultural land covers about 6% of the area while water bodies occupy 1% of the area, while the least is the bareland which covers about 0% of the area. This therefore means as of 2013, the area is dominated by green vegetation. Also, Urbanization was equally very high in the area as the year 2013 shows the high rate of urbanism in the study area.

Land sat imagery of Mbaise of the Year 2018

Figure 6: shows the land use and land cover classification of the year 2018 in the Mbaise Area of Imo state.

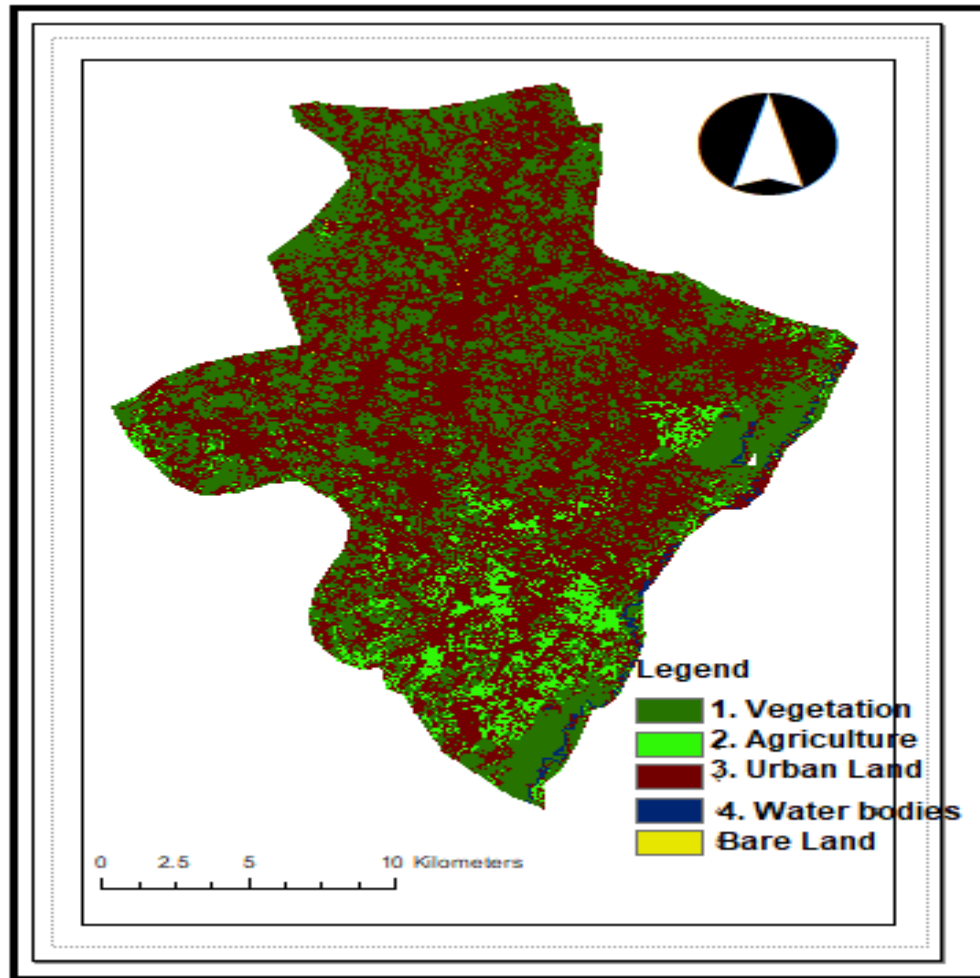


Figure 6: Land use classification of Mbaise in the year 2018

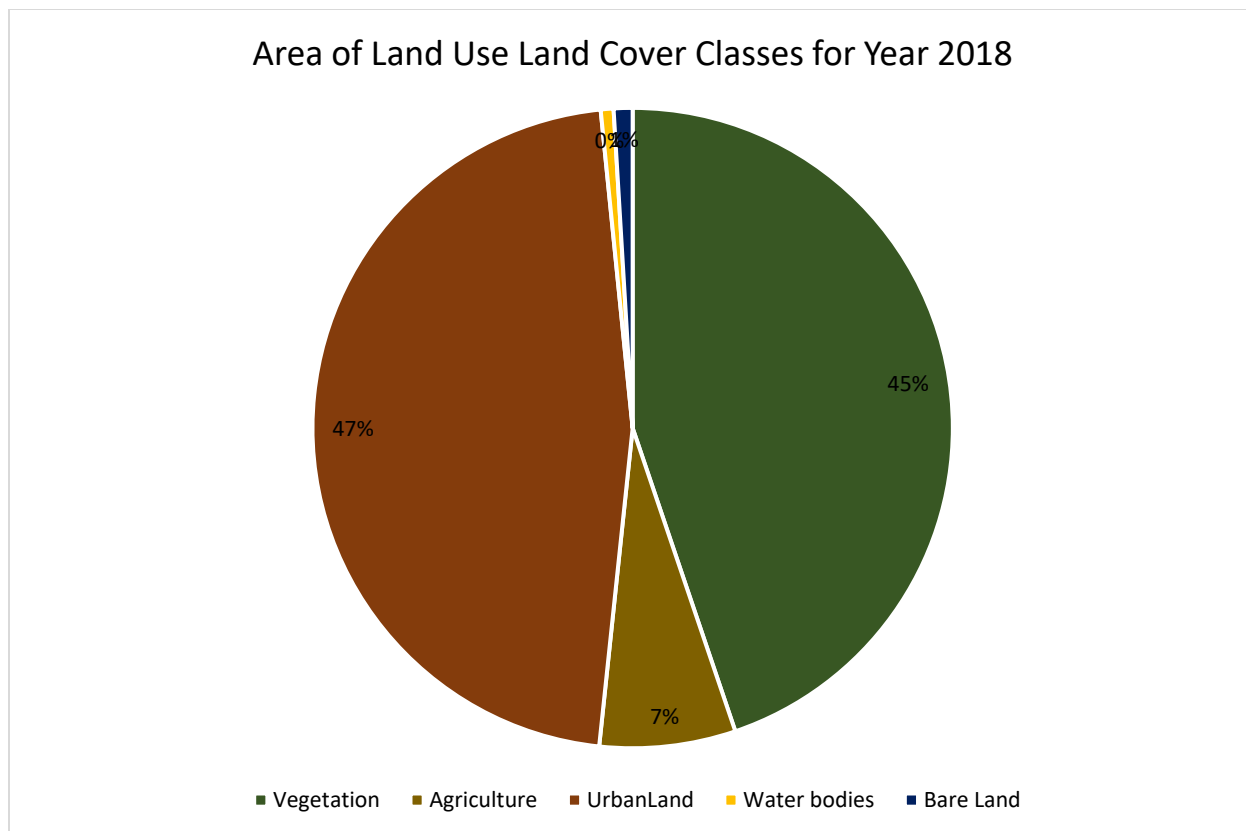


Figure 7: Pie chart of the land use / land cover classification of the year 2018

Table 2: Land use/ land cover of Mbaise for the year 2018

2018 Classification		
Classes	Pixel Count	Area Class in %
Vegetation	194812	45%
Agriculture	29848	7%
UrbanLand	203200	47%
Water bodies	2804	1%
Bare Land	4138	1%
Total	434802	100%

According to Figure 7 and Table 2, the vegetation land is 45%, and Urbanland is 47% which shows that the urban area is gradually replacing the vegetation land. Agricultural land is about 7%, Bareland now developed to 1% showing also that vegetation area is giving way for bare land and Urbanland to develop.

Land use/land cover classification of Mbaise for the Year 2023

Figure 8: shows the land use land cover classification of Mbaise in the year 2023

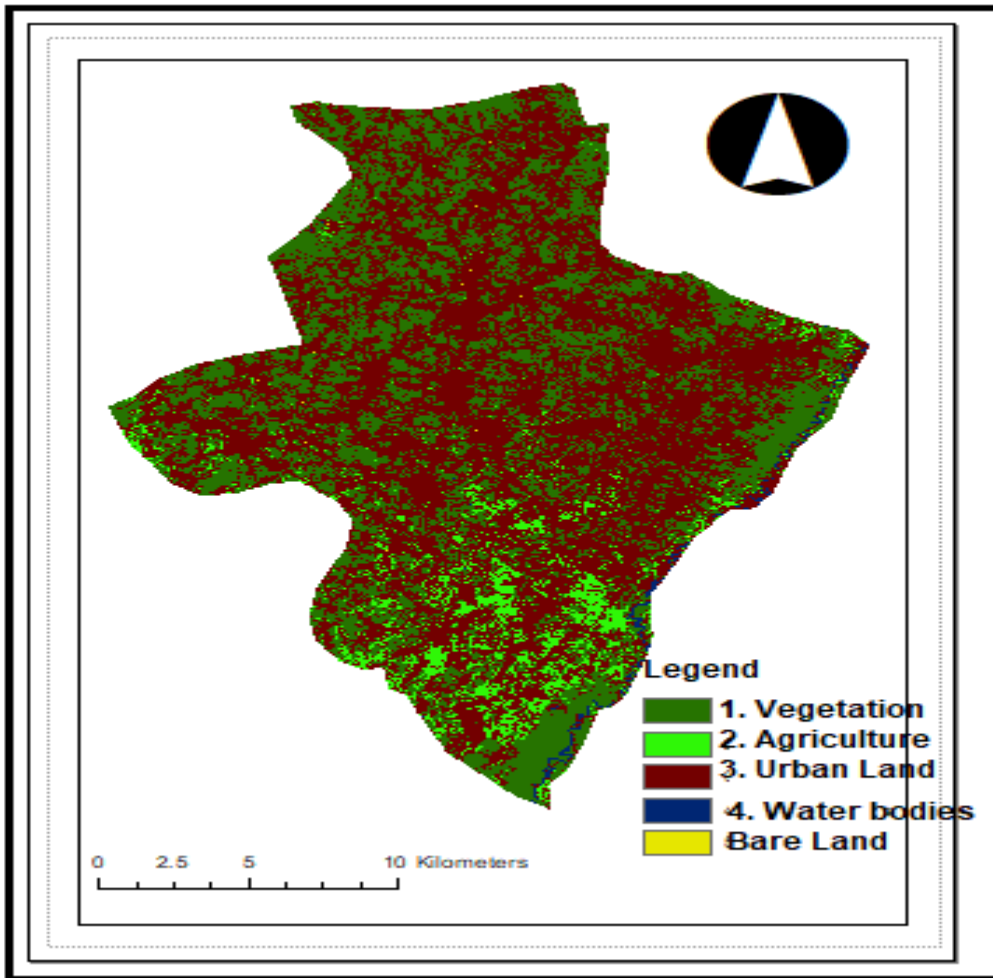


Figure 8: Land use / Land cover classification of Mbaise in the year 2023

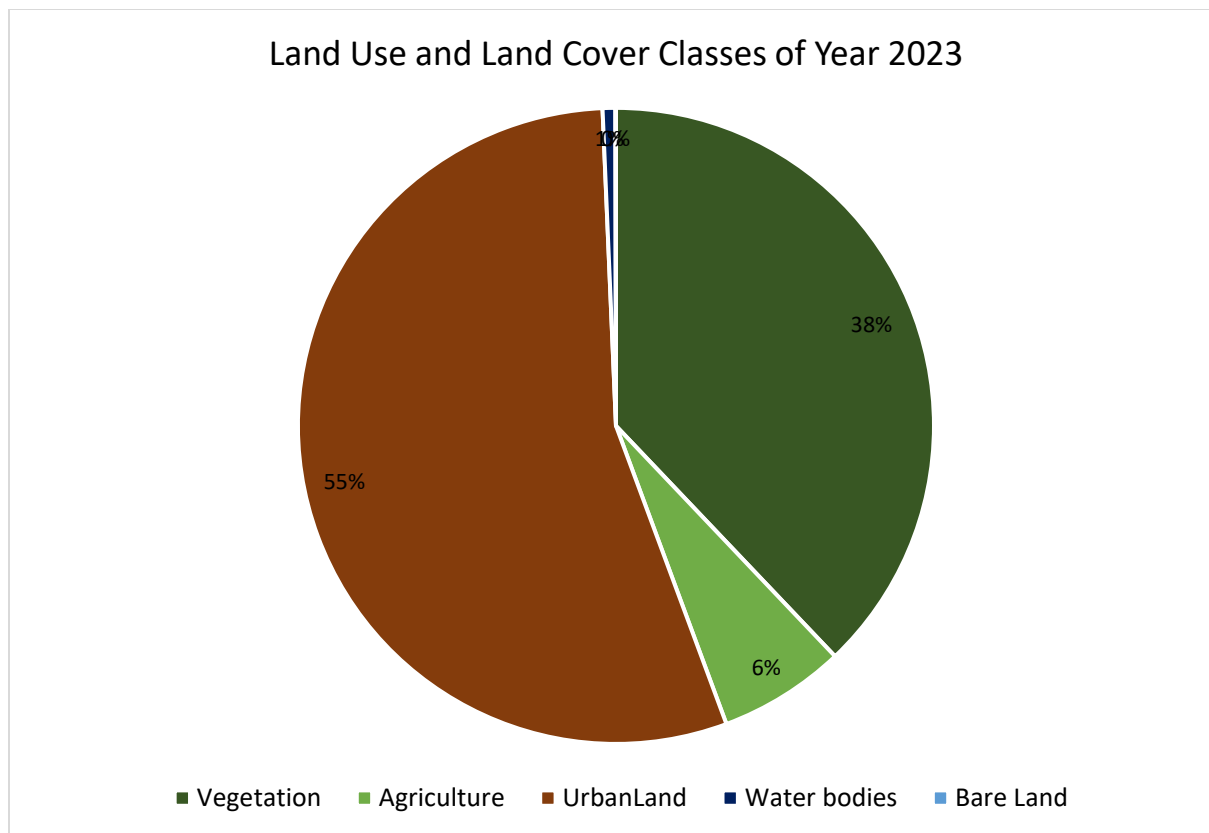


Figure 9: Pie chart of land use/land cover classification of Mbaise in the year 2023.

Table 3: Land use/ land cover of Mbaise for the 2023

Classes	Pixel Count	Area Class in %
Vegetation	164810	38%
Agriculture	28048	6%
Urban Land	239002	55%
Water bodies	2804	1%
Bare Land	138	0%
Total	434802	100%

The land use/land cover classification presented in Figures 8, 9, and Table 3 shows that in the year 2023, Urban land has developed to 55% of the entire area, vegetation is 38% of the land use in the area, followed by Agricultural land 6%, water body and bare land 1% respectively.

Extent of Changes of the Land use in Mbaise

Change detection is the process of identifying differences in phenomena by observing it at different times. The extent of change in LU/LC of Mbaise for 3 decades is shown in the table below.

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Table 4: Change detection from 2013 to 2023 of land use land cover change in Mbaise

LULC	2013%	2018%	2023%	Change from 2013 - 2023
Vegetation	49%	45%	38%	-11
Agriculture	6%	7%	6%	0%
Urban Land	43%	47%	55%	12%
Water bodies	1%	1%	1%	0%
Bare Land	0%	1%	0%	0%

Table 4 shows the extent of change that occurred in the LULC of Mbaise within 15 years under review. As observed in the table, there is a decrease in the vegetation which lost -11% of its area. Urban areas increased from 43% in 2013 to 55% in 2023, with an increment of 12%. The water bodies remained the same, no loss no gain. The agriculture class also remained the same for 15 years.

Figures 6 and 7 show that in the year 2018, agriculture was higher and reduced again in 2023 due to urban growth. That means in the year 2023 there is a reduction in agriculture showing that urban area increased. Therefore, from this table, it's observed as of 2023 the urban area occupied a significant portion that is gained more while agriculture and vegetation areas reduced 0% and -11% respectively. However, one can deduce that Mbaise in the last 15 years has been having urban area encroachment taking over vegetation and agricultural areas.

Discussion

From the analysis above which was carried out with Arc GIS 10.8, it can be deduced that there is a shift in the category of land use/land cover of Mbaise between 2013 and 2023. The vegetation land cover which covered about 49% of the land use in the area in the year 2013 was reduced by 38% in 2023. This means that within the last 15 years, the vegetation class has lost about 11% of its area. This, however, can be as a result of urban Sprawl in the area which brought development in the area because the population has been clearing the vegetation for roads, industries, and buildings in the area.

Furthermore, it was noted that there was no change in the water body in the area within the 15 years of this research. Concerning agricultural land (Farmland), it is the Crop fields and fallow lands for agricultural purposes. In Mbaise, farmland was observed to have covered 6% of the total land coverage in the year 2013. The study identified that within three decades, the farmland remained the same in 2023. The inability of the farmlands to increase could be a result of urbanization. Many farmlands were converted to commercial and residential use. Urban sprawl spreads along with different factors of development which caused the people in the area to decline from agricultural activities into other job opportunities that came along with urban sprawl. The indigenous people of Mbaise were the only people who did farming in the area. Meanwhile, most of their fertile soil was sold to indigenes, migrants, companies, and banks that used the lands for residential and commercial purposes.

In this study, Urban areas are comprised of Residential, commercial, industrial, transportation, roads, mixed urban and other settlements. It was observed in this study that as of 2013, 43% of the total land mass of the area was developed. Within 15 years, it was observed that the built-up areas had increased by 12%. In figures 8 and 9 (change detection figure) it was revealed that among other land use categories, the built-up area has the highest increment (+12%) within the last 15 years of the study. This is as a result of urbanization in the area. In urban sprawl, building and other form of development always have advantage over other land use categories. That is exactly what happened in Mbaise within the last 15 years of review of this study.

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Many Residential, commercial, industrial, transportation, roads, mixed urban and other settlements were erected within this period. These findings show that there is a significant change in the land use /land cover of Mbaise from the year 2013 to 2023. This result is similar to the findings of (Emetumah et al. 2023) whose comparison of LU/LC in 2000 and 2020 derived from top Landsat imagery interpretation of Okigwe area indicates that the built-up area, comprising human habitation developed for non-agricultural uses like buildings, transport, and communications is largely increased from 38% (2000) to 57% (2023). This is due to urban expansion and population increase in this study area during the study period. The agricultural lands which are used mainly for cassava and yam production and other mixed varieties like mango, coconuts, and other homestead trees are largely decreased in area also. Also, this work corroborates the work done by (Iro, 2020).

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

In the assessment of land use/land cover changes of Mbaise from the year 2013 to 2023, the following were the results of the findings:

- i) It was observed that in the year 2013, the highest land use/ cover of Mbaise was vegetation which covered about 49% of the area, followed by Urban land which covered about 43% of the area. Meanwhile, Agricultural land covered about 6% of the area.
- ii) In the year 2018, the urban area increased to 55% of the land use/land cover of Mbaise, thereby taking over some part of vegetation and agricultural areas
- iii) In the year 2023, forest occupied 30% of the land use in the area, followed by agriculture which occupied 29% of the area, whereas Urban development occupied 28% of the land use in the area.
- iv) For the change detection, it was detected that forest land use lost 11% coverage within the last 15 years, and water body and bare land have no significant change in the time frame of the study.

Conclusion

The land use/land cover change detection analysis of Mbaise from 2013 to 2023 was carried out in ArcGIS 10.8 with different classes of LU/LC which include: Vegetation, Agriculture, Urban land, water bodies and bare land. The findings of the research revealed that there is indeed a shift/change in land use land cover in the area. It was also detected that Vegetation and Urban land use land cover in the area have negative and positive changes respectively. Hence it was agreed that due to the increase in Urbanization, other land uses are reducing or remaining steady in the area over the period.

Recommendations

Based on the findings above, the following recommendations are made:

- ii. The area should be well planned in consideration of all the land use for ecosystem balancing.
- iii. Indiscriminate clearing and falling of economic trees should be controlled to avoid other land disasters like gully erosion, flooding, and heaving.
- iv. Fertile farmlands should be reserved for agricultural purposes to feed the growing population
- v. Further research can be taken on factors influencing the urban morphology and growth in the area.

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Chapter Thirty-Four**GIS Evaluation of the Physical Terrain-Induced Flooding Incidence in Owerri Metropolis and its Human Health Implications****Okuh Deborah***Department of Geography & Environmental Management, Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria**EMAIL: deboraokuh@gmail.com***ABSTRACT**

This research work focuses on GIS evaluation of the physical terrain-induced flooding incidence and its human health implications. The problem is that flood has been identified as a regular hazard to life and property in Owerri metropolis. This study is aimed at identifying flood-prone areas and areas liable to flooding in the study area. The study is designed to make use of information acquired from the residents living within 500 metres radius of the three main flood-prone areas of Bishop Unegbu, Dick Tiger and Afor-Egbu. A georeferenced cadastral map of Owerri was acquired and overlaid both the coordinate points of the residents and the flood site. The ArcGIS known as the Topographic Wetness Index (TWI) was used to run the model. The Topographic Wetness Index (TWI) is a useful model to estimate where water will accumulate in an area with elevation differences. It is a function of the slope and the upstream contributing area. It was observed from the model when zoomed that the areas with 0.27 to 10.6 are areas that are wet and areas with -3.4 to -0.27 are areas liable to flooding. From the analysis, when zoomed in from ArcGIS software, areas such as parts of Trans Egbu, Aladimma, parts of Owerri Urban, Egbu, Amakohia, river banks such as Nworie, Otamiri and Oramiriukwa and those living close to the banks of the rivers etc are constantly flooded or found to be areas liable to flooding from this TWI model. Areas with 5.76 to -3.4 and above are areas with higher ground and have not much flooding or no flooding at all. It showed that areas with high TWI are more liable to flooding than areas with low TWI. The finding revealed that, the topography is a crucial surface characteristic in flood modelling, and that this model adopted can be a valuable tool for city planners. It was recommended that the terrain of the area be put into consideration to avoid areas liable to flooding for residential purposes.

KEYWORDS: Flood; physical terrain; Owerri; GIS; TWI**INTRODUCTION**

Flooding is one of the most devastating, frequent and widespread of all environmental hazards in most cities of the world. And it is of various types and magnitudes (Wizor & Week 2014; Nwankwoala & Jibril, 2019). Flood is an inevitable natural phenomenon occurring from time to time in all rivers and natural drainage systems, which not only damages the lives, natural resources and environment but also causes loss of economy and health year after year (Thilagavathi, Tamilenth, Ramuand Baskaran, 2011).

The main causes of flood formation are intense rainfall in the watershed, melting snow in the spring season, inadequate drainage systems, overflow of main drainage channels, and the conversion of forest and pasture areas into residential and agricultural lands (Adeoye, Ayanlade, Babatimehin, 2009). Population growth, especially in urban areas, is one of the most significant triggers of flood disasters (Adeoye et al. 2009; Moazzam, Vansarochana, Rahman 2018). The rapid urbanization process leads to changes in land use, an increase in impermeable surfaces (roads, structures, etc.), and a decrease in urban natural vegetation and river networks. The process of urbanization leads to a decrease in urban drainage capacity. In areas where the soil's water retention capacity is reduced, intense rainfall results in surface runoff.

Flood is a large amount of water covering an area that is usually dry. It is an overflowing of a body of water over land not usually submerged. Nwafor, (2006), defined flood as a natural hazard like drought and desertification, which occurs as an extreme hydrological event. Abam, (2006), defined a flood as a large

volume of water, which arrives at and occupies the stream channel and its flood plain in a time too short to prevent damage to economic activities, including homes.

Flooding is the most common environmental hazard in Nigeria (Etuonovbe, 2011).

Flood disaster is not a recent phenomenon in Nigeria, and their destructive tendencies are sometimes enormous, particularly during the rainy seasons, flooding usually is a common story to read about in the dailies and magazines especially, in the United States of America (Dow & Dewing, 2006); Kersh and Simon, (2005); Pakistan and India (Wright, 2011) and even in Nigeria, the scenario is the same (Akain and Bilesamin, 2011, Aderogba, 2012a and 2012b).

The intensity and amount of rainfall in recent times have resulted in some of the significant flooding within the eastern region of Nigeria, particularly in Imo State in the last few years. With the effects of climate change, heavy and damaging storms will continue to increase in frequency. The exceptionally heavy rainfall of September 2018 in Imo State led to more than 26 deaths and the displacement of over 2,500 families. The Seven LGAs in Imo State that were seriously affected were Owerri municipal, Owerri North, Owerri West, Oru East, Mbaitoli, Isu and Nwangele (Adeoye, 2019). The floods were caused by poor drainage systems and the indiscriminate infrastructural development along river banks (Adeoye, 2019).

The study area, Owerri, the capital city of Imo State, South East Nigeria, has also had many cases of flooding in the past quarter of a century, along with a good number of other Nigerian cities (Bertolo & Fransesc, 2000, Maria, Jürgen, Pierre, Alfred & Roberto 2013). Vanguard Newspaper of Nigeria of Monday 27th June 2005 reported that, "about 3,500 families in Owerri municipality and its adjoining villages were at the weekend sacked by flood, which resulted from a heavy rainstorm that lasted for two days." The Newspaper put the cost of the material loss at N200 Million. Over the years, the perennial flooding has not abated. Bich, Quang, Ha, Hanh, and Guha-Sapir, (2011), Brown & Murray (2013) assert that flooding has a wide range of health consequences such as drowning, injury, outbreak of gastroenteritis, respiratory infections, poisoning, communicable diseases, epidemics such as cholera, diarrhoea, and dengue fever, poor mental health, and disability, among others. Similarly, Baxter, Moller, Spencer, and Tapsell (2001); Few (2004); Du, FitzGerald, Clark, and Hou (2010), also observed the same results in their works.

This study explores the use of GIS in mapping flooding incidence on the physical terrain-induced areas of Owerri Metropolis. This is because Owerri Metropolis experiences seasonal floods which claim property worth thousands of naira and sometimes human lives. The problem of flood in Owerri is intensifying due to urbanization, in which vegetation cover is being cleared for residential buildings.

The study not only adds to the existing literature but has produced a map of an Ikonos satellite image of Owerri identifying the three (3) flood inundated sites in Owerri Metropolis which will be useful to policy makers in land use zonation to steer away development from the risk zones and reduce property damage to floods. It is from these reasons that the study has derived its relevance.

THE STUDY AREA

Owerri is the capital of Imo State in Nigeria. It is also the state's largest city, followed by Orlu, and Okigwe in the second and third positions respectively. (Fig.1). Owerri is a growing urban centre and it is the capital of Imo state in South-Eastern Nigeria. Geographically, the study area is located between longitude 6° 56' 45'E and 7° 5' 0'E, and latitude 5° 18' 15'N and 5° 34' 45'N. Owerri Metropolis consists of three Local Government Areas including Owerri Municipal, Owerri North and Owerri West Local Government Areas. Two rivers flow through the study area, the Otamiri and Nworie Rivers. The Otamiri River rises from the east while the Nworie River rises from the north to form a confluence at Nekede as shown in Fig.1.

Owerri Metropolis, can be defined culturally, functionally and politically according to Onwumerobi (1989). Owerri Metropolis is wider than Owerri Municipality Council. Owerri Municipality is synonymous with Owerri Urban, which includes all neighbourhoods that perform urban functions in terms of functionality. Owerri Metropolis has also a political definition comprising Owerri North, Owerri West and Owerri Municipal Council Area. These three are political divisions of what makes up Owerri Metropolis.

In this regard, the study looks closely at the areas of Owerri that perform urban function and see how they cope up with flooding in the neighbourhoods. Urban areas and municipalities are demarcated by

neighbourhoods. The neighbourhood's demarcations are based on political definitions because each of these neighbourhoods, according to the government, is known by its layouts. Amakohia/Akwakuma layout is a neighbourhood, Ikenugbu is a neighbourhood, Uratta/Prefab is a neighbourhood, New Owerri is a neighbourhood and Umuguma Housing Estate is a neighbourhood. All of them, when aggregated, make up what is called the Owerri municipality.

Owerri Urban area, as defined by law, is 11km radius from Ama JK and this 11km radius from Ama JK, includes Ogbaku, Mgbirichi, it will go up to Nworie Ubi Ubomiri, and New Owerri by (Fingeruth and Partners 1977).

By function, cities engaged in some activities not performed by rural settlements. Urban centres have agglomerated activities such as nucleation of households. The urban functions that the households perform are what lead to the flooding in their neighbourhoods.

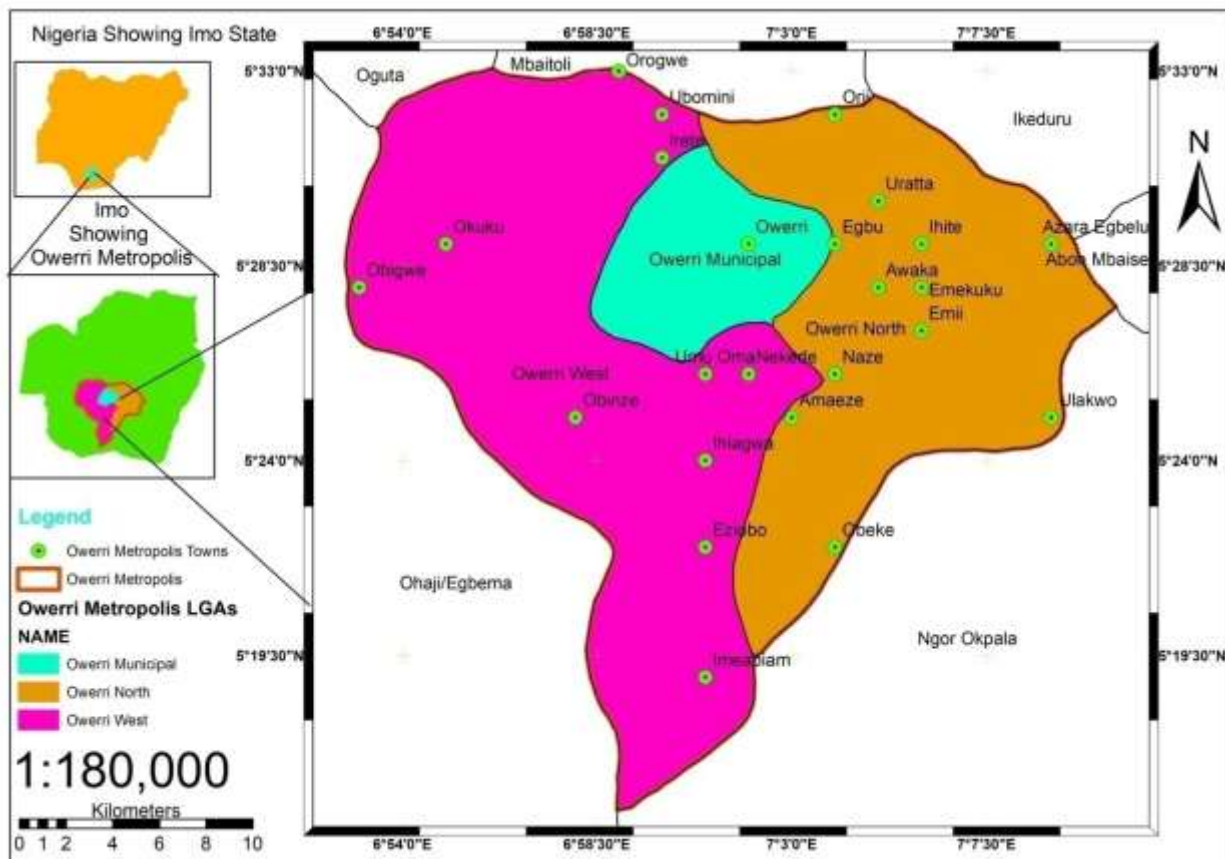


Fig.1: Study area outlined for context

METHODOLOGY

This study adopts Remote Sensing and Geographical Information System (GIS) methods in processing the satellite data. This involves Digital Elevation model (DEM) study area analysis and modeling with the Kernel Density tool of three flood inundated sites to find flood inundated areas prone to the identified health challenges.

