IMPACT OF URBANIZATION ON THE STANDARD OF LIVING IN PORT HARCOURT

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A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF BACHELOR OF SCIENCE DEGREE (B.Sc.) IN GEOGRAPHY AND REGIONAL PLANNING, UNIVERSITY OF BENIN, BENIN CITY

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to God Almighty for his grace and protection, to my family, friends and well-wishers, and my lecturers. God Bless you all.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My profound gratitude goes to my parents Chief and Mrs. E. E Igbifa for their parental care and support all through my stay in this learned institution and to my siblings Dr. Ene Eric Igbifa, Mss Ugbanaowaji Igbifa, Mr. Owajiinombere Igbifa for their support and encouragement throughout the years.

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To all my friends and scholars trying to make the world a better place, I say to you, "Yes we can."

God bless the Department of Geography and Regional Planning, God bless the Faculty of Social Sciences, God Bless the University of Benin and finally God bless Nigeria.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates critically the impact of urbanization on the standard of living in Port Harcourt. The aim of this study is to ascertain the impact of urbanization on the standard of living in Port Harcourt. To achieve this aim, a field work was conducted in Port Harcourt to ascertain if urbanization has impacted on the standard of living of respondents. A total of 380 questionnaires were distributed in the study area and out of these 368 were returned valid. Data generated from the field were fed into SPSS. Spearman non-parametric correlation analytical technique was used to test the hypothesis. The results from the analysis of data gotten from the field showed that urbanization has a weak and low relationship with standard of living. However, the relationship was not significant. Although urbanization has affected the standard of living in Port Harcourt, the standard of living is a little bit above average. It was also found that urbanization has impacted largely on the environmental condition in the study area. It was recommended therefore that although the standard of living is above average, the health care system, quality and network of roads, water supply, electricity supply, and drainage system can still be worked on and improved upon to create a better and more conducive urban centre. Also good environmental policies should be endorsed by the government to tackle the negative effects of urbanization on the environment.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In human history all over the world, urbanization is a global phenomenon. The United Nations defined urbanization as the movement of people from rural to urban areas with population growth equating to urban migration. Wikipedia (2018) defines urbanization as the population shift from rural to urban areas, "the gradual increase in the proportion of people living in urban areas", and the way each society adapts to the change. According to the United Nations, urban population will increase more than 2.5 billion between 2010 and 2050 in less developed regions, compared to less than 150 million in more developed regions. By 2050, more than 85 percent of the world's urbanization is expected to be in today's less developed regions. The united nations has also projected that nearly all global population growth from nearly all 2017 to 2030 will be absorbed by cities, about 1.1 billion new urbanites over the next 13 years (Barney Cohen, 2015).

Urbanization process in the developed countries is as a result of rapid development, modernization and industrialization, while urbanization in Nigeria, like other developing countries, is a consequence of the "push" of the rural areas and the "pull" of the urban centres (Aluko, 2010). It is not a surprise for urbanization to have enormous negative consequences in Nigeria and other developing countries because of the rapid population increase involved in its process. The index of urbanization in Nigeria which is the population increase is mainly caused by the rural-urban migration and not by

natural increase. Many researchers see rural-urban migration in urbanization process as the genesis of the resultant problems of urbanization in any part of the world (Onokerhoraye, 1976; Wahab, et al. 1990; Agbola, 2004; Olotuah and Adesiji, 2005; and Aluko, 2010).

Living in urban centres and cities offers individuals and families a variety of opportunities (O'Neil, 2012) due to the fact that urbanization connotes civilization and if properly controlled, socio economic progress (Ojo, 1981). Urban centres as hubs of civilization are therefore expected to offer employment, shelter, asses to services and better living conditions, hence urbanization aids high standard of living. This is however not the case in cities and urban centres of less developed countries of the world such as Nigeria, as the rate of urbanization appears to have slowed down and its impacts have been very dramatic as these countries and cities are ill-equipped to take full advantage of its benefits and manage the adverse consequences. In these cities such as Port Harcourt, rapid urbanization has come with complex management challenges in housing, transportation, land use, environmental degradation, crime, unemployment and public service delivery. These challenges appear to be overwhelming and very difficult to eradicate or control in these cities.

Aside from Lagos, the most rapid recent rates of urbanization in Nigeria have been around Port Harcourt, a major urban centre in the Niger Delta region, which was at the heart of the oil boom. It is in this light that this research will examine the impact of

urbanization on the standard of living in Port Harcourt, a massive urban centre in the developing world, and capital of Rivers state in Nigeria.

1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Available data reveals that Nigeria's urban population has been growing at an alarming rate. Nigerian towns and cities are exploding - growing in leaps and bounds. A little more than 50 years ago, fewer than 7% of Nigerians lived in urban centres (that is, settlements with populations of 20,000 or more). This proportion rose to 10% in 1952 and 19.2% in 1963. It is now estimated at about 55%. In fact, Nigerian cities are among the fastest growing in the world.

The problems and challenges posed by this rapid urban growth are immense. Very frightening and perhaps more easily observable are the human and environmental poverty, the declining quality of life, and the untapped wealth of human resources that they represent. Housing and associated facilities (water, electricity, etc.) are similarly inadequate, such that millions now live in substandard and subhuman environments, plagued by slums, squalor, and similarly inadequate social amenities, such as schools and health and recreational facilities. The gradual decline of social values and the breakdown of family cohesiveness and community spirit have resulted in increased levels of juvenile delinquency and crime.

Previous studies carried out on urbanization and standard of living shows that urbanization improves standard of living. For instance, the study carried out in Singapore in 2003 (Kai Hong Phua) in which a qualitative indicator (GDP) was used as an indices to

measure standard of living, showed that urbanization improves standard of living, however the study failed to assess the limitation of qualitative indicator in measuring or assessing standard of living. GDP figures do not show the distribution of income and uneven spread of wealth, for instance, rise in national property can also be accompanied by rise in relative poverty (Luther 2008). On the other hand, Pearce (1987) in his study of the effect of urbanization on living conditions in Delhi (India) argued that urbanization could be positive or negative and the selective impact observed depends to a large extent on the type of settlement, the socio economic position of the population and the occupation of the people.

This research will therefore be carried out to examine the impact of urbanization on standard of living in Port Harcourt, to ascertain if urbanization has a positive or negative effect on standard of living in Port Harcourt, a city in the developing world. Also this research will add to existing literature on urbanization and its impact on cities.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions are posed;

I. What are the indicators of standard of living?

II. What is the relationship between urbanization and standard of living?

III. What extent has urbanization affected the standard of living in Port Harcourt?

IV. How has urbanization affected the environmental condition in Port Harcourt?

V. What can be done to improve the standard of living in Port Harcourt?

1.4 THE AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The aim of this research is to ascertain the impact of urbanization on the standard of living in Port Harcourt. The following are the specific objectives.

1. To examine the indicators of standard of living.
2. Examine the relationship between urbanization and standard of living.
3. Examine the extent urbanization has affected the standard of living in the study area.
4. Examine how urbanization has affected the environmental condition in the study area.
5. To explore ways in which the standard of living of the residents can be improved.

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The hypothesis which this study tested is as follows;

H_o= Urbanization has no relationship with standard of living in Port Harcourt.

1.6 STUDY AREA

The study will be carried out in Port Harcourt which is the capital of Rivers State. Port Harcourt is located in latitude 4°46'38.71"N and longitude 7°00'48.24" E. It is located on the eastern part of Rivers State and the metropolitan area occupies about 180,000 hectares (Port Harcourt Master Plan, 1975). Rivers State is located in the Southern part of Nigeria. These are observed in the Figure 1.1, and Figure 1.2.

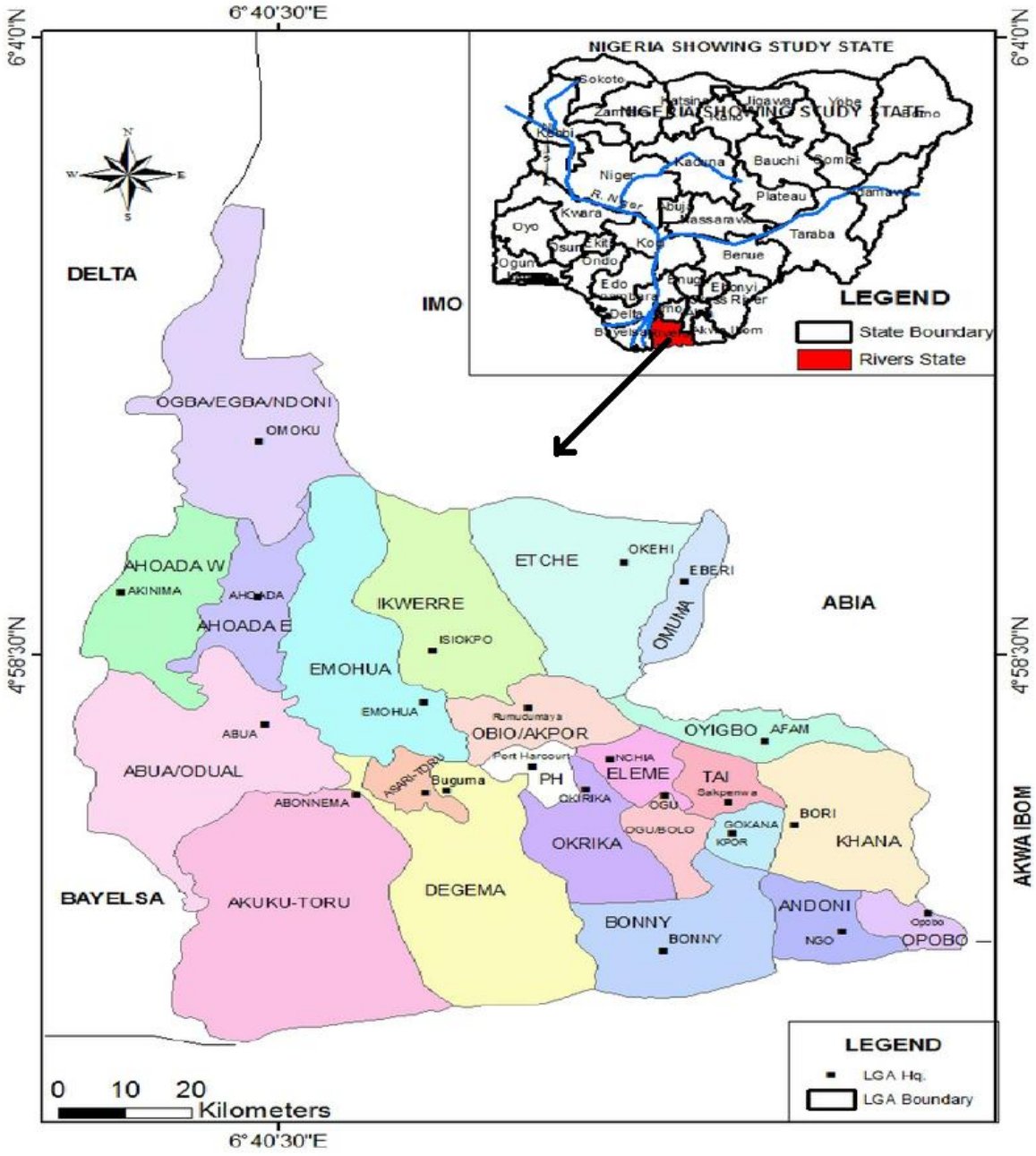

Figure 1.1: Map of Nigeria showing Rivers State.

