

**The struggle to belong**  
***Dealing with diversity in 21st century urban settings.***  
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Gender and urban housing settings in Africa-Nigeria

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**Abstract:**

Though women are the major consumers of housing services, their spatial involvement in housing delivery, satisfaction with the houses delivered and impacts of housing on them, until recently have been invisible in existing studies. The study investigate variations in the involvement of women and men in housing development; examine the determinants of women's involvement in housing development decisions; investigate gender differences in the impact of housing attributes on their activities; and examine impacts of housing stressors, housing attributes that could be stress-inducing on the physical well being of women and men. The study used primary and secondary data. The primary data were obtained through a systematic random sample survey of 721 households, which represent 0.20 percent of the estimated households in Ibadan municipal area as at 1999. Information was collected on women's (and their spouses if any) involvement in housing development, satisfaction with housing, housing attributes as well as physical well being which are psychological distress information and health problems that are particularly related to poor housing condition. The secondary data included information on women's and men's involvement in housing development as indicated by building plans registration (1991-1999), and application for certificate of occupancy (1989-1999). Both descriptive and multivariate statistical techniques were used to analyze the data. The study revealed that, there is low involvement of women in housing delivery decisions because housing provision is perceived as men's responsibility. More men own houses and apply for building plan registration and certificate of occupancy than women. The difference is significant at  $p < .01$ . The determinants of women's involvement in housing development in order of importance are their aspiration and awareness, socio-economic characteristics, social support/network and physical support, responsibility in the household and the house cost which together account for 60% of the variations in involvement of women in housing delivery. Significant intra-urban variations at  $p < .05$  are found in women ownership of houses and in the satisfaction of women with houses delivered in the following order: high density < medium density < low density residential zones. Women's daily activity is more adversely affected by housing attributes than that of men and is significant at  $p < .01$ . Also, housing stressors such as lack of space and physical housing condition have more effects on the physical well being of women than that of men. Policy implication of the study suggests that strengthening the participation of women as professionals and developers will enhance women empowerment in housing delivery. This can be achieved through improved access to adequate education and training, employment, provision of social support/network and a reorientation of women's mindset about responsibility for housing provision. In addition, there is the need for spatial engineering with a view to re-organizing urban space in such a way that it will be gender sensitive.

**Key words:** *Housing, Gender, Spatial engineering, Physical well-being, Ibadan, Nigeria, Africa*

## 1.0 Introduction

Research Committee on Sociology of Urban and Regional Development (ISA-RC21) is indeed the Research Committee for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century and a prestigious association of professionals. I will like to commend the efforts of the past and present ISA-RC21 Executives for a job well done. I joined RC21 in the year 2003 and I have always been interested in participating in the activities of the Research Committee. The theme of this year ISA-RC21 conference entitled “The struggle to belong: Dealing with diversity in the 21<sup>st</sup> century urban settings” is a well thought out theme at the turn of new century which is full of diversities and struggles to belong. The theme is fascinating, interesting and attractive. My doctoral research (Asiyanbola, 2005) is relevant to the theme. The study comprises of nine chapters. I am interested in presenting the highlights of some of the findings of the study, even though; we have published some of these findings as well as made presentations at local, national and international conferences including at the session organized by the Urban and Regional Development Research Committee (ISA-RC21) at the International Sociological Association 2006 World Congress on “The Quality of Social Existence in a Global World”, held at the International Convention Centre KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa, 23-29 July, 2006. Such presentations and published articles includes: Asiyanbola, 2006a, 2006b; Asiyanbola and Filani, 2007a, 2007b, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c. Apart from these articles, there are other published articles and presentations at local, national and international conferences that are reflections from the study.

Although women are the major consumers of housing services, their spatial involvement in housing delivery, satisfaction with the houses delivered and impacts of housing on them, until recently have been invisible in existing studies. Observation from the literature shows that, in the housing market, women have long been made invisible. If women are discussed, authors often assume stereotyped and fixed roles. In some other

studies, brief recognition may be given to gender differences, but their significance is dismissed in mere generalizations (Monk and Hanson, 1982; Seager, 1992; UNCHS, 1996, etc). In fact, until recently women remained invisible in many analyses of social space and from discussions of development theory and practice (Moser, 1993; Braidotti et al, 1994; Short, 1996; etc.).