SRTM (DEM) for Topographical Outlook of the Study Area

To obtain the structure and contribution of topography to flood in the study area, SRTM (USGS DEM) image was used. This study used newly released 30m X 30m SRTM data of the study area acquired from Shuttle Radar Topography Mission Dataset (Fig. 2) (Iro, 2020). This dataset was chosen to get a recent topographical outlook of the study area to enable qualitative and quantitative analysis of the flood sites. The

DEM were downloaded and cropped to the area of interest (Fig. 3f). The elevation values range from low = 30m to high = 144m. This elevation data from the study area includes hill shade, slope gradient, slope aspect, contour of the area, and stream order. One of the most important factors affecting flooding is topography (Iro & Achalonu, 2020). Digital elevation models (DEMs) have been commonly used in geographic information systems (GIS) for representing topography and for extracting topographical and hydrological features for various applications, including flood and its studies (Iro, 2020). Topography is a crucial surface characteristic in flood modelling, and studies used a digital elevation model (DEM) to derive the topographical characteristics of a study area (Iro, 2021).

In the landscape, the topography determines the behaviour of the surface runoff, the phase of the hydrologic cycle that is most directly associated with runoff, requires a rigorous and effective analysis throughout its entire extension. This is made possible with the use of digital elevation models (DEM) (Oliveira, 2013). The analyses developed using a DEM allowed visualisation of the model in planar geometric projection. From Owerri DEM, grey scale images, shaded images and thematic images, the conducting of profile analyses, and generating derivative maps, such as steepness and exposure maps, drainage maps, contour maps, slope maps, and aspect maps were all generated for analysis. Very importantly, elevation points were generated from the Owerri DEM.

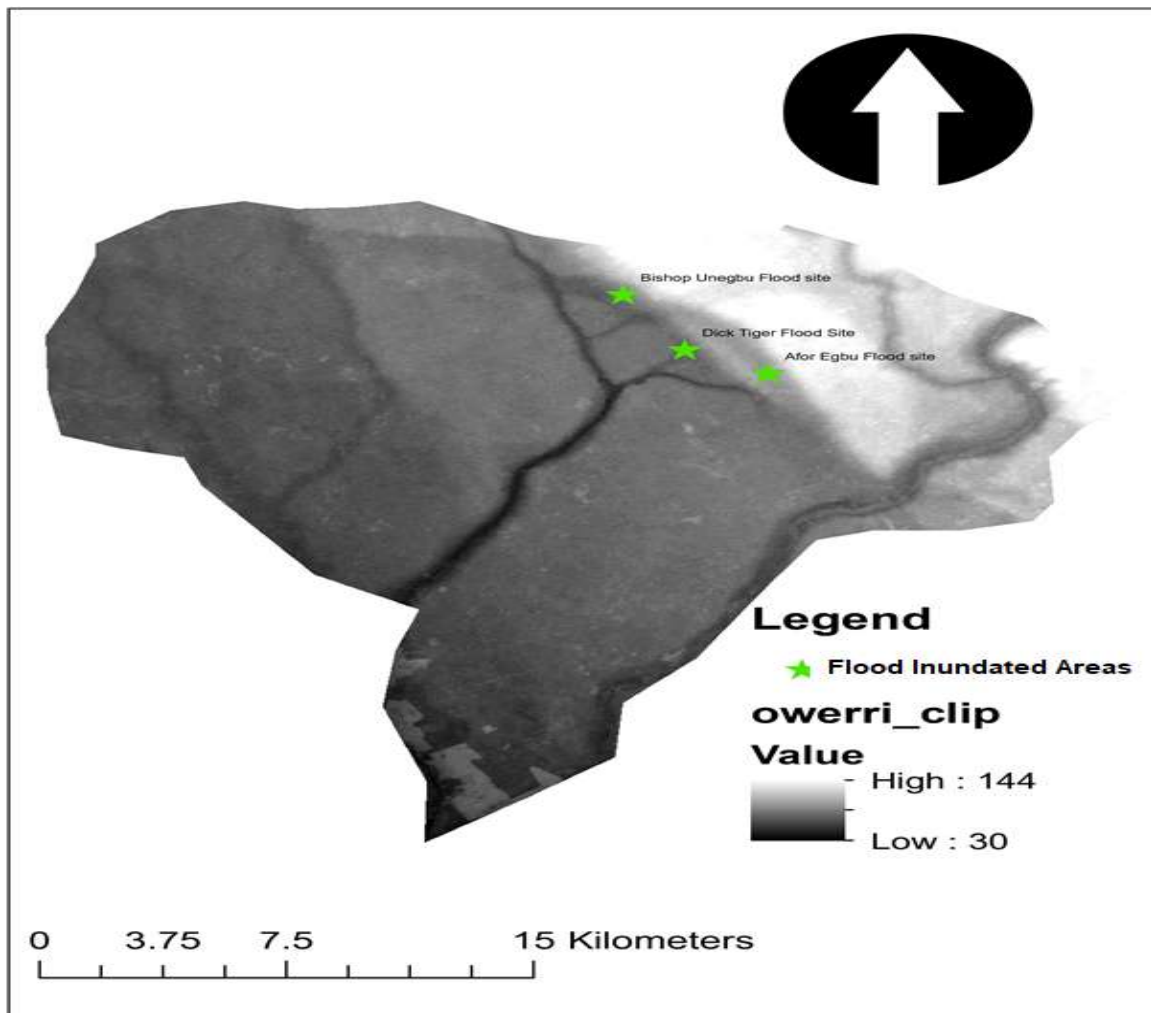


Fig. 2: An SRTM DEM Image of the study area, cropped to Area of Interest (USGS2021)

Geo referenced Cadastral Map of Owerri Metropolis

Cadastré is a technical term for a set of records showing the extent, value, and ownership (or other basis for use or occupancy) of land. Strictly speaking, a cadastre is a record of areas and values of land and of landholders that originally was compiled for purposes of taxation. This cadastral map of Owerri Metropolis was obtained from Ikonos Satellite Imagery. It was used to identify those recognised flood-inundated sites in the study area for processing. See (figure 3).

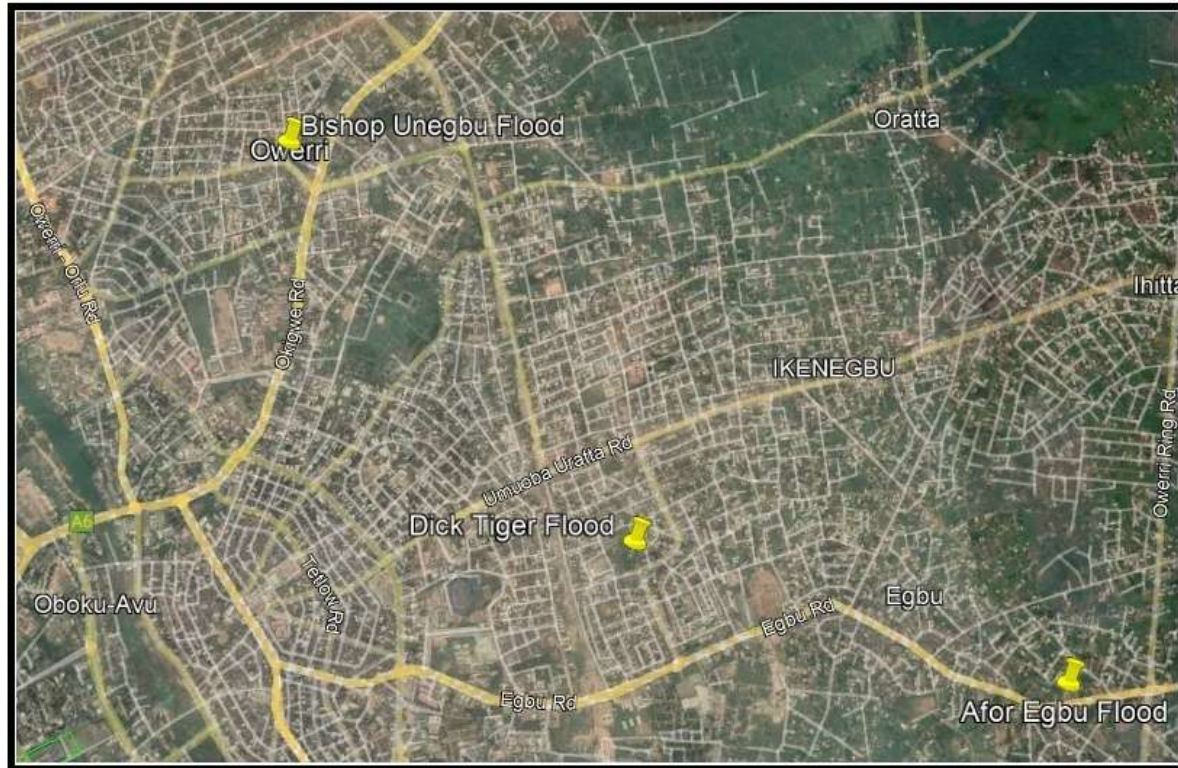


Fig. 3: Ikonos Satellite Image of Owerri identifying the three floods inundated sites in Owerri Metropolis shown in yellow pins.

TWI (Topographic Wetness Index)

TWI is a topographic parameter that indicates the spatial dissemination of the domain's wetness, groundwater level, saturation zone, soil moisture, and flow aggregation (Mondal and Mandal, 2018) and characterizes flooding. It expresses the saturation level; an enormous TWI value signifies soggy land prone to flooding.

The Topographic Wetness Index (TWI) is a useful model to estimate where water will accumulate in an area with elevation differences. It is a function of slope and the upstream contributing area. The TWI index indicates how slope affects hydrological processes; and describes the water accumulation trend at a particular location, and shows the influence of gravitational forces on the water flow from the local slope (Pourali, Arrowsmith, Chrisman, Matkan, Mitchell, 2014; and Fernandez and Lutz 2010). TWI has been commonly used to forecast soil moisture conditions and the tendency of an area to accumulate water, and, therefore, flood incidence (Beven and Kirkby, 1979). In this study, the slope and DEM datasets were applied to calculate TWI on ArcGIS 10.4. The rasters needed to calculate the TWI are;

1. DEM (Digital Elevation Model)
2. Fill DEM (The DEM, however, has voids. Voids are pixels with no data. These voids need to be interpolated)

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3. Flow Direction (from fill DEM of the study area)
4. Flow Accumulation (From the flow direction of the study area, to represent the areas where runoff will accumulate in the study area DEM)
5. Slope Calculated in degrees (to calculate TWI, we need the slope in radians. With the raster analysis tools we can calculate the slope in degrees and percentages. Calculate the slope in degrees and then convert the values to radians)
6. Calculate the Contributing Upslope Area (This is to calculate the contributing upslope area for each pixel in the DEM, and show areas that are wet and liable to flooding)
7. Calculate TWI (Now we have the slope in radians and the upslope contributing area (in pixels) we can calculate the Topographic Wetness Index in the Raster Calculator).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis revealed that, Terrain of an area determines the nature of the landscape which helps to influence runoff of the area Poesen et al. (2003), Marquisee (2010), Boardman (2006), Bochet (2004) and Igbokwe (2008) and as pointed out by (Baker and Capel, 2011), terrain of Owerri Metropolis Imo State Nigeria is the main source of flooding in the area. In Owerri Metropolis, (Njoku, Amangabara, & Duru, 2013; Essien, Unigwe, Adebola, & Jesse, 2018), found that there is a positive relationship between topography and runoff leading to more pronounced flood inundation in areas with flat topography than areas with valley land.

Identifying Flood Prone Areas and Areas Liable to Flooding in the Study Area, the Topographic Wetness Index (TWI) was used

This was modelled with the Topographic Wetness Index (TWI) in (Fig: 4). It is a useful model to estimate where water will accumulate in an area with elevation differences. It is also a function of slope and the upstream contributing area. From the model, it can be observed when zoomed that in the areas with -0.27 to 10.6 are areas that are wet and areas with -3.4 to -0.27 are areas liable to flooding. From the analysis, when zoomed in from ArcGIS software, areas such as parts of Trans Egbu, Aladimma, parts of Owerri Urban, Egbu, Amakohia, river banks such as Nworie, Otamiri and Oramiriukwa and those living close to the banks of the rivers etc are constantly flooded or found to be areas liable to flooding from this TWI model.

Areas with 5.76 to -3.4 and above are areas with higher ground and have little to no flooding or no flooding at all. It is pertinent to know that areas with high TWI is liable to flooding than areas with low TWI, according to (Chapi, Singh, Shirzadi, Shahabi, Bui, Pham, Khosravi, 2017) in the review of this research literature. TWI was determined as the product of slope and upstream contributing area per unit width perpendicular to the flow direction, this is in line with the work of Lucà, Conforti, Robustelli, (2011) in the review of literature. TWI has a good correlation with many soil properties such as horizon depth, percentage of silt, organic matter, and phosphorous and hence directly influence the flood vulnerability (Moore, Grayson, Ladson, 1991). The TWI is commonly used to quantify topographic influences of hydrological processes (Khoirunisa, Ku, Liu, 2021). High wetness index locations occur where there is a combination of low slope and increased flow accumulation and, as a result, may indicate flood-prone places (Nandi, Mandal, Wilson, Smith, 2016).

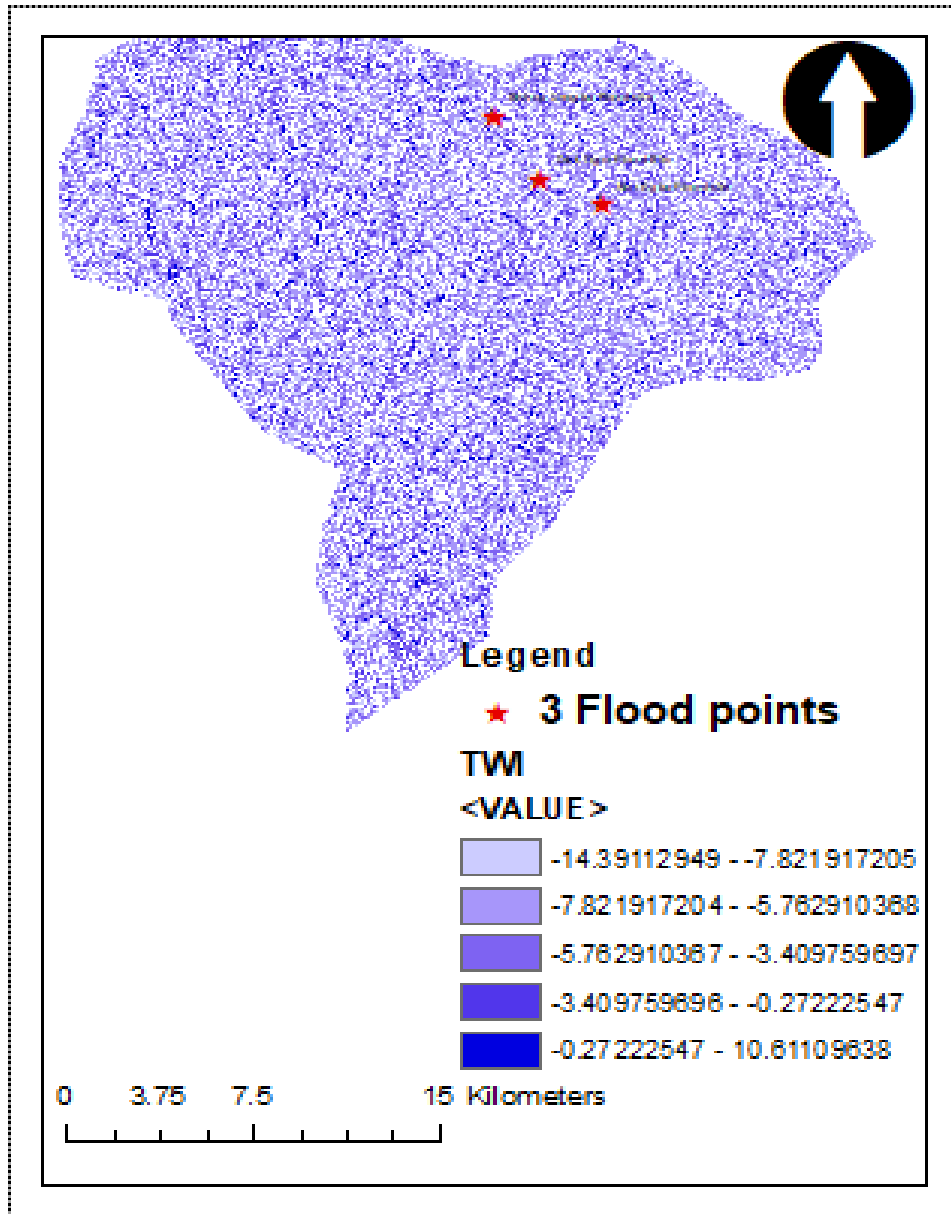


Fig. 4: TWI Map of Owerri Metropolis showing areas with dark blue as most wet and areas liable to flooding

One of the most important factors affecting flooding is topography (Iro & Achalonu, 2020). Topography plays an essential role in flood intensity, and for determining a flood-prone area, topographic elements directly affect runoff velocity and flow size (Kia et al., 2012). Flood-prone areas consistently exhibit certain characteristics influenced by terrain constraints. These characteristics include the maximum inundation extent, water depth, volume, and potential emergency response times. Importantly, it should be noted that the areas with the highest risk of significant flood depths may not necessarily coincide with regions experiencing frequent flood events.

Therefore, detailed studies on the status and evolution of flood hazards would be beneficial in identifying flood-prone areas and recommending appropriate measures. Generally, models used to identify flood-prone areas take into account certain parameters that contribute to flood formation (Hong, Tsangaratos, Ilia, Liu, Zhu, Chen, 2018). Ozkan and Tarhan (2012) determined flood risk areas using GIS techniques and

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considering factors such as flow accumulation, land use, slope, precipitation intensity, and elevation maps. Dolek and Avcı (2017) utilized the ArcGIS weighted overlay method to assess flood and inundation risks by considering factors like slope, aspect, elevation, vegetation cover, and soil layers. Tehrany, Pradhan, Mansor, Ahmad, (2015) emphasized that floods in a region are influenced by its morphological, geological, topographic, and hydrological characteristics. Therefore, selecting the parameters that contribute to flood formation is a crucial step in identifying flood-prone areas. Dekongmen, Kabo-bah, Domfeh, Sunkari, Dile, Antwi, Gyimah, (2021) proposed that infiltration and surface flow velocity are primarily determined by high slope and soil properties.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results of the analysis, the following should be taken into consideration:

The terrains and alignments of roads in Owerri Metropolis are to be assessed and looked into here to ascertain the flooding effects in the area. For instance, the terrain of MCC- Uratta is on a higher elevation of about 123.1m (400 feet) above sea level. Amuozara-Ikenegbu extension is about 76.9m (250 feet) above sea level and Alvan Ikoku Federal College of Education is around 61.5m (200 feet). If a road is being constructed, it should be constructed such that the road runs along the contours, because if the road cuts across the contours, the water will run at high speed. The speed is higher when cutting across contours, but if it is built along contours, then the flow will be slow.

Environmental planning should incorporate the use of DEMs for housing layouts to mitigate against disasters such as floods. The accurate hydrological analysis of DEM will aid proper planning to avoid flood-risk areas for residential settlement. Terrain parameters such as slope, elevation, aspect, flow direction etc are of great use in this respect.

CONCLUSION

This study has demonstrated the application and usefulness of Remote Sensing (RS) and Geographic Information System (GIS) tools in flood management. The Digital Terrain Model (DTM) has identified the flood inundation areas within the metropolis and has provided adequate knowledge of the flood situation for government intervention towards curtailing the disaster.

This study evaluates the contribution of morphometric causal factors of floods. It is an overview of the impact of the terrain properties on susceptibility to flood occurrences in urban areas. The advancement in remote sensing data acquisition and their integration in a Geographic Information System contribute to specific studies in flood researches. Digital Elevation Model allowed us to compute the morphometric analysis resulting in mapping the susceptibility to flood. By aggregating causal factors, the weighted overlay procedure presented the ability to distinguish areas with higher, medium and lower susceptibility to floods. The lowest and flattest areas are the most affected by the flash floods in city.

Mapping and analysis of topographical setting are fundamental for good understanding and management of the physical environment. It is needed to enable us familiarize ourselves with the terrain in which development takes place. We need to understand that good knowledge of the environmental settings at a particular time improves safety. In the past environmental analyst relied heavily on analogue methods for modelling and analysis of terrain, and this approach can no longer satisfy the contemporary planning needs. Based on this, a sophisticated method that produces reliable results must be adopted to ensure that the right decision is made during planning. The use of remote sensing and GIS platform has become an integrated, well developed and reliable approach in topographical analysis. The results of this study revealed the manifold and multi-dimensional capabilities of integrating remote sensing data and GIS in terrain modelling and analysis. The robust methodology developed in the study is evidenced by the effectiveness of the results. This can be seen in the series of thematic maps generated, which constitute a geospatial database for informed decision making. With this technique, it was possible to map and analyze the flooded areas and other terrain-developed characteristics/attributes, and identify flood inundated areas. It is therefore recommended that researchers should employ this promising technique for their investigations.

Acknowledgement

I want to acknowledge Prof. Pat Duru and Prof. Dominic Azuwiki, Department of Geography and Environmental Management and the Faculty of Environmental Management, Imo State University for the opportunity granted to me to be part of this conference.

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PART 8: Urban Service Delivery; Social Injustice, Land use and Land Market

Chapter Thirty-Five**Strategic Planning Towards Developing a Sustainable City: Lessons for Lagos, Nigeria*****Faisal C. Emetumah****Department of Geography & Environmental Management, Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria**EMAIL: chinonso.emetumah@gmail.com***ABSTRACT**

Driven by increasing human population and significant socioeconomic development in the 21st century, Lagos city metropolitan area has become home to over 17 million people. The study aims at evaluating strategic options and key features that can make Lagos metropolitan area more habitable, thereby becoming one of the world's most sustainable places. In doing this, the study uses an exploratory research design to examine existing literature and policy records on strategic planning for sustainable city development. The study analyses the current position of Lagos as a 21st century African mega city faced with numerous challenges, as well as the city's future about sustainability. The study also examines appropriate lessons from exemplars like Curitiba city in Brazil concerning sustainable waste management, renewable energy provision/use, transportation, among other activities associated with 21st century urban living. Key features of the recommended strategy for a sustainable Lagos involve creating more public parks and green spaces, which not only serve as recreation and leisure areas, but also act as run-off catchment areas, among other sustainability enhancing measures. Preliminary assessments should be carried out by conducting aerial surveys of the city to identify best locations for green spaces and flood catchment areas. First phase actions should involve demolitions in low-lying areas to create natural drainage channels for flood control.

KEYWORDS: Planning; Urbanization; Lagos; Curitiba; Sustainability

INTRODUCTORY BACKGROUND

Increasing urbanization across the globe is premised on the general belief that living in the city provides better access to economic opportunities while enhancing quality of life, especially in a developing country like Nigeria. The concept of sustainable development provides an effective approach for 21st century cities to meet international best practices by ensuring that economic, social and environmental considerations are made, such that future generations have a better society to look forward to. According to a United Nations Report (2019), global population growth is expanding cities all over the world, with urban areas expected to cover almost 70% of the total human population by 2050. Furthermore, most of the global population growth in the coming years is expected to take place in sub-Saharan Africa, due to cultural factors and high fertility rates (Gu, Andreev & Dupre, 2021). Situated in sub-Saharan Africa (See Figure 1), Lagos is a large coastal metropolitan area in the South West region of Nigeria, with a human population of over 17 million in a land area of less than 400,000 hectares (Odudu, 2015).

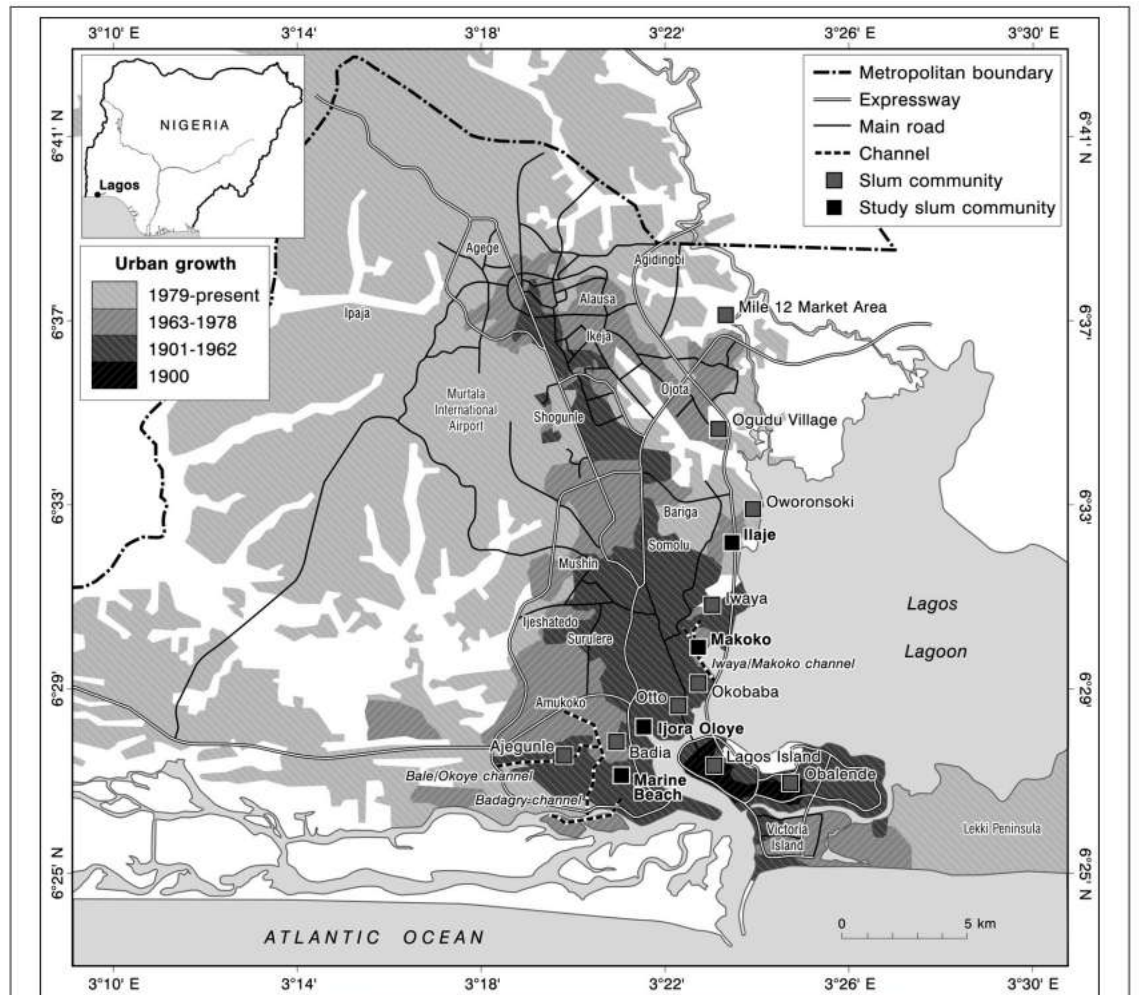


Figure 1. Lagos Metropolitan Area and surrounding communities (Source: Adelekan, 2010).

Due to its large and cosmopolitan characteristics, people from different parts of Nigeria and neighbouring countries migrate to Lagos in search of a better life and improved economic conditions. Urban planning within Lagos metropolis dates back as far as the 1800s. Due to its strategic location in a natural harbour, Lagos has been an important trading centre with substantial quantities of slaves and agricultural products exported to Europe and the Americas throughout much of the 1700s (Opoko & Oluwatayo, 2014). As a result of the city's economic value, land-use organization and delineation with Eko (the native name of the city before European incursions in West Africa) were instituted by the traditional leadership structure instituted by the Oba (king) of Lagos. According to Abubakar *et al.* (2020), British colonisation of Nigeria from late 1800s to 1960 formalised urban planning in Lagos through legal instruments, especially the Nigerian town and country planning ordinance no. 4 of 1946, which regulated road construction, public health and beautification within the Lagos metropolis.

Currently, there are more than ten planning policies, edicts and regulatory guidelines in Lagos which are operationalised to fast-track urban development in a large evolving metropolis like Lagos (Abubakar, Lawanson & Usman, 2020). Urban development in Lagos metropolis as in many cities in the global south, has been characterised by poor alignment to the concept of sustainable development, due to corruption, unsustainable waste management practices, defective governance structures and poor consideration towards sustainability (Soyinka *et al.*, 2016; Chan *et al.*, 2018). Apart from having about 80% of the city residents

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

living in the low-income category at less than \$2 a day, housing development is characterised by slum and informal settlements for almost 70% of Lagos residents (Lawanson & Omoegun, 2018). Furthermore, housing deficit is very high with more than 3 million Lagos residents without access to adequate housing. Transportation in Lagos is mainly through informal bus services, which account for about 70% of vehicular movement in the city, with less than 4% using formalised bus schemes like the Bus Rapid Transport (BRT) system (Agunbiade and Olajide, 2016). Even though Lagos is one of the most populous cities in Africa, urban train systems are not widely available; the first light rail system in Lagos was recently introduced in 2023 after decades of several failed attempts aimed at reducing the notorious traffic gridlock the city is renowned for (Onu, 2023).



Figure 2. Poor Sanitation in Makoko area of Lagos (Source: Lawanson et al., 2023).

In line with Figure 2, the issue of sustainable waste management and proper environmental sanitation is also of concern since less than 30% of Lagos residents have access to better-quality sanitation (Daramola & Olawuni, 2019). Significant inadequacies in sustainability indices in Lagos are further compounded by concentration of improved infrastructural facilities in predominantly high-brow areas of the city. In the same vein, access to potable water is a significant challenge within the Lagos metropolis, given that less than 6% of households in the entire city had access to pipe-borne water in 2016. Similarly, there is a very high risk of flooding for more than 70% of the entire surface area of Lagos due to the city's proximity to the Atlantic Ocean, in addition to inadequate flood control infrastructure which results in perennial submersion of many parts of the city in the peak of the rainy season. Electricity is also a serious challenge in the Lagos metropolis with less than 1000MW of electricity available whereas the city needs at least 4000MW to meet its energy needs (Obafemi et al., 2021). In line with the 17 United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (UNSDG), city planning in the 21st century should have social, environmental and economic balance such that cities can be sustained for centuries to come. On that note, city planning in Lagos can take cues from other cities that have significantly improved their quality of life because they

have embraced sustainability wholeheartedly. Accordingly, six facets make a city smart: having sustainability-aware people, good governance, environmental conservation, green economy, sustainable mobility, and environmentally-conscious living (Larbi et al, 2022).

SUSTAINABLE CITY PLANNING: CURITIBA EXEMPLARS FOR LAGOS

According to Sahu and Debsarma (2023), several cities across the globe are adopting practices that incorporate sustainability in not only providing green infrastructure, but also ensuring sustainable practices are imbibed in waste management, public health, energy provision/use, transportation, education, among other activities associated with urban living. The city of Curitiba, with a human population close to 2 million, is not only one of the largest cities in Brazil, but also renowned for being one of the few smart cities that aligns with the concept of sustainable planning in the global south (Macedo, 2013). According to Larbi, Kellet and Palazzon (2022), sustainable development planning in Curitiba immensely benefitted from the linearity approach in the preliminary plan proposed by architect Jorge Wilhelm to the city's administrators in 1964. This plan provided for developing the city along transit corridors from the city centre outwardly towards the neighbouring city. These transit corridors not only served as locations for residential areas and commercial/industrial clusters, but also provided for open green spaces and historical sites. The ideas in the Wilhelm development plan were revolutionised by Jaime Lerner, a Brazilian architect and urban planner who introduced novel sustainable ideas that enhanced transportation, waste management, biodiversity protection and ecological management among others, in Curitiba. A unique feature of Lerner's sustainability revolution in turning Curitiba into a smart city was his preference for local resources, which were more replicable and cheaper rather than conventional ideas available at the time, which were complicated and generally not fit for purpose (Margolin, 2007). Figure 3 shows sustainable transportation corridors for BRT and other transport types in Curitiba, Brazil.