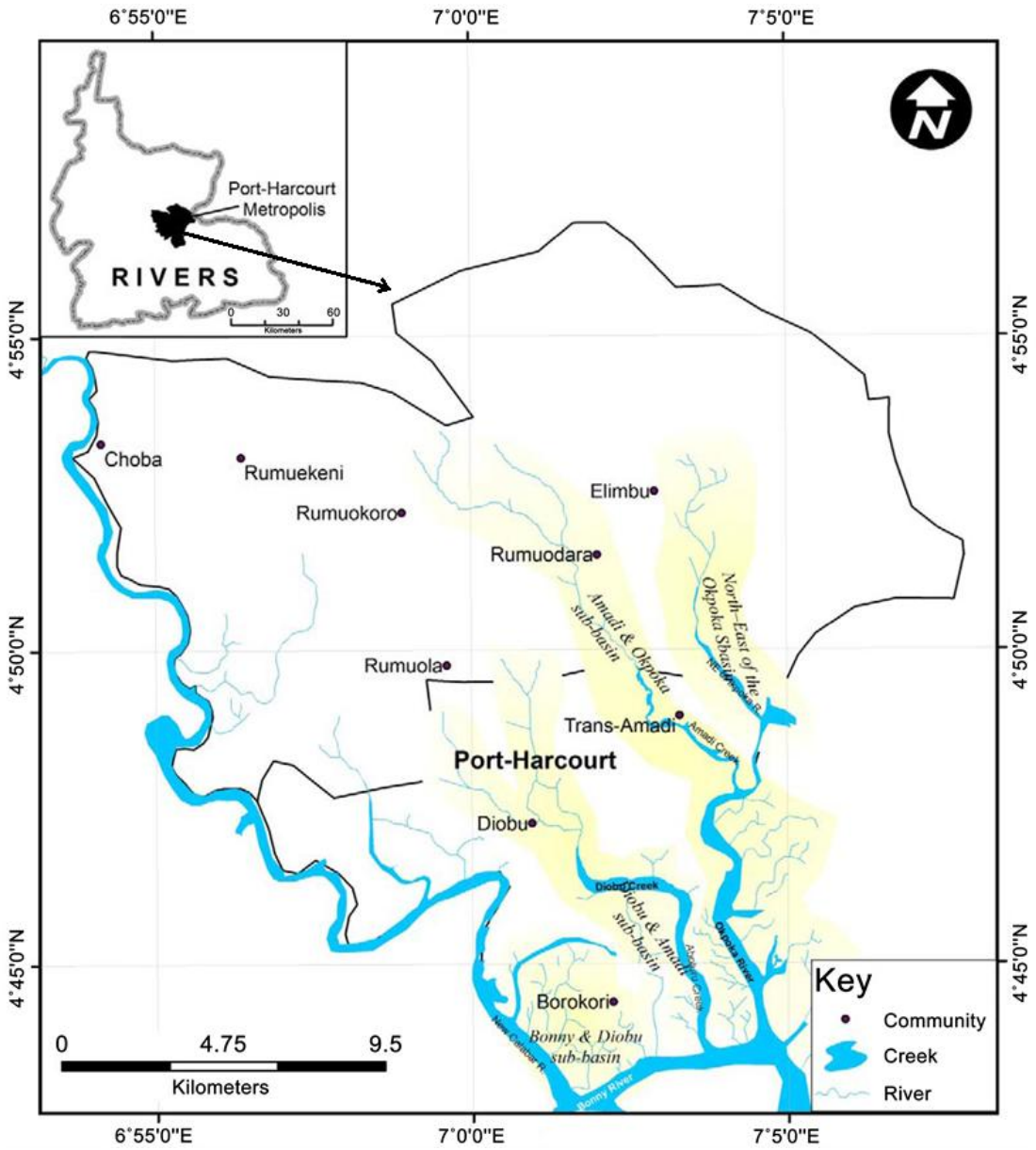

Figure 1.2: Map of Port Harcourt.
Source: Google Earth Image edited by the author, 2018.

1.6.1 HISTORY

Port Harcourt was founded in 1912 by Frederick Lugard, governor of both the Northern Nigeria Protectorate and the Southern Nigeria Protectorate. The port was built in 1912, but not given a name until August 1913, when the then Governor of Nigeria, Sir Frederick Lugard, named it "Port Harcourt" in honor of Lewis Vernon Harcourt, then the Secretary of State for the Colonies. Its purpose was to export the coal that geologist Albert Ernest Kitson had discovered in Enugu in 1909.

The city came into prominence with the desire of the British colonial government in Nigeria at the time in 1912 to construct a railway line from the interior to the coast to move agricultural produce and other natural resources. Thus, the railway and a terminus were constructed in Port Harcourt linking the interior to the coast in 1927. The construction of the railway and harbour attracted more business from within and other parts of the world making the city to quickly acquire a cosmopolitan status and more so, the discovery of oil aggravated this influx of people, thereby making the city to expand rapidly till today.

The colonial government caused the people of Diobu to cede their land, and in 1912 the building of a port town was started. Other villages that were later absorbed into the city included Oroworukwo, Mkpogu, and Rumuomasi; In the creeks to the south of the original port were the fishing camps and grounds of the Okrika-Ijaw group.

During the First World War, Port Harcourt was used as a point for military operations against the Central Powers in German Kamerun. After the discovery of crude

oil in Oloibiri in 1956, Port Harcourt exported the first shipload from Nigeria in 1958. Port Harcourt became the center of the Nigerian oil economy and it subsequently reaped benefits of its associations with the petroleum industry by undergoing modernization and urbanization. Port Harcourt's growth is further due to its position as the commercial center and foremost industrial city of the former Eastern Region; It's position in the Niger Delta; and its importance as the center of social and economic life in Rivers State. After the Republic of Biafra seceded from Nigeria in 1967 Port Harcourt fell to Nigerian forces on 19 May 1968. From an area of 15.54 km^2 in 1914, Port Harcourt grew uncontrolled to an area of 360 km^2 in the 1980s.

1.6.2 POPULATION

In terms of population, Port Harcourt city has increased steadily and rapidly since its foundation. According to the 1952-53 population census of Nigeria, the population of Port Harcourt was 79,634. In 1963, it rose to 179,563, which represents an average annual growth rate of 8.7 percent. From 1963 t0 1972, the population of Port Harcourt was estimated to have risen from 179,563 to 213,343, an annual growth rate of almost three percent (Ogionwo, 1979). By 1973, Port Harcourt Population stood at 231,632. The 1991 census figure put the population of Port Harcourt/Obio-Akpor city local government areas at 703,416, with Obio/Akpor accounting for 263,017 and Port Harcourt city local government area at 440,399 (Census News, 1992).

As of 2016, the Port Harcourt urban area had an estimated population of 1,865,000 inhabitants, up from 1,382,592 as of 2006 (Demographia, 2016).

1.6.3 GEOGRAPHY

Port Harcourt consists of relatively flat land with a gradient of not more than 3%. Its elevation is 3 m at the lower limits of the dry land and 2.5 m tidal variation (Port Harcourt Master Plan, 1975). The city has a low-lying coastal plain that rarely rises above 60ft (20 m) above sealed level. The Northern coastal terrain consists of dry land, but the lower delta plain consists of small isolated island of firm ground in the vast delta which is continuously being rearranged by strong tidal and flood current (Port Harcourt Master Plan, 1975) . The city has a high water table, with an upper soil layer of soft mud, of (6m) thick having high organic material in the delta. The dry land area has an upper soil layer of silt and sand of the same thickness (Port Harcourt Master Plan, 1975).

1.6.4 SOCIO-ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES

Port Harcourt is a major industrial centre as it has a large number of multinational firms as well as other industrial concerns, particularly business related to the petroleum industry. It is the chief oil refining city in Nigeria and has two main oil refineries that process around 210,000 barrels of crude oil a day, both operated by the Port Harcourt Refining Company. Rivers State is one of the wealthiest states in Nigeria in terms of gross domestic product and foreign exchange revenue from the oil industry, crude oil being its principal export earner. Micro apartment architecture is quite common in certain parts of Port Harcourt. The Point Block of Rivers State Secretariat is an icon of the city. An 18 story building, it is the tallest building in the South East and South-South geopolitical zones combined.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUAL / THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1.1 Urbanization

There are various definitions describing the term urbanization. The United Nations explain the process of urbanization as a shift in a population from one that is dispersed across small rural settlements and in which agriculture is the dominant economic activity towards one where the population is concentrated in larger, dense urban settlements characterized by industrial and service activities (United Nations, 2014). The Cambridge Academic Dictionary states that urbanization is the process by which more and more people leave the countryside to live in cities. In other words, urbanization is an increase in the proportion of people living in cities and towns versus the proportion of people living in rural areas.

Urbanization is the process by which large numbers of people become permanently concentrated in relatively small areas, forming cities. Internal rural to urban migration means that people move from rural areas to urban areas. In this process the number of people living in cities increases compared with the number of people living in rural areas. Natural increase of urbanization can occur if the natural population growth in the cities is higher than in the rural areas. This scenario, however, rarely occurs. A country is

considered to urbanize when over 50 per cent of its population live in the urban areas (Long 1998).

An urban area is spatial concentration of people who are working in non-agricultural activities. The essential characteristic here is that urban means non-agricultural. Urban can also be defined as a fairly complex concept. Criteria used to define urban can include population size, space, density, and economic organization. Usually, however, urban is simply defined by some base line size, like 20,000 people. Anyway this definition varies between regions and cities (Long 1998).

2.1.2 Standard of Living

Many interpretations and uses of the term standard of living exist and these interpretations have changed overtime (Easterlin, 2000; Sen. 1985). During the 1940s and the 1950s, standard of living was conceptualized in a purely material way such as goods and services available. This conceptualization led to the use of national measures such as GDP to assess comparative standard of living (Easterlin, 2000). From this purely material conceptualization, Easterlin (2000) describes the change during the 1960s and 1970s to a more inclusive definition of standard of living which encompassed aspects of human development such as average lifespan and education. This change started to address the critiques of the large-scale national income level measures which argued that GDP and other large-scale measures fail to take into account human welfare (Berges, 2007; Easterlin, 2000; sen, 1985). The critiques of the large-scale measures have led to more of a focus on human development, which included such measures as life expectancy, school

enrollment, literacy and democratic freedoms (Easterlin, 2000). This broader human development approach to standard of living was also contested, as there were many different interpretations of what this meant, and also arguments around how to weight different aspects of standard of living (Easterlin 2000). There are different interpretations of the concept of standard of living based on human development and what it constitutes. The United Nations (UN) have taken an objective approach to the development of living standard measurement, and have included the measures like GDP per capita but have also expanded it to account for things such as employment, life expectancy, health levels and education. Another way standard of living is currently thought of is in the sense of individual material well-being (Easterlin, 2000). A New Zealand example of this is Jensen et al. (2002) who conceptualizes standard of living as the material part of well-being; that is a person's possession and what they consume. There are different approaches used in measuring standard of living but in different ways and for different purposes. The UN conceptualization of standard of living has been developed to be an empirically grounded analysis of major development issues, trends and policies such as policy around political participation, education, healthcare and statistics such as lifespan, infant mortality and lifetime morbidity as well as availability of public facilities such as libraries and recreation facilities (United Nations, 2014). This is in contrast to the approach used by Jensen et al. (2002) which aim to assess the material well-being of people by measuring individuals rather than using broad, area specific trends and policies and making international comparisons such as those made using the approaches of the

United Nations (2014). Standard of living has different meanings which are used for different ends, whilst still using the same term. Although the various authors use standard of living in many different ways, there is consensus it is a term used to describe how well a person can live their life in terms of objective well-being.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.2.1 Theories of Urbanization

Various theories are used to explain urbanization and these theories include;

(i) Modernization,

(ii) Dependency and

(iii) Urban bias theories.

These are explained below;

Modernization Theory

Modernization theory was developed in the mid-20th century. Modernization is the term used for the transition from the traditional society of the past to modern society as found in the west. Modernization theory presents the idea that by introducing modern methods of production like the use of advanced technology for industry the underdeveloped countries will experience a strengthening in their economies and this will lead them to development. This theory holds that the modernization of states through economic development encourages other forms of development like social and political development. This theory focuses on individual countries for analysis and it is examined mainly with economic development as operationalized variables such as GDP per capita.

According to the modernization school, which is the view shared by the classical economists, there cannot be urbanization without industrialization (Berliner, 1977). In other words, the more industrialized a society is, the more urbanized it is and this is believed to be as a result of agriculture releasing surplus rural labor for industries located in the cities (Dutt, 2001). Urban researchers adopted an analytical tool based on evolutionary and functionalist perspectives in explaining this theory. The evolutionary perspective consists of a framework in which the social changes are unidirectional, progressive and gradual. The evolution is irreversible as the rural primitive stage advances to high level of advanced urban-based society. The functionalist perspective recognizes that as society proceeds towards modernization, systematic and transformative changes take place; giving rise to change from traditional values to modern ones. Technology and industrialization-based economic growth become engines of growth (Kasarda & Crenshaw, 1991). Thus there is the need for a country to experience migration from rural to urban areas in order to become an industrial (modern) society (Bradshaw, 1987). This is based on the assumption that the development process and urbanization move along a continuum.

According to modernization theory, urban areas contain modernizing institutions such as schools, factories, entertainment centers and the mass media, as well as advanced medical care (Bradshaw, 1987). These institutions then serve as a pull factor for the rural dwellers (urban pull), encouraging them to migrate into the urban areas. Examples of such attractions are there in both developed and developing countries. Factories in England

attracted a large number of migrants from rural areas to settle in cities with the advent of the Industrial Revolution which began in the second half of the 18th Century. The development of fuel powered tractors in the early 20th century led to the migration of cotton plantation workers from the south of the United States (rural-push) to take up jobs in places located in the North East and the Midwest. Moreover "rural push" has caused a large scale rural to urban migration in the recent years in the developing countries.