Observations from the literature show that gender issues are challenging. The literature reveals that from time immemorial and up till this contemporary time it has been an uneasy struggle: a struggle to live peacefully devoid of any form of violence, a struggle to be visible, a struggle to be included, a struggle to be recognized, a struggle to be heard, a struggle to be relieved, a struggle to be empowered, etc, and indeed a struggle to belong and to be visible in the public sphere. Some recent researches based on sex differentiated data have shown clearly that there are gender differences in spatial experiences and that differences between women and men run through all aspects of urban life: in commuting patterns and transportation use; in labour force participation; work opportunities; in the use of urban social space; and in patterns of housing and homelessness (Seager, 1992; Weisman, 1992; etc). The literature reveals that gender issues demand deliberate attention and pragmatic policies, gender sensitive development projects and programmes for progress to be made for a better quality of life including a better quality of urban housing settings for all in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century.

## **2.0 Space, Gender and Housing – a brief overview of the literature**

Observations from the literature show that gender and its social construction are argued to vary not only over time and through history but between spaces and place (Short, 1996). As revealed in the literature, the character of gender construction is both a reflector and an influence of the spatial structure and temporal nature of our environment. Gender relations – the complex interplay of sex caste roles that each of us is assigned to at any one

time –mirror our surroundings while at the same time influencing the structure of them (England, 1991:135). The interplay of gender and space is at the center of geography of gender. According to Massey (1994:177) geography in its various guises influences the cultural formation of particular genders and gender relations, while gender has been deeply influenced in the production of the “geographical”. Spatial variability, therefore, not only implies a difference in the construction of gendered identities but also proposes location as an integral part of their formation. Research and publications on gender and feminism reflect a growing interest in the way that experiences of (and access to) public and private spaces are shaped by gender (Thrift and Waling, 2000:108). Investigation into the interplay of gender and space has thus been a central focus of feminist enquiry within geography (Short, 1996; Johnston, 1998; Knox, 1995; Staeheli and Martin, 2000).

Johnston (1998:285) notes that during the 1980s and early 1990s, feminist geography, while addressing the discipline’s three main concepts of space, place and nature, shifted from analyses of gender differences to concerns over the social creation of gendered beings in particular places, which brings feminist geography closer to the wider feminist project – the study of the lives, experiences and behaviour of women (McDowell, 1993:161). Johnston asserts that three main themes are identified in the early work and are as follows (Johnston, 1998:285): (i) spatial differences in women status – demonstrating ‘man’s inhumanity to women’ – a largely empirical task which emphasized western experience and was increasingly criticized for its ethnocentrism; (ii) gender and place: women and the urban environment which stressed that most women were excluded from analyses of urban areas; and (iii) patriarchal power, which illustrated the ‘blindness’ of (urban and other) geographers to the ‘embodiment of conventional gender divisions’ in the built environment on both large (the structuring of urban land-use patterns) and small (the design and layout of buildings) scales.

Thus, as the literature shows, gender inequalities were added to the others identified by those involved in portraying ‘unfairly structured cities’ (e.g. Badcock, 1984) as major elements in the reproduction processes of ‘patriarchal capitalism’. Thus, women’s varied experiences according to location and subsequent reactions to patriarchy provide inputs into a host of recent studies (Bowlby et al, 1986; Fincher, 1989; Ducan, 1991; England, 1991; etc.). Within this concept, geographical space is conceived as an embodiment of the patriarchal relationship thereby making sense of those locational, environmental and architectural forms – high-rise flats, peripheral estates, under-serviced suburbs – which are especially hostile to women’s needs and which often extract extra and unnecessary costs from them (Cater and Trevor, 1989). Cater and Trevor (1989) argue that this is no accident but the logical outcome of male power and female powerlessness – all the crucial decisions about the built structure of cities and regions were and still are taken by males and they have constructed man-oriented geographic space. They assert that where women have been included in their calculations, this has been women as defined by men not by women themselves. Thus, feminist geography is argued to be ultimately concerned with women as oppressed by man-made space (Cater and Trevor, 1989).