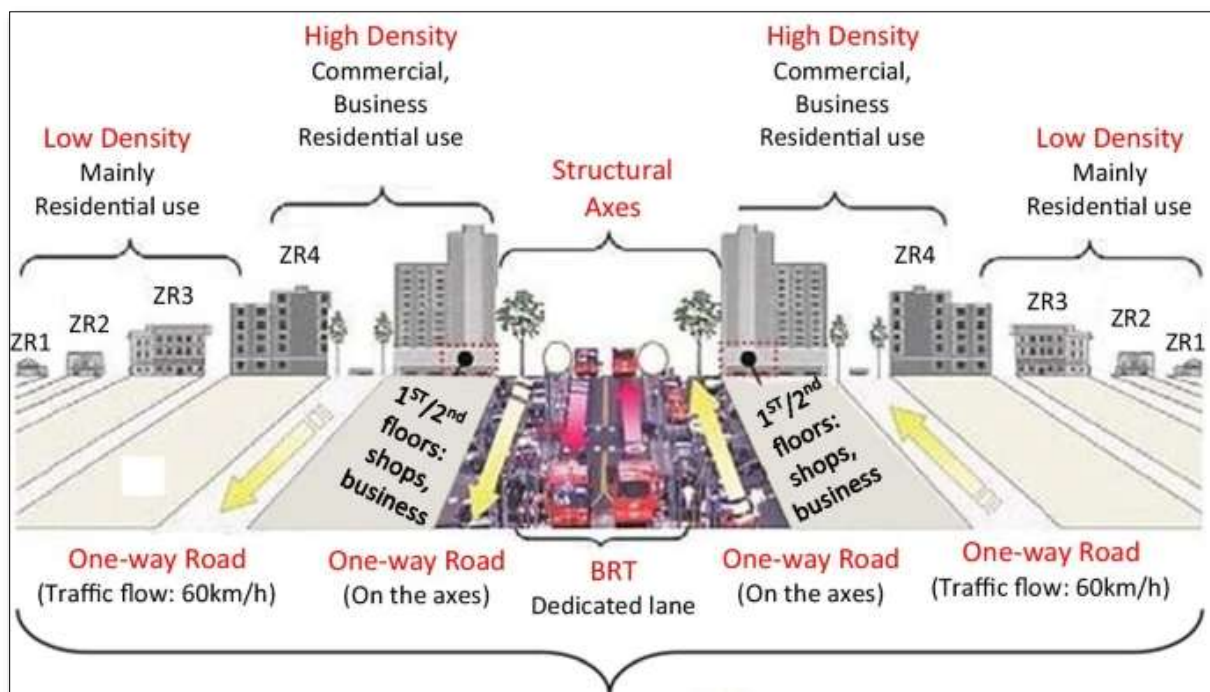


Figure 3. Sustainable Transportation Corridors in Curitiba, Brazil (Source: Larbi et al., 2022)

The transit corridors in and out of the Curitiba city centre were fundamental in developing an effective transport system for the city. This is because these corridors provided the need for moving people to and fro the city centre, which in turn facilitated the conception of bus rapid transit (BRT) as a viable means of

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

sustainable mass transit (Larbi, Kellett & Palazzo, 2022). Separate lanes were created for BRT traffic, which not only made movement easy and faster but also encouraged commuters in Curitiba to opt for mass transit, instead of private transport, which in turn reduced carbon emissions. Also, BRT vehicles in Curitiba have substituted diesel fuel from crude oil for a cleaner biofuel diesel with significantly less volume of carbon emissions (Lindau, Hidalgo & Facchini, 2010).

In terms of waste management, Curitiba used public awareness creation and enlightenment on sustainable environmental management to make the city's residents to perceive waste management not as a pernicious challenge that is insurmountable but as a necessity which can be turned into useful resources (Newman, 2010). This approach has become so effective that Curitiba has one of the highest waste recycling rates in the entire world with more than 70% of waste material being recycled, annually (Soltani & Sharifi, 2012). Curitiba has achieved this high level of waste recycling due to the city's green exchange program, where residents are encouraged to efficiently dispose and recycle waste materials in exchange for BRT tickets and food. In addition, fishermen in Curitiba are encouraged to collect non-biodegradable materials in water bodies around the city in exchange for cash rewards, thereby reducing marine pollution. Curitiba has adopted a waste-to-wealth approach where separation of refuse at source has become quite successful such that more than 90% of the city's residents separate waste materials based on biodegradable and non-biodegradable (Gratz, 2013).

Concerning ecological management in Curitiba, significant efforts have been made to synchronise urban development with natural vegetative features (Larbi, Kellett & Palazzo, 2022). In doing this, hundreds of structures situated in areas identified as low-lying areas prone to flooding were demolished and replaced with water parks and ponds where floodwaters can be channelled. Located all over the cityscape, these run-off collection areas were also interconnected with the network of rivers and streams around the city, such that flood waters are effectively controlled without resulting to the construction of concrete tunnels, which is the conventional way of flood control in many parts of the world (Suzuki *et al.*, 2010). Apart from being more affordable than concrete flood control, using natural measures for ecological management in Curitiba also portends less environmental risk in the long term. Curitiba has also increased greenspaces within the city from 0.5 square metre per resident in the 1970s to more than 50 square metre per resident as at 2016, despite a significant population increase over the same period (Macedo & Haddad, 2016). The city was able to achieve this feat by integrating and synchronising urban development with nature conservation techniques. In managing vegetation growth within green spaces and public parks in Curitiba, Capybaras and other domestic ruminants like sheep have been introduced in these areas to control vegetation growth. The approach is more sustainable than using conventional lawnmowers, which are usually powered by fossil fuels.

RECOMMENDED STRATEGY FOR SUSTAINABLE PLANNING OF LAGOS

Despite having a systemic culture of unplanned development spanning decades, it is still very possible to turn the situation around and carve a path towards sustainable planning in Lagos. The entire Lagos metropolis is prone to flooding because it is a low-lying coastal city experiencing a population explosion, which encourages indiscriminate land reclamation for building construction to accommodate the city's growing population.

On that note, there is an urgent need to demolish structures that are occupying low-lying areas of the city to create natural drainage channels for flood control. Since Lagos metropolis has a lot of streams and natural canals, these low-lying areas can also be dredged and connected to the Lagos lagoon, which in turn is connected to the Atlantic. Also, public parks and greenspaces can be created around these run-off catchment areas, which not only serve recreation and leisure areas, but also increase the ratio of residents to greenspaces, which is currently lacking in Lagos. Furthermore, a synchronising urban development with greenspaces fosters biodiversity as ruminants like sheep and goats can be introduced in the green areas of the city.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Given that waste management is ineffective in Lagos, lessons can be learned from Curitiba by creating more awareness on the benefits of waste separation at source and waste recycling, which turns garbage into wealth. This can be achieved by partnering with existing waste management organisations on how waste separation and recycling can be incentivised. This approach will go a long way in encouraging more Lagos residents to participate in sustainable waste management, thereby significantly reducing the quantity of waste that requires disposal in open dumps and landfills. Even though Lagos has a BRT system which serves less than 4% of the city's residents, efforts should be made towards expanding the BRT system to cover more routes of the city. This can be achieved by learning from the transit corridor approach in Curitiba (See Figure 2), where BRT move commuters away from the city centre. This approach can work in Lagos given that Lagos also has a central business district where most of the traffic heads to in the morning and departs in the evening.

First phase of actions for a sustainable Lagos

The first phase actions should involve demolishing structures in low-lying areas of Lagos to create natural drainage channels for flood control. This approach was considered as the first line of action because flooding challenges in Lagos are the most significant, in terms of making Lagos a sustainable city. Therefore, creating an ecologically sustainable Lagos should come first before looking at other aspects of sustainable planning. On that note, Figure 4 shows the first phase of actions for a sustainable Lagos.

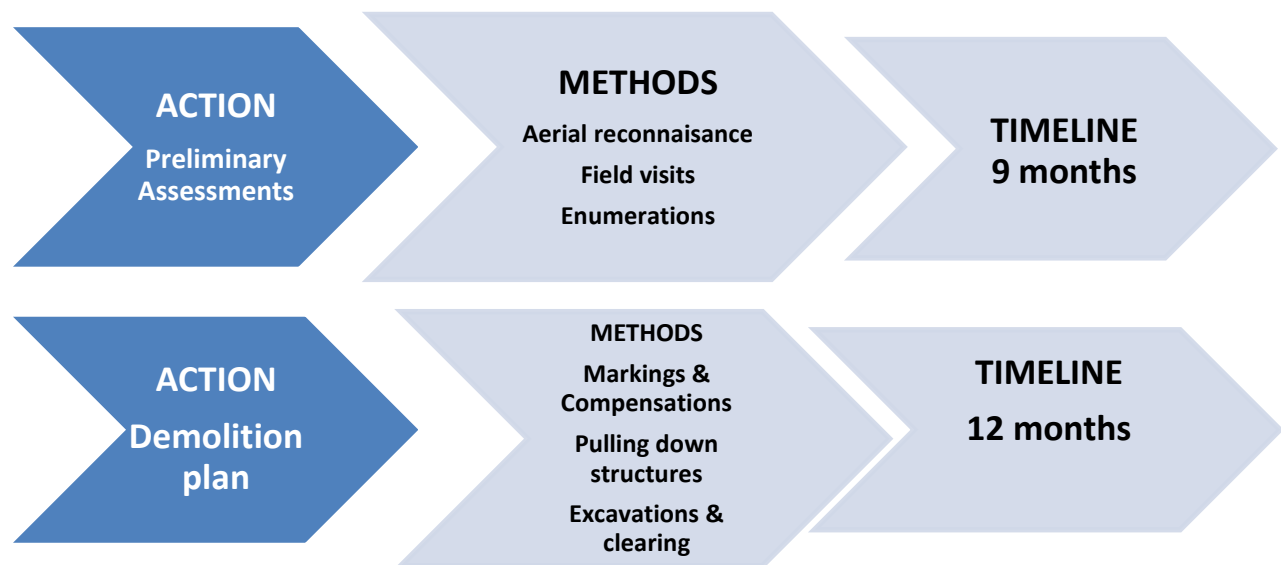


Figure 4. Outline of first phase of actions for a sustainable Lagos (Source: Author)

Firstly, preliminary assessments should be carried out by conducting aerial surveys of the city using fast terrain mapping using drones or helicopters (Luo *et al.*, 2015). This type of low-altitude digital imagery will provide a clear elevation model of the city to identify where exactly demolition activities need to take place. This will be followed by field visits and enumerations to ground-truth the aerial surveys. This aspect should be completed in less than a year. Subsequently, the demolition plan will commence after that by initially marking structures to be demolished, following which commensurate compensations will be paid. After that, excavation and clearing of the debris from the demolition will take place. This part should be completed within one year.

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Chapter Thirty-Six**Developing a Platform for Safer Alternatives to Public Water Supply in Owerri Urban*****Ude Anayo D.****Department of Urban & Regional Planning, Federal University of Technology, Owerri, Nigeria**EMAIL: udeanayo6@gmail.com***ABSTRACT**

This study examined the water quality of alternative sources to the public water supply accessible to residents of Owerri Urban for domestic and drinking purposes. The objective is to determine the potential contamination of these water sources by nearby land uses such as septic tanks and waste disposal sites. A mixed method research design was employed, incorporating qualitative and quantitative data collection and laboratory tests. A sample of 420 households in Owerri Urban provided data on their primary water sources and their quality. Only 13.8% of respondents were aware of their water quality through laboratory tests, while 86.2% had either not tested their water or were unsure if their landlords had done so. Six water samples (two from rivers and four from boreholes) were analyzed using nine parameters: pH, electrical conductivity, color, total solids, total bacteria, total coliforms, *Klebsiella*, *E. coli*, and fungi. Results indicated contamination levels in some samples exceeding acceptable standards. Specifically, *E. coli*, fungi, and coliforms were found at higher levels than permitted by the Nigerian Industrial Standard for Water Quality. An ANOVA test was conducted to assess differences in contamination levels across various neighborhoods in Owerri Urban. The hypothesis (H₀) that there was no significant difference in contamination levels across neighborhoods was upheld. This implies that water contamination level does not significantly vary across the neighborhoods studied. The study strongly recommends that the government, through the ISWSC, introduce and implement a Water Policy that mandates both private and public borehole providers to conduct regular water quality tests from their supply sources. Creating awareness on various media platforms to alert the public on the adverse effects of consuming uncertified/unsafe water.

KEY WORDS: Water quality; Contamination; Safe water; Public water

INTRODUCTION

The current population explosion of Owerri region appears to have triggered much urbanization and city expansion without corresponding expansion in the development of basic amenities. This uncontrolled urban expansion has exacerbated pressure on the existing basic infrastructures, especially those for water supply, sanitation and environmental quality controls. (Aliyu & Amadu, 2017) reiterated the consequences of unbalanced basic amenities in urban expansion, of which water resource infrastructure happens to be one of the most jeopardized in the case of Owerri urban, though silently because of the abundance of water resources within the geographical boundaries. This has created a deceptive conception that made many Owerri urban dwellers misconceive the availability of an improved water system as the same as accessibility to safe water supply. The inability of Imo State Government to provide a safe, sustainable public water supply for both drinking and domestic use for urban dwellers has resulted in desperate search for alternative sources of potable water for Owerri Urban populace (Osugwu 2019). This Search for alternatives to public water delivery has led to massive abstraction of water through boreholes by individuals, while very few urban poor fall back to the river, where it is accessible. The worrisome part of the Owerri Urban water supply situation is that these boreholes or rivers being used as alternative sources are not certified by any statutory water supply institution or regulator, therefore the quality of the alternative water supply is usually uncertain. The study of (Osugwu 2019) on some Owerri borehole water affirmed that many boreholes in Owerri are poorly sited and substandard in terms of construction, therefore prone to pollution from

sewerage and septic tanks and suggested that boreholes only be used as a temporal source of water supply in Owerri. It is critical to note that the quality of the ground water resources which is the main source of water supply for these boreholes may be currently under threat from some of the urban solid waste disposal practices as well as other peculiar urban land use activities such as wrong location of septic system about borehole abstraction point, open and indiscriminate dumping of refuse as well as unsanitary disposal of human wastes. These and many more seem to threaten the surface and ground water aquifers within Owerri. Though public participation in the water sector has provided significant relief to the various Institutions responsible for water supply in Imo state, by their introduction of alternative sources of water supply through self-help, yet the issue of quality has not been addressed. WHO data presented in Mondal et al (2021) indicated unavailability of safe water as the cause of 80% of infections and one third of death in developing nations. Despite the public health challenge in unreliable sources of urban water supplies, neither the State Government nor Imo State Water and Sewerage Corporation have come up with concrete projects or water regulatory policy that adequately address the current Owerri urban water situation. Though access to improved water facilities is on the increase as boreholes are now a complimentary facility of many housing units in Owerri via self-help, but this does not automatically guarantee access to safe water supply. It is also very common to see septic systems and boreholes abstraction point located closely together, likewise other incompatible land uses especially in high density neighborhoods such as Orji, Amakohia, Irete, and others where manual evacuation of septic system is practiced by many; situation where human wastes in septic tanks are manually dug out and transferred to shallow trenches prepared as final disposal place. This crude method is so degrading to the physical environment and may have some negative implications to both ground and surface water sources within the immediate environment. All these practices and many more have prompted this study, which seeks to develop a platform that will promote the delivery of safer alternatives to public water supply in Owerri urban with the view of contributing knowledge that will positively reposition the current water situation in Owerri.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Several studies conducted in both developed and developing countries of the world to address various urban water challenges, especially amongst developing countries, end up shifting priority from improving the quality of available water resources to increasing the quantity of water supply accessible to the people. The increasing challenge of seeking safe water supply in both rural and urban settings, and incessant failures of water supply Institutions to properly address the situation has compelled the populace in most developing countries to desperately seek alternative sources of safe water supply outside the centrally supplied public water supply, which are scarcely available. This study examined literature on groundwater, which serves as the main alternative to the centrally public water supply in Owerri urban. The dependence of over 1500 cities worldwide on groundwater is on the increase, such that the world's potable water is mostly sourced from groundwater in the form of boreholes, springs and wells. (Groundwater.org 2022) noted that the multiplication of uncontrolled groundwater abstractions has resulted in overuse with several negative consequences that are too severe to be ignored. There have been recurring incidences of unstable water supply problem which usually occurs when the degree of water demand outweighs the rate of aquifer recharge through excess rainfall and runoffs. This is a common challenge since the nature of groundwater recharge is designed by nature to be slowly replenished just to aid filtration. There are also reported cases of aquifer degradation and other negative environmental impacts, which are as a result of expanded groundwater exploitation, which may result in water depletion with possible increase in cost of water supplies and may also induce reverse flow of aquifers especially where there is too much pressure on the groundwater aquifers.

Baba and Tayfur (2011) investigated groundwater contamination in Upper Turkey in their study, both anthropogenic and natural sources were indicted in groundwater contamination. The anthropogenic sources include mining waste, agricultural waste, industrial waste, onsite septic tank, and an unperfected well. The natural sources of contamination include geological formation, sea water intrusion and geo-thermal fluid. They suggested the establishment of a groundwater monitoring system as well as delineation

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of the critical protection zone, as increased awareness of the public on aquifer vulnerability to pollution. Dan et al (2017) noted that the quality of urban ground water resources has continuously deteriorated due to inadequate waste management and source protection, with shallow ground water aquifer being the most affected. This has exposed many users to a significant health challenge.

Groundwater foundation (2018) identified major sources of groundwater contamination to include underground storage tanks, chemicals that are washed into the ground by rain, landfills, septic tanks and uncontrolled hazardous waste disposal. Free Drinking Water (2011) suggested that these private water sources be investigated against water pollutants, such as microorganisms, heavy metals, lead, copper, household wastes, fluoride, etc. It also opined that further risk of water contamination are influenced by poor construction of boreholes, its location, the type of human activities carried out within the location as well as the rock quality of the aquifer from which the water is drawn. It is therefore suggested that private sources be tested annually for nitrate and coliform since testing for more complex chemicals may be very expensive. It advised against drinking water directly from private well water without a protective filter. Dan et al (2017) noted that the quality of ground water resources continues to deteriorate due to inadequate waste management and water source protection. This has affected most shallow ground aquifers and has exposed many significant health challenges. Since ground water remains a major source of urban water supply especially through boreholes and wells in most countries. It is then important that these numerous boreholes and wells serving various private homes should be properly constructed or undergo adequate water quality test to ascertain its water suitability. APEC (2011) specified some indicators that could enable private borehole owners to dictate boreholes with contamination or construction defects. The nuggets for boreholes examination were outlined as follows:

The presence of coliform bacteria in counts exceeding limits set by health authorities.

Change in quality of water such as in turbidity, colour, taste, odour, etc especially after rain falls.

The presence of roots and biological materials such as animals, insects etc.

Presence of cracks or joints or an unsealed part of the casing.

The settlement of the ground surface around the top of the well or borehole

The absence of a watertight well cover on the borehole.

Changes in the chemical quality of the water as dictated by laboratory analysis.

The publication also suggested that borehole owners take further responsibility to ensure the provision of good quality water from their boreholes. Some corrective measures such as routine checks against cracks, proper covering of borehole heads, and annually carrying out the laboratory test of their water samples. Abia State Water Board Law (Cap 12 section 6, 1993), Imo Water Corporation Edict (section 6,(1995), Imo State Water Law No 42 of 2019 and Anambra State Water Edict (No 3 part 2 section 4,1999), all empowered the State Water Agencies to examine the surface and ground water against the existence of any possible pollutants. They also have the responsibilities to set standards relative to water supply in collaboration with Federal Regulative Agencies. They are also permitted to issue license to all existing private water works operators and to operate and maintain a state water works for safe drinking water supply. However, only in Abia state the of private boreholes are regulated by the State Government amongst these listed states.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research design adopted for this study was mixed method. This method enabled the study to combine both quantitative and qualitative method at different point of the study as well as use experimentation in the analysis of some water samples tested in this study. According to Federal Republic of Nigeria (2009), Owerri Capital Territory has a population of 640 899 and a household population of 106,816 spread across 45 wards in the four local government areas located within Owerri Capital Territory. The population was projected at a growth rate of 2.8% using the estimate this Formula below:

$$P(e+1) = p(1+R/100) ^n$$

This gave a population estimate of 969,808 for Owerri capital Territory in 2024. Using Taro Yamanni formula for determining (Sample size= $N/1+N(e)^2$), a total of 420 households were randomly selected as

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the sample of the study. Record from Owerri Capital Development Authority (OCDA) shows that about 48 layouts exist within the Owerri urban alone; 9 out of these layouts are yet to be developed while 39 are already functional. The Multi Stage Random Sampling technique was employed in this study. The stratified random sampling technique was employed in stage 1, to divide the study area in to 3 homogenous strata based on population densities. Stage 2 adopted simple random technique to select 30% from each layout as representative to each density group. Based on this selection, three (3) layouts each were selected from both low and medium density while four (4) layouts will be selected to represent the high-density group with fourteen 14 layouts. Then, a simple random sampling technique was employed in the selection of streets from the three population density groups; namely High, Medium and Low densities. Systematic random sampling technique was employed in selecting households to be sampled along each selected street. In High density layouts, with an average of 30 buildings per street, 5 households were sampled systematically at an interval of 5 buildings beginning with the first housing unit in the street. For Medium density layouts with an average of 20 buildings, 4 households were sampled systematically in each street at an interval of 5 buildings while in Low density layouts with an average of 18 buildings per street, 4 households were sampled systematically in each street at an interval of 5 buildings.

A total of 420 households were sampled within the randomly selected layouts for questionnaire administration. Because different strata (high, medium and low) are involved, the ratio method was used in determining the number of households that were sampled in each of the three (3) population density groups, since the number of the layouts in each group is not of equal number. The ratio is thus: 4:3:3 respectively for High density, medium density, Low density. Therefore, a total of 168 households were administered with questionnaires in 4 High-density layouts, 126 households of medium and Low-density layouts were sampled and administered with questionnaires, which were used to investigate the quality status of water sources serving as alternatives to the public water supply in their various neighbourhoods. Then, a simple random sampling technique was employed in the selection of streets from the three population density groups; namely High, Medium and Low densities. Systematic random sampling technique was employed in selecting households to be sampled along each selected street. In High density layouts, with an average of 30 buildings per street, 5 households were sampled systematically at an interval A total of 6 water samples (consisting of 4 borehole water samples and 2 river water samples) were collected and tested for possible water contamination. The 4 borehole samples were taken across neighbourhoods using a purposive sampling method. The 2 water samples from the river were collected from Nworie River, being the only river within the randomly selected neighbourhoods, which is often used by some urban dwellers for domestic purposes (particularly, the carrot and sugarcane dealers). The two water samples from the river were tasted using the water quality standard of the federal Ministry of Environment, while the other four samples from boreholes were tested in the laboratory using the Nigerian Industrial Standard for Drinking Water Quality. All the water samples were tested in the laboratory using nine parameters, namely, PH, Electrical conductivity, colour, total solid, total bacteria, total coliform, Klebsiella, E. coli, and fungi, respectively. All the water samples were tested and analyzed in the laboratory to ascertain their compliance with the Nigerian approved standard for drinking and domestic water quality.

STUDY ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Several tables have been used to display data from this study.

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Table 1: Sources of Neighbourhood Domestic Water Supply

Selected Neighbourhoods/Density (NH)	Streams	Private borehole	Public borehole	Central tap System	Total
H. D.—Irete, Egbeada, Nchiise and Emmanuel.	4	104	56	4	168
M.D.—Egbeada Est., Worldbank, Ikenegbu	-	97	24	5	126
L.D—Aladinma, Works and Akanchawa	-	109	17	-	126
Total	4	310	97	9	420
Percentage	1	73.8	23.1	2.1	100

Source: Field Survey 2024

Table 1 shows that only 1% of the respondents from Owerri Urban use stream water supply for domestic chores while 73.8% of the respondents use water from private borehole as their major source of domestic water supply. However, 23% of the respondents depend on the public borehole, of which some are commercialized for a fee but some are free for users. Only 2.1% of respondents in the high density and medium density have access to state public water supply, which may not be in their homes but installed within their neighbourhoods.

Table 2: Borehole Water Quality Assessment from Selected Urban Neighbourhoods

Selected Neighbourhoods/Density (NH)	No Idea	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Total
H. D.—Irete, Egbeada, Nchiise and Emmanuel.	88	21	46	13	-	168
M.D.—Egbeada Est., Worldbank, Ikenegbu	36	17	42	31	-	126
L.D—Aladinma, Works and Akanchawa.	47	22	34	23	-	126
Total	171	60	122	67	0	420
Percentage	40.7	14.3	29	16	0	100

Table 2 shows that 40.7% of the respondents have no idea or could not place any assessment on the water quality status of their domestic or drinking water sources. A total of 14.3% of the respondents agreed that the quality of water they use in their homes is poor, while 29% believe their water quality is fair, only 16% of the respondents believed that their water supply is of good quality. None of the respondents rated their water quality “excellent”.

Table 3: Showing Certified Water Quality status of Boreholes Across Owerri Urban Neighbourhoods.

Selected Neighbourhoods/Density (NH)	Yes	No	No Idea	Total
H. D.—Irete, Egbeada, Nchiise and Emmanuel.	4	102	62	168
M.D.—Egbeada Est., Worldbank, Ikenegbu	23	87	16	126
L.D—Aladinma, Works and Akanchawa.	31	78	95	126
Total	58	267	95	420
Percentage	13.8	63.6	22.6	100

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The data from Table 3 shows that only 13.8% of the total respondents know the water quality status of their borehole water supply through laboratory test investigation. A total of 63.6% of the respondents have not carried out any quality test of their borehole water, while 22% of the respondents did not have an idea whether their landlords had carried out any test of their borehole water or not in the past. This group of respondents consist of tenants occupying commercial property.

Table 4: Responses to Challenges Experienced by Respondents Due to Unavailable or Poor Public Water Supply

Selected Neighbourhoods/Density (NH)	Poor Hygiene	Poor Water Quality	Health Issues	Water Rationing	Increased Expenses	Waste of Time	All of the Above
H. D.—Irete, Egbeada, Nchiise and Emmanuel.	67	87	84	56	109	74	120
M.D.—Egbeada Est., Worldbank, Ikenegbu	61	81	73	92	102	37	99
L.D—Aladinma, Works and Akanchawa.	46	77	92	75	99	32	103
Total	174	245	249	223	310	143	322
Percentage	41.4	58.3	59.3	53.1	73.8	34	76.7

Source: Field Survey 2024

Table 4 shows the challenges experienced by residents due to the unavailability of public water supply in most areas of Owerri urban. The table shows that 41.4% of the respondents experienced poor hygiene either in workplaces or at home, while 58.3% decried the poor quality of the available alternatives to the Public central water supply. A total of 59.3% agreed that this situation has increased health challenges, while 53.1% say it has brought about the rationalization of water either at home, offices or in schools. Others affirmed that the water situation has led to increased financial expenses since it is cheaper to procure water from the state water supply. Some (34%) decried waste of man hours in terms of time spent in sourcing for water. However, 76.7% of the respondents agreed to have experienced cumulatively all the above listed challenges ranging from poor hygiene, poor water quality, health challenges and other issues.

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Table 5: Level of Contamination of Water from Borehole and River

Parameter	FMEnv Standard									
		Fed Med centre		World Bank area		Nworie River		Alvan University		METHOD
		Run 1	Run 2	Run 1	Run 2	Run 1	Run 2	Run 1	Run 2	
Ph	6.50-8.50	5.20	5.30	5.50	5.40	5.40	5.40	5.10	4.90	Potentiometric
Electrical conductivity, $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$	1000.00	58.00	58.00	15.00	14.00	82.00	82.00	68.00	72.00	Potentiometric
Colour, PCU	5.00	34.00	30.00	16.00	18.00	91.00	94.00	32.00	35.00	Electro-membrane
Turbidity, NTU	10.00	3.36	3.35	2.69	2.71	33.45	33.40	3.81	3.83	Nephelometry
Total Solid, mg/l	500.00-1000.00	74.00	78.00	46.00	41.00	90.00	92.00	74.00	79.00	Gravimetric
Total Bacteria count, Cfu/ml	0-30	1.7×10^3	1.9×10^3	1.51×10^4	1.61×10^4	4.0×10^4	6.0×10^4	1.0×10^3	1.0×10^3	Spread Plate
Total Coliform count, cfu/ml	0-10	1.9×10^3	2.0×10^3	1.9×10^3	2.4×10^3	2.0×10^4	5.0×10^4	2.0×10^2	1.0×10^2	Spread Plate
Total Klebsella Count, cfu/ml	0	NG	NG	1.4×10^3	1.1×10^3	NG	NG	NG	NG	Spread Plate
E.Coli, cfu/ml	0	NG	NG	NG	NG	NG	NG	NG	NG	Spread Plate
Total Fungi count cfu/ml	0	NG	NG	NG	NG	NG	NG	NG	NG	Spread Plate

Table 5 displays the result of the water quality test conducted using 6 water samples (2 from the river and 4 from the boreholes). The test was conducted using 9 parameters, namely: PH, Electrical Conductivity, Colour, Turbidity, Total Solid. Total Bacteria count, Total Coliform count, Total Klebsella count, E-Coli, and Total Fungi count. The analysis of water quality based on these parameters is as follows:

Ph Value

In its purest form, water has a PH of 7, which is the exact center of the PH scale. Particles in water can change the PH of the water, and most water for use has a PH value of somewhere between 6.5. and 8.5 water naturally varies between about 6.5 And 8.5 in the PH scale. Drinking water below and above 7 place humans at risk for health problems such as cancer, stroke, kidney disease, memory problems and high blood pressure. The whole sampled area fell below the Federal Ministry of Environment standard. All the water samples are slightly acidic.

Electrical Conductivity

Electrical conductivity is a measure of the saltiness of the water and is measured on a scale from 0 to 50,000 ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$). Freshwater is usually between 0 and 1,500 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$. AS salinity and temperature increase, conductivity also increases, which can hurt the quality of water. This is because the higher the conductivity, the higher the number of impurities (dissolved substance, chemicals, and minerals) are in the water. Nworie River has the Highest Electrical Conductivity.

Total Solids

Total solids are dissolved solids plus suspended and settleable solids in water. In Stream water, dissolved solids consist of calcium, chloride, nitrate, phosphorus, iron, sulphur and other ions, particles that will pass

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through a filter with pores of around 2 microns (0.002cm) in size. The Nworie river has the highest number of total solids amongst all the collected water samples.

Table 5: Level of Contamination of Water from Borehole and River (Contd.)

Parameter	FMEnv Standard					METHOD
		Alaba Market		Irete clinic		
		Run 1	Run 2	Run 1	Run 2	
Ph	6.50-8.50	5.30	5.50	5.00	4.90	Potentiometric
Electrical conductivity, $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$	1000.00	34.00	34.00	22.00	22.00	Potentiometric
Colour, PCU	5.00	65.00	67.00	39.00	41.00	Electro-membrane
Turbidity, NTU	10.00	18.55	18.60	7.10	7.11	Nephelometry
Total Solid, mg/l	500.00-1000.00	58.00	56.00	48.00	41.00	Gravimetric
Total Bacteria count, Cfu/ml	0-30	9.8×10^3	9.0×10^3	2.1×10^3	2.3×10^3	Spread Plate
Total Coliform count, cfu/ml	0-10	4.0×10^3	3.7×10^3	9.0×10^3	8.0×10^3	Spread Plate
Total Klebsella Count, cfu/ml	0	6.3×10^3	6.1×10^3	1.1×10^3	1.1×10^3	Spread Plate
E.Coli, cfu/ml	0	2.0×10^3	1.7×10^3	NG	NG	Spread Plate
Total Fungi count cfu/ml	0	NG	NG	2.0×10^2	2.0×10^2	Spread Plate

Source: Field Survey 2024; Mg/l – Milligram per litre, ND – None Detected; $\mu\text{S}/\text{m}$ – Micro Siemens per centimeter; NS – Not Stated; cfu/ml – colony forming per litre; NG – No Growth

Total Coliform

Coliform bacteria are organisms that are present in the environment and in the Feces of all warm-blooded animals and humans. coliform bacteria will not likely cause illness. However, their presence in drinking

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water indicates that disease-causing organisms (pathogens) could be in the water system. All the six water samples have Total coliform count within the tolerable level.

Total Klebsiella

Klebsiella occurs widely in nature and is often present in surface water used for Human consumption or recreational purposes. The organism can survive in the Water distribution system despite chlorination. Klebsiella only shows growth in water sample taken from World Bank neighbourhood (1.4&1.1) and Alaba market sample (6.3&1.1)

Total E. coli

E. coli in water is a strong indicator of sewage or animal waste contamination. Sewage and animal waste can contain many types of disease-causing organisms. Consumption may lead to severe illness; children under five (5) of age, those with a compromised immune system, and the elderly are particularly susceptible. E. coli sample showed growth in the Alaba Market Water Sample.