Dependency Theory

In view of the flaws of modernization theory and its inability to account for Third World underdevelopment, an alternative theory was devised by a group of scholars known collectively as the dependency school, which originated in Latin America. This school holds that development in the developing countries is conditioned by the growth and expansion of Europe. This school addresses certain issues not considered by modernization theory. It lays importance on historical processes in explaining the changes which have occurred in the structure of cities as a result of the switch from the pre-capitalist to capitalist mode of production. It also lays emphasis on the dependent nature of capitalist development in the Third World which places emphasis on external economic forces in the study of cities. The dependency school argues that the developed countries use the developing countries as a source of input (raw material supplier) for their factories. This results in foreign investment in large-scale agricultural production which displaces peasant farmers in the rural areas. The displaced farmers then move to the urban areas to seek employment (Firebaugh, 1979; Walton, 1977; Bradshaw, 1987).

Also large foreign investments in capital-intensive manufacturing in the urban areas resulted in increased output and industrialization in the urban areas. This then does have a multiplier effect since businesses spring up to provide services that are linked either directly or indirectly to the manufacturing activities in the urban areas. This creates the false impression for the rural dwellers that there are high-paying employment opportunities for them in the urban areas hence their migration to the urban areas. On their arrival in the urban areas and to their dismay they cannot get the high paying employment; they end up in the informal sector. The informal sector workers are the least paid among the urban labor force. This theory argues that the core, consisting of industrialized nations, dominate over the periphery which consists of the Third World. The Third World urban development is, thus, conditioned by the developed world. The recent economic globalization trends have restructured the labor-capital relationship between the developed and developing worlds. In the new structure of economic globalization it is not only the less skilled jobs related to garment, shoe and handbag making but also upscale jobs such as chip design, engineering, basic research and financial analysis that are out-sourced by the multinational corporations to developing countries. The labor costs are much cheaper in the developing countries. These semi-skilled and upscale jobs are being created increasingly in the developing countries. This in turn causes growth in supporting service sector employment leading to labor moving into the urban centers to fill up these jobs hence growth in urban population (Kentor, 1981; Dutt & Noble, 2003).

Urban Bias Theory

Another approach to understanding urban development in developing countries is through the application of urban bias theory. This theory shifts the emphasis of urban development from the economic perspective to political perspective. This perspective, spearheaded by Lipton (1977), argues that policies favor the urban areas to the detriment of the rural areas, hence the concentration of facilities and the creation of favorable conditions in the urban areas. State policies allegedly overtax the rural citizens with similar incomes. The production of the rural areas, notably agricultural products, is overtaxed due to price twists. Overtaxing works in the following way. State controlled marketing boards buy agricultural products from the local farmers at an artificially low price and then resell these products to the consumers at the prevailing higher market price; the difference is often used to provide facilities in the urban areas.

In addition, governments in the developing countries tend to invest domestic capital on the provision of development facilities. These facilities are largely located in the urban areas while a larger proportion of the population is found in the rural areas. The facilities include hospitals, schools, libraries and other government/semi-government facilities. Investable resource in favor of the rural dwellers, who are basically farmers, in the form of roads, small-scale irrigation facilities, agricultural machinery and storage facilities are often downplayed by the policy makers. Higher standards of living are created in the urban areas resulting in the creation of disparity between the urban and the rural areas.

As a result, the rural dwellers tend to migrate to the urban areas to take advantage of the favorable policies.

2.2.2 Approaches to Standard of Living

Income and Wealth Approaches

Income and wealth approaches have been used to understand standard of living (Burhol & windle, 2006). Using this approach, standard of living is the notion that money gives people the ability to access resources which improve the quality of their material circumstances. Conceptualizing standard of living in terms of resources available to provide material conditions has advantages. Assessing resources available such as income or wealth is considered an objective and practical way to measure standard of living as it can be standardized within and between countries (Robeyns, 2006). In spite of the objectivity, income and wealth is widely acknowledged as an inadequate approach (Berges 2007; Sen, 1985). There are practical difficulties with income and wealth measurement, as people are often unwilling or unreliable reporters of their wealth and income (Pfoertner Andress, & Janssen, 20011; Saunders, Naido, & Griffiths, 2008; Sen. 1985) In addition, a central critique of income and wealth approaches to standard of living is that they do not take account the context of a person's life such as their outgoing exprenses, situation in life and their value Baerges (2007) discusses show income, wealth and material approaches to standard of living do not take into account the idea that resources are not valuable in themselves in themselves, but that the value of an object or wealth comes from what they enable us to do. Therefore, income approaches to standard

of living do not capture how well a person is able to live their life with the means they have.

The limitation in the ability of wealth and to assess materials of living is also reflected in the low correction between income approaches and outcome approaches to standard of living (Jenson et., 2002; Nolan & Whelan, 1996) with correlations ranging between .o25 and 0.40 (Nolan & Whelan. 1996).

The implication is that wealth and income are only a weak proxy of standard of living in terms of material conditions of life. This could create a skewed picture of people's lives or geographical area as income measures have shown to have only weak relationships with material standard of living outcome measures (Jensen et al. 2002; Nolan & Whelan, 1996). Using income and wealth measures are particularly limited when looking at older populations, especially in New Zealand. This is for three main reasons. Firstly because as people retire; income source tends to change as people move from income tied to employment to income from superannuation payments and investments. Secondly, older people tend to have different household arrangements, with fewer dependents and greater likelihood of freehold housing tenure. Finally there is evidence that older people are potentially more sensitive to reporting their income than younger people (Pfoertner et al., 2011).

Materialist/Economic Approach

The materialist view of standard of living stems from the economic idea of utility, in which object; have value which is measured by how useful they are. The utilitarian view

of standard of living uses objects as a proxy for standard of living based upon the material conditions of people's lives and the way that these conditions support access to a particular sort of life (Sen. 1985). Jensen et al. (2002) describe the material approach to standard of living as being related to a person's consumption and personal possessions. The materialist approach to standard of living was developed in the 1800s and was based on subsistence, assessing the extent to which people have what they need to survive. Subsistence relates to having just enough goods to physically function to a reasonable capacity (Rio Group, 2006). The materialist approach to standard of living began to be more widely used again in the 1960s to address some of the concerns that the large scale national living standard measure such as GDP ignore the differentia ability to transform national resources into a certain standard of living for the individual (Easterlin, 2000). Assessing living standards in this way still plays a major role in policy implications today and is considered to be an objective and practical way of measuring standard of living (Jensen et al.. 2002). This materialist view has been heavily criticized for only considering standard of living in terms of physical needs, when many people consider that social needs are also important (Berges, 2007; Nussbaum 2003; Sen, 1985, 1999) people are social berges who are expected to be workers, friends and family so to treat people as purely physical being raises these essential human aspects.

The concept of relative deprivation recognizes that what people require depends upon the standards set in each society (Smith, Pettigrew, Pippin, & Bialosiewicz,2012) This approach contextualizes standard of living within a particular society and time frame.

Relating deprivation relates to extent to which people have access to what is expected within the society in which one resides. This takes the definition of standard of living from absolute standards to relative standards as most people in the western world expect more than just enough to physically survive.

The concepts of absolute deprivation in terms of subsistence and relative deprivation have grown into what could now be considered a material approach to standard of living (Easterlin. 200) Absolute deprivation is about having enough goods to survive whereas relative deprivation takes into account the goods available to a person to enable full participation in society (Walker & Pettigrew, 1984)

Combining these approaches results in the modern interpretation of material standard of living, the problems with the materialist approach outlined above led to the creation of measures that not only take into account the relative physical needs but also the social needs of people (Easterlin, 2000).

Capability Approach

The capability approach to standard of living considers what people can achieve and what freedoms they have (Sen, 1985). It was developed as an alternative to materialist, utilitarian approaches as a way to think about standard of living which was not reliant on income, wealth and ownership. The capability approach "is mainly an attempt to see development as a process of expanding the real freedoms that enjoy" (Sen, 1999, p. 36). The capability approach takes account of not only the wealth of a person but also their freedoms and capabilities. This allows for individual preferences in how resources are

used and includes freedoms such as; political freedoms, economic facilities, social opportunities, transparency guarantees and protective security (Alkire, 2005; Sen, 1999). Over the past 20 years the capability approach has become increasingly popular among both academics and policy makers (Alkire, 2005; Berges, 2007; Reader, 2006). This is because of its relevance to distributive justice and its focus on human development rather than economic development (Berges, 2007). One common critique of the capability approach is identified by Reader (2006) who discusses how the capability approach is limited by being too general and having no 'one' accepted list of freedoms and capabilities to assess. Some authors have attempted to address by publishing lists of freedoms and capabilities (Alkire, 2005; 2007; Nussbaum, 2003). For example, Nussbaum has elaborated a list of capabilities essential for human flourishing arguing that expanding these capabilities is key to human development. The capability approach considers what people are able to do rather than ownership or wealth. This is particularly relevant for older people because as people age, income and material wealth result in less differentiation across the population (Gwozdz & Sousa-poza, 2009). In other words, what people are able to do can become a more important factor when assessing standard of living. This makes an important impact when considering standard of living and standard of living measures for older people.

2.3 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.3.1 Urbanization Trend

According to a new United Nations report, urbanization combined with the overall growth of the world's population could add another 2.5 billion people to urban populations by 2050, with close to 90 percent of the increase concentrated in Asia and Africa (United Nations, 2014). Today, already more people live in urban areas than in rural areas, with 54 per cent of the world's population residing in cities in 2014 (UNFPA, 2014). Moreover, the proportion of world´s urban population has grown rapidly, from about 746 million in 1950 to 3.9 billion in 2014 (United Nations, 2014). This means that the world is undergoing the largest wave of urban growth in history. According to the latest UN population projections, some 4.9 billion people are expected to be urban citizens in 2030.

Africa and Asia are the fastest urbanizing regions, and are projected to become 56 and 64 per cent urban by 2050. The world's urban population is expected to surpass six billion by 2045 (UNFPA, 2011). Much of this growth is expected to take place in countries of the developing regions, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa. Urbanization has already brought huge social, economic and environmental transformations to the regions. As a result of this shift, developing countries are facing numerous challenges in meeting the needs of their growing urban populations. These include such as employment, infrastructure, energy, transportation, and basic services such as education and health care.

In 1990, there were ten megacities – cities with 10 million inhabitants or more - which were home to more than 150 million people. This meant about seven per cent of the global urban population at that time (M. P. Todaro, S. C. Smith 2015). In 2014, there were already 28 megacities worldwide, which were home to more than 450 million people. This represented about 12 percent of the world´s urban inhabitants. Of the 28 mega-cities, sixteen are located in Asia, four in Latin America, three in Africa as well as in Europe, and two in North America. By 2030, the world is projected to have 41 mega-cities with 10 million inhabitants or more (UN-Habitat, 2013).

Due to John Wilmoth, the Director of UN Population Division, "Managing urban areas has become one of the most important development challenges of the 21st century. Our success or failure in building sustainable cities will be a major factor in the success of the post-2015 UN development agenda". Therefore the study and analysis of the city has become fairly important at the moment. Rapid and unplanned urban growth may threaten sustainable development.

J. R. Short adds and highlights the complex interrelations between town and the country, which stems from both sides of the need and dependence. Rural areas constitute an essential source of food for towns; conversely, cities are centers of governance, business, jobs, education and health facilities, as well as entertainment and other activities. Short believes that rural development is often being neglected and left without capital assistance. African rural areas are characterized by high natural population growth, which leads to overcrowding, lack of work opportunities and loss of financial security. The

result is increasing poverty in the countryside, leading to migration to cities (Short, J. R., 1994).

2.3.2 Demographic Aspects of Urbanization

Todaro and Smith state that there are two components in population expansion: rural urban migration and natural population growth. Both parts have a relative effect on the growth of urban population. In 2006 the statistics showed that rural migrants constituted anywhere from 36 to 60 per cent of recorded urban population growth. On one hand, with birth rates declining in many developing countries, rapid urban growth caused by rural urban or urban-urban migration will be one of the most important demographic and development issues of the upcoming decades. On the other hand, statistics from UN Habitat illustrate that migration from rural to urban areas is no longer the dominant determinant of urban population growth in developing countries. The UN Habitat report from 2013, adds that today natural increase in urban population accounts for some 60 per cent of that growth. Moreover it emphasizes one more component responsible for urban growth. This is the transformation of rural settlements into urban places, which is called reclassification that accounts for another 20 per cent of increase of urban population (UN Habitat, 2013). Also the UNFPA sources affirm that the growth of urban population is largely due high natural population growth rather than as a consequence of migration (UNFPA, 2014).