A number of ways in which the city in advanced capitalist countries embodies the operation of patriarchal power are highlighted by Short (1996:230-231) as follows:

- (i) Gender-based, work-home place separations both reflect and reinforce the linkage of femininity to domesticity. Women’s responsibilities for domestic labour restrict their mobility and affect their access to employment opportunities, services and facilities. The work of Hanson and Pratt (1988; 1991) for example shows some of the links between domestic ties, locational restriction, and the occupational segregation of women.
- (ii) The design and organization of urban space reinforce the sexual division of labour. The term “man-made city” is indicative of the design and planning professions, and in the very designs that reinforce gender bias. In a broad historical sweep, Wilson (1991) argues that what is wrong in the design of cities is the masculine desire to control the “place” of women.

- (iii) There are significant differences in the way women and men experience the city. Women's use of urban space, for example is more constrained than men's because of the fear of sexual violence, and this structures their behaviour in many cities. Strategies of individual safety include avoiding certain places at certain times, going to certain places only when accompanied, or not participating in an entire repertoire of activity, especially at night. Valentine (1989:386) for example, contends that "women are pressurized into a restricted use and occupation of public space".

Peterson et al (1978) have taken environmental scale or setting as a starting point and examined the degree of control exerted by women and men over environmental settings at different points on the scale. They consider environments ranging from the "home" to the "world" and relate this to the spheres in which women and men are concentrated. They observed that men are dominant (in a control sense) at the scale of the "world", city, and region by virtue of their political, economic, and employment roles. Women, on the other hand, tend to occupy spaces at the home and neighbourhood levels, and exercise some degree of personal control over them. However, despite women's numerical concentration at the home and neighbourhood scales, key decisions about these spheres tend to be made by institutions operating at the citywide, regional, or national scales. Few women penetrate into these spheres, particularly in positions of power, and they often experience problems when they move away from the "protected" environment of the home and local neighbourhood and venture into unfamiliar work settings, public spaces, and recreation settings that have not been designed with women in mind.

As observed in the literature, institutions which design environments also tend to operate at the macro level to affect environments at the local level. Environmental design rarely takes into account a view of environment that moves outward from the home. However, Peterson et al, (1978) note that women, because they have tended to dominate environments at the scale of the home and the neighbourhood, are in a position to contribute a "micro perspective" on the quality of life in an analysis of environmental systems.

Hitherto, women's place has been delimited as home and community; this has been the guiding principle of designers and urban planners (Mackenzie, 1989; Agbola, 1990). Mackenzie (1989) argues that the resources available in this space were planned and arranged to facilitate the reproduction and leisure of current and future wage-workers. Thus women work from a material base which is defined as private and is geographically separated from the public workplaces of men. This gender-specific spatial separation is disintegrating (Mackenzie, 1989). The literature reveals that changes in the social and economic situations have contributed greatly to the disintegration of this gender-specific spatial separation. The argument in the literature is that increasing economic losses, for instance, has made the single-earner family which had dominated the ideology of most people and the lives of some in past to become a rarity. These have brought changes and increasing pressure to contemporary women's lives. For many women, these changes are experienced as living a double life attempting to fulfill their responsibilities for maintaining a home and community while at the same time performing public economic roles. These difficulties of dual roles are exacerbated by the form of the urban environment - the design of homes and communities assumes someone is working full time to maintain and organize domestic life; this creates pressures on the growing number of women (Mackenzie, 1989).

In a review of the effect of design on women, Hayden and Wright (1976) have noted that women have been most closely associated with domestic environments, but almost always as passive clients. They have had to accept spatial and social traditions that confine to certain kinds of structures, and they have had to transform their homes and lives according to the changing standards of advertising, zoning legislation, welfare policy, or neighbourhood pressure for conformity (Hayden and Wright, 1976).

As revealed in the literature, despite the widespread interest in user needs studies of housing environments (Lang et al, 1974), remarkably little attention has been directed to the



study of women as users of housing, even though for women housing is a workplace as well as shelter. At the micro scale, women can be distinguished as a separate group of users of the home environment. The range of behaviour open to them is influenced both by their access to home environments and by the form of those environments. The literature revealed that, because of the time spent in the home, their responsibility for management, and the creation and shaping of material and social style, women make a particular set of demands on the home environment, requiring that they maximize rather than limit their opportunities.