Total Fungi

Fungi presence in drinking water may cause severe fungal infection in some patients. Fungi growing in biofilms inside taps and in tap water affects the taste and odour, as it interferes with the chlorination process. The Irete clinic water sample had growth of 2.0×10^2 which is above the Federal Ministry of Environment Standard.

Testing Hypothesis 1

H₀: There is no significant difference in the contamination level of various sources of water supply across neighbourhoods in Owerri urban.

The hypothesis was tested using the table below.

Table 6: ANOVA					
Y					
	Sum of square	Df	Mean square	F	Sig
Between Groups	189.000	34	5.559	1.324	.412
Within Groups	21.000	5	4.200		
Total	210.000	39			

Source: SPSS

The result of the hypothesis as noted in Table 21 shows that there is no Significant difference in the water contamination level across various neighbourhoods in Owerri urban. As observed from the table, the significant value of 0.412 is greater than 0.05, and as a principle of decision making, the null hypothesis was accepted while the alternative hypothesis was rejected. This implies that water contamination level does not significantly vary across the neighbourhoods studied. Though there are some differences in the result of water samples from various water sources across neighbourhoods, but the variations were not statistically significant.

Discussion of Findings

Presently, Imo State Water and Sewerage Corporation (ISWSC) has only 181 public water subscribers in the entire Owerri urban and this is because the institution is embarking on general overhauling after being moribund for over a decade due to its abandonment by past Governments of Imo State. This long

abandonment brought about total suspension of water distribution services from all urban dwellers in Owerri, which consequently resulted in the search for alternative sources of water supply that could substitute for the unavailable public water supply. Data from the field exposed several areas affected during the long period of suspended service, to include water distribution pipes, of which many were destroyed during the urban road rehabilitation project of the immediate past state Government. Many of the pipes are very old and can no longer withstand high water pressure without a burst. Several water valves need replacement due to corrosion. The power generation plants are old and there is a need for new ones for efficiency. There are only two functional reservoirs currently in use by the ISWSC in Owerri urban; one of the functional reservoirs is located at Egbu Road, and in Egbeada/Ubommiri, which are not fully in use due to massive damage of several water distribution pipelines within neighbourhoods of Owerri. Data from field survey also revealed that a greater number of Owerri borehole water users have not investigated the quality of their water supply source via laboratory test. Also, the result of water quality test of all selected 4 borehole water samples revealed contaminations at different levels above the recommended standard stipulated by the Federal Ministry of Environment (FME). And Nigeria Standard for Drinking Water Quality. Example, all the 4 selected borehole water samples were found to be acidic while some water samples had fungi, bacteria growth, coliform, E. coli, and others. The implication of this recorded water contamination in several urban private water sources may be potential health challenges, especially for children, the elderly, and people with compromised immune systems.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the outcome of the study, the following have been recommended:

1. State Water Agencies should develop a Baseline Water Quality Database on every water works constructed for public use, which can be used for local routine monitoring, since most developing countries may not have the financial capacity required to procure modern facilities for regular water quality monitoring.
2. It is important that urban solid waste Agencies extend their services to neighbourhoods at every location within urban areas. This is to avoid indiscriminate solid waste disposal that could negatively affect both surface and ground water sources and become a potential health risk to urban dwellers.
3. Imo State Water and Sewerage Company (ISWSC) should be encouraged to establish a functional water standpoint in all Owerri urban neighbourhoods in order to ensure access to safe drinking water by all citizens.
4. Adequate awareness should be created through various social media platforms, concerning the use of uncertified borehole water for drinking purposes as some may contain a high concentration of certain unwanted elements that may be injurious to health.

CONCLUSION

The fact that the greater parts of Owerri urban area seats on a shallow water aquifer makes it easy to abstract clean water without digging too deep into the earth. However, this advantage comes with a cost because several studies have revealed that shallow aquifers are usually more prone to contaminations from both natural sources and land use activities. Therefore, may expose users to untold health challenges that is why knowing the water quality status of one's source of water supply should not be compromised.

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Chapter Thirty-Seven**Addressing Skill Gaps and Enhancing Productivity: The role of Artisans in Sustainable Urban Development*****John Ugwuneke¹; Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke^{1,2}; Edith Chinwe Pat-Mbano¹****¹Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria**²School of Architecture and Planning, University of the Witwatersrand, South Africa**EMAIL: johnugwuneke@gmail.com***ABSTRACT**

This paper explores the critical role that artisans play in addressing skill gaps and enhancing productivity in sustainable urban development, particularly in developing countries. Artisans, who engage in manual trades such as carpentry, masonry, and plumbing, are pivotal in the construction of housing and infrastructure in rapidly urbanizing regions. Despite their significant contributions, they often operate within the informal economy, facing challenges such as limited access to formal education, modern technologies, and financial resources. These factors contribute to skill gaps, which impede both the quality of their work and the overall sustainability of urban development. The study investigates the socio-economic characteristics of artisans, their operational modes, and the factors affecting their utilization in urban construction projects. Through a review of existing literature, this paper highlights the importance of formalizing the artisanal sector and integrating artisans into formal urban planning processes. It also emphasizes the need for training, financial inclusion, and policy interventions to support the upskilling of artisans and improve their access to modern construction technologies. By addressing these challenges, artisans can play a more significant role in promoting sustainable urban development, particularly through the use of local, eco-friendly materials and traditional building techniques. The paper argues that closing the skill gaps among artisans will lead to improved productivity, better-quality infrastructure, and more sustainable urban environments. Ultimately, the study calls for comprehensive policy frameworks that recognize and support the contributions of artisans to the broader goals of sustainable urbanization.

KEYWORDS: Skills gap; Sustainability; Artisans; Urbanization; Technologies**INTRODUCTION**

Urban development, especially in rapidly expanding cities in the Global South, is heavily reliant on both formal and informal sectors. Within this framework, artisans play an essential role, particularly in the construction of housing and other critical infrastructure. Artisans, defined as skilled workers engaged in manual trades such as masonry, carpentry, plumbing, and welding, contribute significantly to the physical and economic landscapes of growing urban centres. Despite their importance, artisans are often under-recognized in formal urban development discourse, and the potential for their contributions is frequently limited by skill gaps, lack of formal training, and exclusion from formal economic structures (International Labour Organization [ILO], 2020). Addressing these challenges is crucial not only for improving productivity but also for advancing sustainable urban development. Historically, artisans have been fundamental to the development of cities, from ancient civilizations to modern times. In ancient societies such as Egypt and Mesopotamia, artisans were responsible for constructing monumental structures that still stand today (Ranganathan, 2018). These early craftsmen were valued for their skill and creativity, which were passed down through generations via apprenticeships and hands-on learning. Even in the context of modern urbanization, artisans remain indispensable, particularly in regions where formal contractors and highly skilled labour are not readily available. For example, in many African and Asian cities, artisans fill the gap between formal professionals, such as architects and engineers, and the labour force that physically executes construction projects (Oladimeji, 2022; Zhang et al., 2021).

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

However, the integration of artisans into the broader urban development agenda is often hampered by several structural and socio-economic barriers. In many developing countries, artisans operate largely within the informal economy, without access to formal education, certifications, or government support (ILO, 2020). This informality limits their ability to scale their work, gain access to financial resources, or fully participate in large-scale urban projects. Moreover, the absence of structured apprenticeship systems or formal recognition often results in skill gaps, leaving artisans unable to meet the demands of modern construction, especially in terms of quality control and adherence to sustainable practices (Hürlimann & March, 2022). These challenges are exacerbated by a lack of access to new technologies and tools, further widening the gap between artisanal and formal sectors in urban development (Reinhardt et al., 2020).

The issue of skill gaps among artisans is a significant challenge that hinders both productivity and the quality of construction in urban areas. In many cases, artisans acquire their skills informally through apprenticeships or on-the-job training, which does not always provide the comprehensive technical knowledge needed for modern construction demands (Afolabi & Ojelabi, 2018). Artisans, while highly skilled in traditional techniques, may lack formal certification, which affects their employability and limits their ability to compete with formally trained professionals. This skill gap not only impacts individual livelihoods but also has broader implications for the quality and sustainability of urban development. For example, artisans are often chosen for construction projects because of their affordability and accessibility, particularly in low-income or informal settlements. However, their limited exposure to formal education and modern building standards can lead to substandard work, which, in turn, raises concerns about safety and durability in the built environment (Hedidor & Bondinuba, 2017). In many developing countries, the construction industry is plagued by cases of building collapses and other structural failures, often linked to the use of unskilled or inadequately trained labour (Boateng, 2020). Addressing these skill gaps is crucial for improving both the quality of construction and the long-term sustainability of urban infrastructure.

In addition to the skill gap related to technical proficiency, artisans also face challenges in accessing new technologies and innovations that are increasingly being integrated into the construction industry. The rise of Construction 4.0, which emphasizes digitalization, automation, and the use of advanced technologies, presents both an opportunity and a challenge for artisans (Reinhardt et al., 2020). While these technologies have the potential to improve productivity and efficiency in construction, many artisans lack the training or resources to take full advantage of them. This creates a growing divide between traditional artisanal methods and the demands of modern construction, which increasingly requires higher levels of technical expertise and innovation (Keogh & Smallwood, 2021).

Despite these challenges, artisans play a vital role in driving urban development, particularly in the context of sustainable construction practices. Their contributions extend beyond the mere physical construction of buildings and infrastructure; they are also key players in promoting the use of local materials and traditional building methods that align with sustainability goals. In many developing regions, artisans are known for their ability to work with locally sourced, sustainable materials such as bamboo, mud bricks, and reclaimed wood, which have a lower environmental impact compared to modern construction materials like concrete and steel (Speecke, 2022). This not only reduces the carbon footprint of construction projects but also helps to preserve local cultural heritage and building traditions. Artisans' deep knowledge of local construction practices and materials makes them invaluable in promoting sustainable urban development, particularly in regions where environmental degradation and resource depletion are major concerns. By using locally available materials and traditional techniques, artisans help reduce the reliance on imported, resource-intensive materials, thus contributing to more sustainable and resilient urban development. Furthermore, the use of traditional methods often leads to the construction of buildings that are better suited to local climates and environmental conditions, further enhancing the sustainability of these projects (Moll et al., 2019).

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

However, for artisans to maximize their contributions to sustainable urban development, they need to be better integrated into formal urban planning and development processes. Government policies must prioritize the formalization of the artisanal sector, providing artisans with access to formal training, financial support, and legal protections (Hürlimann & March, 2022). In many developing countries, the informal nature of artisanal work means that artisans are excluded from formal labour markets and lack access to benefits such as health insurance, pensions, and job security. This not only limits their potential for economic mobility but also creates challenges for the broader construction industry, as the quality and safety of urban infrastructure are often compromised by the use of informal, unregulated labour (ILO, 2020).

The formalization of the artisanal workforce is a crucial step toward addressing the skill gaps and challenges that limit their contributions to urban development. Governments and development agencies must implement policies that recognize the vital role artisans play in the construction industry and provide them with the necessary support to thrive. For example, training programs that focus on upskilling artisans in modern construction techniques, as well as certification programs that formalize their skills and qualifications, would enhance their ability to participate in large-scale urban projects and improve the overall quality of urban infrastructure (Abiodun & Michael, 2016). Additionally, policies that promote financial inclusion for artisans are essential for supporting their growth and development. Many artisans operate as self-employed individuals or small business owners, without access to loans or financial resources that could help them invest in better tools, materials, and training (ILO, 2020). By providing artisans with access to credit and other financial services, governments can help them improve their productivity and contribute more effectively to urban development projects.

In conclusion, addressing the skill gaps among artisans and providing them with the necessary support to formalize their work are critical steps toward enhancing productivity and ensuring sustainable urban development. By integrating artisans into formal urban planning processes and providing them with access to training, financial resources, and legal protections, governments can harness the full potential of this workforce to drive economic growth and promote sustainable, resilient cities.

Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Underpinnings on Skill Gaps in Urban Development

Urban development requires a wide range of critical skills, particularly in trades such as carpentry, masonry, plumbing, and electrical work. These skills, often provided by artisans, are fundamental to constructing the physical infrastructure of cities. However, the informal nature of artisanal work frequently leads to significant skill gaps that impede the full realization of urban development projects. This situation can be better understood through the lens of Structuralist Theory and Legalist Theory, both of which highlight the complexities within informal labour markets and the challenges artisans face in contributing to formal urban development. Structuralist Theory offers a lens for understanding the duality of the labour market, where informal workers, like artisans, exist alongside formal professionals but operate under different conditions. In many developing countries, artisans constitute a significant portion of the workforce in the construction sector, but they are marginalized by the formal economy (Ugorji, 2019). Their skills, while valuable, are often not recognized or certified by formal institutions, leading to a disconnect between their contributions and their ability to access resources, training, and formal recognition. This marginalization creates a structural barrier that prevents artisans from upskilling or fully integrating into large-scale urban development projects.

Artisans typically acquire their skills informally through apprenticeships or hands-on experience rather than through formal education. While this informal system provides practical knowledge, it does not always align with modern construction standards, especially in rapidly urbanizing cities that are adopting new technologies and methods (Etim & Daramola, 2020). For instance, artisans may lack familiarity with sustainable building technologies, prefabrication techniques, or energy-efficient materials, all of which are becoming increasingly important in global urban development. As a result, their productivity is often

limited by their inability to meet these new demands, widening the skill gap between artisans and formally trained professionals. Legalist Theory complements this perspective by examining how informal workers like artisans are excluded from formal regulations, protections, and labour markets. In many developing countries, informal workers are not subject to the same regulations as formal workers, meaning they are often outside the scope of labour laws, safety regulations, and social protections (Webb et al., 2020). This exclusion limits artisans' access to formal training programs, financial resources, and certification processes that could help them improve their skills and productivity. Furthermore, because they are unregulated, artisans are often seen as less reliable or skilled than their formal counterparts, even though they may possess the practical experience necessary for urban development projects. This theoretical framework helps explain why skill gaps persist among artisans. The Structuralist view emphasizes the economic and social structures that marginalize informal workers, while the Legalist perspective highlights the regulatory exclusion that prevents artisans from gaining formal recognition and accessing resources. Together, these theories underscore the need for policies that address both the structural barriers to upskilling and the regulatory frameworks that keep artisans outside the formal economy. Productivity in urban development is influenced by the skill level and efficiency of the labour force, including artisans. Structuralist Theory is particularly relevant here, as it explains how the informal nature of artisanal work limits productivity by creating fragmented and inefficient labour markets. In many cases, artisans operate independently or in small groups, without the organizational structure that characterizes formal construction firms. This lack of structure can lead to inefficiencies, as artisans may not have access to the tools, materials, or training that would allow them to work more efficiently (Ugorji, 2019).

Artisans are often engaged in construction projects because of their affordability and accessibility, particularly in regions where formal contractors are too expensive or unavailable. However, their productivity is frequently hampered by the skill gaps discussed earlier. For example, artisans may rely on traditional building techniques, which, while valuable, may not align with modern construction practices that emphasize speed, cost-effectiveness, and sustainability. Without training in newer methods, such as digital construction tools or sustainable materials, artisans are often unable to contribute to urban development as effectively as their formally trained counterparts (Reinhardt et al., 2020). Improving productivity in urban development requires addressing the structural barriers that keep artisans from accessing modern tools, techniques, and training. Legalist Theory suggests that one way to do this is by formalizing the artisanal sector, bringing artisans into the regulatory framework that governs the construction industry. By providing artisans with formal certification, access to financial resources, and inclusion in labour protections, their productivity could be significantly enhanced (Webb et al., 2020). Formalizing their work would also allow for better coordination with architects, engineers, and urban planners, leading to more efficient and higher-quality urban development projects. In addition to formalization, improving artisans' access to modern tools and technologies is essential for boosting productivity. Training programs that focus on upskilling artisans in areas like energy-efficient building techniques, green construction methods, and digital construction management can help close the gap between informal and formal labour markets (Keogh & Smallwood, 2021). These programs would enable artisans to work more efficiently, reduce waste, and contribute to more sustainable urban development outcomes. Productivity in urban development is closely tied to the ability of artisans to overcome the structural and legal barriers that limit their participation in formal projects. By addressing skill gaps through targeted training and formalization, artisans can play a more productive role in building sustainable, resilient urban environments. The integration of Structuralist and Legalist theories into the analysis of skill gaps and productivity highlights the importance of addressing both economic and regulatory challenges to fully leverage the potential of artisans in urban development.

LITERATURE REVIEW**The Role of Artisans in Urban Development**

Artisans play a pivotal role in urban development, not only through their contributions to physical construction but also through their deep-rooted involvement in the socio-economic fabric of their communities. In many developing regions, particularly in Africa and Asia, the artisanal sector serves as a major source of employment, and its socio-economic contributions are substantial. Socio-economic mobility is one of the key contributions that artisans make to urban development. For many individuals, entering the artisanal workforce offers a pathway out of poverty. Becoming an artisan typically requires learning through apprenticeships or family trade, which provides individuals, especially those in marginalized or rural communities, with skills that are highly valued in both informal and formal labour markets (ILO, 2020). These skills provide artisans with relatively stable employment in an economy where formal job opportunities are often limited. Artisans involved in carpentry, masonry, plumbing, or electrical work can build sustainable livelihoods through their expertise, contributing to their economic advancement as well as that of their communities.

Moreover, artisans create opportunities for entrepreneurship and small business development. In many cases, artisans work as independent contractors, operating small, informal businesses or micro-enterprises that service local communities. These enterprises often rely on local networks of clients, suppliers, and labourers, creating a self-sustaining cycle of economic activity within the community. The ability to start and grow a small business empowers artisans to not only improve their own socio-economic standing but also to create jobs for others within their community. This entrepreneurial spirit is a key driver of local economic development, especially in regions where larger firms are absent, and the construction industry is predominantly driven by informal labour (Webb et al., 2020).

The role of artisans extends beyond individual economic gain and includes community integration and resilience. Artisans are often central figures within their local communities, providing essential services such as building homes, schools, markets, and other infrastructure. Their work is crucial in developing the social fabric of urban environments, as it enables the creation of spaces where people live, work, and interact. Furthermore, artisans are often involved in community-based projects, such as constructing places of worship, community centers, or local roads, which reinforces their ties to the community and contributes to local cohesion. This integration of artisans within their communities fosters a sense of ownership and pride in the built environment, as the structures they create are closely linked to the community's social and cultural identity (Moll et al., 2019).

A significant socio-economic aspect of artisanship is the informal transfer of skills through apprenticeship systems. Artisans are responsible for training future generations, passing down not only technical skills but also knowledge of local materials, cultural building techniques, and problem-solving skills that are tailored to the local environment. Apprenticeships are a vital component of the artisanal workforce, ensuring that skills are preserved and adapted over time. This informal education system helps maintain a continuous labor force capable of supporting urban development needs. It also ensures the economic mobility of apprentices, who can later enter the workforce as independent artisans or skilled labourers (Etim & Daramola, 2020).

In addition, artisans contribute to local economic resilience by using materials sourced from nearby areas and employing labourers from within the community. This local sourcing helps keep money circulating within the economy, fostering economic resilience. Artisans often form small cooperatives or networks that allow them to share resources, collaborate on larger projects, and leverage their collective bargaining power when negotiating with suppliers or clients. This collective approach to labor and business further strengthens their position within the local economy, enabling them to take on more significant projects and employ more people (Reinhardt et al., 2020). Thus, artisans are not only builders but also key drivers of

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

local socio-economic development. Their work enables upward socio-economic mobility, fosters community integration, and sustains local economies through entrepreneurial activity and labor networks. In regions where the formal economy is underdeveloped, the contributions of artisans are essential for maintaining the socio-economic stability of urban areas.

In addition to their socio-economic contributions, artisans play a crucial role in promoting environmental sustainability in urban development. The construction industry is a major contributor to environmental degradation, with the production and transportation of building materials, energy consumption during construction, and waste generation contributing significantly to global environmental challenges. However, artisans, through their reliance on local materials and traditional construction methods, offer sustainable alternatives that align with global efforts to mitigate the environmental impacts of urban development.

One of the most significant contributions that artisans make to sustainability is their use of locally sourced, eco-friendly materials. Unlike large construction firms that may rely on imported, industrial materials such as concrete, steel, and glass, artisans often work with natural materials that are abundant and sustainable within their local environments (Speecke, 2022). Materials such as clay, mud, bamboo, stone, and reclaimed wood have long been used in traditional construction practices across many regions of the Global South. These materials are not only less harmful to the environment but also culturally significant, as they are embedded in the architectural heritage of local communities. The use of these materials reduces the carbon footprint of construction projects, as they require less energy to produce and transport compared to industrial materials (Moll et al., 2019).

Traditional construction methods employed by artisans are another important factor in their contribution to environmental sustainability. Many of these methods have been developed over generations to be well-suited to the local climate and environmental conditions. For instance, in regions with hot climates, artisans may use thick walls made from mud or adobe, which provide natural insulation and reduce the need for artificial cooling systems. Similarly, in regions prone to flooding, traditional elevated construction techniques help protect homes from water damage. These building practices, which prioritize local environmental conditions, align with modern sustainability principles and are often more adaptable to the effects of climate change (Etim & Daramola, 2020).

Artisans also contribute to resource efficiency in construction. In contrast to industrial construction methods, which often generate significant waste, artisanal practices tend to be more resource-efficient. Artisans typically work on smaller-scale projects, using only the materials that are needed for the task at hand. Additionally, because they are working with natural, locally sourced materials, the waste generated by artisanal construction is often biodegradable or recyclable, further reducing the environmental impact. This focus on resource efficiency not only supports environmental sustainability but also aligns with the principles of circular economy, where resources are reused and recycled rather than discarded (Zhang et al., 2021).

In the context of urban planning, artisans play an essential role in cultural preservation. The structures built by artisans often reflect the cultural and historical identity of the communities in which they are located. In many cases, traditional construction methods and materials are used to maintain the aesthetic and cultural integrity of neighborhoods, even as cities expand and modernize. By preserving these cultural elements, artisans contribute to the creation of urban spaces that are not only environmentally sustainable but also culturally rich and historically significant (Moll et al., 2019). This cultural continuity is vital in maintaining a sense of identity and place in urban environments that are rapidly transforming under the pressures of modernization and urbanization.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

The adaptive nature of artisanal practices makes them highly suited to promoting urban resilience in the face of environmental challenges. As cities around the world face increasing threats from climate change—such as rising temperatures, extreme weather events, and flooding—there is a growing need for construction methods that can withstand these challenges. Artisans, with their knowledge of local materials and techniques, are well-positioned to contribute to the development of resilient urban infrastructure. For example, by building homes that are designed to resist floods or by using materials that can withstand high temperatures, artisans can help create urban environments that are better prepared for the effects of climate change (Oladimeji, 2022).

Artisans are key players in promoting sustainability in urban development. Through their use of local materials, reliance on traditional construction methods, and contributions to cultural preservation, they offer environmentally sustainable alternatives to modern industrial construction practices. Their work not only supports the development of resilient, eco-friendly urban infrastructure but also helps maintain the cultural and historical identity of the communities in which they work. By integrating artisans into formal urban planning and development processes, cities can build more sustainable, culturally rich, and resilient environments for future generations.

Actors Affecting Artisan Productivity and Development

Training and apprenticeship programs, both formal and informal, are crucial to the development of artisans' skills and the enhancement of their productivity in urban development projects. These programs offer artisans the technical knowledge and practical experience necessary to perform complex tasks in construction, masonry, carpentry, plumbing, and other vital trades within the urban environment. The traditional apprenticeship system has long been the primary mode of skill acquisition for artisans, especially in developing countries where formal education opportunities are limited (Etim & Daramola, 2020). Informal apprenticeship programs are the most common pathway through which artisans acquire their skills. In this system, young apprentices work alongside master craftsmen, learning their trade through observation, hands-on practice, and mentorship. This model of training is particularly valuable in regions where access to formal education is scarce or expensive. The apprenticeship system not only provides apprentices with practical skills but also serves as a form of social mobility, enabling them to enter the workforce and potentially start their businesses after completing their training. Moreover, informal apprenticeship systems are deeply embedded in local cultures and economies, making them accessible to a large portion of the population, especially those from lower-income households (Afolabi & Ojelabi, 2018).

However, while the informal apprenticeship model has many advantages, it also has significant limitations. The skills taught in these programs are often limited to traditional techniques, which may not be sufficient to meet the demands of modern urban development projects. For example, artisans trained in informal systems may not be exposed to new construction technologies, sustainable building materials, or advanced safety protocols, all of which are increasingly important in today's construction industry (Reinhardt et al., 2020). This gap between traditional knowledge and modern demands creates challenges for artisans when they attempt to transition from informal, small-scale projects to larger, more complex urban development initiatives. In contrast, formal training programs such as vocational schools or government-sponsored technical education centres offer a more structured and comprehensive approach to artisan training. These programs typically provide artisans with formal certification, which can enhance their employability and allow them to take on larger projects that require adherence to specific industry standards. Formal training also exposes artisans to modern construction techniques, tools, and materials, as well as health and safety regulations, all of which contribute to improved productivity and quality of work (Keogh & Smallwood, 2021).

Despite the potential benefits of formal training, access to these programs remains limited for many artisans, particularly in rural or low-income areas. The cost of enrolment, geographic barriers, and the need to

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

support oneself financially during the training period often make formal education unattainable for many aspiring artisans (ILO, 2020). Additionally, formal training programs may not always be tailored to the specific needs of local industries or the socio-economic context in which artisans operate, further reducing their effectiveness. As a result, many artisans continue to rely on informal apprenticeships, which provide immediate employment opportunities but may limit long-term productivity and growth potential.

While artisans contribute significantly to urban development, they face numerous challenges that hinder their productivity and limit their growth potential. These barriers are primarily related to access to modern tools and technologies, limited financial resources, and insufficient formal recognition. One of the most pressing challenges facing artisans is the lack of access to modern tools and technologies. Many artisans, particularly those operating in the informal sector, work with outdated tools that are less efficient and require more time and labour to complete tasks. For example, while modern construction firms may use advanced machinery and digital tools like Building Information Modelling (BIM) to streamline project management and improve accuracy, artisans often lack the resources or training to utilize such technologies (Reinhardt et al., 2020). This technological gap significantly reduces artisans' productivity, as they are unable to complete projects as quickly or efficiently as their formally trained counterparts. Moreover, without access to modern tools, artisans may struggle to meet the quality standards required for larger, more complex urban development projects.

In addition to the technological barriers, artisans also face significant financial challenges. Most artisans operate as small-scale, independent contractors or as part of informal networks, which limits their access to financial services such as loans or credit. Without sufficient capital, artisans are unable to invest in the tools, materials, or training necessary to expand their businesses or improve their productivity (ILO, 2020). This lack of financial support also makes it difficult for artisans to weather economic downturns or fluctuations in demand, further limiting their ability to grow or adapt to changing market conditions. Furthermore, without formal financial backing, artisans are often excluded from large-scale urban development projects, as they are perceived as higher-risk contractors compared to larger, more established firms.

Another significant barrier to artisan development is the lack of formal recognition for their skills. Because many artisans acquire their skills through informal apprenticeships rather than formal education, they are often not certified or licensed by regulatory bodies. This lack of formal recognition limits their ability to participate in official urban development projects, as many clients and contractors require proof of certification before hiring artisans for large-scale work. Moreover, without formal recognition, artisans are often excluded from professional networks and associations that could provide them with opportunities for collaboration, training, or advocacy (Boateng, 2020). This exclusion not only limits their economic opportunities but also reinforces their marginalization within the construction industry.

The informal nature of artisanal work further exacerbates these challenges. Artisans who operate outside of formal regulatory frameworks are often not protected by labor laws, health and safety regulations, or social protections such as pensions or health insurance. This lack of regulation not only puts artisans at risk of exploitation but also undermines their long-term sustainability and productivity (Oladimeji, 2022). Without access to legal protections or social safety nets, artisans may be forced to accept lower wages, work under unsafe conditions, or abandon their trade altogether in the face of financial hardship or injury.

While artisans are essential to the success of urban development projects, they face numerous challenges that hinder their productivity and limit their growth potential. Addressing these challenges will require targeted interventions, such as improving access to formal training programs, providing financial support for artisans, and implementing policies that recognize and protect the contributions of the informal workforce. By addressing these barriers, cities can unlock the full potential of artisans, enhancing their productivity and ensuring their continued role in building sustainable, resilient urban environments.

Skill Gaps and Potential Interventions*Government and Institutional Interventions*

Addressing the skill gaps that artisans face in urban development requires a coordinated effort from governments, academic institutions, and urban planners. Each of these actors plays a vital role in developing and implementing policies, programs, and reforms that can help artisans enhance their skills, improve their productivity, and better integrate into formal urban development processes. Governments play a crucial role in addressing skill gaps by creating an enabling environment that supports artisanal training and development. One of the key areas where government intervention is needed is in the formulation and implementation of policy reforms that recognize the importance of the artisanal workforce in urban development. Many governments, particularly in developing countries, have historically neglected the artisanal sector, leaving it largely unregulated and unsupported. To bridge this gap, governments can implement policies that formalize the artisanal workforce, providing artisans with access to training programs, certification, and financial support (ILO, 2020).

A critical government intervention could be the establishment of vocational training centres specifically designed for artisans. These centres would offer training programs that combine traditional skills with modern construction techniques, enabling artisans to meet the demands of contemporary urban development projects. Governments can also partner with international development agencies, NGOs, and private sector organizations to fund these training programs, ensuring that they are accessible to a broad range of artisans, particularly those from disadvantaged or rural communities (Afolabi & Ojelabi, 2018).

Moreover, governments can play a role in creating regulatory frameworks that standardize artisanal training and certification. By developing a national certification system for artisans, governments can ensure that artisans' skills are formally recognized, allowing them to participate in larger, formal construction projects that require proof of competence. Such certifications would not only enhance artisans' employability but also improve the overall quality and safety of urban development projects by ensuring that all workers meet minimum skill standards (Reinhardt et al., 2020).

Urban planners are another important group of stakeholders who can contribute to addressing skill gaps among artisans. Planners are often involved in the design and execution of urban development projects, and they are in a position to advocate for the inclusion of artisans in these projects. Urban planners can help create pathways for artisans to participate in formal development processes by ensuring that urban planning policies and building codes accommodate the skills and practices of the artisanal workforce. For example, planners can work with local governments to develop inclusive urban development policies that promote the use of local labor and materials, thus creating more opportunities for artisans to contribute to urban growth (Etim & Daramola, 2020).

Academic institutions also have a critical role to play in bridging the skill gap for artisans. Universities and technical institutes can design training curricula that integrate both traditional artisanal practices and modern construction technologies. These institutions can offer programs that provide artisans with formal education in areas such as project management, sustainable construction, and new building technologies. Academic institutions can also research the challenges and opportunities faced by artisans, providing valuable data that can inform government policy and training program development (Keogh & Smallwood, 2021).

Furthermore, partnerships between academic institutions and the private sector can facilitate the development of workforce development programs that provide on-the-job training for artisans. By working with construction firms, housing developers, and other industry stakeholders, academic institutions can ensure that artisans receive practical training that is directly applicable to real-world projects. These

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

collaborations can also help artisans gain exposure to modern tools and technologies, which are increasingly required in today's construction industry.

Technology and Innovation

As urban development becomes more complex and technologically advanced, artisans must adapt to new tools and methods to remain competitive. Integrating technology and innovation into artisanal work is a critical intervention that can enhance productivity, improve project quality, and enable artisans to participate in more sophisticated urban development projects. The rise of Construction 4.0—a term used to describe the digitization and automation of construction processes—presents both opportunities and challenges for the artisanal workforce (Reinhardt et al., 2020).

Construction 4.0 includes innovations such as Building Information Modeling (BIM), prefabrication, 3D printing, and drones, all of which are transforming how urban development projects are designed, managed, and executed. These technologies offer significant benefits in terms of efficiency, accuracy, and cost-effectiveness, but they also require a higher level of technical proficiency than traditional artisanal methods. For artisans to take advantage of these technologies, they must be trained in their use and understand how to integrate them into their work.