K. R. Hope presents three demographic factors that contribute to the growth of the city population in Africa. Firstly, an expected growth connected to high fertility rate.

Secondly, high proportion of children and young people in a population, where almost half of the population is aged 15 years or less. As soon as this age group reaches reproductive age, population is about to increase rapidly. Thirdly, the importance of time, as long time is needed to reach equilibrium age structure. Period occurs until the birth rate as well as the mortality rate is significantly reduced. This trend will reflected on the age structure of the population as there will be a greater proportion of adults (K. R. Hope, 1997).

2.3.3. Slums

Slums may be defined as very poor and crowded areas of a city (Oxford Dictionary, 2010). UN-Habitat defines slums as "settlements, neighborhoods, or city regions that cannot provide the basic living conditions necessary for its inhabitants, or slum dwellers, to live in a safe and healthy environment.

Moreover UN-Habitat describes a slum settlement as a household that cannot provide one of the following basic living characteristics:

(i) Durable housing of a permanent nature, which is able to protect a person against extreme climate conditions.

(ii) Sufficient living space. This means not more than three people sharing the same room.

(iii) Easy access to safe water in sufficient amounts and at an affordable price.

(iv) Access to adequate sanitation in the form of a private or public toilet shared by a reasonable number of people.

(v) Security of tenure that prevents forced evictions.

Slums are a clear manifestation of a poorly managed and planned urban sector and bad functioning of the housing sector. Rapid urbanization places remarkable strain on the housing sector. By 2030, about 3 billion people will be in need of proper housing and access to infrastructure and basic services such as water and sanitation systems. This translates into the need to complete enormous number of housing units per day (96,150) with serviced and documented land from now till 2030 (UN-Habitat, 2013).

There are certain features of a slum (UN-Habitat, 2013). First, a flat vast area, often in the historical or industrial part of the city, which was once suitable for life, however, after indigenous people moved to new locations of the urban area, the conditions of life in these abandoned houses deteriorated. Houses began to be rented to low income groups or illegally colonized. Secondly, housing in these areas varies from simple shacks to permanent residences. Access to water, electricity, infrastructure, health care facilities and other basic services is often limited. Thirdly, slums are a manifestation of poverty, class inequality and social exclusion. They are associated with various forms of discrimination (unequal access to basic social services, participation, etc.). Finally, slums are often “Zones of silence” in terms of public knowledge, opinion and discussion about urban poverty. These also include places from where data cannot be judged accurately.

The World Bank adds that by slums it is possible to understand neglected and often ignored parts of cities where housing and living conditions are extremely poor. Furthermore, slums have a high population density; dilapidated housing units represent

places for squatters with no legal recognition or rights. They extend from the middle of cities to their edges (World Bank, 2010).

In conclusion, about half the world's population lives in cities, of which nearly one-third lives in slum areas. The total number of such residents in Africa reached 187 million, which amounts to twenty percent of the world's slum dwellers. The African continent has the largest proportion of urban population living in slums -60.9% - vide Attachment 3 (UN-Habitat, 2013).

2.3.4 Urban Poverty

Regarding cities, urban poverty is rapidly increasing in pace with overall urbanization. UNFPA states that currently the growth of poverty in cities is faster than in rural areas. UN-habitat in its publication also adds that poverty in developing countries was a phenomenon that has commonly been associated with rural areas, today; however, poverty is becoming one of the fundamental features of cities. Urban poverty has become a phenomenon in many countries and regions all over the world, and often poses specific problems, such as overcrowding, contaminated water and bad sanitation, unsafe shelter, crime and additional social problems. An increasing number of low-income urban households are female-maintained (UN Department on Economic and Social Affairs, 1995). There are many challenges and obstacles for urban inhabitants including limited access to employment opportunities and income, inadequate and insecure housing and services, violent and unhealthy environments, little or no social protection mechanisms, and limited access to adequate health and education opportunities (World Bank, 2015).

UN-Habitat created a list of typical features of urban poverty. Among which belong: Large and on growing problems with the delivery of basic municipal services to all residents. Higher level of demand than of the financial resources; weak institutional capacity, deteriorating condition of access to adequate housing, the emergence of slums, loss of personal property, overpopulation of certain areas, health problems due to poor environmental conditions, increasing vulnerability to natural disasters and disease, increasing urban inequality evident in residential segregation, increasing violence and crime against women and among the poor themselves, lack of participation of civil society in decision-making processes.

Other authors mention some other features of urban poverty (J. Beall., S. Fox, T., 2009). Firstly, the confidence in the informal economy, according to other sources work in informal sector is often the only source of income for the urban poor. It leads to the misuse labor and does not help the economic improvement. Secondly, social exclusion and thirdly, the growing experience of warfare and terrorist activities.

2.3.5 Standard of Living

Bennett (1937) defines problems associated with measuring a standard of living: "Standard of living is a complex and elusive concept. It is perhaps most vague, and certainly most difficult for the statistician to deal with, when regarded as the per capita quantum of human satisfactions or enjoyments." Bennett suggests that absolute measures of standard of living are inadequate and one therefore must measure in relative terms.

For example, Bennett's study compared differences in standard of living between six different countries.

Davis (1945) argues that one of the public sector's most important objectives is to raise the standard living. However, Bernard (1928) warns that administrative decision making not be made solely on the basis of such standard of living measures as the measure of standard of living is more an art than a science. Despite the difficulties in measuring standard of living, including the lack of a universally accepted model, standard of living has been a popular topic for economic research. Much of the literature on the topic measures standard of living in terms of consumption. Williams and Zimmerman (1938) define standard of living as, "an ideal or norm of consumption which may be described in terms of goods and services of a specific quantity and quality." Konus (1939) gives a similar but more specific definition of standard of living: "the monetary value of those consumers' goods which are in fact consumed in a course of certain period of time by an average family belonging to a given stratum of a population."

Cottam and Mangus (1942) state the importance of freedom in defining the standard of living. "In American culture all persons are expected to live in houses and to wear clothes, but the individual has wide latitude in choosing the kind of house he will occupy and the kind of clothes he will wear. "While consumption based measures of standard of living have dominated past literature, more recent literature documents alternative methods of measuring standard of living." For example, Sen (1984) states that the most explored views of standard of living are based on utility from consumption and from

opulence. However, he argues that a better measure for standard of living is one of freedom. Economic freedom is the choice available to allocate income as one sees fit.

Blackorby and Russell (1978) describe a relationship between standard of living and cost of living. They argue that the cost of living has a direct relationship to the standard of living. They define the cost of living index as "the ratio of costs of realizing a particular indifference surface or level of real income at different prices" Pope (1993) describes the relationship between per capita income and standard of living. Pope argues, "the standard of living of all classes could be assumed to have moved upward with the rise in average per capita income" The model used in the following study combines both the idea of per capita income as a measure of freedom and the cost of living as a constraint to this freedom.

Ogburn (1951) describes four factors that affect differences of standard of livings of peoples. These factors are population, natural resources, organization, and technology. He concludes that population has a negative relationship to standard of living. However, this negative relationship could be due to the fact that China and India, two overpopulated nations, make up two fifths of his study. Ogburn also argues that the standard of living is most closely correlated with technology, as countries with advanced technology also have high standards of living. High technology is associated with low production costs and therefore places of low technology have higher costs, hindering economic growth.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this research work, the methodology used includes the design, procedure, methods and techniques employed in data collection and analysis.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design used in this study is the survey method.

3.3 SOURCES OF DATA

The study utilized both secondary and primary sources of data. The secondary source of data consist of relevant information from journals, articles, magazines, research report from government agencies and parastatals and the internet.

Primary information was collected from both direct interview and personal observations. The main primary information was obtained from responses to questionnaires. This is essentially to complement the already available secondary data.

3.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLE SIZE

The study which assessed the impact of urbanization on standard of living in Port Harcourt focused on the population of Port Harcourt as the study population. As of 2016, the Port Harcourt urban area had an estimated population of 1,865,000 inhabitants,

projected from 1,382,592 as at 2006 (National Population Census). From this population, the sample size to be included in the study was selected.

3.5 SAMPLE SIZE DETERMINATION

The sample size used in the study was derived using the sample size determination formula below;

$$n = \frac{\left[\dfrac{P[1-P]}{\dfrac{A^2}{Z^2} + \dfrac{P[1-P]}{N}}\right]}{R}$$

Where;

n= represents the sample size that is being determined.

P= represents the population variance estimated to an average of 30% (0.3).

$\mathbf{A^2}$= represents precision level (0.05).

N= represents the population of the study for which we are trying to determine a sample size.

$\mathbf{Z^2}$= is represented as 1.96, derived from the confidence level. The confidence level for this research is 95% which is the approved value for the social sciences.

R= represents the estimated response rate. This is dependent on the population of the study area. The response rate used here is 85% which 0.85

The sample size determination is calculated below;

$$\boldsymbol{n = \frac{\left[\frac{P[1-P]}{\frac{A^2}{Z^2} + \frac{P[1-P]}{N}}\right]}{R}}$$

=

$$\frac{\frac{0.3\ (1-0.3)}{\frac{(0.05)^2}{(1.96)^2} + \frac{0.3\ (1-0.3)}{1{,}865{,}000}}}{0.85}$$

$$\frac{\frac{0.21}{\frac{0.0025}{3.8416} + \frac{0.21}{1{,}865{,}000}}}{0.85}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{0.21}{0.00065088}}{0.85}$$

$$= \frac{322.640118}{0.85}$$

$$= 379.6$$

Thus using the formula above and following the calculation for determining the sample size, 380 persons was arrived at as the right sample size (n) for the study using a response rate level of 85%. This allowed for a non-response rate of 15%.

3.6 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

The questionnaire is divided into two sections, sections A and B. Section A contains questions regarding socio economic data of the respondents including their household characteristics and housing conditions. Section B on the other hand includes questions on the impact of urbanization and standard of living in the city.

3.7 ADMINISTRATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

On administration of the questionnaire, 42 neighbourhoods were selected in total, streets were randomly selected from neighbourhoods at the core, intermediate and suburban areas and the questionnaire administered to every third house on each street.

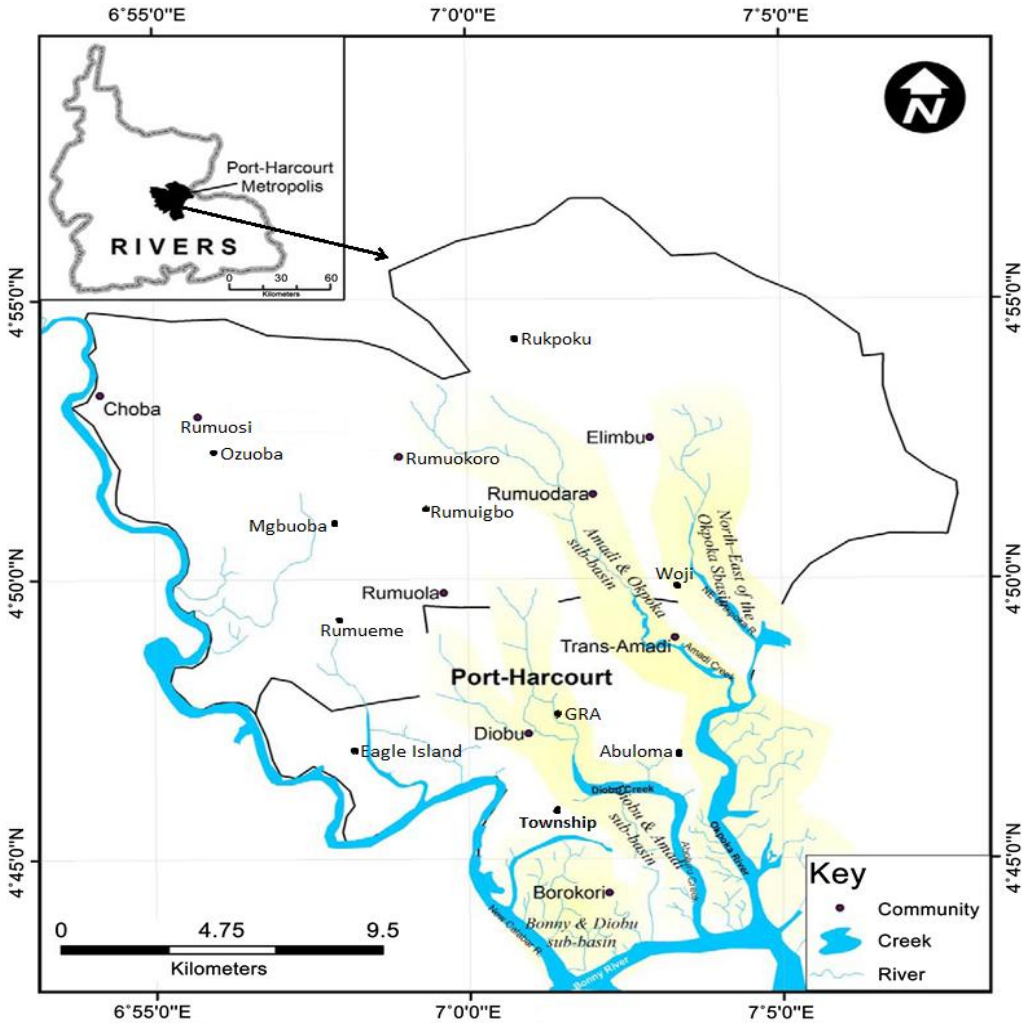

Figure 3.1: Map of Port Harcourt showing some of the neighbourhoods of study.