Since women are rarely consulted about the design of houses and very few women are employed in the design professions (Hayden and Wright, 1976), the spaces in which women spend a large part of their time are often woefully inadequate to their needs. Several studies (Wright, 1975; Hayden and Wright, 1976) have demonstrated that developments in American domestic architecture and the introduction of household appliances and other “time-saving” devices served not so much to liberate women from domestic drudgery as to institutionalize the woman’s role as a “professional housekeeper” and even to increase the amount of time spent in housework. A study of women’s use of kitchens (Jetha, 1976) discovered widespread dissatisfaction with the size and design of kitchens. The isolation of the kitchen from the rest of the dwelling unit often makes child surveillance difficult and cuts women off from the rest of the family; the cramped space of the kitchen can make it impossible for husbands and wives to share household tasks even when they are willing to do so.

As observed in the literature, decreasing space in houses and apartments in response to rising housing costs also creates “tight spaces”, which result in less storage space and fewer opportunities for household members to leave hobbies and ongoing work without cleaning up each time. This adds to women’s household chores and time spent in maintenance of the home.

Thus, the literature reveals that, dwellings, neighbourhoods and urban centers designed physically for homebound women (often by men) tend to constrain them physically, socially and economically. This is also visible with respect to accessibility (to basic facilities) (Agbola, 1990; Mackenzie, 1989).

The issue of access has been observed (Agbola, 1990) (by most female architects, planners/designers and women generally) to be one of the greatest flaws in the urban planning and designing of our urban centers. The literature shows that this problem has been further emphasized since the separation of the home from services and especially since the onset of sub-urban living (suburbanization). Although there have been studies of unequal access to public and private facilities, the family gender and role of facility users have not yet been taken into account (Agbola, 1990). Also, women's specific problems of access and use of resources have not been included and in fact have not been fully explored (Agbola, 1990). Furthermore, women with young children have problems of mobility which necessitates their having local facilities within walking distance. However, the tendency has been for services to be centralized, thus, requiring access to private transport. It has been theorized that in two-member-all-working families, women choose work location only after their residences have been selected. This is probably so because their husbands often tend to take priority in residential locations which in most cases are often within accessible limits to their work places. The study of occupational segregation of women in Worcester, Massachusetts in USA, by Hanson and Pratt (1995:248-249) considered the ordering of work place and residential location decisions. They observe that given the importance that women accord proximity to home, it is of considerable significance that households appear to place a higher priority on convenience to the male's job in choosing their residential location.

In the developing countries, particularly in Nigeria, there are no in-depth empirical studies into the impact of housing on women and men as well as the level of involvement of women in housing delivery. The study filled this gap along other issues addressed.

### **3.0 Research questions and the hypotheses**

The empirical work pursued in the study raised and addressed the following important and related questions:

- Do differences exist in the involvement of women and men in housing development?
- Do significant intra-urban variations exist in women's perceived and actual involvement in housing development?
- Do socio-economic characteristics affect women and men's involvement in housing development?
- Does any relationship exist between the involvement of women in housing development and their responsibility in the household?
- Is there intra-urban variation in women's satisfaction with the houses delivered?
- Is there any relationship between housing attributes and gender attributes?
- Does any significant relationship exist between housing attributes and the physical well-being of women and men?
- Do variations exist in the women and men housing experience? and
- Do socio-economic and cultural characteristics affect women and men's housing experience?

These are important research questions, among many other questions, which the study addresses.

The null hypotheses tested in the study are that:

- i. there is no significant variation in the women's and men's involvement in housing delivery. Here we expect that (i) there is no significant intra-urban variation in women's perceived awareness and actual involvement in housing development; (ii) there is no significant gender differences in house ownership of women and men; and (iii) there is no significant intra-urban variation in women house ownership.
- ii. there is no significant relationship between women's involvement in housing delivery and (i) their socio-economic characteristics; (ii) condition/availability of the social support/ network and physical support; (iii) awareness and aspirations; (iv) responsibility in the household and (v) the house cost/value.
- iii. there is no intra-urban variation in women's satisfaction with housing units. No significant gender differences are expected in the aspects of housing units that women and men take special interest in.
- iv. there is no significant variation in the impact of housing on women's and men's daily activities. Here we expect that (i) there is no gender difference in the felt adverse effect of aspects of housing on daily activities; and (ii) there is no significant relationship between housing attributes and gender attributes - no gender difference exists in the impacts of the housing attributes on the daily activities of women and men.
- v. there is no significant impact of the housing stressors on the physical well-being of women and men. Here we expect that (i) there is no gender difference in the impacts of housing stressors on physical well-being of women and men; (ii) there is no significant intra-urban variation in the housing experience as measured by the impact of housing stressors, that is, housing attributes that could be stress-inducing on the physical well-being of women and men; and

- vi. there is no significant relationship between housing experience of women and men and their socio-economic characteristics - no gender difference exists in the effects of the socio-economic characteristics on their respective housing experience.