One of the key ways to facilitate this transition is through training programs that focus on digital literacy and the use of construction technologies. Governments, academic institutions, and the private sector can collaborate to develop programs that teach artisans how to use digital tools such as BIM, which allows for more precise project planning and coordination. By learning how to work with digital blueprints and project management software, artisans can improve the quality of their work and increase their productivity (Keogh & Smallwood, 2021). Additionally, the integration of prefabrication techniques into artisanal work has the potential to revolutionize the construction process. Prefabrication involves assembling building components off-site and then transporting them to the construction site for final assembly. This method reduces construction time, lowers costs, and minimizes material waste. Artisans trained in prefabrication can play a crucial role in urban development projects that prioritize speed and efficiency, particularly in fast-growing cities where housing and infrastructure demand is high (ILO, 2020).

3D printing technology is another area where artisans can benefit from technological innovation. In the construction industry, 3D printing can be used to create complex architectural elements, reducing the need for manual labor and improving precision. Artisans who are trained in 3D printing can expand their skill set to include the design and production of custom-building components, which can be used in both traditional and modern construction projects (Reinhardt et al., 2020). This technology not only enhances productivity but also opens up new opportunities for artisans to contribute to innovative, sustainable urban development projects. Finally, drones are increasingly being used in construction for site surveying, project monitoring, and quality control. Artisans who learn how to operate drones can improve their ability to manage large-scale projects, as drones provide a more efficient way to assess progress and identify potential issues on construction sites. By incorporating these technologies into their work, artisans can enhance their productivity, reduce errors, and ensure that projects are completed on time and within budget (Afolabi & Ojelabi, 2018).

Addressing the skill gaps faced by artisans requires a multifaceted approach that includes government policy reforms, academic and vocational training, and the integration of technology into artisanal work. By investing in training programs that teach artisans how to use modern construction technologies and by creating inclusive policies that recognize the value of artisanal labour, governments, urban planners, and academic institutions can help artisans adapt to the changing demands of urban development. These interventions will not only enhance the productivity of artisans but also contribute to more sustainable, efficient, and innovative urban environments.

The Future of Artisanal Contributions to Sustainable Urban Development

The future of urban development is heavily dependent on the effective integration of sustainable practices, and artisans will continue to play a vital role in this transition. As cities grow, the demand for housing, infrastructure, and services increases, which presents significant challenges related to resource use, environmental impact, and community development. Artisans, with their knowledge of local materials and construction techniques, offer an essential contribution to addressing these challenges. By addressing the existing skill gaps and enhancing artisan productivity, the long-term benefits for urban development are profound, ranging from more sustainable buildings to stronger local economies and improved urban infrastructure.

Sustainable buildings are one of the most tangible outcomes of improving artisanal skills and productivity. When artisans are equipped with modern tools and trained in sustainable building practices, they are better able to design and construct buildings that meet contemporary environmental standards. Sustainable construction focuses on energy efficiency, the use of eco-friendly materials, and minimizing waste—all areas where artisans can excel if given the proper support and training (Keogh & Smallwood, 2021). For example, artisans trained in green building techniques can contribute to the construction of homes that use less energy for heating and cooling, or that incorporate rainwater harvesting and renewable energy systems. This not only reduces the environmental impact of urban development but also lowers operational costs for homeowners and city planners, making sustainable development both economically and environmentally viable.

Moreover, improving the skills of artisans enhances their capacity to contribute to the cultural and social sustainability of urban environments. Artisans who are proficient in traditional building techniques, combined with modern sustainable practices, can create buildings that reflect the local cultural heritage while meeting the demands of modern urbanization. This fusion of traditional and contemporary methods helps preserve the unique character of cities, fostering a sense of community and place that is essential for social cohesion (Etim & Daramola, 2020). Furthermore, sustainable artisanal practices ensure that urban spaces are developed in ways that respect the local environment, contributing to the long-term resilience of cities in the face of climate change and other environmental challenges.

Another significant long-term benefit is the contribution of artisans to vibrant local economies. As artisans improve their skills and become more productive, they can take on more complex and higher-paying projects, which in turn stimulates local economic activity. By sourcing materials locally and employing local labor, artisans help keep wealth within the community, fostering economic resilience and reducing dependence on external resources. Moreover, by addressing skill gaps and improving productivity, artisans can expand their businesses, hire more workers, and contribute to job creation in their communities. This, in turn, leads to a more dynamic local economy that can better support the growing needs of an urbanizing population (ILO, 2020).

The improvement of urban infrastructure is another critical long-term benefit of closing skill gaps among artisans. Infrastructure development—such as roads, bridges, public buildings, and utility networks—requires a skilled workforce that can deliver high-quality, durable structures. When artisans are trained in modern infrastructure development techniques, they can contribute more effectively to the construction and maintenance of these vital systems. Additionally, by incorporating sustainable practices into infrastructure projects, artisans can help create infrastructure that is more resilient to environmental stresses, such as extreme weather events or resource scarcity (Reinhardt et al., 2020). As cities face increasing pressure to develop in ways that are sustainable and adaptable to climate change, the role of artisans in building resilient infrastructure will become even more important.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

In the long term, addressing the skill gaps and enhancing the productivity of artisans is not just about improving individual livelihoods—it's about creating more sustainable, resilient, and inclusive cities. Artisans are an integral part of the urban fabric, and their contributions to sustainable development are essential for meeting the environmental, economic, and social challenges of the 21st century. By investing in artisanal training, formal recognition, and technological integration, cities can harness the full potential of this workforce, leading to better development outcomes for all.

CONCLUSION

Artisans play a crucial role in the sustainable development of urban areas, contributing significantly to the construction of buildings, infrastructure, and the local economy. Despite the importance of their work, artisans face numerous challenges, including skill gaps, lack of access to modern tools, and insufficient formal recognition. These challenges limit their productivity and ability to contribute fully to modern urban development projects. However, by addressing these skill gaps through government interventions, formal training programs, and the integration of technology, artisans can improve their productivity and contribute more effectively to sustainable urban development.

The key points discussed in this paper underscore the critical role that artisans play in bridging skill gaps and enhancing productivity within the urban development sector. Artisans are uniquely positioned to integrate traditional construction methods with modern, sustainable practices, creating buildings and infrastructure that are both environmentally friendly and culturally significant. Their contributions to local economies through employment and the use of local materials further highlight their importance in building resilient, self-sustaining communities.

The future of urban development depends on creating inclusive policies that support and formalize the artisanal workforce. Governments, urban planners, and academic institutions must work together to provide artisans with access to training, financial resources, and modern technologies. By doing so, cities can ensure that artisans continue to contribute to the creation of sustainable, vibrant, and resilient urban spaces. Ultimately, addressing the skill gaps and enhancing the productivity of artisans will lead to better development outcomes for cities, including more sustainable buildings, improved infrastructure, and stronger local economies. This comprehensive approach to artisanal development will not only benefit individual artisans but will also contribute to the broader goals of sustainable and inclusive urban growth.

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Chapter Thirty-Eight**Theoretical and Conceptual Perspectives on the Awareness and Perception of Urban and Regional Planning Among Students in Owerri Municipal*****Simeon Chidera Amanfo¹; Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke^{1,2}****¹Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria.**²School of Architecture and Planning, University of the Witwatersrand, South Africa.**EMAIL: simisimeon@yahoo.com***ABSTRACT**

The awareness and perception of Urban and Regional Planning (URP) as a career choice among students are critical factors influencing their decision to pursue this field. This paper explores the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that shed light on these factors, using Career Awareness Theory and Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) to understand how educational, familial, and societal inputs shape student perceptions and career choices. The research focuses particularly on students in Owerri Municipal, an area facing significant urban development challenges that require professional planning intervention. The study reviews existing literature on the awareness and perception of urban planning globally and within Nigeria, highlighting gaps in current knowledge, particularly in the context of Owerri Municipal. Theoretical insights suggest that enhancing curriculum offerings, improving career guidance, and fostering partnerships between educational institutions and urban planning professionals could significantly influence student interest in Urban and Regional Planning. The paper proposes several policy recommendations aimed at increasing the visibility and attractiveness of urban planning as a career. These include integrating urban planning topics into secondary education, developing targeted career guidance programs, and leveraging media to reshape societal perceptions of the field. Future research directions are recommended, focusing on longitudinal studies to track the effectiveness of educational interventions and comparative studies to understand regional differences in career perception. This synthesis of theoretical frameworks, literature review, and policy analysis aims to contribute to a better understanding of the factors influencing urban planning education and career choices, thereby supporting efforts to attract more students to the profession in regions where they are most needed.

KEYWORDS: Career Awareness; Social Cognitive; Owerri; Students; Urban planning**INTRODUCTION**

Urban and Regional Planning (URP) is crucial for the sustainable development and effective management of urban spaces, particularly in developing regions like Owerri Municipal, where rapid urbanization presents significant challenges. This discipline encompasses a wide range of functions, including infrastructure development, housing, transportation, and environmental sustainability, making urban planners pivotal in ensuring cities are livable, resilient, and efficient. Despite its significance, there remains a notable gap in the awareness and interest among the youth, particularly in Nigeria, where urban planning is often overshadowed by more traditional professions (Balogun & Nnaka, 2017).

Owerri Municipal, the capital of Imo State, serves as a prime example of the urban challenges prevalent in many Nigerian cities, such as inadequate housing, poor infrastructure, and uncontrolled urban sprawl. These issues underscore the need for proficient urban planning and management (Nigerian Urban Planning Journal, 2020). However, there is a noticeable disconnect between the critical role urban planners play and the perception of URP as a viable career path among students. Data from Imo State University reveal a significant decline in student interest in URP courses, reflecting broader disinterest that may stem from a lack of understanding of the profession's potential and the career opportunities it offers (Imo State University Enrolment Reports, 2021). This gap in understanding how students perceive the URP profession

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

in Nigeria is concerning, especially in places like Owerri Municipal, where effective urban planning could greatly enhance the quality of life. Research indicates that despite the escalating urban challenges, the profession of urban planning is often viewed unfavourably compared to fields such as medicine, law, or engineering. This negative perception is partly due to widespread misconceptions about the nature of urban planning work and its impact on community development (Fosudo, 2016).

To address these issues, this paper utilizes theoretical frameworks such as Career Awareness Theory and Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) to explore students' awareness and perceptions of URP in Owerri Municipal. Career Awareness Theory helps us understand how individuals become aware of their career options, while SCCT offers insights into how self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals influence career choices (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). The strategies proposed to enhance the visibility and attractiveness of the urban planning profession among students include integrating urban planning topics into secondary education curricula, organizing career talks and workshops that feature successful urban planners, and developing partnerships between urban planning faculties and city planning departments for practical exposure (National Planning Commission Report, 2019).

Additionally, the paper will propose policy recommendations for educational policymakers and urban planning professionals on how to effectively promote urban planning as a viable and rewarding career choice. These recommendations focus on improving educational content on urban planning, enhancing student exposure to the field, and actively debunking common misconceptions about the profession (Urban Planning Education Initiative, 2022). Ultimately, this paper aims to provide actionable recommendations that bridge the gap between the critical need for urban planners in Nigeria and the current student disinterest. By enhancing understanding of the profession and addressing misconceptions, it contributes to more effective educational strategies and public policies that promote urban planning as a dynamic and impactful career choice, ensuring that cities like Owerri Municipal are equipped with the skilled professionals needed to manage their growth sustainably and effectively (Development Planning Association, 2023).

In conclusion, this study not only fills a crucial research gap but also serves as a foundation for developing interventions that can potentially transform student perceptions of URP, leading to increased enrolment and a more robust urban planning workforce in Nigeria. By doing so, it aims to ensure that urban centres in the country are better prepared to face the challenges of modern urbanization and achieve sustainable development goals (Ministry of Urban Development, 2024).

Conceptualizing Awareness and Perception in Career Choices

To effectively address the topic of conceptualizing awareness and perception in career choices, particularly in the context of Urban and Regional Planning (URP), it is crucial to delve into the definitions of awareness and perception, their impact on career aspirations, and the specific relevance of URP as a career option in Nigeria. Awareness in the context of career selection refers to the degree to which individuals are informed about various career options, their scope, and potential career paths. This encompasses knowledge of the necessary educational requirements, job responsibilities, career progression, and the future demand for certain roles. For urban planning, this means understanding the multidisciplinary nature of the field which includes planning, design, and management of urban spaces (Armstrong & Styring, 2005). Awareness is critical as it forms the foundational step in career planning, influencing the early interest and educational choices that pave the way for future career opportunities.

Perception in career choices pertains to how career options are viewed in terms of prestige, earning potential, job satisfaction, and societal impact. It is shaped by cultural, social, and familial influences and often dictates the attractiveness of a career. In the context of URP, perceptions can be significantly influenced by visible community projects, the public profile of planners, or media representation of the

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

profession. Negative perceptions, such as viewing URP as merely bureaucratic or less impactful compared to careers like medicine or engineering, can deter potential candidates (Scott & Marshall, 2009). Conversely, positive perceptions, reinforced by successful urban interventions and public endorsements, can enhance interest in the field. Urban and Regional Planning plays a pivotal role in shaping cities and communities by determining the layout of cities, the locations of buildings, road systems, and public spaces, and the management of environmental resources. Urban planners are instrumental in designing urban spaces that are functional, aesthetically pleasing, and sustainable. They address issues like urban sprawl, traffic congestion, and the provision of public amenities. The effectiveness of urban planning directly impacts the economic development, environmental sustainability, and overall quality of life in urban areas (Watson, 2009).

In Nigeria, the relevance of Urban and Regional Planning as a career option has grown in importance due to rapid urbanization and the associated challenges it brings. Cities like Lagos and Abuja face issues related to traffic management, waste disposal, and housing shortages, all of which require innovative planning solutions. The Nigerian government has recognized the need for skilled urban planners in its Vision 20:2020 economic development blueprint, which emphasizes the role of effective urban planning in achieving sustainable development (National Planning Commission of Nigeria, 2010). This highlights not only the necessity but also the opportunities for career growth in this field. Furthermore, the expanding job market and the government's investment in urban infrastructure suggest a promising future for aspiring urban planners in Nigeria.

By enhancing awareness and positively influencing perceptions, stakeholders including educational institutions, professional bodies, and media can encourage more students to consider urban planning as a viable and impactful career choice. This shift is crucial for preparing a workforce capable of addressing the complex urban challenges faced by Nigerian cities today and in the future.

THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

Exploring the theoretical frameworks that elucidate career choice behaviors can significantly enhance our understanding of how students perceive and decide to pursue Urban and Regional Planning (URP) as a career. Two prominent theories in career development literature—Career Awareness Theory and Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT)—provide valuable insights. The Career Awareness Theory posits that the decision to pursue a particular career is strongly influenced by an individual's level of awareness about that career. This includes knowledge of the nature of work, educational requirements, career prospects, and the social and economic rewards associated with the career. The theory suggests that enhanced career awareness can lead to a greater likelihood of choosing that career path (Wise, Charner & Lou, 1976). In the context of URP, applying Career Awareness Theory involves examining how well students in Owerri Municipal are informed about the profession. This includes their knowledge of what urban planners do, the necessary academic qualifications, and the potential career opportunities within the field. The theory can be used to assess whether increased exposure to information about urban planning correlates with a higher interest among students in pursuing it as a career.

Lack of awareness about urban planning is likely to deter students from considering it as a viable career option. For example, if students are unaware of the impactful roles urban planners play in shaping cities and influencing policy, they may gravitate towards more well-known professions like engineering or medicine. Conversely, increasing awareness about the benefits and opportunities within urban planning could enhance student interest and enrollment in related educational programs (Armstrong & Styring, 2005).

The Social Cognitive Career Theory (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002) extends the concepts of Bandura's general social cognitive theory into a framework for understanding career development. It focuses on how

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

individuals form career interests, make choices, and achieve career stability based on three key factors: self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 2002). In the context of Urban and Regional Planning, SCCT can help explain how students' beliefs about their capabilities (self-efficacy), their expectations of the outcomes they would achieve from working in urban planning (outcome expectations), and their career aspirations (personal goals) influence their decision to enter the field. For instance, a student who believes they can complete the necessary education and contribute effectively as an urban planner is more likely to pursue a career in Urban and Regional Planning. Self-efficacy might be influenced by previous successes in related subjects, like geography or environmental science. Positive outcome expectations could be shaped by seeing successful urban planning initiatives that visibly improve community livability. Personal goals might include desires to contribute to societal development or to work in a dynamic, impactful field. Understanding these factors can help educators and policymakers design interventions that enhance these perceptions and thereby attract more students to the field (Bandura, 1986; Lent, 1996).

The theoretical insights gleaned from this study suggest a multifaceted approach to reinvigorating student interest in urban and regional planning. Firstly, educational policies must prioritize the inclusion of URP concepts in the secondary school curriculum. Introducing students to urban planning principles at an earlier age could foster a deeper understanding and appreciation of the field's impact on community well-being and development. Additionally, schools and universities should enhance their collaboration with professional urban planners to organize internships, workshops, and lectures that not only expose students to real-world challenges but also showcase the diverse career paths within the profession. These activities can help bridge the gap between theoretical knowledge and practical application, making the study of urban planning more attractive and relevant to students.

Conceptual Framework: Interaction Between Awareness and Perception

Urban and Regional Planning (URP) is essential for sustainable urban development and effective city management, yet the field often lacks awareness and positive perception among students, particularly in areas experiencing rapid urbanization like Owerri Municipal. Awareness in urban planning involves understanding the multifaceted roles urban planners play, the educational pathways leading to the profession, and potential career opportunities. This foundational knowledge significantly influences how students perceive the profession. Enhanced awareness usually leads to a more favorable view of urban planning, especially when students recognize the profession's impact on enhancing city livability and sustainability (Armstrong & Styring, 2005).

However, societal, familial, and institutional factors significantly influence both awareness and perception. Societal respect for urban planning, demonstrated through public acknowledgment of planners' roles in successful urban projects, can enhance its attractiveness as a career. Additionally, family members who work in or value urban planning can provide insights and encouragement, swaying students' perceptions positively. Conversely, educational institutions often do not sufficiently highlight urban planning in their curricula, contributing to gaps in student awareness and diminishing the field's perceived relevance. This educational shortfall necessitates curriculum reforms that integrate urban planning more thoroughly into related subjects like geography, environmental science, and civics (Watson, 2009).

Misconceptions about urban planning, such as the belief that it offers limited career progression or is merely an extension of architecture, severely impact student perceptions. These stereotypes deter students from considering urban planning as a dynamic and impactful career path. Addressing these misconceptions through targeted informational campaigns and real-world examples of urban planners making significant contributions can help reshape perceptions (Florida, 2002).

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Secondary schools, teachers, and career counselors play pivotal roles in shaping early career awareness. Their ability to provide accurate and engaging information about urban planning can spark interest in the field. Exposing students to practical experiences through field trips to planning departments or guest lectures by practicing urban planners can bridge the gap between theoretical knowledge and practical application (Fisher & Carlton, 2018).

Media portrayals and societal expectations also significantly influence how urban planning is perceived as a career. Positive media coverage of urban planning initiatives and the visibility of planners in addressing urban challenges can enhance the profession's prestige and desirability. Economic opportunities, particularly in rapidly urbanizing regions, also play a crucial role. As cities expand and the complexity of urban challenges increases, the demand for skilled urban planners rises, presenting substantial career opportunities (Porter, 2020).

To attract more students to Urban and Regional Planning, stakeholders must engage in a multifaceted approach that addresses educational gaps, challenges misconceptions, and leverages media and societal influences to enhance the visibility and attractiveness of the profession. This effort will ensure a well-prepared workforce ready to tackle the pressing urban challenges of tomorrow.

APPRAISAL OF EXISTING STUDIES

The academic discourse surrounding the awareness and perception of Urban and Regional Planning (URP) as a career choice has been extensive, encompassing both global perspectives and specific regional insights. An appraisal of existing studies offers a nuanced understanding of how students, particularly in regions like Owerri Municipal, view and decide to pursue careers in urban planning. The literature on URP often highlights the role of urban planners in shaping sustainable cities and communities but suggests that awareness among potential students could be significantly improved. Studies by Armstrong and Styring (2005) emphasize that while urban planning is crucial for city development, it is not perceived as a mainstream career choice by many students, largely due to a lack of exposure and understanding. Globally, the profession is often overshadowed by more established fields such as engineering and medicine, which are perceived to offer better job security and prestige. A study by Watson (2009) pointed out that the rapid urbanization facing African cities requires a substantial increase in professional urban planners.

However, there remains a significant gap between the number of professionals needed and the students entering the field. This shortfall is partly due to the perception of urban planning as a less lucrative and less respected profession. Comparative studies, such as those by Florida (2002), show that in other regions, such as North America and parts of Europe, urban planning is increasingly viewed as a dynamic field linked to creative city-making and innovation, attracting more students due to a stronger emphasis on its role in addressing complex urban challenges. In the context of Owerri Municipal, there are evident gaps in the knowledge and understanding of urban planning as a career path. This region faces unique challenges such as managing rapid urban sprawl, infrastructural deficits, and ensuring sustainable development. Despite these pressing needs, there is a lack of targeted educational programs and initiatives to promote urban planning as a viable and rewarding career. The studies by Landman (2016) and others suggest that enhancing curriculum offerings at secondary and tertiary levels, coupled with public awareness campaigns, could bridge this knowledge gap. Moreover, there is a paucity of research focusing specifically on the perceptions of urban planning among the youth in Owerri. This gap in the literature highlights the need for localized studies that investigate the specific barriers, opportunities, and misconceptions about urban planning in the region. Such research could provide valuable insights for policymakers, educators, and professional bodies aiming to promote urban planning more effectively.

While there is considerable literature on the awareness and perception of urban planning as a career, significant gaps remain, particularly in understanding how these factors play out in specific regional

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

contexts like Owerri Municipal. The need for more localized research and practical interventions is clear if urban planning is to be promoted as a key profession critical to managing the urbanization challenges of the future. Addressing these gaps will not only enhance the profile and attractiveness of the urban planning profession but also ensure that cities have the necessary human capital to face future urban challenges effectively.

Theoretical Implications for Urban Planning Education and Practice

The exploration of career awareness and perception within Urban and Regional Planning (URP) has significant theoretical implications for both education and practice, offering directions for future research and policy implementation. By applying theories like the Career Awareness Theory and Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT), we gain valuable insights into how we might enhance the perception and appeal of URP among students, and thus influence educational frameworks and policy-making.

The application of Career Awareness Theory provides an understanding that raising awareness about URP as a career must start early in the educational journey. This involves integrating urban planning concepts into the curriculum at various educational levels, from primary through secondary education, to expose students to the field before they make crucial career decisions. By embedding urban planning projects and topics into subjects such as geography, environmental science, and social studies, educators can spark interest and provide a realistic view of what urban planners do, thus broadening students' awareness and understanding of the profession's impact and relevance (Armstrong & Styring, 2005).

The insights from SCCT suggest that enhancing curriculum and career guidance can significantly influence students' self-efficacy and outcome expectations regarding a career in urban planning. By offering courses that not only teach theoretical aspects of urban planning but also involve students in practical, real-world problem-solving, educational institutions can help students form a more positive perception of the career's impact and viability. Additionally, involving professional urban planners in career talks and mentorship programs can provide students with role models and real-life success stories, which are crucial in shaping their career aspirations (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002).

Conceptual and theoretical frameworks like those discussed provide a robust basis for developing policies aimed at increasing the awareness of urban planning as a viable career option in Nigeria. Policy-makers can use these theoretical insights to craft initiatives that address both the educational and professional exposure needed to attract more students to the field. For example, policies could mandate the inclusion of urban planning topics in secondary school curricula or provide funding for urban planning clubs or competitions that encourage student participation and interest from an early age.

A key policy recommendation is for government and educational authorities to actively engage with both secondary schools and higher education institutions to raise awareness of urban planning. This can be achieved by developing partnerships with universities and professional planning bodies to deliver workshops, seminars, and career fairs that highlight the importance and attractiveness of urban planning careers. Encouraging institutions to adopt interdisciplinary approaches that include urban planning in courses related to environmental policy, architecture, and public administration can also broaden students' exposure to the field (Watson, 2009).

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Looking forward, research should continue to explore the specific barriers and facilitators to pursuing careers in urban planning within various cultural and economic contexts, especially in rapidly urbanizing nations like Nigeria. Future studies could focus on evaluating the effectiveness of different interventions aimed at increasing awareness and improving perceptions of the urban planning profession. Additionally,

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

longitudinal studies could track changes in perceptions over time, providing data that could further refine educational strategies and policies.

Parallel to educational reforms, there should be a concerted effort to launch public awareness campaigns that highlight the significance of urban planning in everyday life. These campaigns can utilize various media platforms to tell success stories of urban planning initiatives that have positively transformed communities. By changing the public narrative around urban planning, these campaigns can elevate the profession's status and appeal to a broader audience, particularly among the youth.

Urban planning professionals should be encouraged to engage more actively with their communities and to participate in policy dialogues that impact urban development. By positioning themselves as key players in addressing urban challenges, urban planners can enhance public perception of their profession and inspire more students to consider it as a career. Professional bodies can support this by advocating for policies that recognize and leverage the expertise of urban planners in all aspects of urban development.

Further research is needed to continuously update and adapt urban planning education to reflect the evolving challenges of urban environments. This includes integrating new technologies and innovative planning techniques into the curriculum, which can make the field more dynamic and appealing to tech-savvy youth. Additionally, research institutions can partner with urban planners to conduct studies that demonstrate the impact of well-planned urban policies on economic growth and quality of life, thereby reinforcing the value of the profession.

CONCLUSION

The exploration of awareness and perception of Urban and Regional Planning (URP) as a career among students provides critical insights into the factors influencing their career choices. Drawing from theories such as the Career Awareness Theory and Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT), we've identified how educational institutions, societal perceptions, and personal beliefs shape student interest and engagement with urban planning. To enhance the appeal of urban planning as a viable career option, educational institutions must integrate urban planning concepts broadly across their curricula. Starting from an early age, subjects like geography, environmental science, and social studies can incorporate urban planning topics, demonstrating its relevance to everyday life and societal development. Furthermore, schools and universities should foster partnerships with urban planning professionals to offer practical workshops, guest lectures, and internship opportunities. These interactions provide practical insights into the field, connecting theoretical learning with real-world applications.

Career guidance programs specifically tailored to urban planning can also play a pivotal role. By clearly outlining the diverse roles urban planners play, the potential impacts they can have, and the career opportunities available within the field, students can gain a more comprehensive understanding of the profession. Additionally, promoting interdisciplinary learning that ties urban planning with technology, public policy, and architecture can make the field more attractive to students with varied interests and backgrounds. Looking ahead, future research should focus on longitudinal studies to track how educational strategies affect students' career choices in urban planning over time. Comparative studies across different cultural and economic contexts are also crucial, as they can help tailor educational and policy interventions to meet specific regional needs. Evaluating the effectiveness of policy interventions aimed at increasing the awareness and attractiveness of urban planning is essential for determining the success of these initiatives.

Moreover, exploring the integration of emerging technologies such as GIS, urban informatics, and simulation software into urban planning education could attract tech-savvy students and enhance educational outcomes. Such technological integration can make urban planning more accessible and engaging, aligning with modern educational trends and student interests. In conclusion, while significant

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strides have been made in understanding the dynamics influencing urban planning career choices, ongoing efforts to enhance the field's visibility and appeal are vital. Through comprehensive educational strategies, strong professional partnerships, and informed policy-making, we can ensure that the next generation of urban planners is well-equipped to address the complex challenges of urbanization and contribute effectively to sustainable city development. These efforts will not only elevate the profession of urban planning but also ensure that it remains relevant and respected in the face of evolving global challenges.

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Chapter Thirty-Nine**Analyses of Domestic Water Demand and Supply in Okigwe Town, Imo State*****Tessiana O. Ukah¹; Emmanuella C. Onyenechere²***¹*Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Federal University of Technology, Owerri, Nigeria.*²*Department of Geography & Environmental Management, Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria.*EMAIL: ogochukwutessiana@gmail.com**ABSTRACT**

The demand for water supplies is continuously increasing, numerous researchers have emphasized on water demand management rather than the supply side management. The aim of this study was to analyse domestic water demand and supply in Okigwe town, for water provision planning in Imo state. The study adopted a survey method, sample size of 400 respondents was selected from a population of 182,700 through random sampling technique. The study population was further divided into smaller subgroups, and then 50 copies of questionnaire were administered on each of the eight communities (Umuokpara, Ope, Umueze, Umuzegem, Umuchima, Umunaga, Umuka and Umurigo) that make up the study area. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used in the analysis of data from field work. Firstly, the result of the Chi-squared analysis showed that there is significant association between sources of water supply and methods of water distribution to households in Okigwe town. Secondly, the result of the Analysis of Variance showed that there were statistically significant variations in the quantity of water supply to households in the eight neighbourhoods of Okigwe town. Thirdly, based on the result of the Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficient, the null hypothesis was rejected since most of the correlation coefficients in the test were statistically significant at Alpha level below .05. This implies that there were significant relationships amongst the challenges limiting water supply in Okigwe town. Lastly, based on the study results of the Kendell's tau correlation coefficient, the null hypothesis (H01) was rejected since the calculated significant level of most of the correlations was less than .05, the Alpha level. This implies that there are significant relationships between water use practices within households in Okigwe town. Based on the results above, the study recommends that sensitization on Sustainable Urban and Rural Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene (SURWASH) should be properly emphasized on, provision of water should not be free, just like the payment for electricity, payment for water will encourage consistency in the provision and management in small towns within Imo State and Nigeria as a whole.

KEYWORDS: Water demand; Water supply; Water management; Okigwe**INTRODUCTION**

Water is essential to life and its supply, consumption and spatial distribution are closely associated with economic growth and the development of society. Next to air, water is indispensable to life. It is a foundation for human prosperity because adequate and high-quality water supply provides a basis for the growth and development of people (Folke, Polasky, Rockström, Galaz, Westley, Lamont & Walker, 2021). The importance of water to man cannot be overemphasized; it holds the most important benefit to man's sustenance beside shelter, food and clothing (Ene, 2021). According to Sedlak (2014), it is recognized all over the world that water is a vital resource to human existence and that it is a major factor in commanding the progress of civilization.

Access to water is one of the pressing global issues of the 21st century. As our global population grows and becomes wealthier, the demand for water and water use greatly increases. A world-wide water crisis does not necessarily mean an overall water shortage compared to the water demand, but the problems that arise from an uneven regional distribution of water resources. Currently, many developing countries have insufficient financial, institutional, personal and technical resources, necessary to build up a functional

water supply system. According to the World Water Development Report of the United Nations today about 1.2 billion people have no access to adequate water supply (United Nations (UN), 2021).

According to Federal Ministry of Water Resources (FMWR) (2011) report, Nigeria has huge water resources potential estimated at 267 billion cubic meters of surface water and 92 billion cubic meters of ground water. About 47 million Nigerians still rely exclusively on surface water sources to meet their domestic needs. Although Nigeria is blessed with abundant water resources, government at all levels (federal, state and local) have not been able to successfully harness these resources to ensure a sustainable and equitable access to safe, adequate, improved and affordable water supply and sanitation to the population (Muta'a, 2012). Community water supply schemes in Nigeria are marked by lots of ill-conceived, uncoordinated and abandoned projects.

Despite government efforts at the federal level and other tiers as well as international donor agencies towards improving the water supply situation in Nigeria, the majority of the population is still disenfranchised due to poor access to safe water supply. The current water supply coverage in Nigeria is put at about 58 percent, representing 87 million people. It is estimated that about half of the Nigerian population does not have access to a potable water supply (FGN, 2011), that is why most parts of Nigeria suffer from problems of water inadequacy. The situation is pathetic as both old and young, men and women spend most of their time and resources in search of water. The extent of water shortage and how water shortage undermines the productive time and income generating efforts of people in different Nigerian towns demand a scientific study. Therefore, we must continually examine the water demand and supply of residents in cities of Imo State, particularly those in understudied urban centres in Imo State for the sake of planning extensive water supply infrastructure and upgrading existing ones. It is pertinent to note that in Imo State, the existing water network within Okigwe is old and most pipelines have exceeded their design lifecycle thereby hindering the supply of water from reaching the households in Okigwe (Oguzie, Enyinnaya, & Njoku, 2020).