Source: Ministry of Lands and Survey, 2017.

3.8 ANALYSIS OF DATA

Analysis of data in this research was done descriptively. Simple percentage is used including use of frequency tables and charts. Spearman correlation was used to test the hypothesis.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an analysis of the data gathered and the discussion of results. Responses from the administered questionnaire are presented in charts and tables. Also, relevant data obtained from the administered questionnaire were used to test the hypothesis.

4.2 PRELIMINARY SURVEY DETAILS

A total of 380 questionnaires were printed and taken to the field and out of these, a total of 368 questionnaires were returned valid. The administration of 380 copies of a closed/open-ended questionnaire to individuals was carried out personally. The questionnaire was distributed in 40 neighbourhoods. More questionnaires were distributed in the densely populated neighbourhoods, followed by the averagely populated and few in the sparsely populated neighbourhoods. The data for this research was analyzed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 24.

The number of questionnaires administered to respondents in each neighbourhood is shown in Table 4.1;

Table 4.1: Response per Neighbourhood

Response Per Neighbourhood		
	Frequency	Percent
Abuloma	13	3.5
Ada George	9	2.4
Afam	1	.3
Airport Road	5	1.4
Akpajo	6	1.6
Borokiri	34	9.2
Choba	9	2.4
D line	9	2.4
Diobu	28	7.6
Eagle Island	5	1.4
Elekahia	7	1.9
Elelenwo	5	1.4
Eliozu	3	.8
Eneka	7	1.9
GRA	21	5.7
Igwuruta	1	.3
Iwofe	6	1.6
Mgbuoba	15	4.1
Nkpogu	7	1.9
Ogbunabali	15	4.1
Oroazi	4	1.1
Oyigbo	7	1.9
Ozuoba	6	1.6
Port Harcourt Township	27	7.3
Rukpokwu	10	2.7
Rumueme	10	2.7
Rumuigbo	13	3.5
Rumukalagbor	6	1.6
Rumukwurushi	10	2.7

	Rumuodara	1	.3
	Rumuoji	1	.3
	Rumuokoro	5	1.4
	Rumuokwuta	1	.3
	Rumuola	20	5.4
	Rumuomasi	6	
	Rumuosi	7	1.9
	Stadium Road	3	.8
	Trans Amadi	7	1.9
	Waterlines	5	1.4
	Woji	13	3.5
	Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.1 shows response rate per neighborhood. Forty neighborhoods were drawn to show the impact of urbanization on the standard of living in Port Harcourt metropolitan area. Out of these, Borokiri had the highest representation with 9.2%, followed by Diobu at 7.6%. 7.3% of the respondents are residents of Port Harcourt Township. G.R.A and Rumuola have 5.7% and 5.4% representation rate respectively. Ogbunabali and Mgbuoba have a representation rate of 4.1% each. Abuloma, Rumuigbo and Woji have 3.5% each as their representation rates. Rumukwurushi, Rukpoku, and Rumueme have representation rate of 2.7% each. Ada George, Choba and Dline have 2.4% each as their representation rates. Elekhia, Eneka, Nkpogu, Oyigbo, Rumuosi and Trans Amadi have 1.9% each as their representation rates. Akpajo, Iwofe, Ozuoba, Rumukalagbor, and Rumomasi have 1.6% representation rate each. Airport Road, Eagle Island, Elelenwo,

Rumuokoro, and Waterlines have a representation rate of 1.4% each. Oroazi has a representation rate of 1.1%, while Eliozu and Stadium road have response rate of 0.8% each. And finally, Afam, Igwuruta, Rumuodara, Rumuoji, and Rumuokwuta have response rates of 0.3% each.

4.3 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

This section presents the results with regards to the socio-economic and demographic profile of the respondents in. This includes the variables of sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, occupation, monthly income and household size, etc.

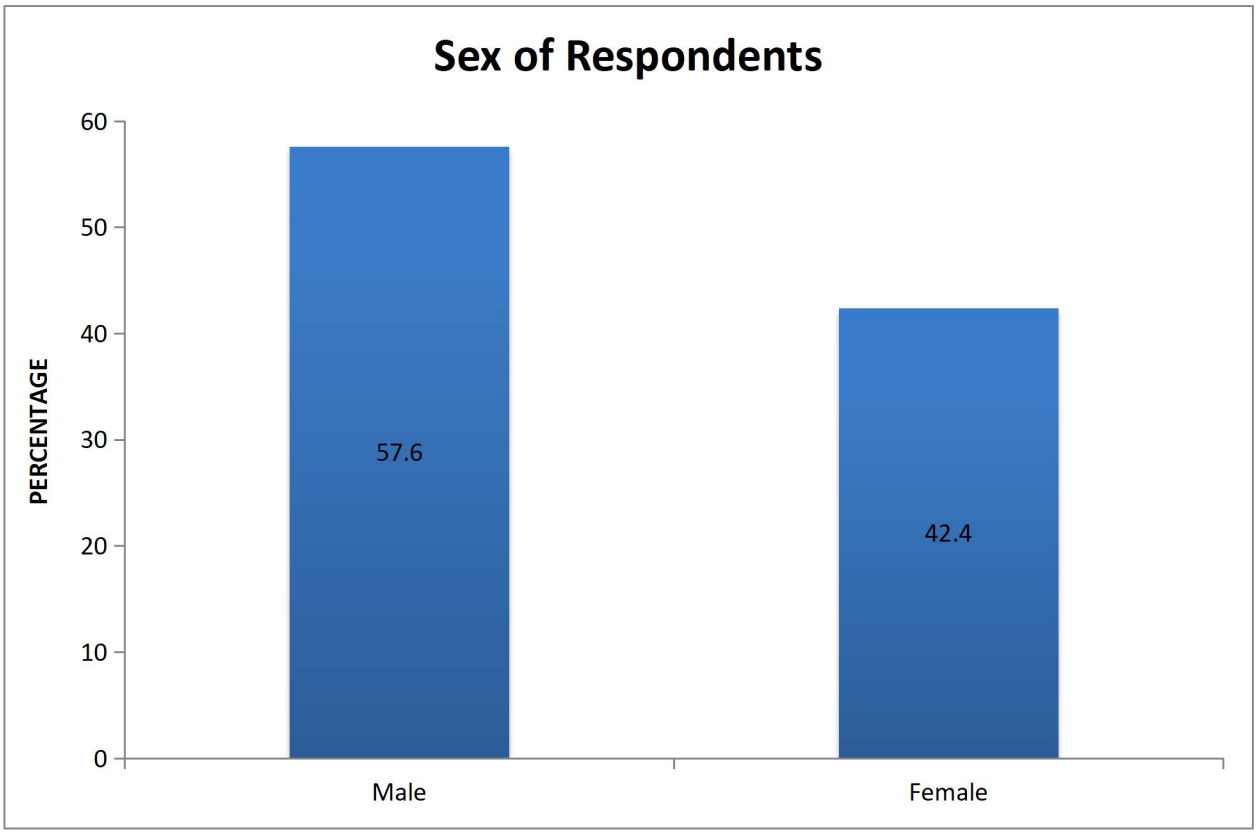

Figure 4.1: Bar Chart Showing Sex of Respondents.
Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Figure 4.1 shows the distribution of male and female respondents in the sample population. As seen in figure 4.1, a larger percentage of the sampled population is male. The proportion of the respondents who are males is given as 57.6% while the proportion of the females stands at 42.4%. This is due to the fact that more males were willing to respond to the question asked in the field.

Table 4.2: Age of Respondents

Age		
	Frequency	Percent
Below 25	74	20.1
25yrs to 34yrs	118	32.1
35 to 44yrs	93	25.3
45 to 50yrs	59	16.0
Above 50yrs	24	6.5
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.2 shows the age distribution of the respondents. As detailed in Table 4.2, 20.1% of the respondents are below 25 years, 32.1% are between 25-34 years, 25.3% are between 35-44 years, 16.0% are between 45-50 years, and 6.5% are above 50 years. The highest number of respondents falls between the age range 25 to 34 years. It can be deduced therefore that response is high among young youths and adult youths and this is as a result of willingness to respond to questions asked.

Table 4.3: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status		
	Frequency	Percent
Single	183	49.7
Married	167	45.4
Separated	12	3.3
Divorced	2	.5
Widowed	4	1.1
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.3 shows the marital status of the respondents in the study area. As detailed in table 4.3 above, 49.7% of the respondents are single, 45.4% of the respondents are married, 3.3% of the respondents are separated, 0.5% of the respondents are divorced while 1.1% of the respondents are widowed. It can be concluded that the high number of single respondents is due to the large percentage of youths. There is a little difference between the percentage of single and married respondents in the area.

Table 4.4: Educational level of Respondents

Educational Level		
	Frequency	Percent
No Formal Education	6	1.6
Primary Six Certificate	16	4.3
WAEC/NECO/SSCE	119	32.3
OND/NCE	39	10.6
HND/B.A/B.SC	140	38.0
Masters/Higher Degree	48	13.0
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.4 shows the educational level of the respondents in the study area. As detailed in the table above, the educational level with the highest percentage of respondents is the HND/B.A/B.Sc. with 38% of the respondents, followed by WAEC/NECO/SSCE with 32.3% of the respondents, 13% of the respondents have Masters/Higher Degree, 10.6% of the respondents have OND/NCE, while 4.3% have primary six certificate, and the remaining 1.6% have no formal education.

The implication of the result above is that a larger percentage of the population is at least educated up to the tertiary level. This therefore means that the proportion of respondents with a formal education is higher than that of the respondents with no formal education. From this analysis, it can be deduced that Port Harcourt has the educated class as majority of its population.

Table 4.5: Occupation of Respondents

Occupation		
	Frequency	Percent
Student	58	15.8
Civil Servant	68	18.5
Professional	78	21.3
Business/Trade	152	41.4
Unemployed	7	1.9
Retired	4	1.1
Total	367	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.5 shows the occupation of respondents in the study area. As shown in the table above, 15.8% of the respondents are students, 18.5% are civil servants, 21.2% are

professionals, 41.3% which is the highest percentage of the respondents engage in business/trade, 1.9% of the respondents are unemployed and finally 1.1% of the respondents are retired. One respondent however did not fill in his occupation.

This implies that there are a lot of business owners and traders in the study area, followed by professionals, Civil servants and then students.

Table 4.6: Monthly Income of Respondents

Monthly Income		
	Frequency	Percent
Below N20,000	68	18.5
N21,000 to N60,000	62	16.8
N61,000 to N100,000	134	36.4
N101,000 to N140,000	54	14.7
Above N140,000	50	13.6
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.6 shows the monthly income of the respondents. As seen in the table, 18.5% of the respondents earn below ₦20,000, 16.8% earn between ₦21,000 to ₦60,000, 36.4% earn between ₦61,000 to ₦100,000, 14.7% earn between ₦101,000 to ₦140,000 and 13.6% of the respondents earn above ₦140,000. This shows that a large percentage of the respondents earn way above minimum wage monthly.