#### **4.0 Methodology:**

The data base for the study is obtained from primary and secondary sources.

##### ***4.1 Primary Data***

The primary data was obtained through questionnaire survey undertaken between November 1999 and March 2001 with the aid of field assistants who were trained on how best to administer the questionnaire. The field assistants were recruited majorly from the students of the Department of Town and Country Planning (now Department of Urban and Regional Planning) in the Faculty of Environmental Studies in The Polytechnic Ibadan, Ibadan. The field assistants were trained on the aim of the survey, the meaning of different key terms as well as the strategies for effectively collecting the required data.

The questionnaire was divided into eight sections and it was designed to provide information on women (and their spouses in the case of married women) with respect to involvement in housing development and housing experience. The first section dealt with the household composition and its socio-economic characteristics which include the age, educational attainment, marital status, occupation, monthly income, etc.

In the second section of the questionnaire, information was sought on the relative involvement of the respondents (and their spouses if any) in housing development. Respondents were asked to state whether or/not they own any land, or any house. If they own land and/or house they were asked to state the number of plot(s) and house(s) respectively. Respondents who own land were further asked if they had started developing

the land and what they intended to do with the land. Those respondents who do not own land were asked if they wanted to own a land/house. Respondents were asked to state which aspect of the house they took special interest in. Where the respondents are house owners or are in the process of building one, they were asked to state their knowledge and involvement with respect to land purchase, land preparation, production of building materials, finance of building, design of building etc. Respondents were asked to state their perception about the involvement of women and men in the various aspects that relate to housing development such as land purchase and ownership, site clearance, design of building, production/procurement of building materials etc.

In the third section of the questionnaire, information was collected on the activity patterns of the respondents. These include the daily activities of the respondents; effects of the general condition and location of their houses on their daily activities as well as the aspects of housing that affect them most. Others include responsibility for various tasks such as housework, caring work, household subsistence activities etc in the household. The fourth section dealt specifically with the locational attributes of the houses. Interest here focused on the location of the houses in relation to place of work, service centers, children's schools etc. Respondent's perceptions of the location distances of the house to the various activities were sought.

The fifth section of the questionnaire was concerned with information on the neighbourhood environmental attributes. These characteristics include the state of refuse collection, cleanliness of the neighbourhood, condition of adjoining roads, noise levels, air pollution levels, quality of public transport, absence or presence of neighbourhood shops, level of interpersonal relations/neighbourhood friendliness, quality of schools etc.

The sixth section of the questionnaire was to identify the structural attributes of the houses. These include the type of house, occupancy status, age of the unit, number of rooms

per unit, etc. Information was also sought on the state of certain structural attributes such as walls, floors, and roof by noting whether or not they required replacement or repairs. Respondents were asked to describe the prevalence of pest in their house by stating whether it is prevalent or not prevalent. They were also asked to indicate whether they were strongly satisfied, satisfied, dissatisfied or were strongly dissatisfied with some stated aspects of housing such as kitchen, bathroom, toilet, balcony/corridor/veranda etc.

The seventh and the eighth sections of the questionnaire were concerned with the physical well-being information. In the seventh section, indicators of physical well-being stated included more specific measures of health problems particularly those related to poor housing condition. Such health problems considered were cough, wheeze, blocked nose, skin infections, tiredness or body weakness, feverish, malaria, headache and diarrhea (Martin et al, 1987; Strachan, 1988; Platt et al, 1989; Hyndman, 1990). The respondent was asked to state whether within the past months he or she had experienced any of the above diseases.