Aim and Objectives

This study aims to analyse domestic water demand and supply in Okigwe town, for water provision planning in Imo state. To achieve the above aim, the study has the following objectives:

1. To identify the sources of water supply to households in the residential neighborhoods of Okigwe town;
2. To estimate the quantity of water supply to households in Okigwe town;
3. To identify the challenges limiting water supply in Okigwe town;
4. To assess water use practices of residents in Okigwe town

METHODOLOGY

Data Collection

Survey research design was employed. The numerical and non-numerical data that were collected for the study include: Basic demographic data like sex, age, marital status, occupation, level of education, household size and residential preference. Information on household socio-economic characteristics, sources of water, time spent daily in search for residential water, distance covered, the amount of income spent to get water daily, the amount of water demanded by households/individuals and the amount of water consumed by households/ individuals. The basic sources of data for the study were the primary and secondary sources. While the primary sources of data provided firsthand information that was derived through reconnaissance survey, observations, questionnaire administration and oral interviews; secondary data was obtained from relevant books, journals, documents, magazines, conference proceedings, government ministries and agencies' official records, and other published and unpublished works.

A sample size of 400 was used for the study. random sampling techniques was used to statistically derived sample size of 400 in which the researcher first divided the population into smaller subgroups, or strata,

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and then randomly select among each stratum to form the final sample, 50 copies of questionnaire in each of the eight (8) sampled villages were randomly distributed to households to acquire data on the residential water demand and supply. The respondents were the household heads.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Inferential statistics were used in the analysis of data from field work, such as Chi-square, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Spearman's rank order correlation and Kendall's Tau correlation were employed in this research to determine variations and interrelationships.

Testing of Hypothesis 1

Table 1: Cross Tabulation of water sources and water distribution methods to households in Okigwe Town

Sources of water supply	Water distribution method to households					Total
	Private reticulation within the home	Water stand accessed outside the compound	Water stand pipe accessed inside the compound	Water tanker	Others	
Stream/spring	4 (1.0 %)	2 (0.5%)	1 (0.3%)	0 (0.0%)	33 (8.6%)	40 (10.4%)
Well	2 (0.5%)	1 (0.3%)	1 (0.3%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (1.0%)	8 (2.1%)
Water vendor	4 (1.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.3%)	2 (0.5%)	0 (0.0%)	7 (1.8%)
Borehole	69 (18.0%)	123 (32.1%)	119 (31.1%)	15 (3.9%)	2 (0.5%)	328 (85.6%)
Total	79 (20.6%)	126 (32.9%)	122 (31.9%)	17 (4.4%)	39 (10.2%)	383 (100.0%)

A Pearson's Chi-Square test was carried out to assess if there is a significant association between water sources and water distribution methods to households in the residential neighbourhoods of Okigwe town. To undertake the statistical analysis, a cross-tabulation was carried out. The cross-tabulation of the variables is shown in Table 1. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant association between water sources and methods of water distribution to households in Okigwe town, $\chi^2 (12) = 295.615$, $p = .000$. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and posit that there is a significant association between sources of water supply and methods of water distribution to households in Okigwe town.

Table 2: Pearson's Chi-Square Test Result

	Critical value	df	Significance
Pearson Chi-Square (χ^2)	295.615	12	.000

Testing of Hypothesis 2

Table 3: Levene's Test of Homogeneity

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	p-value
N .128	7	375	.001

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One-way ANOVA was conducted to test if there is significant variation in quantity of water supplied to households in the eight neighbourhoods in the study area (Umuka, Umuokpara, Ope, Umueze, Umuzegem, Umuchima, Umunaga and Umurido). In terms of homogeneity of variances for water supplied to households with the eight neighbourhoods, the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances shown in Table 3 was statistically significant ($p = .001$), an indication that there were significant variations in the variances of household water supply to the eight neighbourhoods in the study.

Table 4: Anova Test Results

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	<i>p</i> -value
Between Groups	1214353.048	7	173479.007	2.720	.009
Within Groups	23917546.69	375	63780.125		
Total	25131899.74	382			

Also, results of ANOVA conducted for variation in the quantity of water supplied to households in the eight neighbourhoods in Okigwe town, shown in Table 4. The results showed that the quantity of water supply to households was statistically significantly different between the eight residential neighbourhoods in Okigwe town, $F(7, 375) = 2.720$, $p = .009$. Therefore, we deduce that there was significant statistical variation in the quantity of water supply in the neighbourhoods of Okigwe town.

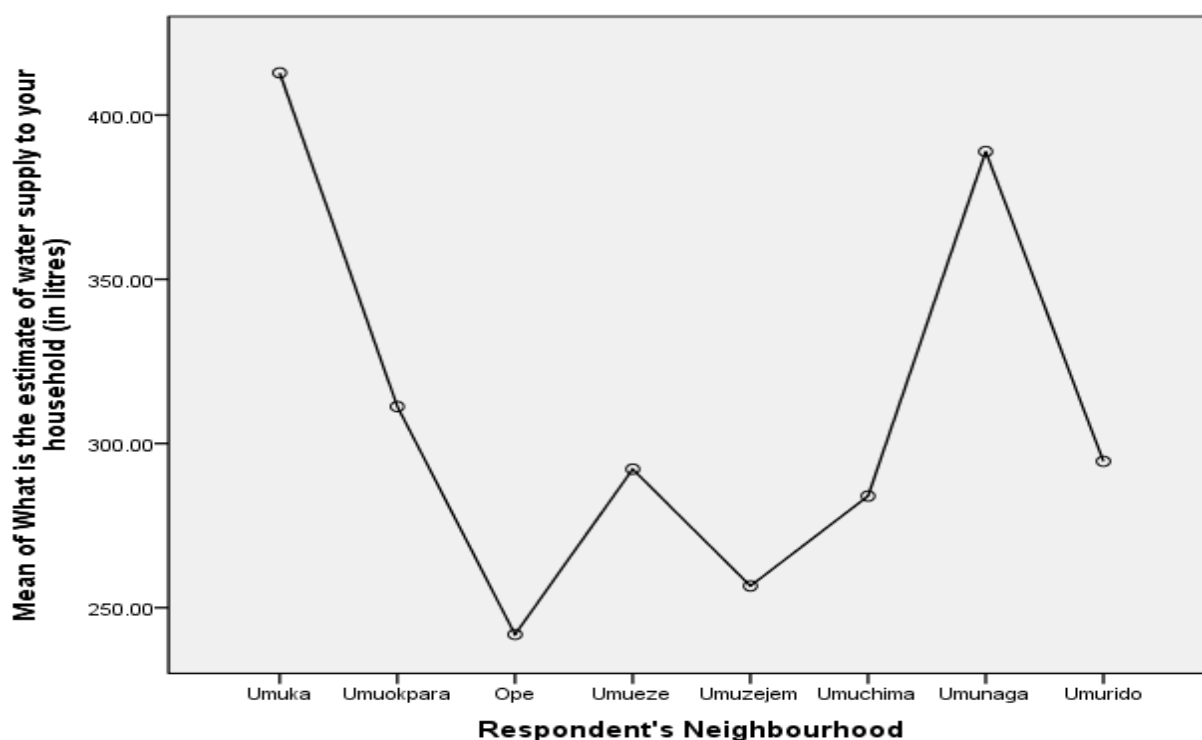


Figure 4.1: Graph of Water supply quantities to households within eight neighborhoods in okigwe town per day in litres.

The high level of variation in the graph shows that water supply quantities to households in the study area were very different with respect to the eight neighbourhoods studied, hence the reason why the ANOVA

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test was statistically significant. In order to determine where the most variation lies, a post-hoc test on the ANOVA of water supply quantities to households within eight neighborhoods in Okigwe town was carried out using Games-Howell test. The post-Hoc test results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Games-Howell Post-Hoc Test

(I) Respondent's Neighbourhood	(J) Respondent's Neighbourhood	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p-value	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Umuka	Umuokpara	101.63265	82.60771	.919	-158.8459	362.1112
	Ope	171.00932	83.28798	.457	-91.3075	433.3262
	Umueze	120.66964	84.61896	.842	-145.2730	386.6123
	Umuzegem	156.25714	82.65517	.563	-104.3481	416.8624
	Umuchima	128.87755	82.16524	.766	-130.4154	388.1705
	Umunaga	23.96825	88.39087	1.000	-252.5289	300.4654
Umuokpara	Umurido	118.28267	82.32541	.836	-141.4401	378.0054
	Umuka	-101.63265	82.60771	.919	-362.1112	158.8459
	Ope	69.37666	29.86709	.293	-23.2959	162.0493
	Umueze	19.03699	33.39945	.999	-84.7123	122.7863
	Umuzegem	54.62449	28.05409	.523	-32.2904	141.5394
	Umuchima	27.24490	26.57597	.969	-55.1288	109.6186
Ope	Umunaga	-77.66440	42.04880	.591	-209.1949	53.8661
	Umurido	16.65002	27.06713	.999	-67.2693	100.5693
	Umuka	-171.00932	83.28798	.457	-433.3262	91.3075
	Umuokpara	-69.37666	29.86709	.293	-162.0493	23.2959
	Umueze	-50.33967	35.04821	.838	-159.1173	58.4379
	Umuzegem	-14.75217	29.99810	1.000	-107.8084	78.3041
Umueze	Umuchima	-42.13177	28.62055	.820	-131.0218	46.7583
	Umunaga	-147.04106*	43.36998	.024*	-282.4061	-11.6760
	Umurido	-52.72664	29.07719	.613	-143.0257	37.5724
	Umuka	-120.66964	84.61896	.842	-386.6123	145.2730
	Umuokpara	-19.03699	33.39945	.999	-122.7863	84.7123
	Ope	50.33967	35.04821	.838	-58.4379	159.1173
Umuzegem	Umuchima	35.58750	33.51666	.963	-68.5010	139.6760
	Umunaga	8.20791	32.28957	1.000	-92.2401	108.6559
	Umurido	-96.70139	45.87413	.419	-239.4233	46.0205
	Umuka	-2.38697	32.69501	1.000	-104.0561	99.2821
	Umuokpara	-54.62449	28.05409	.523	-141.5394	32.2904
	Ope	14.75217	29.99810	1.000	-78.3041	107.8084
Umuchima	Umueze	-35.58750	33.51666	.963	-139.6760	68.5010
	Umuzegem	-27.37959	26.72312	.970	-110.1901	55.4310
	Umunaga	-132.28889*	42.14196	.048*	-264.0796	-.4982
	Umurido	-37.97447	27.21162	.857	-122.3215	46.3726
	Umuka	-128.87755	82.16524	.766	-388.1705	130.4154
	Umuokpara	-27.24490	26.57597	.969	-109.6186	55.1288
Umunaga	Ope	42.13177	28.62055	.820	-46.7583	131.0218
	Umueze	-8.20791	32.28957	1.000	-108.6559	92.2401
	Umuzegem	27.37959	26.72312	.970	-55.4310	110.1901
	Umuchima	-104.90930	41.17274	.195	-233.9544	24.1358
	Umurido	-10.59488	25.68506	1.000	-90.2327	69.0430
	Umuka	-23.96825	88.39087	1.000	-300.4654	252.5289
Umurido	Umuokpara	77.66440	42.04880	.591	-53.8661	209.1949
	Ope	147.04106*	43.36998	.024*	11.6760	282.4061
	Umueze	96.70139	45.87413	.419	-46.0205	239.4233
	Umuzegem	132.28889*	42.14196	.048*	.4982	264.0796
	Umuchima	104.90930	41.17274	.195	-24.1358	233.9544
	Umunaga	94.31442	41.49147	.324	-35.6410	224.2699
Umueze	Umuka	-118.28267	82.32541	.836	-378.0054	141.4401
	Umuokpara	-16.65002	27.06713	.999	-100.5693	67.2693
	Ope	52.72664	29.07719	.613	-37.5724	143.0257
	Umueze	2.38697	32.69501	1.000	-99.2821	104.0561
	Umuzegem	37.97447	27.21162	.857	-46.3726	122.3215
	Umuchima	10.59488	25.68506	1.000	-69.0430	90.2327
Umuzegem	Umunaga	-94.31442	41.49147	.324	-224.2699	35.6410

* = significant; $p \leq 0.05$.

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Games-Howell post-hoc test results indicate that the statistical significance in the ANOVA test lies in Ope-Umunaga ($p=.024$) and Umuzegem-Umunaga ($p=.048$).

Based on the study results, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected since the calculated F-value (7, 375) = 2.720, was statistically significant implying that there are significant variations in the quantity of water supply to households in the eight neighborhoods in Okigwe town.

Testing of Hypothesis 3

Table 6: Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation Coefficients for the 13 variables on Challenges Limiting (cl) Water Supply in Okigwe Town.

Variable	CL-1	CL-2	CL-3	CL-4	CL-5	CL-6	CL-7	CL-8	CL-9	CL-10	CL-11	CL-12	CL-13
CL-1	1.000												
CL-2	.399**	1.000											
CL-3	.052	.168**	1.000										
CL-4	-.024	-.029	.387**	1.000									
CL-5	-.011	-.181**	.281**	.615**	1.000								
CL-6	.084	.048	.223**	.290**	.382**	1.000							
CL-7	.362**	.600**	.137**	-.071	-.066	.085	1.000						
CL-8	.337**	.578**	.167**	-.061	-.062	.054	.654**	1.000					
CL-9	.278**	.446**	-.031	-.016	-.156**	-.035	.449**	.499**	1.000				
CL-10	.218**	.360**	-.151**	-.080	-.201**	-.191**	.361**	.461**	.620**	1.000			
CL-11	.207**	.438**	.068	-.029	-.109*	-.012	.434**	.453**	.556**	.474**	1.000		
CL-12	.227**	.445**	.122*	-.103*	-.136**	.020	.506**	.530**	.496**	.403**	.673**	1.000	
CL-13	.177**	.396**	.113*	-.126*	-.021	-.056	.475**	.492**	.408**	.384**	.647**	.691**	1.000

* = significant; $p \leq 0.05$; ** = significant; $p \leq 0.01$.

The Spearman's Rank-order Correlation coefficients were used to test relationship statistically. The decision rule is that null hypothesis is rejected if the calculated significance level is less than or equal to the chosen alpha (α) level ($p=.005$) showing a significant relationship and vice versa. On that note, test results for hypothesis 3 are shown in Table 6.

The results of the 13 variables (CL-1: Vandalization of Water Works; CL-2: Inadequate Electricity; CL-3: Hilly Environment; CL-4: Water pollution; CL-5: Lower rainfall; CL-6: Urbanization; CL-7: Public Water Supply Failure; CL-8: Dysfunctional Public water project; CL-9: Abandoned Public Water Facilities; CL-10: Prolonged water collection time; CL-11: Limited public water supply, CL-12: Community leadership failure, and CL-13: Limit donor sponsorship) applied in the Spearman's correlation test. Rank-order Correlation coefficients for the 13 variables on challenges limiting water supply in Okigwe town indicate that there was a total of seventy-eight correlations among variables under this hypothesis. Overall, fifty-six inter-correlations are significant with fifty-one of them at the .01 level. Results indicate that there are eleven inter-correlations whose correlation coefficients were above .500 (CL-2/CL-8; CL-2/CL-7; CL-4/CL-5; CL-7/CL-8; CL-7/CL-12; CL-8/CL-12; CL-9/CL-10; CL-9/CL-11; CL-11/CL-12; CL-11/CL-13; CL-12/CL-13). It is pertinent to note that all the correlation coefficients above .500 were positive, indicating that an increase in one lead to a decrease in the other, and vice versa. CL-12 (Community leadership failure) had high positive correlation coefficients with CL-13 (Limited donor sponsorship) and CL-11 (Limited public water supply) with the correlation coefficient with CL-13 being the highest in the entire table at .691.

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CL-1 (Vandalization of Water Works) had the highest number of positive correlations which were all significant at .01 level, though none of the correlation coefficients were up to .500. Also, CL-6 (Urbanization) was significantly correlated with only one variable (CL-10: Prolonged water collection time) which had a negative correlation coefficient which was less than .200.

Based on the study results, the null hypothesis (H_0 3) is rejected since most correlation coefficients in the test were statistically significant at the Alpha level below .05. This implies that there are significant relationships amongst the challenges limiting water supply in Okigwe town.

Testing Of Hypothesis 4

Table 7: Kendall's Tau B Correlation Coefficients for the 9 Variables of Water Use Practices (Wup) within households in Okigwe Town.

Variable	WUP-1	WUP-2	WUP-3	WUP-4	WUP-5	WUP-6	WUP-7	WUP-8	WUP-9
WUP-1	1.000								
WUP-2	.783**	1.000							
WUP-3	.594**	.489**	1.000						
WUP-4	.139**	.160**	.229**	1.000					
WUP-5	.095	.093	.355**	.482**	1.000				
WUP-6	.047	.111*	.131**	-.143**	.172**	1.000			
WUP-7	.081	.070	.347**	.391**	.526**	-.448**	1.000		
WUP-8	.029	.061	.116*	.358**	.324**	.238**	.463**	1.000	
WUP-9	.198**	.112*	.262**	.499**	.394**	.121**	.544**	.370**	1.000

* = significant; $p \leq 0.05$; ** = significant; $p \leq 0.01$. Source: Author

Kendall's tau correlation coefficient was used to test relationship statistically. The decision rule is that null hypothesis is rejected if the calculated significance level is less than or equal to the chosen alpha (α) level ($p = .005$) showing a significant relationship and vice versa. On that note, Table 7 shows the results of the nine variables (WDP-1: Cooking; WDP-2: Drinking; WDP-3: Bathing; WDP-4: Toilet flushing; WDP-5: Laundry; WDP-6: Gardening/irrigation; WDP-7: House cleaning; WDP-8: Vehicle cleaning; and WDP-9: Dish washing) applied in the test.

The results indicate that there was a total of thirty-six correlations among designated variables of water use practices. Overall, twenty-nine inter-correlations were significant with twenty-six of them at the .01 level. Also, most of these inter-correlations were positive. Results show that WUP-3 (Bathing) with six inter-correlations had the highest number, with the correlation with WUP-5 (Laundry) having the highest coefficient value of .355. In the same vein, WUP-4 (Toilet flushing) followed with five significant correlations with other variables. Out of the four variables significantly correlated with WUP-1 (Cooking), the highest coefficient value was the correlation with WUP-2 (Drinking) which was also the highest coefficient value in Table 7, with a coefficient value of .783. Out of the four variables significantly correlated with WUP-5 (Laundry), the highest correlation coefficient value was the correlation with WUP-7 (House cleaning) which was .526. Based on the study results, the null hypothesis (H_0 1) is rejected since the calculated significant level of most of the correlations is less than the .05 Alpha level. This implies that there are significant relationships between water use practices within households in Okigwe town.

Discussion of Results

The result of the Pearson's Chi-square analysis shows that there is a statistically significant association between water sources and methods of water distribution to households in Okigwe town. The result is similar to Akujieze and Oteze (2021) who noted that 70 percent of the population in Benin derive their water from the numerous boreholes sunk for private, agricultural and industrial purposes. Similarly, Onyenechere and Osuji, (2012) studied the provision of water services in Owerri city and found out that most residents of Owerri city relied heavily on commercial borehole owners and water tanker drivers/water peddlers for their daily supplies.

The result of the quantity of water supply revealed that in Umuka and Umunaga water sources are closer to the residents; most residents travel for distances of not more than 20m to fetch water. Whereas in Umuokpara, Umuchima, Umuzegem, Umurido, Ope and Umueze, water sources are farthest (more than 30m) for most of the residents. Quantity of water fetched can diminish with increasing distance and affect the water supplied.

So many challenges and factors have hindered the respondents in getting sufficient water. From the field survey, it was seen that various challenges limit residential water supply in the study area. The vandalization of the water works is one. It had been functional for some time but had been vandalized by hoodlums. Others are inadequate electric power supply, hilly environment, water supply failure, dysfunctional system, abandoned facilities, long collection time, limited water supply, leadership failure, and limited donors. These are weighty challenges that have posed as a limitation to residential water supply. Water pollution, lower rainfall, and urbanisation have little effect on the residential water supply. It is these challenges that have hindered the people in the study area from getting adequate water supply.

Spearman's Rank-order Correlation coefficients for the 13 variables have indicated that there is a prevalence of challenges limiting water supply in Okigwe town and that there are significant relationships between the prevalence of challenges limiting water supply in Okigwe town. This is because of a dysfunctional system and other factors enumerated earlier. The result is in agreement with the findings of Egbo, Anih, & Obinna (2022) in Enugu urban area, where water supply from the Greater Enugu water supply scheme is delivered to residents most intermittently. This intermittent service is not as a result of the fact that the construction of the water scheme was originally deficient, but rather it is due to lack of proper maintenance of the equipment at the head works, silting of water sources and channels, as well as, heavy water losses from the water transmission and distribution lines. The above have resulted in problems such as absolute and relative water shortages in the residential sector between the amounts demanded and supplied, most especially as a result of poor funding and damaged infrastructure.

CONCLUSION

The study analyzed domestic water demand and supply in Okigwe Town. It identified the sources of water supply available to the residents in Okigwe town, and estimated the quantity of water supply to households in Okigwe town. It identified the challenges limiting water supply in Okigwe town and examined factors affecting residential water demand in Okigwe town. The results show that the quantity of water supply to households was significantly different between the eight residential neighbourhoods in Okigwe town. It also revealed the significant relationships among the challenges limiting water supply in Okigwe town.

Recommendations

1. In the short and mid-term, self-practicing should be encouraged while proper plans for a functional water scheme is instituted. Therefore, residents can sink boreholes for themselves while waiting for the government to provide water that is potable for the residents of Okigwe town.
2. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) involved in water supply in Okigwe town should increase their efforts in the provision of water by providing more water supply projects.

3. The state government, through the state water agency, should invest in water resources provision and management in Okigwe town, so that the water needs of the people will be met.
4. Regular maintenance of the public water facilities should be put in place rather than abandoning it when the scheme is resuscitated.
5. The natural sources of water in the Okigwe town should be maintained and relevant laws that discourage pollution of the water should be promulgated and implemented at the local level.

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Chapter Forty**Technological Innovations and Strategies for a Sustainable Built Environment*****Joachim A. Onyike****Dean, Faculty of Environmental Sciences, Imo State University, Owerri, Nigeria.**EMAIL: joeonyikeco@yahoo.com***ABSTRACT**

As the urgency for environmental sustainability intensifies, the choice of environment-friendly technology becomes imperative. The subject paper explores the incidence of technological innovations and the relevant strategies and practical applications aimed at fostering a sustainable built environment. It examines cutting-edge technologies such as energy-efficient systems, smart building materials, and advanced construction technologies that minimize environmental impact. Such technologies as computer-aided designs, drones, building information modelling, blockchain technology, total stations, digital twins, cloud computing, internet-of-things, global positioning systems; energy-saving innovations such as green building, sustainable building materials, electrochromic glazing and roofing, energy saver power and lighting systems; resources management and pollution-control innovations such as recycling and reuse of products, water-saving and waste-to-energy technologies; and the applicable strategies for achieving a sustainable built environment were examined. The strategies can be categorized into mixed-sector and public-sector strategies. The paper also touched on artificial intelligence and its relevance in the achievement of a sustainable built environment. The application of the aforementioned technologies will enhance energy performance, reduce carbon footprints and promote resilience against climate change, thereby promoting and ensuring a sustainable built environment.

KEYWORDS: Built environment; Sustainability; Environment-friendly technologies.

INTRODUCTION

Human activities have over the years impacted negatively on the environment. Non-renewable resources are fast being depleted to the extent that the very future of man may be compromised if remedial measures are not put in place. There is a need to stem the tide and guide the environment in a sustainable direction to ensure a safe living environment and also enable the available resources to serve the needs of present as well as future generations. As the urgency for environmental sustainability intensifies, the choice of environment-friendly technology becomes imperative. Several such technologies have been developed in recent times. These new technologies are particularly necessary in the built environment where much of the negative impacts of human activities are prevalent. The use of these technological innovations in the drive for a sustainable built environment will be appreciated better if we understand the key terms “built environment” and “sustainable built environment”. It is when they are understood that the inputs of technological innovations and strategies towards transforming the built environment to a sustainable built environment will be better appreciated. This paper will therefore kick off by explaining the aforementioned terms before delving into the new technologies and strategies.

What is Built Environment?

The term “built environment” refers to the man-made surroundings that provide the setting for human activity, ranging in scale from buildings and parks or green spaces to neighbourhoods and cities that can often include their supporting infrastructure, such as water supply or energy networks (Kaklauskas & Gudauskas, 2016). It is a material, spatial, and cultural product of human labour that combines physical elements and energy in forms for living, working, and recreation. The built environment therefore comprises land including associated flora and fauna, and various kinds of buildings and structures and associated infrastructure designed to meet the needs of man. The human population which lives in the built environment rose over the 8 billion mark in November 2022 and still rising. The activities of this population

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

impact on the environment. Buildings and building activities contribute up to 40% of carbon emissions, making them one of the major contributors to global warming (Dipta, Uday & Chowdbury, 2022). The building industry uses up to 56% of the energy consumed in sub-Saharan Africa (Ariye, 2023). According to the National Institute of Building Sciences, U.S.A, 31% of the carbon dioxide, 49% of the Sulphur oxide, and 25% of the nitrogen oxide that are contained in the air are produced during the construction of buildings. According to Singh (2018), as cited by Ariye (2023), traditional construction methods and materials use about 40% of the natural resources that are extracted in industrialized countries, 70% of the electricity, and 12% of the potable water while producing between 45% and 65% of the wastes that are disposed of in landfills. Singh also added that traditional construction methods produce 30% of greenhouse gases in addition to an additional 18% caused by material exploitation and transportation. As experiences in various parts of the world have shown, the uncontrolled activities of man have caused a lot of damage to the environment to the extent that the interests of the present and future generations of man have been considerably compromised. According to the World Green Building Council (2023), “we are living in a period of environmental breakdown: a climate emergency, mass biodiversity loss, pollution, extinction, the over-utilization of natural resources and a global waste crisis.” It is imperative that the damage and depletion of the built environment must be halted and where possible, reversed. Resources must be used efficiently. Renewable resources will be preferred over non-renewable ones. Waste must be reduced to the minimum while energy use must be geared towards achieving zero carbon emission. Clean and cheap energy is the way to go. By so doing, the built environment becomes somewhat “organic”, regenerating itself and preserving itself for future generations. Any built environment that manifests these attributes can be referred to as a sustainable built environment. To understand what we will be deploying technological innovations to do for us, we must dig deeper into the imperatives of a sustainable built environment.

THE IMPERATIVES OF A SUSTAINABLE BUILT ENVIRONMENT

As observed earlier, we are living in a period of environmental breakdown caused by both human activities and climate change. For any built environment to achieve sustainability, the afore-mentioned threats and challenges must be addressed. Some can be halted, reduced, or even reversed. Some can be managed efficiently to reduce any negative impact on the environment while the rest may require the use of environment-friendly alternatives. In other words, a sustainable built environment must have answers to the use, misuse and depletion of available resources, the issue of waste and environmental sanitation, climate change, and the preservation of the environment and its resources for future generations. A sustainable built environment must promote energy efficiency through the use or deployment of resources and assets that ensure efficient use of energy. It must aim at phasing out the use of fossil fuels which is a major driver of climate change through the excessive carbon emission that attacks the protective ozone layer resulting in high temperatures and increasing levels and frequency of flooding. Renewable energy sources such as solar, hydro, wind, tidal, and geothermal kinds are the way to go. A sustainable built environment must engender a clean and healthy environment. Green building in a “green” environment will be the way to go. Buildings must be designed to maximize the use of sunlight and solar energy thereby saving on the cost of energy. Waste-to-energy technologies can be employed to convert organic waste into useful energy. A sustainable built environment must maximize the use of available materials and energy resources. The use of manual energy must as much as possible give way to more efficient and effective kinds of energy enabled by science and technology. Finally, the sustainable built environment must promote the use of renewable resources and as much as possible the reuse and recycling of resources such that wastages are reduced to the minimum. Given the above, one of the challenges facing mankind today is what to do to achieve a sustainable built environment, a challenge highlighted in Sustainable Development Goal No. 11 – Sustainable Cities and Communities. Some of the other Sustainable Development Goals such as SDG 6 (clean water and sanitation), SDG 7 (affordable and clean energy), SDG 9 (industry, innovation and infrastructure), SDG 12 (responsible consumption and production), and SDG 13 (climate action) are also implicated in the need for a sustainable built environment. Several new technologies are being developed and deployed towards realizing a sustainable built environment. The next section will dwell on some of these technological innovations.

TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS

Technological innovations can lead to a more sustainable built environment in two distinct ways, namely: through a reduction in resource consumption and an increase in sustainability.

New Construction Technologies

A bit of history will enable us to appreciate better the innovations of today. Before the mid-19th Century manual labour played a dominant role in the building construction industry. The advent of hydraulic and pneumatic devices led to the development of heavy earth-moving equipment that improved the rate of completion of building projects (Trimble Construction, 2022). Soon after, concrete mixers, cranes, and various power tools came on board. According to Trimble Construction (2022), the emergence of the internal combustion engines in the early 20th Century saw the development of forklifts, tractors and bulldozers thus relegating the roles of hand shovels, wheelbarrows and work animals in major construction projects. These were the technological trends until the later part of the 20th century which saw a revolution in the field of Information and Communications Technology (ICT). This revolution has had far-reaching effects on the construction industry. New, efficient and more effective innovations were developed and deployed in the built environment. Some of them include:

Computer-Aided Design (CAD)

One of the challenges facing architects and builders was the representation of different systems such as electrical, water, gas and other conduits competing for the same physical space in their erstwhile two-dimensional plans and section drawings (Trimble Construction, 2022). When the different drawings come together during construction, certain clashes may be discovered, the resolution of which may delay the work. The advent of computer-aided design has led to the resolution of such issues early in the design phase long before the construction phase.

Drones

Drones are unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) initially designed for military purposes but recently extended to non-military purposes. These new sets of drones, referred to as civil drones, have been deployed extensively in the built environment (Nwaogu, Yang, Chang & Chi (2022). Based on their configuration, there are broadly three kinds of drones (JOUAV, 2023), namely:

- a. Rotorcrafts, which are of two types.
 - i. Multirotor drones: They are the most commonly used for non-military purposes in the built environment such as building construction and civil engineering works because of their ease of use, low purchase and maintenance costs, accessibility and flexibility of use. They usually have 4-8 rotors and have vertical take-off and landing (VTOL) characteristics which makes them easy to use even in narrow spaces.
 - ii. Helicopter drones: This type of rotorcraft has one or two rotors, has VTOL characteristics, is more energy-efficient and flies longer than multirotor drones.
- b. Fixed-wing drones. These drones which are usually larger than multirotor drones look like aeroplanes and need long runways for take-off and landing. They are more stable, faster, fly longer time than rotorcrafts and are usually used to map large areas of land.
- c. Hybrid Fixed-wing drones: These are highly efficient drones which combine the qualities of fixed-wing and multirotor drones. They are expensive and hard to fly and therefore require more flight training to handle.

Drones are used for surveying and mapping, workflow monitoring, equipment tracking and maintenance, project inspection, and risk and safety management. Drones however have some challenges, namely: most civil drones are weather dependent, vulnerable to birds and wild animals, easy to hack, and may malfunction or have software issues. Security considerations of government authorities may sometimes create legislative uncertainty for the use of drones in some areas or locations.

Building Information Modeling (BIM).

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

BIM is a computer technology that allows all project stakeholders to work collaboratively to produce a 3D model of a building or structure including all the functional systems and services before the beginning of work on site. The core concept of BIM relies on providing an object-oriented digital representation of buildings in the form of data-rich models and enabling simulation and analysis of these models for design/construction/operation purposes (Tatjana Vilutiene et al. 2019). BIM allows the team to visualize and analyze design decisions and resolve any issues in the design before the construction phase. This saves a lot of time and material resources in the building development process.

Blockchain technology

A blockchain is a distributed database that allows for secure, transparent, and tamper-proof transactions. TechTarget (2021) defined it as a record-keeping technology designed to make it impossible to hack the system or forge the data stored on it, thereby making it secure and immutable. It can be defined as a simple block of transparent digital information which is highly secured and shareable, but immutable. This technology makes use of digital ledger which in the building industry ensures better cost management and efficient procurement strategies. On the construction site, blockchain can improve the reliability and trustworthiness of construction logbooks, works performed and material quantities recorded (Turk & Kline, 2017). Blockchain can be used to track materials, contracts, and payments.