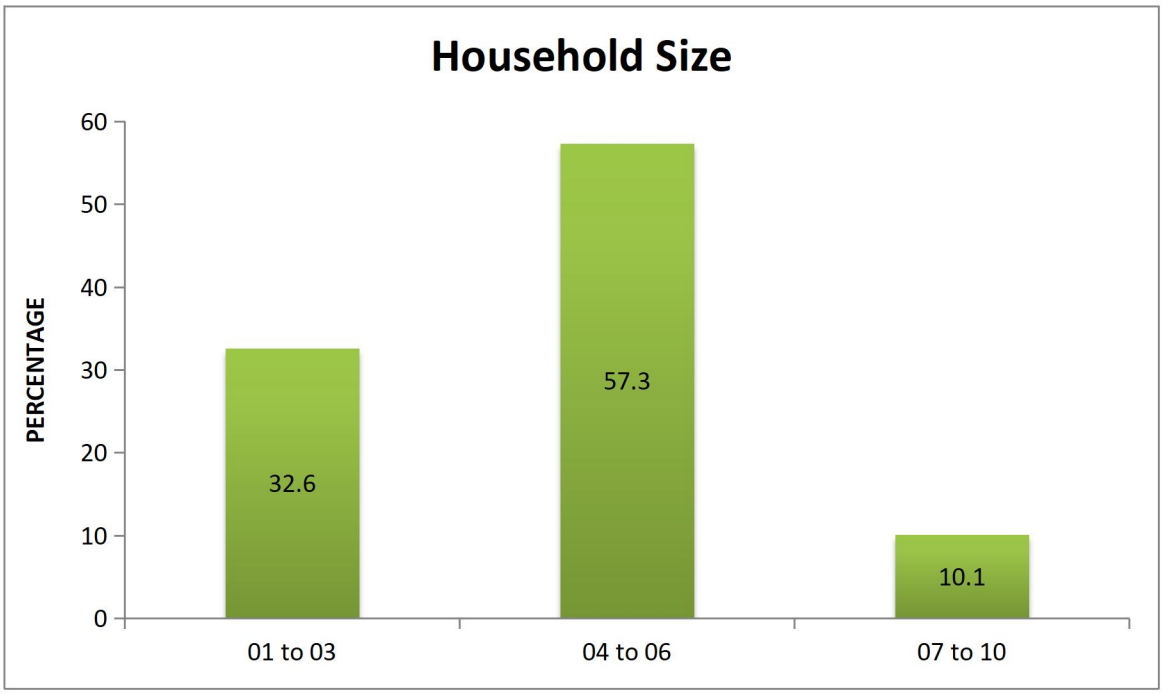

Figure 4.2: Bar chart showing the Household sizes of the Respondents.

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Figure 4.2 shows the household size of the respondents in the study area. As detailed in the figure, 32.6% of the respondents have household size of between 1 to 3 persons, 57.3% of the respondents have household size of between 4 to 6 persons, and finally, 10.1% of the respondents have household size of between 7 to 10 persons.

This shows that the dominant household size in the study area is moderate with between 4 to 6 persons.

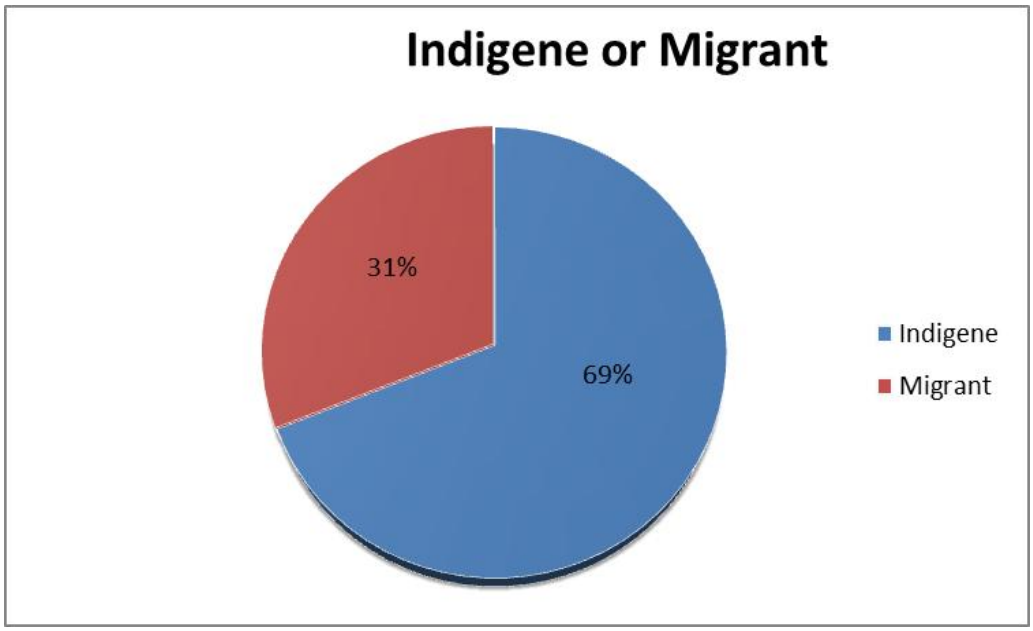

Figure 4.3: Pie Chart Showing Percentage of Indigenes and Migrants.

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Figure 4.3 shows the percentage of respondents that are indigenes and migrants. From the figure, indigenes constitute 69% of the respondents while 31% of the respondents are migrants. This implies that most of the people interviewed were indigenes, while the rest were migrants other parts of the country.

Table 4.7: Years lived by Migrants in the study area

Years Lived in P.H		
	Frequency	Percent
Less than 2yrs	2	1.7
2 to 5yrs	22	18.3
5 to 10yrs	40	33.3
Above 10yrs	56	46.7
Total	120	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.7 shows the amount of years migrant respondents have lived in the study area. As shown in the table above, out of the one hundred and twenty (120) migrants, two of the migrant respondents have lived in the study area for less than two years, twenty two of the respondents have lived in the area between two to five years, forty have lived in the area between five to ten years and fifty six have lived in the area for over ten years.

This implies that most of the migrant respondents have been living in the study area for over a very long time.

Table 4.8: Place Migrant lived Before Moving to Port Harcourt.

Placed Lived Before Moving to P.H		
	Frequency	Valid Percent
Another part of Rivers State	17	14.2
Eastern Part of Nigeria	52	43.3
Western Part of Nigeria	18	15.0
Northern Part of Nigeria	3	2.5
Southern Part of Nigeria	30	25.0
Total	120	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.8 shows the place lived by migrants before they moved to Port Harcourt.

As shown in the table, out of the 120 migrants, 14.2% moved from another part of Rivers State to the study area, 43.3% of the respondents moved to the study area from the Eastern part of Nigeria, 15% moved from the western part of Nigeria to the study area, 2.5% moved from the the Northern part of Nigeria to the study area and finally, 25% of the respondents moved the Southern part of Nigeria to the study area.

The implication of this is that there is a higher flow of migrants from the Eastern part of Nigeria to Port Harcourt than any other part of the country. This may be due to search for better life, greener pastures, employment, trade and so on.

4.4 URBANIZATION AND STANDARD OF LIVING

Table 4.9: Reason for Moving to Port Harcourt.

Reason for Moving to P.H		
	Frequency	Percent
Trade/Business	46	38.3
Job Transfer	6	5.0
Employment	43	35.8
Others	25	20.8
Total	120	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.9 shows the reason why the migrant respondents moved to Port Harcourt. As detailed in the table, out of the 120 migrant respondents, 38.3% moved to the study area for trade and business, 5% moved to the study area due to job transfer, 35.8% moved to

the study area in search of employment and the remaining 20.8% moved to the study area for reasons such as education, some moved with their family members, while other moved to live with their relatives.

This implies that most of the people moving to Port Harcourt move to engage in trade and business in Port Harcourt. A large amount of people also move to Port Harcourt in search of employment opportunities and greener pastures in general.

Table 4.10: Rate of Standard of living after Moving to Port Harcourt

Rate of Standard of Living After Moving		
	Frequency	Percent
Very High	10	8.3
High	73	60.8
Average	35	29.2
Low	2	1.7
Total	120	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.10 shows the rate of standard of living of migrant respondents after moving to Port Harcourt. As detailed in the table, out of the 120 migrant respondents, 8.3% of the respondents rated their standard of living as very high after moving to Port Harcourt, 60.8% of the respondents rated their standard of living as high after moving to Port Harcourt, 29.2% rated their standard of living as average and 1.7% of the 120 respondents rated their standard of living as low after moving to Port Harcourt.

This result shows that the standard of living of most respondents increased after moving to Port Harcourt. This might be part of the reason why they moved to Port Harcourt, to increase their standard of living and also for greener pastures.

Table 4.11: Rate of Urban Growth in Port Harcourt

Rate of Urban Growth in Port Harcourt		
	Frequency	Percent
Very Fast	100	27.2
Fast	248	67.4
Average	17	4.6
Slow	3	.8
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.11 shows the rate of urban growth in Port Harcourt as rated by the respondents. As evident in the table, 27.2% of respondents rated urban growth in Port Harcourt to be very fast, 67.4% rated urban growth as fast, 4.6% put the rate of urban growth as average and the remaining 0.8% rated urban growth in Port Harcourt as slow.

This implies that there is rapid urban growth In Port Harcourt. This is due to the high movement of migrants to the study area.

Table 4.12: Level of Urbanization

Level Of Urbanization		
	Frequency	Percent
Very High	80	21.7
High	259	70.4
Average	26	7.1
Low	3	.8
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.12 shows the respondents rating on level of urbanization. As seen in the table, 21.7% of the respondents put level of urbanization in the study area as very high, 70.4% of the respondents put the level of urbanization as high, 7.1% put the level of urbanization at average and finally 0.8% of the respondents put the level of urbanization as low.

This implies that the level of urbanization in Port Harcourt is high. This is due to the high level of urban growth and movement of people from other less urbane areas to this urban area.

Table 4.13: Type of House Lived in by Respondents.

Type of House		
	Frequency	Percent
Self-Contain	81	22.0
Flat	196	53.3
Storey Building	42	11.4
Bungalow	30	8.2
Duplex	19	5.2
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.13 shows the respondents response on the type of houses they live in. as detailed in the table, the highest percentage of the respondents which is 53.3% live in flats, followed by 22.0% of the respondents which live in self-contained apartments, 11.4% which live in storey buildings, 8.2% which live in Bungalow and finally 5.2% which live in Duplex apartments.

Table 4.14: Respondents Response to Payment of Rent.

Rent Payment		
	Frequency	Percent
Yes	276	75.0
No	92	25.0
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.14 shows the respondents response to payment of rent. As seen in the table, 75% of the respondents pay rent while the remaining 25% do not pay rent.

The 25% of respondents who do not pay rent include home owners and people who live in their family house.

Table 4.15: Respondents response to price of rent paid by those paying rent

Price of Rent		
	Frequency	Percent
Below N50,000	6	2.2
N50,000 to N100,000	112	40.6
N150,000 to N200,000	88	31.9
N250,000 to N400,000	49	17.8
Above N400,000	21	7.6
Total	276	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.15 shows the residents response to the price of rent paid by those paying rent. As detailed in the table, out of the 276 respondents which pay rent, 2.2% of them pay rent below ₦50,000, 40.6% Pay between ₦50,000 to ₦100,000 as rent, 31.9% pay between ₦150,000 to ₦200,000 as house rent, 17.8% pay between ₦250,000 to ₦400,000 and finally 7.6% pay above ₦400,000 for rent.

This implies that the majority of rent payers dwell in flats and self-contained apartments. This is due to the large amount of single respondents.

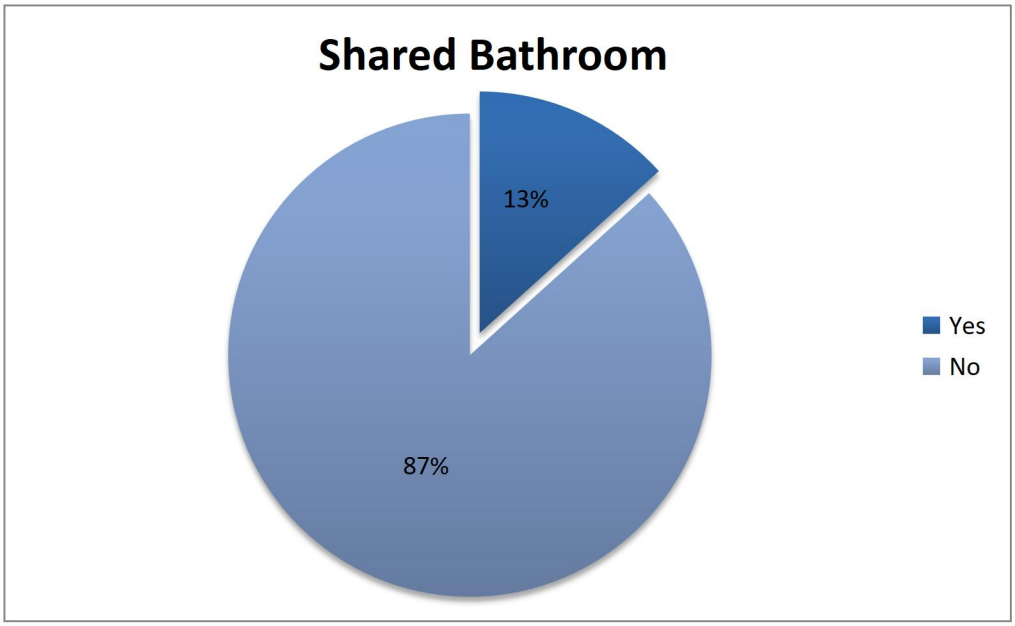

Figure 4.4: Pie Chart Showing Respondents Response on Bathroom Sharing.