The eighth section of the questionnaire was concerned with the information on the psychological distress of the respondents. Psychological distress has two major forms (Mirowsky and Ross, 1989; Theodore et al, 1993; 1996): depression (feeling sad, demoralized, lonely, hopeless, worthless, wishing you were dead, having trouble sleeping, crying, feeling everything is an effort and being unable to get going); and anxiety (being tense, restless, worried, irritable and afraid). Argument in the literature is that depression and anxiety are not distinct forms of psychological distress. They are instead closely intertwined (Dohrenwend et al, 1980; Mirowsky and Ross, 1989). Theodore et al (1993) examine housing, stress and physical well-being in Thailand. In this study, we have adopted Theodore et al (1993) scale of psychological distress, which comprises ten items that reflect various symptoms, including aspects of both anxiety and depression. Thus, in the first nine items, the respondent was asked to indicate how often he or she experienced certain feelings during the

previous few weeks. The response categories were “often”, “sometimes”, “rarely”, or “never”. The feelings were: (1) “anxious about something or someone” (2) “that people are trying to pick quarrels or start arguments with you” (3) “so depressed that it interferes with your daily activities” (4) “that personal worries are getting you down physically, that is, making you physically ill” (5) “moody” (6) “felt you were confused, frustrated and under a lot of pressure” (7) “Are you ever bothered by a nervousness i.e. by being irritable, fidgety, or tense?” (8) “Do you ever feel that nothing ever turns out for you the way you want it to?” and (9) “Do you have trouble concentrating or keeping your mind on what you are doing?” The last item was: (10) “Are you the worrying type – you know a worrier?” (Yes/No) (Theodore et al, 1993:1421-1422).

#### ***4.2 Sampling Method***

The sampling frame utilized was the total number of estimated households in Ibadan municipal area as of 1999. The average household size declared for Nigeria in the result of the National Population Commission (NPC) 1995/96 household survey is 4.48; this was used to divide the projected 1999 population of each locality as defined by the National Population Commission (NPC) in the Ibadan municipal area to get an estimate of household number. Due to cost consideration, a total of seven hundred and twenty-one households were selected as the sample size. This sample represents 0.20 percent of the estimated households in Ibadan as of 1999. To make for effective and objective coverage, due to non availability of the list of all households in each locality in Ibadan, the number of questionnaire forms administered in each locality was proportional to the total number of estimated households in each locality.

For the purpose of intra-urban analysis, each of the locality in Ibadan municipal area as defined by the National Population Commission (NPC) was accordingly sorted into four



residential areas – high density residential area (comprising traditional core high density residential area of Ibadan and non-traditional core high density residential area), medium density residential area and low density residential area - according to where it was located following existing studies on Ibadan metropolis (Mabogunje, 1962, 1968; NISER, 1988; Ayeni, 1982; 1994; Filani et al, 1994; Abumere, 1994). For example, the traditional core high density or indigenous areas of Ibadan correspond roughly with Mabogunje's (1962) core and older suburbs and Ayeni's (1982) high density residential areas. Also the non-traditional core high density residential areas roughly correspond with NISER's (1988) new unplanned fringe and part of Ayeni's high density. The medium density roughly corresponds with Ayeni's (1982) classification of medium density residential areas and Mabogunje's (1962) newer eastern and western suburbs as well as post 1952 developments and NISER's (1988) intermediate zone. Both non-traditional core high density and medium density residential areas correspond with Abumere's (1994) zone of market forces. The low density residential areas correspond with Ayeni's (1982) classification of low density residential areas, Mabogunje's (1962) Bodija/Reservation and Estates, NISER's (1988) zone of planned settlement and Abumere's (1994) government zone or institutional zone (see Fig. I).