Total Stations

An innovation in the field of land surveying and building construction, the total station is an electronic theodolite integrated with an electronic distance measurement (EDM) to measure both vertical and horizontal angles and the slope distance from the instrument to a particular point, and an on-board computer to collect data and perform triangulation calculations (Wikipedia, 22 July 2023). There are robotic or motorized total stations which can be controlled from a distance with remote control gadgets. Total stations have greater efficiency and accuracy and dispense with the laborious and time-consuming processes of setting out buildings or surveying a site which employ tape measure, spirit level and the conventional theodolite.

Digital Twins and Digital As-Builts

A digital twin or digital as-built is a virtual replica of an existing physical asset that gives real-time data in all phases of construction and maintenance (Trimble Construction, 2022). It involves the use of computer simulation in creating a building prototype. Digital twin facilitates the construction of proto-type buildings by enabling the accurate gathering of design and build information from the original building. It also allows the designer to correct any shortcomings in the design developed from the original building.

Cloud Computing

The availability and accessibility of project data by all stakeholders have been made easy and efficient through the storage of data in the cloud. Data processing can now be outsourced to required professionals anywhere they may be since they can access the data from wherever they are. Cloud computing has made it possible to access, share and collaborate in the use and application of data to any desired objectives. In summary, Cloud computing simplifies the storage and access of data and protects the stakeholder from data loss, damage or theft.

3D Laser Scanner

The 3D Scanner is a computer-aided scanner which is deployed for on-site surveying, mapping, project inspection, safety and other tasks in the building industry.

Internet of Things (IoT)

The IoTs describe the network of physical objects – “things”- that are embedded with sensors, software, and other technologies to connect and exchange data with other devices and systems over the internet.

Global Positioning System (GPS)

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

The GPS is a satellite-based navigation system made up of a network of 24 satellites placed into orbit by the U.S. Department of Defence (Ali, 2020). Originally intended solely for military purposes, the US Government has allowed its use for non-military purposes since the 1980s. Access to the system is freely available to anyone with a GPS receiver. The GPS enables people with GPS receivers to pinpoint their locations anywhere on the earth's surface. The GPS has a wide range of uses and applications in surveying and mapping, development, agriculture, aviation, transportation, communication, environment, security, safety and disaster relief (Abulude, Akiinnusotu & Adeyemi, 2015), all of which are implicated in the built environment.

General mobile devices

All members of the building development team can work collaboratively by accessing consolidated digitized information with the aid of smartphones and tablets. Prompt monitoring, analyses, and corrections and reviews where necessary, are achieved at the shortest possible time, resulting in enormous cost-saving. There are other innovations such as 3-D Printing, 4D Simulation, virtual and augmented reality, et cetera which have facilitated activities and developments in the built environment.

Energy-Saving Innovations

Green Building

Green building is the practice of creating structures and using environmentally responsible processes and resource-efficient throughout a building's life cycle from the acquisition of the site to design, construction, operation, maintenance, renovation and deconstruction. Green building can therefore be defined as the planning, design, construction, and operation of structures that take into account a few basic, fundamental factors such as energy consumption, water use, interior environmental quality, materials sections, and the structure's impact on the environment (Dipta, Uday & Chowdhury, 2022) Consistent with the foregoing, the Green Building Council of Nigeria (2021) defined a green building as a building which is energy efficient, resource-efficient, and environmentally responsible. Green buildings are designed to reduce the overall impact of the built environment on humans and the natural environment by:

- i. efficiently using energy, water, and other resources;
- ii. protecting occupant health and improving employee productivity; and
- iii. reducing waste, pollution and environmental degradation.

Materials for green buildings are obtained from natural renewable sources. Green building materials such as recycled glass, hempcrete and cellulose insulation improve energy efficiency and reduce the impact of construction on the environment. Passive solar design, which uses sunshine to heat, cool and light up buildings without mechanical or electrical devices will dramatically reduce the cooling and heating costs of a building. Thus, green buildings incorporate energy-efficient lighting, low-energy appliances and renewable energy technologies such as wind turbines and solar panels. Green building reduces energy use by 30 – 50%, carbon dioxide emission by 35%, waste generation by 70%, and water usage by 40%, all of which benefit the environment (Dipta et al., 2022). Following the growing importance of sustainability in the built environment, some modern rating systems have been developed to rate the performance of buildings regarding energy efficiency, water efficiency, environment-friendly materials and products, enhanced indoor air quality (IAQ), and improved operation and maintenance (O&M) procedures (Dipta et al., 2022). Some of the rating systems include the Building Research Establishment Environmental Assessment Method (BREEAM) developed by the Building Research Establishment in the United Kingdom in 1990, and the Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) system developed by the United States Green Building Council in 1993. Examples of green buildings in Nigeria include the Heritage Building, Nest Oil Building, the Wings, and Alliance Building, in Lagos.

Clean Energy and Mitigation of Climate Change.

Clean energy is the process of using energy sources that produce minimal or no pollutants. These energy sources can include solar energy, wind energy, geothermal energy, and tidal power. The use of clean energy sources can help to reduce emissions from the built environment and help to create a more sustainable built

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

environment. Clean energy does not contribute to global warming because it does not emit greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide (TWI Ltd, 2023).

Sustainable building materials.

For building materials to qualify as sustainable building materials, they have to be durable, reusable or recyclable, include recyclable materials in their composition and have to be from resources of the local area where the building activity will take place (Acciona, 2019). These materials also have to be natural (soil, adobe, wood, cork, bamboo, straw, coconut fibre and other natural fibres, sawdust, etc.). The aforementioned natural materials should have low embodied energy and/or low environmental impact.

Electrochromic Glazing

Electrochromic glazing is a type of energy-efficient glass that uses electrochromic technology to automatically tint the glass according to weather and lighting conditions (Sage Glass, 2023). This technology allows the glass to block out heat and ultraviolet light, while still allowing natural light to enter the building. This energy-efficient glazing can help to reduce energy use, air conditioning costs, and pollution emissions from the built environment.

Electrochromic Roofing

Electrochromic roofing is a type of energy-efficient roofing system that uses electrochromic technology to automatically tint the roof according to weather and lighting conditions. This technology allows the roof to block out heat and ultraviolet light, while still allowing natural light to enter the building. This energy-efficient roofing can help to reduce energy use, air conditioning costs, and pollution emissions from the built environment.

Smart Sensors and Internet of Things (IoT) technologies make buildings more efficient by monitoring and adjusting systems such as lighting, temperature and air quality.

Energy savers Smart thermostats, and LED lighting, reduce energy consumption.

Other New Products, Luminescent cement can be used in road surfacing in areas where there are no street lights, thereby compensating for the absence of street lights.

Resources Management and Pollution-Control Innovations

Recycling and re-use of products

The extraction, manufacture transport, and disposal of virgin building materials pollute the air and water, deplete resources, and damage natural habitats. Reuse and recycling of products has become a growing trend towards realizing a sustainable built environment. The uses of construction waste management techniques which embrace salvage, recycling and reuse of materials have considerable economic benefits to the project owner (Acciona, 2019). Some examples of reusable, recyclable and biodegradable building materials include: Wood (reusable, recyclable and biodegradable); Earthen materials (reusable/biodegradable); Steel, Aluminium, Iron, Copper (reusable, recyclable); Bricks (reusable/recyclable); Concrete (may be crushed and recycled); Gypsum/Drywall (recyclable, sometimes biodegradable); Straw, and Straw bale insulation (biodegradable); Wool carpet (biodegradable); and Linoleum flooring (biodegradable).

Water saving

Water saving or conservation is not only a matter of environmental responsibility, but also a way to reduce costs, improve efficiency, and enhance the quality of life (Linked-In Environmental Services, 2023). Several new technologies have been developed for water conservation in the built environment. Such technologies and innovations include smart irrigation systems that use sensors, controllers and relevant software to monitor soil conditions and the water need of vegetation to enable the release of the necessary quantity of water to the lawns and gardens. Such technologies can save up to 50% of water when compared to conventional irrigation. Rainwater harvesting and reuse for non-potable purposes have been enhanced

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

by new technologies that include filters, tanks, pipes, valves and meters. Some water-efficient fixtures and appliances have been developed to reduce water wastage at homes. Such include smart pressure regulators, low-flow water closets, showerheads and washing machines. Water treatment and recycling have been made more efficient by the introduction of membrane filtration, biological treatment, ultraviolet disinfection and reverse osmosis (Linked-In Environmental Services, 2023).

Waste-to-Energy technologies

Waste-to-energy technologies can convert organic waste into energy thereby reducing dependence on other energy sources. Proper treatment of municipal solid wastes is one of the major challenges that militate against the achievement of sustainability especially in the urban built environment (Campos, Zamenian, Koo & Goodman, 2015). The conventional methods of urban solid waste disposal namely, land-filling and incineration are not efficient and generate a lot of pollutants such as methane and carbon dioxide which cause global warming. Modern technologies have introduced three new processes of dealing with solid waste namely, pyrolysis, conventional gasification, and plasma arc gasification. Pyrolysis is the thermal decomposition of biomass inside a reactor chamber in the presence of little or no oxygen at a temperature of 600°C and above. Depending on the temperature, the products of pyrolysis include solid char, bio-oils, and gases such as hydrogen, carbon monoxide, and volatile hydrocarbons such as methane. The mixture of these flammable gases is called syngas which can be used to generate electricity. Conventional gasification is the thermal decomposition of biomass at a temperature of 788°C – 1650°C using a sub-stoichiometric volume of oxygen; this process produces a higher energy syngas mixed with carbon dioxide and water vapour, and also hydrogen and hydrocarbon gases if steam is added into the process. Lastly, the plasma arc gasification process is the most advanced and efficient waste-to-energy technology. It involves the thermal decomposition of biomass at a temperature of 3980° C – 6980° C which produces higher-grade syngas and other useful products. According to Campos et al. (2015), the above WTE technologies provide a sustainable alternative solution especially as compared to landfill and conventional incineration. The initial cost of establishing this high-level system is very high. An interesting development in the WTE sector is that Norway is running out of municipal solid waste to power its WTE facilities it is importing trash from surrounding countries (Campos et al., 2015),

Renewable energy sources: Solar, wind, geothermal and hydropower are effective alternatives to fossil fuels.

Pollution Control: Control of dust pollution on building sites can be done using Canon misting and water spraying equipment.

Energy saving: Smart thermostats and LED lighting reduce energy consumption.

Advent of Artificial Intelligence (AI)

According to Clark (2023), artificial intelligence “is revolutionizing the way we design, construct, manage, and experience real estate and infrastructure”, and “carries the potential to enhance efficiency, transparency and data-driven decision-making”. AI has numerous beneficial applications in the built environment. These include:

Design Optimization

AI algorithms can analyze vast datasets to enable optimal design solutions, enhancing space utilization, energy efficiency and cost-effectiveness. There are AI-driven software which can generate design alternatives in accordance to prevailing environmental factors, material properties, and user preferences.

Construction Automation

AI-driven robotics and automation tools enhance construction processes, improving speed, accuracy, and safety. Drones and autonomous machines assist in surveying, monitoring, and material handling and reduce human error and labour costs.

Property investment and management decision-making

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

As observed by Clark (2023), the ability of AI to analyze vast amounts of data from various sources such as property listings, market trends, demographic information and user feedback, will enable more effective decision-making in real estate management and investment

Smart building management

Smart homes with integrated IoT systems powered by AI enable homeowners” to control their homes remotely, efficiently, and cheaply, from temperature and lighting to security and entertainment”.

Predictive Maintenance

AI-powered systems “can monitor building conditions, detect faults, and automatically trigger maintenance requests or alerts”

Sustainability and Energy Efficiency.

Smart buildings equipped with AI-powered sensors and IoT devices can collect real-time data on energy usage, occupancy patterns and environmental conditions, analyse them and develop energy-efficient strategies, automatically adjusting heating, cooling, and lighting systems based on occupancy and external factors.

Urban Planning and Smart Cities

AI technology is revolutionizing urban planning and promoting high efficiency in the use of urban resources. Studies by Ghisleni (2024) showed that the use of AI-aided grid-based planning, urban prototyping and digital twin technology has produced better urban plans and at a much shorter time than would be possible with ordinary humans. The challenge posed by rapid population growth in the urban areas is another area of concern. By 2016, the world had about 512 urban areas with population of one million people each and 31 megacities with population of over 10 million people each. These figures are estimated to grow to 662 urban areas and 41 megacities by the year 2030 (Nations, 2018). The high rate of urbanization has implications for the environment, management, healthcare, energy, education and security of the cities (Herath and Mittal, 2022). The development of smart cities, which guarantee the efficient use, and management of the urban environmental resources become imperative. Herath and Mittal (2022) stated that modern smart cities use AI technologies to achieve sustainable socio-economic goals.

Safety and Risk Management

According to Building Radar GmbH (2024), AI-powered tools are transforming how construction companies assess risks by enabling early identification of issues before they escalate. AI enables the analysis of vast datasets, and potential project risks are identified at the onset and addressed. With the ability of AI technology to analyze vast datasets, potential risks are identified at the onset and corrected. Thus, project delays and cost overruns are eliminated or reduced to the barest minimum.

Technology and Project Management

Technology has impacted project management at least in the following areas:

Data backup. Storing data in file cabinets is no longer necessary. You can safely store and backup your data on separate hard drives and in the cloud.

Instant Communication: Messaging, email, telephone, video calls, etc. have guaranteed quick and efficient communication enabling project management from various locations on-site and off-site.

Budget tracking: Modern PM software and business budgeting programs have made tracking transactions a lot easier.

Timestamping: There is new software that helps the PM track the time on each project.

Social media insights: Social media platforms have improved interaction between PMs and clients as well as other sources of relevant information and assistance.

STRATEGIES FOR THE APPLICATION OF TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS IN THE BUILT ENVIRONMENT

While technological innovations can help create a more sustainable built environment, successful implementation requires strategic planning and collaboration. Governments and organizations should work together to create policies that incentivize the development and adoption of green technologies. Additionally, public-private partnerships could be established to fund research and development of sustainable solutions. Finally, investment in education and training is necessary to ensure the effective use of new technologies. Consequently, the strategies implicated in the realization of a sustainable built environment are of two folds, the private sector and public sector strategies. In many situations, they work together as mixed strategies for better results.

Mixed-Sector strategies

The mixed-sector strategies will address the issue of building designs, building materials, and environmental planning. To achieve a sustainable built environment, there is a need to reappraise the existing architectural designs and the type of existing building materials in our localities. Building designs must take climate change into account. Buildings should have good ventilation and have good access to natural light. In the Nigerian setting, buildings should be shielded as much as possible from intense sunlight and heat by planting trees around the buildings.

The choice of building materials should consider the climate. The common roofing sheets here in Nigeria are long-span aluminium sheets and galvanized iron roofing sheets. These materials are good conductors of heat with the result that a lot of heat builds up within the roof space during the day. Most of these roofs do not have vents resulting in the heat dissipating downwards into the living areas of the building thus creating an uncomfortable indoor environment (Mohammed & Abba-kyari, 2016). Roofing sheets should be coated with bright paints which reflect heat away from the building. Light-coloured roofs should be preferred. The use of electrochromic roofing and electrochromic glazing should be encouraged. Electrochromic technology allows the glass to block out heat and ultraviolet light while still allowing natural light to enter the building. This energy-efficient glazing can help reduce energy use, air-conditioning costs, and pollution emissions from the built environment.

Towns and cities in Nigeria should have enough well-maintained green open spaces (playgrounds, parks) in all the residential neighbourhoods. There should be green belts around all urban areas. Landscaping should be designed to have large areas of pervious surfaces to reduce the volume of surface runoff. The natural vegetation and landscape should be preserved as much as possible. This will enable rainwater to be absorbed into the soil instead of building up into surface runoff and floods. Building developments should as much as possible avoid the destruction of natural drainage channels. Where possible, rainwater should be harvested, processed and recycled for various non-potable uses within an estate. Building materials which do not harbour or release any gaseous or particulate contaminants into the air should be used.

Energy-efficient appliances should be used. Environment-friendly energy sources should be promoted. The use of non-renewable building materials should be reduced to a minimum. Encourage the use of timber, bamboo, straw, palm leaves/mat, earthen bricks, etc. Encourage the use of recycled materials. The use of energy-efficient bulbs and energy-saving appliances should be encouraged.

Public Sector Strategies.

The roles of Government in the promotion and adoption of technological innovations towards the realization of a sustainable built environment are many folds, namely:

Policy development and enforcement

The Government should develop relevant policies and legislation to promote and enforce sustainable building and environmental practices. For instance, government can set up and implement water quality policy frameworks and standards. A review of the 2006 Building Code of Nigeria is long overdue;

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

sustainable development should be reflected in the building code so that it becomes mandatory for developers and investors in the built environment to be environment-conscious in their activities.

Regulations

New regulations should be put in place to promote green building practices. The government can regulate the discharge of pollutants. The government can legislate on wastewater management, recycling and re-use.

Facilitation

The government can facilitate some of the policies by providing incentives such as tax waivers and tax holidays. For instance, the Government of Norway in pursuance of its goal to reduce carbon emissions imposed a very high import tax on imported fossil fuel cars while electric cars were exempted from import tax (National Academy of Sciences, 2017).

Funding Strategies

Funding sustainable development projects can sometimes be a journey to the unknown. Returns on some of the projects are not realizable in the short term. Banks, investors, and other conventional finance providers find other competing demands for their funds more attractive. As a result, “value-creating sustainable projects remain on the shelf despite” their potential for “positive impact on businesses, customers, nature and the climate” (Thomson, 2023). High costs and the unfamiliar nature of some of the projects are some of the factors which hinder investments in sustainable development projects (Chakravarthi and Aravindan, 2019). The financial requirements are so huge that the annual funding gap according to the World Economic Forum estimates put the figure at \$2.5 trillion globally, a figure which has since increased as a result of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic. Nonetheless, the importance of sustainability projects in the survival of human beings on earth has spurred some markets, institutions, businesses, governments and individuals to show willingness and capability to fund the transition to a sustainable built environment (Thomson, *ibid.*). Several incentives have been put in place by various international and national institutions to attract investment into the green development. Some funding innovations have been developed which have lower costs of capital, lower risk structures and competitive repayment terms. The funding vehicles include the following: Bank loans, Sustainability bonds, Private capital, Government funds and tax abatements, International Assistance Programs, and Crowdfunding.

Bank Loans: Conventional banks are usually the first port of call for loans. For small projects, some of the banks will readily provide funds provided loan repayment guarantees are satisfactory. The development banks are better suited for this type of loan considering the long-term nature of some of these loans.

Sustainability Bonds: These are customized bonds issued by government agencies and big commercial companies and targeted on pre-specified sustainable development goal (SDG) objectives. For example, certain climate bonds have variable interests linked to the level of reductions in greenhouse gas emissions achieved by the borrower. Sustainability bonds are branded according to the outcome and conditions attached to the loan. Bonds which are restricted to projects which reduce environmental impacts are referred as green bonds. Bonds targeted at reducing water use or protecting the ocean are blue bonds. Nature performance bonds are those targeted at projects that reduce damage to biodiversity while SDG-linked bonds are those funding projects that support the achievement of the SDGs. The green bonds are the most popular of the sustainability bonds. The green bond market has increased from \$34 billion in 2014 to over \$250 billion in 2018 (Chakravarthi and Aravindan, 2019). The first financial institution to issue green bonds was the World Bank in 2008. Between 2008 and 2018, it had issued over 130 bonds worth \$10 billion. As part of its promotion of sustainable development, the Global Environment Trust Fund assisted the Sino-Singapore Tianjin Eco city with \$6.16 million.

Private Capital and Impact Investors: Some corporate organizations are investing in researches to produce sustainable products. Some individuals, private equity, philanthropic organizations and financial institutions fund specific projects, technologies or infrastructure targeted at certain outcomes of positive impact to the

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

environment. Some of these impact investors include the Rockefeller Foundation and the Harvard Business School (Thomson, 2023).

Government Funds and Tax Incentives: Many sustainability projects in some countries are linked to tax breaks and subsidies as incentives to encourage investments in the projects. In some cases, the government enters into public-private partnerships to fund research and development of sustainable solutions. For instance, the UK announced a £40 million fund for conservation organizations and suppliers and also another fund for a direct air capture programme for developing new technology that captures carbon dioxide from the air (Thompson, 2023).

Crowdfunding: This is the practice of funding a project or venture by raising money from a large number of people who each contribute a relatively small amount, typically via the Internet. In certain jurisdictions, crowdfunding is regulated. Tesla the car manufacturer used pre-payment crowdfunding to fund the manufacture of electric cars as an alternative to fossil fuel cars. The ease and flexibility of crowdfunding enables many low-wealth individuals to invest in or support purpose-driven sustainable projects.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the development and adoption of sustainable technologies are essential for creating a sustainable built environment. Governments, organizations, and businesses must collaborate to create policies, fund innovations and ensure effective use of new technologies. With the right strategies, a sustainable built environment will be achievable.

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Chapter Forty-One**The Evolution of Medical Geography in Egypt and Nigeria: A Comparative Review of Developmental Trends*****Ifeanyi Joachim Oduaro****Department of Geography and Environmental Management, Imo State University, Owerri**Corresponding Author: Tel. +2348033676969**Email Address: geovani4utm@gmail.com***ABSTRACT**

Medical geography, an interdisciplinary subfield of geography, examines the spatial distribution of diseases and healthcare resources. The sub-discipline investigates the relationship between environmental and social factors and health outcomes. This paper provides a comparative review on the evolution of medical geography in Egypt and Nigeria, two key African contexts. It traces its development from ancient medical practices to its modern-day applications. The historical progression is examined, from Hippocrates' early observations and Arab physicians' contributions to John Snow's 19th-century cholera map, which formalized the field. The review explored the paradigm shift from medical to health geography broadening to encompass health, safety, and well-being, moving beyond mere disease mapping. Methodologies such as disease mapping and cultural ecology are introduced, with an emphasis on their applications in resource distribution and disease prevention in developing countries. The study identified significant challenges, including data acquisition and the application of spatial tools in resource-limited settings. The comparison between Egypt and Nigeria provides insight into how medical geography has evolved differently in these regions, shaped by local health systems and socio-political contexts. The paper concludes by emphasizing the importance of integrating medical geography into public health planning to address contemporary health challenges in Africa, making specific recommendations for future research.

KEYWORDS: Medical geography; Egypt; Nigeria; Spatial analysis; Public health planning; Health geography.

INTRODUCTION

The field of medical geography has evolved significantly, becoming a critical discipline for understanding how geographic factors impact health, safety, and well-being. Medical geography explores the spatial patterns and environmental determinants of health, examining how factors such as location, climate, and infrastructure influence disease prevalence, healthcare access, and overall quality of life. In Egypt and Nigeria, two culturally rich yet geographically distinct regions, medical geography offers unique insights into public health challenges and developmental trends. The comparative study of these two countries provides a valuable perspective on the evolution of medical geography to healthcare infrastructure, disease control, and population health interventions (Uzoma, 2020). Egypt and Nigeria, while distinct in terms of climate, demography, and socio-political structures, share a common struggle with health disparities, infectious disease burden, and resource limitations that impact health outcomes. Medical geography in these countries addresses not only the distribution of diseases but also the underlying determinants of health, including socioeconomic status, environmental hazards, and access to healthcare services. In both countries, urbanization, population growth, and climate change have further complicated public health efforts, necessitating advanced geographic methods to monitor, manage, and mitigate health risks (Aliyu & Lawal, 2017).

This review examines the historical and contemporary developmental trends in medical geography in Egypt and Nigeria. It explores the progression from early disease mapping and epidemiological studies to modern geographic information systems (GIS) and spatial analysis, which have become vital in addressing issues such as infectious disease outbreaks, pollution and healthcare accessibility. Furthermore, it assesses how

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each country has integrated medical geography into health policies and practices, analyzing how differences in political, economic, and social contexts have influenced the evolution of medical geography in both settings (Elsabawy, 2013)

This review aims to highlight key lessons, challenges, and opportunities for leveraging medical geography to enhance health outcomes and safety. Understanding these trends will enable policymakers and healthcare professionals better utilize geographic tools to address the pressing health issues facing Egypt, Nigeria, and other regions with similar profiles. The study stems from the need to understand how medical geography has developed through time, with emphasis on two African countries, Egypt and Nigeria. Both countries face distinct public health challenges influenced by environmental and socioeconomic factors. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), health is not merely the absence of disease or infirmity but a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being. This definition underscores the importance of examining environmental, socioeconomic, and spatial determinants that contribute to or detract from holistic health in any population (Bambra et al., 2010). A comparative review allows for the analysis of how geography has shaped healthcare access, disease mapping, and interventions over time. Additionally, this review addresses knowledge gaps and seeks to contribute to improved public health strategies, especially in response to contemporary health crises. The study also contributes to the discourse on the built environment and sustainable development. To achieve the purpose of this review, our study poses the following research questions?

How has medical geography evolved in Egypt and Nigeria over time?

How has the built environment influenced health outcomes in Egypt and Nigeria?

Medical geography, or the geography of diseases, has a long history. The very first precedent for the development of medical geography can be traced to over 2000 years ago when Hippocrates (c. 460–377 B.C.), often referred to as the father of medicine, highlighted the profound connection between human health and environmental factors, stating:

“Whoever wishes to investigate medicine properly should proceed thus: in the first place to consider the seasons of the year, and what effects each of them produces. [...] Then the waters which the inhabitants use, whether they be marshy and soft, or hard and running from elevated and rocky situations. [...] In the same manner, when one comes into a city to which he is a stranger, he ought to consider its situation, how it lies as to the winds and the rising of the sun” (Hippocrates, *On Airs, Waters, and Places*, Trans. Jones, 1923, p. 5).

This early understanding of the interaction between environmental factors and health laid the foundation for medical geography, demonstrating how geography affects well-being. Reflecting on historical precedent, (Barrett, 2002), posits that Dehorne, the editor of the Royal Society of Medicine and founder of the *Journal de Médecine Militaire* appears to have been the first to use the term 'géographie médicale,' in 1782. However, it was Leonhard Ludwig Finke's (Finke, 1792–1795) work titled; *Versuch einer allgemeinen medicinisch-praktischen Geographie* i.e., *Attempt at a General Medical-Practical Geography* that had a wide grip on the subject matter. (Finke 1792 as cited in Barrett (2002). Due to his great three-volume work, many during his time for over a decade, acknowledged him as the one who coined the word “medical geography”. To further advance the frontiers of knowledge in the sub-discipline, Friedrich Schnurrer (1784-1833) created one of the first attempts to map diseases globally (Schnurrer, 1827). This review may not be exhaustive but may be considered incomplete without the contributions of Jacques May (1896 – 1975). Similarly, Meade and Emch (2010) assert that the ancient study of how people, their cultures, and societies in different environments create and spread disease, promote health, and provide care for the sick has never been more relevant. The history of medical geography can be traced back to 1854, when

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John Snow mapped cholera outbreak in London and highlighted the crucial role of geography (i.e. the location of a tap in Broad Street) in understanding disease patterns as shown in Figure 1.

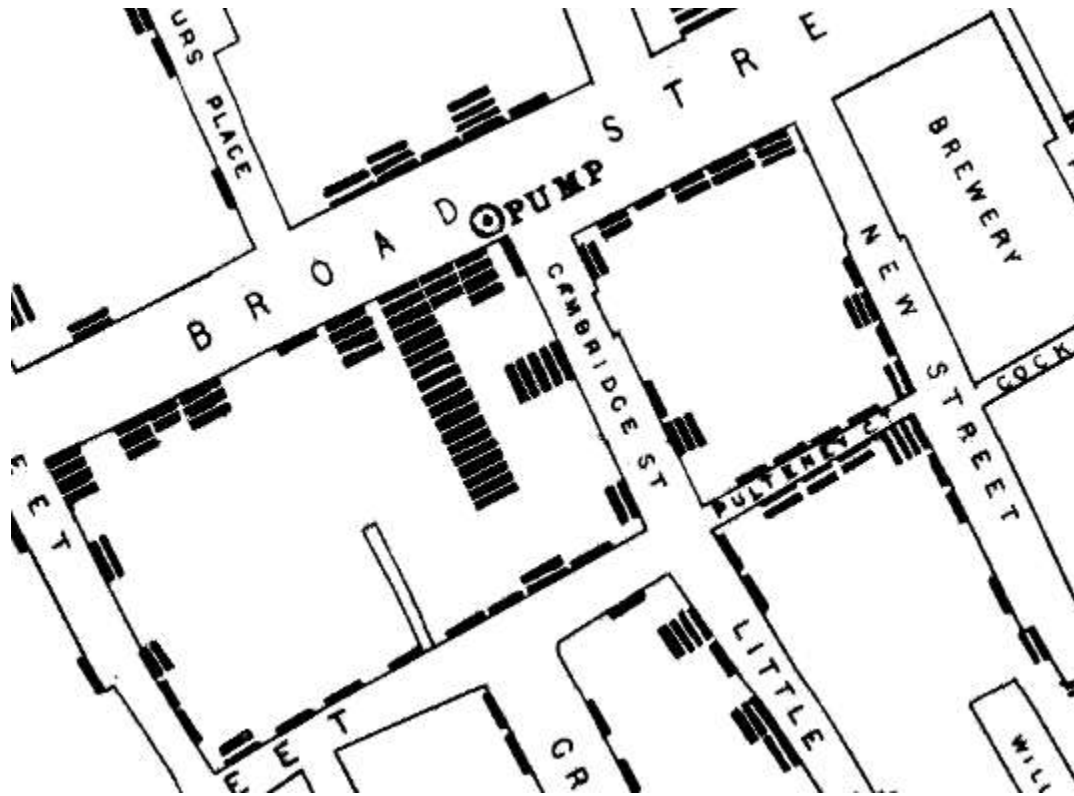


Figure 1: The location of a tap in Broad Street

Source: Adapted from Steven Johnson's 2006 book *The Ghost Map the Story of London's Most Terrifying Epidemic, and How it Changed Science, Cities and the Modern World*.

Furthermore, the National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research (NIH) upheld a study of dental health in the early 20th century that revealed fewer cavities among children in certain regions of Colorado. By mapping these areas and analyzing local groundwater, researchers discovered that children living in areas with higher fluoride levels had significantly lower rates of cavities (NIH, 2024). This example further underscores the value of spatial analysis, particularly in identifying environmental factors influencing health outcomes. Other significant historical events include the global influenza pandemic in 1918, the Black Death, the 1947 cholera epidemic in Egypt, the re-emerging Ebola virus and more recently, the Corona virus which is now the most widespread pandemic in human history. One thing is clear from the foregoing, and that is “The fight against disease is yet to be won”.

In Nigeria, Adamu, et al. (2023) traces the development of medical geography to the research conducted during the colonial period through to the 1960s. On the other hand, Elsabawy (2011), posits that:

Institutions such as the National Research Center, the Theodore Bilharz Research Institute, the Nutrition Institute, the Tropical Medicine Center, the Cancer Institute, and various medical colleges and research centers produce numerous specialized scientific journals focused on diseases influenced by geographic environments which were instrumental for the development of medical geography in Egypt.

Built Environment and Sustainable Development

Many have often asked “What does geography have in common with medicine?” Brown et al., (2009) contend that the term "medical geography" is misleading because it encompasses very few medical aspects. He proposes that the field would be more accurately described as "epidemiologic geography," "geography of disease," "public health geography," or "the geography of health and disease." Traditionally, the field has been concerned with mapping the prevalence of diseases and understanding their spatial patterns, yet over time, it has expanded to encompass a broader range of health-related issues, including the impact of environmental, social, and economic factors on well-being. The study attempts several definitions beginning from the influential works of Mayer around the 20th century who in an attempt to develop a synthesis, defined medical geography as geographical epidemiology, geographical pathology or disease ecology and the spatial perspective on health planning, health seeking behaviors and health services provision (Mayer, 1982). Medical geography may be positioned as a boundary discipline bridging geography and medicine. Their definition concurs that geographical concepts, methods, and techniques are applied to investigate health-related phenomena. Furthermore, (Howe, 1980) defined the sub-discipline as the study of human challenges in adapting to environmental conditions that contribute to disease. To this end, Elsabawy (2013) defines medical geography as the study of geographical factors related to the cause and effect of health and disease, focusing on affected places rather than diseases alone. Similarly, Adewoyin (2023) described the sub discipline as a branch of human geography that examines the connections between the physical and sociocultural environment and overall human health and well-being, offering insights into the differences in health and disease outcomes across various locations.