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Figure 4.4 above shows the percentage of respondents that share bathroom and those that do not share bathroom with another household. As seen in the bar chart, 13.3% of the respondents share bathroom with other households whereas 86.7% of the respondents do not share bathroom with other households.

This implies that a high number of respondents do not share their toilet facilities with other households, their toilet facilities is in their house. This portrays good housing condition.

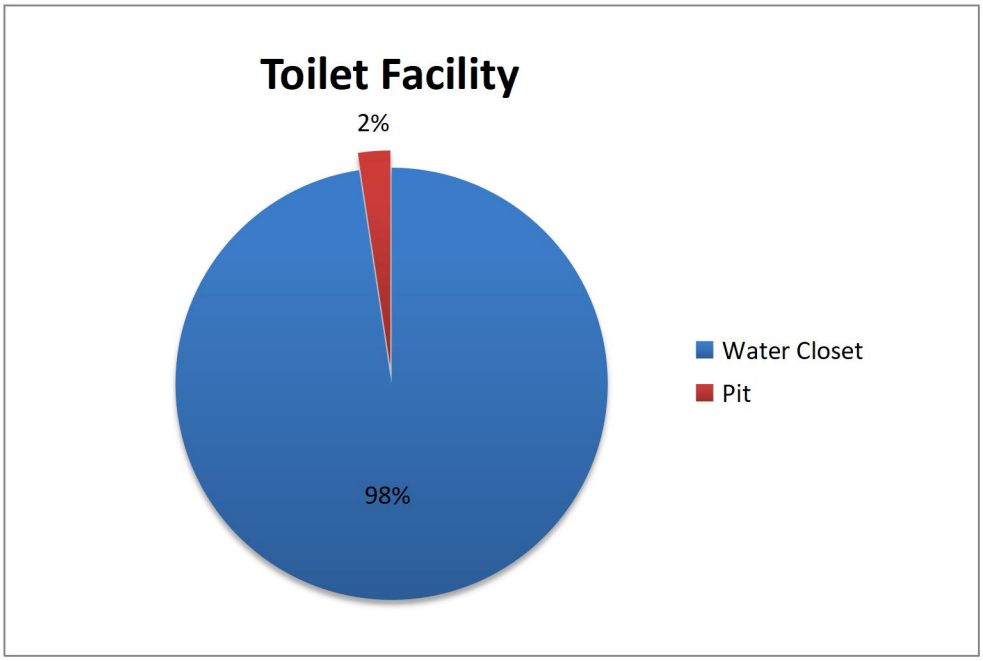

Figure 4.5: Pie Chart Showing Type of Toilet Facilities used by Respondents.

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Figure 4.5 shows the respondents response on the type of toilet facility used in their houses. As seen in the bar chart, 97.6% of the respondents use water closet while the remaining 2.4% still use pit toilet.

This implies that most of the respondents in the study area have and use good toilet facilities in their homes.

Table 4.16: Respondent's Source of Water Supply

Source of Water Supply		
	Frequency	Percent
Well	10	2.7
In House Borehole	310	84.2
Public Tap	48	13.0
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Table 4.16 shows respondents response on their source of water supply. As seen in the table, the highest source of water supply used by respondents in the study area is in house borehole with 84.2% of the respondents getting water from this source. The next is the public tap with 13% of the respondents getting water from this source and finally, only 2.7% of the respondents have well as their source of water supply.

This implies that there is good living conditions in the study area as most of the respondents get water from boreholes in their houses.

Table 4.17: Condition of House

Condition of House		
	Frequency	Percent
Poor	12	3.3
Average	74	20.1
Good	201	54.6
Very Good	81	22.0
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.17 shows respondents response on the condition of their house. As detailed in the table, 3.3% of the respondents gave their housing condition as poor, 20.1% of the

respondents live in average housing conditions, 54.6% of the respondents live in good housing conditions and 22% of the respondents live in very good housing conditions.

This implies that the majority of the respondents live in good housing conditions. They live above the average housing conditions and housing is one of the indicators of standard of living.

Table 4.18: Respondents Response on rate which urbanization has affected their standard of living

Urbanization on Standard of Living		
	Frequency	Percent
Very High	16	4.3
High	257	69.8
Average	90	24.5
Low	5	1.4
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.18 shows respondents response on the rate urbanization has affected their standard of living. As seen in the table, 4.3% of the respondents gave very high as the rate urbanization has affected their standard of living, 69.8% said urbanization has high effect on their standard of living, 24.5% said urbanization has average effect on their standard of living, and finally, 1.4% said urbanization has low effect on their standard of living.

Most of the respondents said urbanization has high effect on their standard of living. This implies that urbanization has highly affected the standard of living in Port Harcourt. This is due to the high flow of people to the area and the rapid urban growth.

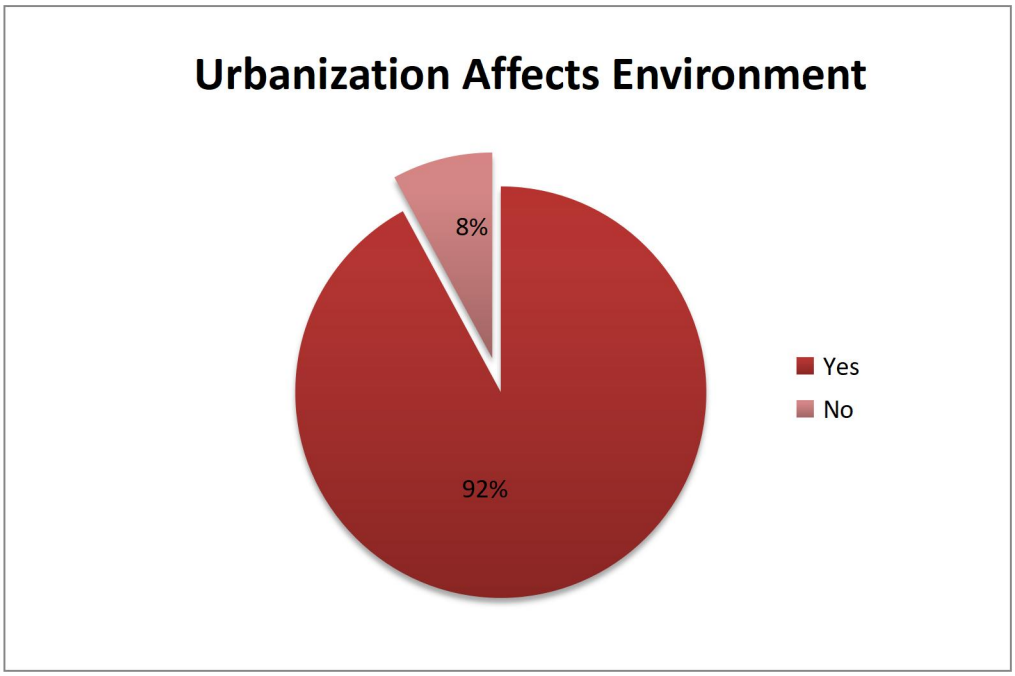

Figure 4.6: Pie chart showing response on urbanization affecting the environmental condition

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Figure 4.6 shows the respondents response on urbanization affecting environmental condition. As seen in the Bar chart, 92% of the respondents said urbanization affects the environmental condition while the remaining 8% said urbanization has no effect on the environmental condition.

This result implies that urbanization affects the environmental condition of the study area. This is true because urbanization has various effects on the environmental condition such as noise pollution, air pollution, overcrowding etc.

Table 4.19: Urbanization Effects on Environmental Condition

Urbanization Effects on environmental Condition		
	Frequency	Percent
Pollution from Industry and Vehicles	130	38.3
Noise Pollution	67	19.8
Over Crowding	65	19.2
Heat From Natural and Domestic Combustion	77	22.7
Total	339	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.19 shows response on the effects of urbanization on the environmental condition. As seen in the table, out of the 339 respondents which agreed that urbanization has effect on the environmental condition of their area, 38.3% gave pollution from industry and vehicles as the major effect of urbanization on the environmental condition. 19.8% gave noise pollution as the major effect of urbanization on the environmental condition of that area.m19.2% said overcrowding is the major effect of urbanization on the environment. And finally, 22.7% said the major effect of urbanization on the environmental condition of their area is heat from natural and domestic combustion.

This result implies that the major effect of urbanization on the environmental condition of the study area is pollution from industry and vehicles. Followed by heat from natural and domestic combustion, then noise pollution and overcrowding. Areas which area affected by pollution from industries and vehicle include areas where there is location of many industries such as the Trans Amadi neighbourhood, also neighbourhoods with high vehicular movement such as Rumuola are also affected by pollution from vehicles. Areas affected by heat from natural and domestic combustion include the whole Port Harcourt which is affected by black soothe caused by the various combustions. Areas affected by noise pollution include areas with high vehicular movement, areas close to markets, overcrowded residents etc. The major areas affected include Diobu, Port Harcourt Township, Borokiri, etc. and finally areas affected by overcrowding are those areas such as Diobu, Choba, Ogbunabali, Borokiri, etc.

Table 4.20: Method of Waste Disposal

Method of Waste Disposal		
	Frequency	Percent
Government Evacuation Agency	306	83.2
Private Evacuation	22	6.0
Burning of Refuse	26	7.1
Bush or Dump hill	14	3.8
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.20 shows response on method of waste disposal used by the respondents. As detailed in the table above, 83.2% of the respondents dispose their waste through

Government evacuation agency, 6% through private evacuation, 7.1% through burning and 3.8% through bush or dump hill.

This implies that most of the respondents dispose their waste through government evacuation agency, and according to the respondents, this method is very effective and better than the other methods.

Table 4.21: Nature of Electricity Supply

Nature of Electricity Supply		
	Frequency	Percent
Very High Supply	26	7.1
High Supply	179	48.8
Average	149	40.6
Low Supply	13	3.5
Total	367	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.21 shows response on the nature of electricity supply in the study area. As detailed in the table, 7.1% of the respondents have very high supply of electricity in their area, 48.8% of the respondents have high supply of electricity in their area, 40.6% of the respondents have average electricity supply in their area, and finally, 3.5% have low supply of electricity in their area. One respondent however did not provide an answer to this question in the questionnaire.

This implies that there is generally high supply of electricity in the study area.

Table 4.22: Nature of Water Supply

Nature of Water Supply		
	Frequency	Percent
Very Regular Supply	36	9.8
Regular Supply	263	71.5
Average	53	14.4
Irregular Supply	15	4.1
No Supply	1	.3
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.22 shows response on the nature of water supply in the study area. As detailed in the table, 9.1% of the respondents have very regular supply of water in their area, 71.5% of the respondents have regular supply of water in their area, 14.4% of the respondents have average water supply in their area, 4.1% have irregular supply of water in their area and finally, 0.3% have no supply of water in their area. This implies that there is generally regular supply of water in the study area.

Table 4.23: Nature of Roads

Nature of Roads		
	Frequency	Percent
Very Bad	9	2.4
Bad	27	7.3
Average	121	32.9
Good	187	50.8
Very Good	24	6.5
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.23 shows response on the nature of roads in the study area. As detailed in the table, 2.4% of the respondents have very bad roads in their area, 7.3% of the respondents have bad roads in their area, 32.9% of the respondents have average roads in their area, 50.8% have good roads in their area and finally, 6.5% have very good roads in their area. This implies that there are generally good roads in the study area.

Table 4.24: Quality of Health Facilities

Quality of Health Facilities		
	Frequency	Percent
Very Poor	2	.5
Poor	19	5.2
Average	71	19.3
Good	248	67.4
Very Good	28	7.6
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.24 shows response on the quality of health facilities in the study area. As detailed in the table, 0.5% of the respondents have very poor health facilities in their area, 5.2% of the respondents have poor health facilities in their area, 19.3% of the respondents have average health facilities in their area, 67.4% have good health facilities in their area and finally, 7.6% have very good health facilities in their area.