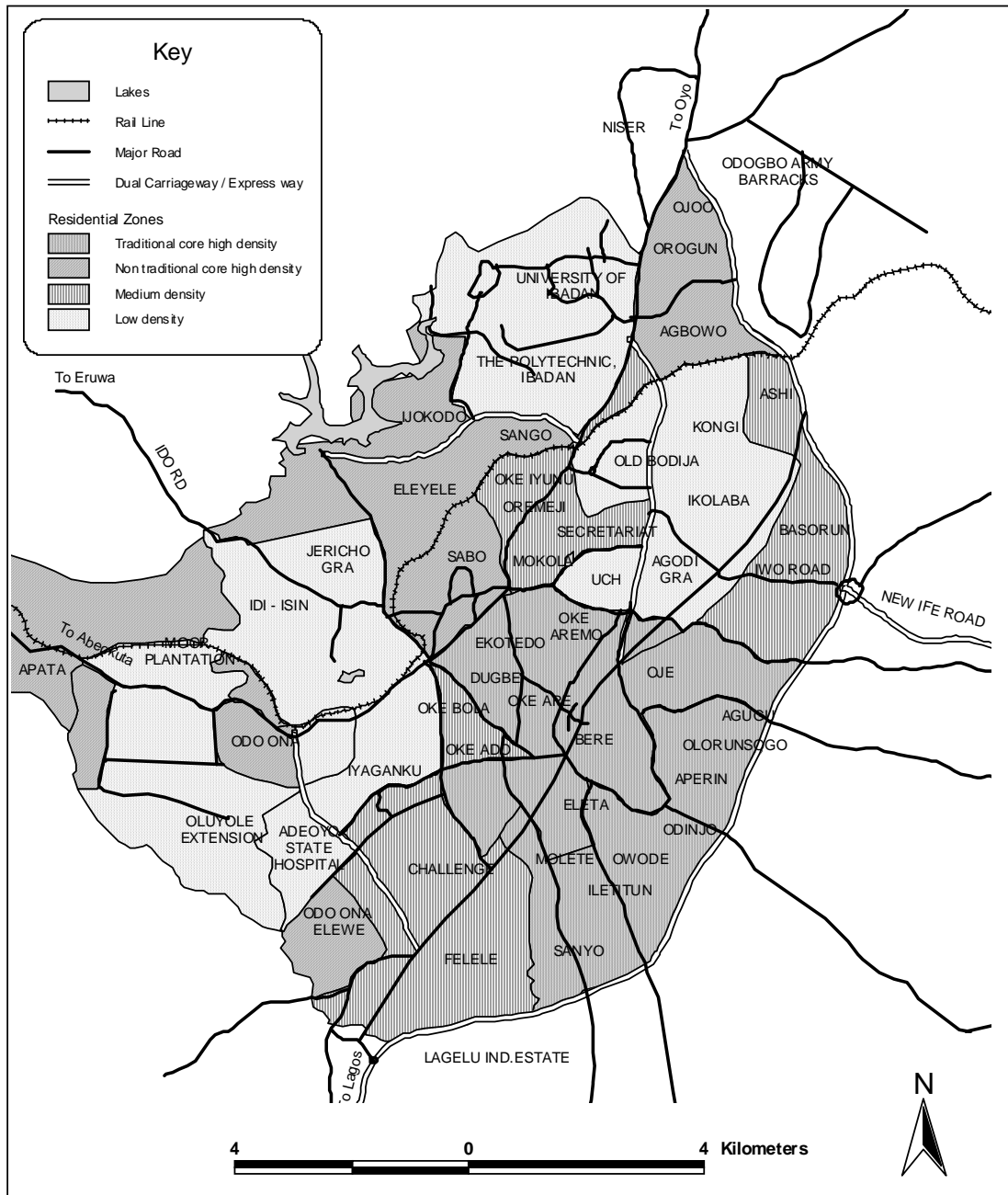


Fig. I: Ibadan showing residential density areas

Source: Adapted from Mabogunje (1962); NISER (1988); Ayeni (1982; 1994); Abumere (1994)

The classification of high density into two – traditional core and non-traditional core – was based on the observation that these two residential areas which are usually classified together in Ibadan are distinct in social and physical patterns. This was observed from the literature, reconnaissance survey and consultation with town planners. In terms of socio-economic status and housing condition non-traditional core high density residential areas are better off. Also, in terms of ethnic status, traditional core areas are relatively homogeneous in the sense that majority of the residents are indigenes of Ibadan. In the non-traditional core high density residential areas, residents are of different ethnic background. These factors that guided our division of high residential density areas into two are critical factors of residential differentiation which have been identified in the literature. Table 1 shows the summary of the four residential areas, projected 1999 household number, number of questionnaire forms administered and the total number of respondents in Ibadan Municipal area.

Table 1: Residential areas, projected 1999 household number, number of questionnaire forms administered and total number of respondents in Ibadan Municipal Area

S/ N	Residential Area	1999 Population Projection	Number of Households	Number of Questionnaire Forms administered	Total number of respondents	
					Women	Men - (Women spouses)
1.	Traditional core high density	829,203	185,090	384	384	292
2.	Non-traditional core high density	329,719	73,598	150	150	114
3.	Medium Density	295,917	66,053	136	136	125
4.	Low Density	94,716	21,142	51	51	40
TOTAL		1,549,556	345,883	721	721	571

The sampling procedure adopted was aimed at sampling along the major streets in each locality. Systematic random sampling was used in the selection of houses along the

streets. The first house was selected by the use of random numbers and all subsequent units in the sample were chosen at regular intervals. From each selected houses, a household, particularly a woman and her spouse (if any) were interviewed.