Meade and Emch (2010) posits that medical geography has evolved to include concepts and methodologies, and subjects related to the geography of health and disease. Although Medical geography integrates health-related research from biological, environmental, and social sciences, employing both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The sub-discipline is equally grounded in several core concepts that drive its theoretical and practical applications, including the spatial distribution of disease. This is a foundational concept that involves the understanding of geographic variability of disease incidence and prevalence across different regions. This concept, traditionally emphasized the epidemiological approach within medical geography which involves identifying patterns, clusters, and hotspots of diseases, and has been instrumental in controlling the spread of infectious diseases (Oduaro et al., 2023; Phillips et al. , 2007; Smallman-Raynor & Cliff, 2016). There is also the concept of Environmental health geography which focuses on the interaction between environmental factors and human health outcomes. Factors such as air and water quality, climate, pollution, and land use are all key variables in this area, as they directly impact rates of respiratory illnesses, infectious diseases, and even mental health (Bambra et al., 2010). This approach acknowledges that health is influenced by both natural and built environments, aligning with the WHO's comprehensive view of health as shown in Figure 2.

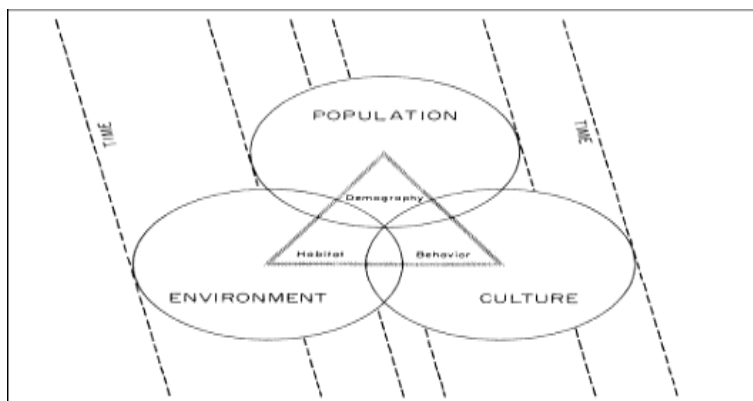


Figure 2: World Health Organisation's view of Health

Source: Meade (1977), p.383

Medical geography also examines the healthcare accessibility and equity concept. This concept is also central to medical geography because geographic variations in the availability, affordability, and accessibility of healthcare services can significantly impact population health. Medical geography examines these variations, considering factors such as transportation, socioeconomic status, and local healthcare infrastructure, which all contribute to disparities in health outcomes (Bambra et al., 2010; Iberi & Oduaro, 2023; Otu, 2018).

In line with this Askari & Gupta (2016) opined that medical geography straddles two main elements, viz the geography of diseases and the geography of medical resources. According to Phillips et al. (2007), the development of the geography of disease began with mapping morbidity and mortality rates linked to specific diseases at various geographic scales. This allowed early medical geographers to speculate about regional differences explaining geographic variations in diseases. Influenced by epidemiology and public health, medical geographers seek explanations for spatial variability in specific diseases, contributing to spatial statistics and modelling.

The geography of medical resources involves mapping distributions of medical resources, such as physicians, hospitals, and diagnostic equipment. Medical geographers focus on three key issues: the equity of geographical distributions, accessibility of medical resources, and the social and economic impacts of locating resources at particular locations (Otu, 2018). Over the years, studies have used ratios, location quotients, and Gini coefficients to address geographic maldistribution of medical resources (Otu, 2018). Recent trends include tying research to specific policy issues, nutrition, and addressing physician shortages in rural areas (Adewoyin, 2017).

METHODOLOGIES IN MEDICAL GEOGRAPHY

Medical geography uses diverse methodologies which continue to evolve as technology advances. The oldest methodology is disease mapping which identifies disease clusters by visualizing prevalence, aiding in tracking and control, as seen in John Snow's 1854 cholera map (Buzai, 2020). Also, the Geographic Information Systems (GIS) allow for sophisticated spatial analysis, integrating layers like demographics and environment to pinpoint health risks and guide interventions (Uzoma, 2020). Another methodology is spatial scan statistics used to test for disease clusters or if a disease is randomly distributed. Scan statistics have been used to analyse disease risks through statistical models, especially for vector-borne diseases. Furthermore, qualitative methods have been used to capture cultural impacts on health and in participatory researches while mixed methods combine various methodologies to provide comprehensive insights into human environment interactions. Studies have also utilized the remote sensing tool to monitor environmental health and access vector habitats.

CASE STUDIES: EGYPT AND NIGERIA

In line with the aim of the paper, we present two case studies: Egypt and Nigeria. These nations, while geographically and culturally diverse, share common challenges related to health disparities (Oduaro et al., 2023), resource constraints (Omar, 2024), and rapid urbanization (Aliyu & Lawal, 2017).

Egypt, with its ancient medical legacy, provides a fascinating backdrop for examining the evolution of medical geography. From the early observations of the Nile's impact on health to the present day, the country has witnessed a complex interplay of environmental, social, and political factors shaping its health landscape. The ancient Egyptians were keen observers of the natural world and its influence on health. The Nile River, while a source of life and fertility, also brought about seasonal outbreaks of waterborne diseases, shaping settlement patterns and medical practices. The Ebers Papyrus, a testament to their medical knowledge, documents their understanding of anatomy, disease, and treatment, revealing an early awareness of the interconnectedness between geography and health (Hallmann, 2004). It is on this account that physicians like Ibn Sina (Sajadi et al., 2009) made significant contributions to the field. Their work,

integrating Greek, Persian, and Indian medical traditions, emphasized the importance of environmental factors, diet, and lifestyle in maintaining health (Avicenna, 1930). Although (Elsabawy, 2013) pointed out that:

“Medical geography in Egypt, as a subfield, is relatively recent compared to others. In his paper on Medical geography in Egypt as an interdisciplinary subfield, he noted that from 1979 to 2010, the number of studies and papers increased significantly, reflecting the growth and diversification of the field. The early stage (1979-1989) saw only a few studies due to a lack of clear concepts and resources. The second stage (1989-1999) saw an increase in specific studies on disease patterns and health services. The third stage (1999-2008) focused on health care and health problems in Egypt, such as liver diseases, kidney failure, respiratory issues, cancer, and malaria”.

Modern day Egypt faces a double burden of diseases, including infectious diseases such as schistosomiasis and tuberculosis, and chronic illnesses, including cardiovascular disease and diabetes (Abdelfattah et al., 2013). Rapid urbanization, environmental degradation, and socioeconomic disparities pose significant challenges to public health.

A significant aspect of medical geography in Egypt has been the study of infectious diseases and their spatial patterns. For instance, the distribution of hepatitis C, a major public health issue in Egypt, has been extensively mapped and studied to understand its correlation with various socio-economic and environmental factors (El-Ghitany & Farghaly, 2019). The role of medical geography in addressing the 1947 cholera epidemic is another notable example, where spatial analysis helped in identifying the sources and controlling the spread of the disease (Smallman-Raynor & Cliff, 2016). Furthermore, GIS-based studies have been instrumental in understanding the spatial distribution of schistosomiasis (El-Ghitany & Farghaly, 2019).

On the other hand, Nigeria presents a unique set of health challenges and opportunities. Characterized by vast geographical diversity, a rapidly growing population, and significant socioeconomic disparities (Aliyu & Lawal, 2017), Nigeria's health landscape is complex and constantly evolving. Before colonization, traditional Nigerian medicine thrived, with healers possessing a deep understanding of local medicinal plants and their applications. These indigenous knowledge systems, often intertwined with spiritual beliefs, played a vital role in maintaining community health. The arrival of European colonizers in the 19th century brought about significant changes to Nigeria's health landscape (Adamu et al., 2023). The introduction of Western medicine, while offering new treatments, also disrupted traditional healing practices and led to the uneven distribution of healthcare facilities, often favoring urban centers. In their study on Medical geography in Nigeria: History, debates and state of the discipline, Adamu et al. (2023) present a historical foundation of the development of medical geography in Nigeria. According to them:

“The development of teaching and research in medical geography in Nigeria can be categorized into four phases: the pre-1970 period, which served as the foundational phase; the 1970s to 1980s, focusing on the pioneering works in the field; the 1990s, identified as the latency phase; and the millennial phase, characterized by the expansion and popularization of medical geography beyond the University of Ibadan”.

Present-day Nigeria faces a quadruple burden of disease, encompassing infectious diseases (malaria, HIV/AIDS), chronic illnesses such as hypertension, diabetes, nutritional deficiencies, and injuries. Poverty, inadequate sanitation, and limited access to healthcare services exacerbate these challenges, particularly in rural areas. Medical geography offers valuable tools for understanding and addressing Nigeria's health disparities. One significant application of medical geography in Nigeria is the mapping of disease prevalence across different regions. Studies have shown variations in malaria incidence related to environmental factors such as rainfall, temperature, and proximity to water bodies (Adewoyin, 2015). These

spatial analyses have been vital in targeting malaria control programs and distributing resources effectively. Another important application of medical geography in Nigeria is in the field of maternal and child health (Adewoyin, 2020; Otu, 2018). Geographic disparities in access to healthcare services, particularly in rural and remote areas, have been a major focus. Spatial analysis has helped in identifying underserved areas and planning the allocation of healthcare facilities and resources to improve maternal and child health outcomes.

FROM MEDICAL GEOGRAPHY TO HEALTH GEOGRAPHY: A PARADIGM SHIFT

While the early foundations of medical geography were firmly rooted in understanding and mapping diseases, the latter half of the 20th century witnessed a significant paradigm shift. This transition marked a move from a purely medical model, focused on illness, to a broader health geography perspective, encompassing the multifaceted determinants of well-being. This shift was driven by several factors. Firstly, the epidemiological transition (Atiim & Elliott, 2015) characterized by a decline in infectious diseases and a rise in chronic illnesses, necessitated a more holistic understanding of health beyond mere disease absence. Secondly, the growing recognition of social, economic, and environmental factors as key drivers of health inequalities led to a greater emphasis on social justice and health equity within the field (Bambra et al., 2010). Health geography, therefore, embraces a wider lens, examining the interplay of social, environmental, and behavioral factors in shaping health outcomes. This includes investigating access to healthcare services (Otu, 2018), the influence of socioeconomic status on health disparities (Iberi & Oduaro, 2023), and the impact of environmental hazards on well-being (Aliyu & Lawal, 2017).

As medical geography continues to evolve, several emerging trends are shaping its future trajectory. This includes rapid advancements in technology, particularly in geospatial technologies, big data analytics, artificial intelligence, and Python. These technologies are revolutionizing the field. High-resolution satellite imagery, remote sensing data, and mobile health technologies also provide unprecedented opportunities for monitoring health trends, tracking disease outbreaks, and delivering targeted interventions. Additionally, there is a focus on participatory action research and content analysis suited for underserved populations (Faucher & Garner, 2015). Also, the growing recognition of climate change's profound impact on human health has placed medical geography at the forefront of global health research. Understanding the spatial and temporal dynamics of climate-sensitive diseases, such as malaria and dengue fever, is crucial for developing effective adaptation and mitigation strategies (Adamu et al., 2023; Adewoyin, 2023). Furthermore, the One Health concept which recognizes the interconnectedness of human, animal, and environmental health (Kazim, 2023), is gaining increasing traction. Medical geographers, with their expertise in spatial analysis and understanding of human-environment interactions, are well-positioned to contribute to this multidisciplinary approach.

CONCLUSION

Medical geography, with its roots in understanding the spatial dimensions of health and disease, has evolved into a vibrant and multifaceted field. By embracing a holistic perspective, incorporating technological advancements, and collaborating across disciplines, medical geography continues to provide valuable insights for addressing global health challenges and promoting health equity. As we navigate an increasingly complex and interconnected world, the insights offered by medical geography will be more crucial than ever in creating a healthier and more sustainable future for all.

Recommendations

To further enhance medical geography in Egypt and Nigeria, it is recommended that medical geography researchers leverage emerging technologies, such as big data analytics, eHealth, mHealth, telehealth and telemedicine to improve health monitoring and interventions. Additionally, fostering participatory action research and implementation for underserved communities and integrating climate change considerations

into health strategies will be essential. Emphasizing a One Health approach will further strengthen the connections between human, animal, and environmental health, thus, promoting comprehensive solutions to health challenges.

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Chapter Forty-Two**Remote Sensing Application in Environmental Management****Anyadiegwu, Princecharle C.; Okereke, Andy C.***Department of Surveying and Geoinformatics, Imo State University, P.M.B. 2000, Owerri, Nigeria**EMAIL: cpcanyadiegwu@gmail.com***ABSTRACT**

Remote sensing has emerged as a critical tool in environmental management, offering unprecedented capabilities for monitoring, analysing and addressing environmental challenges. This paper provided an in-depth exploration of the application of remote sensing technologies in various aspects of environmental management, including land use and land cover change, deforestation, water resource management, disaster response and climate change monitoring. By leveraging satellite imagery, aerial photography and advanced sensor data. Remote sensing enables the detection of environmental changes with high spatial and temporal resolution. This allows for proactive management strategies and informed decision-making. The study also examined the integration of remote sensing data with Geographic Information Systems (GIS) to enhance the accuracy and efficiency of environmental assessments. Through case studies, this research highlighted the effectiveness of remote sensing in tracking environmental degradation, predicting natural hazards and supporting sustainable resource management. The findings underscore the transformative impact of remote sensing on environmental management practices and advocate for its continued development and application in addressing global environmental challenges.

KEYWORDS: Remote sensing; Environmental Management; GIS; Climate change; Landuse monitoring

INTRODUCTION

Environmental management has become an increasingly vital component in the global effort to address the escalating challenges posed by rapid urbanisation, climate change, biodiversity loss, deforestation, water scarcity, and the overexploitation of natural resources. As human activities exert pressure on ecological systems, the need for accurate, real-time, and comprehensive data to guide decision-making has never been more critical. Traditional methods of environmental monitoring—such as field surveys, manual data collection, and ground-based observation—are often labour-intensive, time-consuming, limited in scope, and unable to capture the dynamic nature of environmental processes. Remote sensing offers a transformative solution to these limitations. It involves acquiring information about the Earth's surface and atmosphere without physical contact, using satellite imagery, aerial photography, drones, and sensor technologies. These platforms provide consistent and wide-area observations that are essential for analysing environmental changes at both local and global scales. Remote sensing technologies are particularly valuable for detecting land use and land cover changes, monitoring forest loss, assessing water bodies, mapping flood zones, and tracking climate variability over time. Moreover, when integrated with Geographic Information Systems (GIS), remote sensing enables spatial analyses, data modelling, and the visualization of complex environmental phenomena. This combination facilitates predictive analytics, enhances situational awareness, and supports data-driven planning for sustainable development. The ability to overlay multiple layers of environmental, demographic, and socio-economic data allows policymakers and environmental managers to make more informed and effective decisions.

This paper explores the multifaceted applications of remote sensing in environmental management, highlighting its role in bridging the data gap in resource monitoring and

environmental governance. Through critical analysis of case studies and stakeholder insights gathered from surveys, the study demonstrates how remote sensing not only enhances the accuracy of environmental assessments but also contributes to more responsive, inclusive, and strategic environmental policies. As such, remote sensing is poised to become a cornerstone of 21st-century environmental stewardship.

METHODOLOGY

The research employed a mixed-methods approach combining qualitative and quantitative data sources, including detailed case study analyses, structured surveys, and spatial data interpretation using geospatial software. This design was intended to capture both the technical application and the stakeholder perspectives surrounding remote sensing technologies in environmental management.

Case Studies

To demonstrate practical applications of remote sensing in environmental contexts, five case studies were carefully selected based on relevance, data availability, and environmental significance. These case studies examined land use and land cover change, deforestation monitoring, water quality assessment, disaster response mapping, and climate change impact analysis. For land use and land cover change, multi-temporal satellite imagery (from Landsat and Sentinel-2 missions) was used to assess urban expansion and vegetation loss. In the deforestation monitoring case, high-resolution images from commercial satellites like PlanetScope and WorldView were analysed to track forest cover changes and identify illegal logging activities. Water quality assessment relied on remote sensing data using spectral indices such as NDWI (Normalized Difference Water Index) and TSS (Total Suspended Solids) to detect pollution levels and turbidity in rivers and lakes. For disaster response mapping, data from MODIS and radar sensors (e.g., Sentinel-1 SAR imagery) were used for real-time flood mapping and burn scar analysis post-wildfire. Finally, climate change impact analysis was carried out by studying long-term vegetation trends using NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index) datasets to observe climate-induced ecosystem changes. These datasets were processed and analysed using software such as ArcGIS Pro, QGIS, Google Earth Engine, and SNAP (Sentinel Application Platform). Time series analysis, supervised classification, and change detection algorithms were employed for data interpretation.

Surveys

Complementing the spatial analysis, a structured survey was conducted to gather insights from key stakeholders in the field of environmental management. The survey targeted a diverse group of 50 respondents, including professionals from environmental protection agencies, academic researchers, town planners, conservation NGOs, and GIS/remote sensing consultants. The survey instrument was developed to capture both quantitative and qualitative feedback, covering frequency and purpose of remote sensing usage, types of platforms and software adopted (e.g., ArcGIS, QGIS, ERDAS Imagine), challenges in accessing and interpreting remote sensing data, and institutional capacity, training received, and funding support. Data was collected through online tools (Google Forms and email responses), supplemented by field interviews where necessary. Results were analysed using descriptive statistics, thematic coding for open-ended responses, and comparative analysis to align survey outcomes with case study observations.

Validation and Triangulation

To ensure validity and consistency of results, triangulation was applied by comparing findings across case studies, survey responses, and literature benchmarks. This methodological rigour enhanced the reliability of conclusions drawn regarding the effectiveness, accessibility, and integration of remote sensing in environmental decision-making. This comprehensive approach ensured that the study not only demonstrated the technical capabilities of remote sensing tools but also addressed the socio-institutional frameworks necessary for their successful implementation.

RESULTS

Findings from both the case studies and surveys demonstrated key patterns in the application of remote sensing in environmental management. Remote sensing revealed significant transformations in land use patterns, with urbanisation contributing to a reduction in agricultural and forested land. Multi-temporal satellite data enabled the quantification of these trends and offered insights into how such changes impact biodiversity and ecosystems (Johnson & Smith, 2020). High-resolution satellite imagery was effective in detecting small-scale illegal logging activities, enhancing conservation enforcement. The integration of field reports with remote sensing data increased the reliability of monitoring efforts (Brown, 2021). Spectral and thermal imagery helped identify pollution in lakes and rivers, including suspended solids and thermal stress. These findings facilitated timely responses to contamination (Williams, 2023). Satellite data enabled real-time flood mapping and wildfire detection, which improved emergency response and resource allocation. This demonstrates the critical role of remote sensing in managing both short- and long-term disaster impacts (Thomas & Wilson, 2022). Longitudinal vegetation indices from remote sensing platforms revealed gradual ecosystem degradation due to prolonged drought and rising temperatures. Remote sensing thus provides valuable foresight for ecological restoration planning (Smith & Jones, 2021). A high percentage of respondents (85%) regularly employed remote sensing, with 70% noting significant improvements in decision-making. Key benefits included spatial coverage, cost-effectiveness, and frequency of data acquisition. However, challenges such as limited access to high-resolution data and technical expertise were reported.

Case Studies' Results

Land Use Changes

Remote sensing data provided clear insights into significant changes in land use patterns, particularly in the shift from agricultural and forested lands to expanding urban areas. Through multi-temporal satellite imagery analysis, it was possible to quantify the loss of natural vegetation and farmlands as a result of urban sprawl, industrial development, and infrastructure expansion. The study illustrated that remote sensing allows for more precise, large-scale tracking of these changes, helping urban planners and environmental managers develop sustainable land-use policies (Johnson & Smith, 2020). Additionally, the ability to monitor these shifts over time is crucial for evaluating the effectiveness of land conservation efforts and for predicting future trends that could impact biodiversity and ecosystem services.

Deforestation Rates

Remote sensing technology was instrumental in mapping deforestation rates, often corroborating ground-based reports of illegal logging and land degradation activities. The use of high-resolution satellite imagery allowed for the detection of small-scale deforestation, which may have otherwise gone unnoticed by traditional on-the-ground monitoring methods. The correlation between satellite observations and field reports highlighted the precision and accuracy of remote sensing in environmental management (Brown,

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2021). Furthermore, the findings suggested that integrating satellite data with field surveys can enhance law enforcement and promote more stringent conservation measures in regions prone to deforestation.

Water Quality Monitoring

Remote sensing data played a critical role in identifying areas of declining water quality, particularly about surface water bodies such as lakes, rivers and reservoirs. Using spectral signatures and thermal imaging, satellite sensors detected increases in suspended sediments, pollutants, and temperature changes in water bodies, which are indicative of environmental stress or contamination (Williams, 2023). The ability to detect these changes remotely allows for quicker interventions by local authorities, reducing the time lag between the occurrence of an issue and the implementation of corrective measures. This proactive monitoring could significantly improve water management strategies and ensure more sustainable water resource use.

Disaster Management

The role of remote sensing in disaster management cannot be overstated. Satellite data were critical in mapping affected areas during natural disasters such as floods, wildfires, and landslides. The ability to quickly obtain detailed information about the extent of damage enabled emergency responders to allocate resources more effectively and prioritise their efforts (Thomas & Wilson, 2022). For example, in flood-prone areas, remote sensing technology allowed for real-time flood mapping, helping authorities make timely decisions on evacuations and the distribution of aid. In the long term, remote sensing also facilitates post-disaster assessments, which are vital for recovery planning and risk reduction strategies in the future.

Climate Change Effects

Longitudinal remote sensing data provided valuable insights into how climate change is affecting vegetation cover, revealing significant shifts in local ecosystems. Vegetation indices derived from satellite data showed a noticeable decline in plant health and biodiversity in certain regions, particularly those susceptible to prolonged droughts and temperature increases. These shifts can lead to long-term vulnerabilities in ecosystems, making them more prone to degradation and less resilient to further environmental changes (Johnson, 2020). By tracking these changes over time, environmental managers can identify hotspots of vulnerability and implement targeted interventions, such as reforestation or habitat restoration, to mitigate the impacts of climate change.

Survey Results

The survey results provided additional context to the case study findings, offering insights into the awareness, utilization and perceived effectiveness of remote sensing technologies among environmental professionals.

Utilization of Remote Sensing Data

A significant majority (85%) of respondents reported that they regularly use remote sensing data in their environmental management activities. This high adoption rate reflects the growing recognition of remote sensing as a valuable tool for monitoring and addressing environmental challenges. Over 70% of respondents indicated that remote sensing data significantly improved their decision-making capabilities, particularly in terms of accuracy and timeliness. This supports the view that remote sensing enhances data-driven decision-making, allowing for more informed and targeted management practices.

Perceived Benefits

The perceived benefits of remote sensing technologies were numerous. Respondents highlighted improved efficiency in environmental monitoring, especially in remote or inaccessible areas. The ability to monitor large-scale phenomena, such as deforestation, water quality, and natural disasters, from a distance provides a level of efficiency that traditional methods cannot match. Additionally, respondents noted that remote sensing enables them to gather data more frequently and at a lower cost compared to ground-based monitoring systems. This benefit is particularly crucial in regions with limited resources for extensive fieldwork.

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The use of remote sensing data also enhances long-term environmental planning. By providing historical datasets and trend analyses, environmental managers can better understand the progression of environmental issues and plan accordingly. For example, predicting the spread of desertification or the impacts of urban sprawl becomes more feasible with the help of remote sensing technology.

Challenges Identified

Despite the clear advantages, several challenges were identified. The most commonly reported challenge was limited access to advanced remote sensing technologies, particularly high-resolution satellite imagery, which can be prohibitively expensive. Many respondents from developing countries indicated that the cost of acquiring detailed remote sensing data is a major barrier to its widespread use. Additionally, some respondents pointed to the lack of technical expertise required to interpret complex datasets. Although remote sensing has become more accessible over time, there remains a significant skills gap in the ability to effectively analyze and apply the data for practical environmental management.

Another challenge was the difficulty in integrating remote sensing data with other forms of environmental data. While remote sensing provides a wealth of information, combining it with on-the-ground measurements and socioeconomic data can be complicated, especially when data formats are incompatible or when there is a lack of standardized protocols for data sharing across different platforms.

DISCUSSION

The results from this study illustrated the extensive range of applications remote sensing offers in the field of environmental management. Remote sensing has transformed how environmental data is collected, monitored and analyzed, providing valuable insights that are crucial for understanding and managing the complexities of environmental change. Through the use of satellite imagery, aerial photographs and sensor data, remote sensing technologies deliver high-resolution data that can be used to monitor land-use changes, detect deforestation, assess the health of ecosystems, track water resources, and even predict natural disasters. This real-time data enhances decision-making processes and enables policymakers and environmental managers to implement more effective, proactive, and sustainable strategies (Garcia, 2019).

Enhanced Environmental Monitoring and Proactive Management

One of the major benefits of remote sensing technologies is their ability to monitor large-scale environmental phenomena across broad geographic regions. The ability to observe changes over time at varying spatial and temporal scales makes it possible to detect subtle environmental alterations that would otherwise go unnoticed with traditional monitoring methods. For instance, remote sensing can capture early signs of deforestation or desertification, providing an opportunity to intervene before these issues escalate into more severe environmental degradation (Smith & Jones, 2021). This capacity for continuous monitoring also enables proactive management approaches. By detecting environmental changes as they occur, decision-makers can swiftly respond to emerging threats, such as forest fires or flooding. For example, satellite-based remote sensing can provide early warnings of natural disasters, allowing authorities to initiate disaster preparedness plans, evacuate vulnerable populations, or implement other mitigation measures. This proactive approach not only minimizes environmental damage but also reduces human and economic losses.

Data Integration with GIS: Amplifying Analytical Capabilities

The combination of remote sensing data with Geographic Information Systems (GIS) has greatly expanded the potential for environmental analysis. GIS serves as a powerful tool for mapping, modeling, and visualizing environmental data, facilitating a deeper understanding of spatial patterns and relationships. When remote sensing data is integrated with GIS, it allows for more comprehensive analyses of environmental changes, including the ability to layer multiple datasets and assess correlations between different environmental variables (Wang, 2022). For example, GIS can be used to overlay satellite imagery

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with demographic data, climate information, and economic variables, enabling a multi-dimensional analysis of how environmental changes affect human populations. This integration supports the development of predictive models that can forecast future environmental trends and assess the potential impact of different management strategies. Such models are critical in planning for climate change adaptation, resource conservation, and disaster risk reduction, making remote sensing and GIS indispensable tools in sustainable environmental management.

Challenges in Remote Sensing Implementation

While remote sensing holds great promise, the implementation of this technology is not without challenges. One of the primary hurdles is data accessibility. Although some satellite imagery is freely available, high-resolution or near-real-time data often comes at a significant cost, particularly for countries or organizations with limited financial resources. This lack of access to affordable data can hinder the widespread adoption of remote sensing technologies, especially in developing nations that stand to benefit the most from its capabilities (Anderson, 2020).

Moreover, there is a steep learning curve associated with the analysis and interpretation of remote sensing data. Interpreting satellite imagery and sensor outputs requires specialized skills in geospatial analysis and image processing. Without adequate training or technical expertise, many organizations struggle to fully utilize the data generated by remote sensing technologies. The reliance on external consultants or experts can also be costly, making it difficult for smaller institutions to sustain their use of remote sensing in the long term.

Data interoperability is another issue, as integrating remote sensing data from different sources (e.g., satellites, drones, ground-based sensors) can be technically challenging due to differences in data formats, resolution, and temporal coverage. The lack of standardized protocols for data sharing further complicates efforts to combine datasets for comprehensive environmental analysis. Overcoming these technical challenges will be crucial to unlocking the full potential of remote sensing technologies.

Building Capacity and Improving Data Accessibility

To address these challenges, efforts should be made to improve data accessibility and build technical capacity at both local and global levels. One solution is to promote the development and distribution of open-access satellite data. International collaborations and partnerships between governmental organizations, space agencies, and research institutions could subsidize the costs associated with remote sensing data, making it more affordable and accessible, particularly for developing countries (Wang, 2022). In addition, capacity-building initiatives are essential for expanding the technical expertise required to interpret and analyze remote sensing data. Training programs in geospatial technologies, remote sensing, and GIS can empower environmental professionals and organizations to leverage these tools more effectively. Governments and educational institutions should invest in developing curricula and certification programs that equip individuals with the necessary skills to utilize remote sensing data in environmental management. Building local capacity ensures that organizations can sustain their remote sensing efforts without the need for external expertise.

Implications for Policy and Decision-Making

The widespread adoption of remote sensing technologies has significant implications for environmental policy and decision-making. By providing real-time data on environmental changes, remote sensing allows policymakers to develop more timely and effective responses to environmental challenges. For example, satellite monitoring of deforestation can inform policy decisions related to forest conservation, illegal logging enforcement, and reforestation programs. Similarly, remote sensing data on water resources can help governments manage water distribution and usage more efficiently, particularly in regions prone to drought or water scarcity (Anderson, 2020).

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Moreover, remote sensing data can enhance international cooperation on environmental issues. Many environmental challenges, such as climate change, air pollution, and water resource management, are trans boundary in nature. The ability to share and analyze remote sensing data across borders can foster greater collaboration between countries and organizations in addressing these shared challenges. This collaborative approach can lead to more coordinated and effective environmental management strategies on a global scale.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study highlighted the transformative impact of remote sensing on environmental management practices. Remote sensing technologies have revolutionized environmental management by providing critical data that enhances the monitoring of environmental changes and facilitates informed decision-making. When integrated with GIS, remote sensing offers powerful tools for spatial analysis and predictive modelling, which can improve the effectiveness of environmental policies and strategies. However, challenges such as data accessibility, the need for specialized expertise, and issues with data interoperability must be addressed to fully realize the potential of remote sensing technologies. By investing in capacity-building initiatives, promoting open-access data, and fostering international collaborations, stakeholders can overcome these challenges and harness the full capabilities of remote sensing to promote sustainable environmental management.

Recommendations

To overcome these challenges, respondents recommended greater investments in capacity building and training for environmental professionals. Workshops, certification programs and university courses in remote sensing and Geographic Information Systems (GIS) would help bridge the technical skills gap. Another recommendation was to promote collaborative efforts between governments, research institutions and private companies to make remote sensing data more accessible and affordable. Developing open-access platforms for remote sensing data, particularly for countries with fewer resources, would significantly enhance the integration of this technology into environmental management practices. Additionally, respondents suggested that greater emphasis be placed on improving the interoperability of remote sensing data with other environmental datasets. Standardized data formats and improved software for multi-source data integration would help environmental managers make more holistic and informed decisions based on a combination of remote sensing and field-based data.

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45. David O. Edokpa
46. Ifeoma M. Onyejekwe
47. Uloma L. Onyeananam
48. Okechi Dominic Azuwike
49. Ephraim Nwanguma
50. Victoria Ifeoma Konkwo
51. Abubakar Yamusa Abdullahi
52. Fatima Bello Muhammad
53. Christian N. Chibo
54. Patricia N. Duru
55. Chiamaka R. Igweanuba
56. Chioma Precious Oku
57. Ugochi Agatha Asikogu
58. Sylvanus Ibeabuchi Iro
59. Chukwuemeka O. Ulor
60. Okuh Deborah
61. Faisal C. Emetumah
62. Ude Anayo D.
63. John Ugwunke
64. Christopher Chimaobi Onyeneke
65. Edith Chinwe Pat-Mbanol
66. Simeon Chidera Amanfo
67. Tessiana O. Ukah
68. Emmanuella C. Onyenechere
69. Ifeanyi Joachim Oduaro
70. Anyadiegwu, Princecharle C.
71. Okereke, Andy C.