This implies that there are generally good health facilities in the study area.

Table 4.25: Nature of Drainage system

Nature of Drainage System		
	Frequency	Percent
Very Bad	8	2.2
Bad	44	12.0
Average	125	34.0
Good	178	48.4
Very Good	13	3.5
Total	368	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 4.25 shows response on the nature of drainage system in the study area. As detailed in the table, 2.2% of the respondents have very bad drainage systems in their area, 12% of the respondents have bad drainage systems in their area, 34% of the respondents have average drainage systems in their area, 48.4% have good drainage system in their area and finally, 3.5% have very good drainage system in their area.

This implies that there are generally good drainage systems in the study area.

4.5 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The attempt made here is to topically analyze the objectives of this research. The first objective is to examine the indicators of standard of living. Information regarding this objective was obtained through organized field survey. Based on the data gathered, the major indicators of standard of living include income, education, sanitation, condition of house, water supply, electricity supply, rate of roads, quality of health care system and nature of drainage.

The second objective examines the relationship between urbanization and standard of living. Urbanization has a very low relationship with standard of living, as urbanization increases; the standard of living reduces.

The next objective examines the extent urbanization has affected the standard of living in the study area. As seen in the table 4.18, 4.3% of the respondents gave very high as the rate urbanization has affected their standard of living, 69.8% said urbanization has high effect on their standard of living, 24.5% said urbanization has average effect on their standard of living, and finally, 1.4% said urbanization has low effect on their standard of living.

Most of the respondents said urbanization has high effect on their standard of living. This implies that urbanization has highly affected the standard of living in Port Harcourt. This is due to the high flow of people to the area and the rapid urban growth.

The fourth objective examines how urbanization has affected the environmental condition in the study area. As seen in table 4.19, out of the 339 respondents which agreed that urbanization has effect on the environmental condition of their area, 38.3% gave pollution from industry and vehicles as the major effect of urbanization on the environmental condition. 19.8% gave noise pollution as the major effect of urbanization on the environmental condition of that area 19.2% said overcrowding is the major effect of urbanization on the environment. And finally, 22.7% said the major effect of urbanization on the environmental condition of their area is heat from natural and domestic combustion.

This result implies that the major effect of urbanization on the environmental condition of the study area is pollution from industry and vehicles. Followed by heat from natural and domestic combustion, then noise pollution and overcrowding. Areas which area affected by pollution from industries and vehicle include areas where there is location of many industries such as the Trans Amadi neighbourhood, also neighbourhoods with high vehicular movement such as Rumuola are also affected by pollution from vehicles. Areas affected by heat from natural and domestic combustion include the whole Port Harcourt which is affected by black soothe caused by the various combustions. Areas affected by noise pollution include areas with high vehicular movement, areas close to markets, overcrowded residents etc. The final objective which is to explore ways in which the standard of living of the residents can be improved upon will be discussed in the recommendation section.

4.6 TESTING OF HYPOTHESIS

H_o= Urbanization has no relationship with standard of living in Port Harcourt.

Table 4.26: Spearman correlation analysis testing relationship between urbanization and standard of living

Spearman Non parametric Correlation				
			Monthly Income	Level Of Urbanization
Spearman's rho	Monthly Income	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.031
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.548
		N	368	368
	Level Of Urbanization	Correlation Coefficient	.031	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.548	.
		N	368	368

Source: SPSS v24 Analysis, 2018.

Table 4.26 shows the relationship between urbanization and standard of living, using monthly income as a measure of standard of living.

The correlation between level of urbanization and standard of living (using monthly income as a measure) is very weak with a coefficient of .031.

The coefficient of determination which is .031 x .031 x 100 = 0.096% which measures the explained variance of urbanization using income earned is also very low. However, the direction of the correlation is positive.

We therefore accept the Null hypothesis because .548 is lower than the alpha of 0.05.

The result of this analysis implies that as urbanization is increasing, the standard of living is decreasing. This is evident in the major cities of the developing world because there are no suitable measures put in place to improve standard of living with increasing level of urbanization, that have succeeded to appreciable extent.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarizes the results of our findings based on analysis done on the earlier chapters. It also makes concluding the remarks and poses recommendations to be problems observed and for further studies that could be carried out.

5.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This study has been able to investigate the impacts of urbanization on the standard of living of residents in Port Harcourt. After proper analysis of the data collected from the field, the discoveries made include;

1. The rate of urban growth in Port Harcourt is very fast and the level of urbanization in Port Harcourt is very high.
2. The extent at which urbanization has affected the standard of living of the residents in Port Harcourt is really high.
3. As urbanization increases, the standard of living reduces.
4. The major indicators of standard of living include income, education, sanitation, condition of house, water supply, electricity supply, rate of roads, quality of health care system and nature of drainage.
5. The standard of living is above average as the condition of housing is good, sanitation is effective, income, water supply, electricity supply, rate of roads, quality of health care system, nature of drainage are all above average.

6. Finally it was observed from the study that urbanization has affected the environmental condition of the area, mostly through pollution from vehicles and industry, followed by heat from natural and domestic combustion, noise pollution and overcrowding.

5.3 CONCLUSION

This study has investigated the impact of urbanization on the standard of living of residents in Port Harcourt. It has been discovered that the rate of urban growth in the study area is fast and also the urbanization level is high. It was also discovered that the standard of living in the study area is above average. As urbanization increases, the standard of living reduces. The level of urbanization has affected the standard of living in the study area. The major impact of urbanization in the study area is on the environment. The impact includes; pollution from vehicles and industry, followed by heat from natural and domestic combustion, noise pollution and overcrowding.

Efforts should be made to mitigate the negative impacts; maximize and sustain the positive impacts to create an improved urban centre and a safer city. This can be done by creating better policies in the city.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this research, the following recommendations are made;

1. The rate of urban growth should be controlled as it has led to overcrowding and other ill environmental conditions, and if not controlled will reduce the standard of living in the study area.

2. Although the standard of living is above average, the health care system, quality and network of roads, water supply, electricity supply, drainage system can still be worked on and improved to create a better and more conducive urban centre.
3. Policies should be made to improve the housing, infrastructure, physical conditions and general quality of life in neighbourhoods such as Diobu, Eneka, Rumuoji, parts of Borokiri, parts of Port Harcourt Township and other areas which are still lagging behind.
4. The government should cater for the housing needs of the low income earners and urban poor.
5. Finally, good environmental policies should be endorsed by the government to tackle the negative effects of urbanization on the on the environment. Renewable energy sources which come from sun, wind, water and organic matter should be exploited instead of using non-renewable energy sources which cause environmental pollution in their combustion.

5.5 OPPORTUNITIES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study contributes to a plethora of literature that has assessed urbanization and its impact. It is however one of the few studies that have analysed the impact of urbanization on standard of living in a city in the developing world. It thus suggest that further research efforts should be carried out in other cities in the developing world to know how the standard of living can be increased with rise in level of urbanization.

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APPENDIX

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND REGIONAL PLANNING,
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES,
UNIVERSITY OF BENIN

Dear Respondent,

I am an undergraduate of the above named University and Department, where I am undertaking a full time BSc. Degree programme. I am carrying out a research on the topic "Impact of Urbanization on the Standard of living in Port Harcourt."

I hereby solicit for your assistance in completing this questionnaire and I assure you that your response will be held in high esteem, kept confidential and used only for the purpose of this study.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Name of Street ……

SECTION A: SOCIO – DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

1. Sex of respondent (a) Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. Marital Status (a) Single [ ] (b) Married [ ] (c) Separated [ ] (d) Divorced [ ] (e) Widowed [ ]
3. Age (a) Below 25 [ ] (b) 25 – 34yrs [ ] (c) 35 – 44 [ ] (d) 45 – 50 [ ] (e) Above 50 [ ]
4. Educational Level (a) No formal education [ ], (b) Primary six certificate [ ], (c) WASC/NECO/SSCE [ ], (d) OND/NCE [ ], (e) HND/B.A/B.SC [ ], (f) Masters/Higher Degree [ ]
5. Occupation (a) Student [ ] (b) Civil Servant [ ] (c) Professional [ ] (d) Business/Trade [ ] (e) Unemployed [ ] (f) Retired [ ]

6. Monthly Income (a) Below N20,000 [ ] (b) N21,000 – N60,000 [ ] (c) N61,000 – N100,000 [ ] (d) N101,000 – N140,000 [ ] (e) Above N140,000 [ ]
7. What is the size of your household (a) 1 – 3 [ ] (b) 4 – 6 [ ] (c) 7 – 10 [ ] (d) Above 10 [ ]
8. Are you and Indigene or a migrant (a) Indigene [ ] (b) Migrant [ ]
9. If you are a migrant, how long have you lived here (a) Less than 2 years [ ] (b) 2 – 5 years [ ] (c) 5 – 10 years [ ] (d) Above 10 years
10. Where did you live before moving to Port Harcourt (a) Another part of Rivers State [ ] (b) Eastern Part of Nigeria [ ] (c) Western Part of Nigeria [ ] (d) Northern part of Nigeria [ ] (e) Southern Part of Nigeria [ ]

SECTION B: URBANIZATION AND STANDARD OF LIVING

11. Why did you move to Port Harcourt (a) Trade/ Business [ ] (b) Job transfer [ ] (c) Employment [ ] (d) Others Specify _____
12. How would you rate your standard of living after moving to Port Harcourt (a) Very High [ ] (b) High [ ] (c) Average [ ] (d) Low [ ] (e) Very low [ ]
13. How would you describe the rate of urban growth in Port Harcourt (a)Very Fast [ ] (b) Fast [ ] (c) Average [ ] (d) Slow [ ] (e) Very Slow [ ]
14. How would you rate the level of urbanization in Port Harcourt (a)Very High [ ] (b) High [ ] (c) Average [ ] (d) Low [ ] (e) Very Low [ ]
15. What type of house do you live in (a) Self Contain [ ] (b) Flat [ ] (c) Storey building [ ] (d) Bungalow [ ] (e) Duplex [ ]
16. Do you pay rent for your house (a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
17. If yes, how much do you pay (a) Below N50,000 [ ] (b) N50,000 – N100,000 [ ] (c) N150,000 – N200,000 [ ] (c) N250,000 – N400,000 [ ] (d) Above N400,000 [ ]
18. Do you share bathroom and toilet with other household (a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
19. What type of toilet facility do you use (a) Water Closet [ ] (b) Pit [ ] (c) Others

20. What is the source of water supply to the house (a) Well [ ] (b) In house Borehole [ ] (c) Public tap [ ]
21. How would you rate the condition of your house (a) Very poor [ ] (b) Poor [ ] (c) Average [ ] (d) good [ ] (e) Very good [ ]
22. To what extent has Urbanization affected your standard of living (a) Very high [ ] (b) High [ ] (c) Average [ ] (d) Low [ ] (e) Very low
23. Has urbanization affected the environmental condition of this area (a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
24. If yes, how (a) Pollution from industry and vehicles [ ] (b) Noise Pollution [ ] (c) Overcrowding [ ] (d) Heat from natural and domestic combustion [ ]
25. How often is environmental sanitation carried out in this area (a) Everyday [ ] (b) Every weekend [ ] (c) Every First/Last Saturday of the month [ ]
26. How effective is the environmental sanitation (a) Not effective [ ] (b) Average [ ] (c) Effective [ ] (d) Very Effective [ ]
27. What is your method of waste disposal (a) Government Evacuation Agency [ ] (b) Private Evacuation agency [ ] (c) Burning of refuse [ ] (d) Bush or Dump Hill [ ]
28. If your answer to 27 is (a) or (b) how effective are the agencies (a) Not effective [ ] (b) Average [ ] (c) Effective [ ] (d) Very Effective [ ]
29. What is the condition of the following social infrastructures

What is the nature of electricity supply in your area	(a.) Very High Supply [ ] (b.) High Supply [ ] (c.) Average [ ] (d.) Low supply [ ] (e.) No supply [ ]
What is the nature of water supply in your area	(a) Very Regular public water supply [ ] (b) Regular supply [ ] (c) Average [ ] (d) Irregular [ ] (e) No supply [ ]
How would you rate the Roads in your area	(a.) Very Bad [ ] (b.) Bad [ ] (c.) Average [ ] (d.) Good [ ] (e.) Very good [ ]
How would you rate the quality of health facilities in your area	(a) Very poor [ ] (b) Poor [ ] (c) Average [ ] (d) Good [ ] (e) Very good [ ]
How would you rate the drainage system in your area	(a.) Very bad [ ] (b.) Bad [ ] (c.) Average [ ] (d.) Good [ ] (e.) Very good [ ]