#### ***4.3 Secondary Data***

The secondary sources of data include publications, reports and files from government and quasi-government agencies such as: the National Population Commission, the Property Development Corporation of Oyo State (P.D.C.O.S), Local Town Planning Department and the Ministry of Lands and Survey. Population figures were obtained from the National Population Commission (NPC). Information on women and men involvement in housing development as indicated by registration of building plans (1991-1999), and applications for certificates of occupancy (C of O) (1989-1999) were obtained from the Town Planning Departments, Property Development Corporation of Oyo State (P.D.C.O.S) and the Oyo State Ministry of Lands and Survey.

#### ***4.4 Method of Data Analysis***

Descriptive statistical methods were used to analyse the data. Analysis of variance, “t” test statistics and regression statistical techniques were used to test the stated hypotheses.

### **5.0 Highlights of the findings of the study**

The study revealed that, generally, there is low involvement of women in housing development. The general perception of women is that housing provisions are the responsibilities of male heads of households and is significant at  $p < .05$ . Significant intra-urban variation does not exist in the involvement of women in each of the critical aspects of housing development which are: land acquisition and preparation, housing design and planning, housing finance, actual construction of the building, production/procurement of the

building materials, and housing maintenance. However, more than in any other aspect of housing development, women are found to be involved in housing maintenance activities and is significant at  $p < .05$ . Significant gender difference at  $p < .01$  is found in the application for building plan registration, certificate of occupancy, ownership of land, ownership of houses, and housing plots, that is, residential building project in progress. Men are found to have applied for building plan registration and certificates of occupancy more than women. Also men are found to own more plots of land, more number of houses and housing plots than women.

The determinants of women's involvement in housing development in order of importance are their aspiration and awareness, socio-economic characteristics, social support/network and physical support, responsibility in the household and the house cost which together account for 60% of the variations in involvement of women in housing delivery. The most important socio-economic characteristics are age, educational level and income. Women's involvement in housing development is found to be directly related to age, educational level, and income. It is also found to be directly related to their aspiration and awareness, social support/network and physical support. Furthermore, women's involvement is found to be inversely related to their perception of housing development, responsibility in the household and housing cost.

Significant intra-urban variations are found in women ownership of houses ( $p < .05$ ) and in the satisfaction of women with houses delivered ( $p < .01$ ) in the following order: high density (both traditional core and non-traditional core high density) < medium density < low density residential zones. Significant gender differences at  $p < .01$  is found in the following aspects of housing structural units in which women and men are specially interested: living room, bedroom and kitchen. Men appear to be more interested in the living room than women while women appear to be more interested in the bedroom and kitchen than men. Also significant

gender differences at  $p < .01$  are found in the adverse effects of housing on women's and men's daily activities. Women's daily activities are more adversely affected than those of men.

Significant intra-urban variations at  $p < .01$  are found in the impact of housing stressors on the physical well being of both women and men. However, gender differences occur in the impacts of each of the housing stressors used in the analysis of their physical well-being. The impacts are found to be greater for women than for men in terms of housing stressors variables that is, lack of space, housing discomfort, physical housing condition and dissatisfaction with housing. The only exception is the high rent/cost where the impact is greater for men than for women. In addition, each of the housing stressors has more impact on the female-headed households than on married women living in the male-headed households.

Furthermore, significant relationship at  $p < .01$  is found between women and men housing experience (as measured by the impacts of housing stressors on their physical well-being) and their socio-economic characteristics. However, for women's housing experience, the effect of each of the socio-economic characteristics that is, economic characteristics, family characteristics and social characteristics which is defined as responsibility for the overall housework and childcare is significant at  $p < .01$ , while for men's housing experience, only the effects of economic characteristics and family characteristics are significant at  $p < .01$  and  $p < .05$  respectively.

## **6.0 Policy implications and conclusion**

Policy implication of the study suggests that strengthening the participation of women as professionals and developers will enhance women empowerment in housing delivery. This can be achieved through improved access to adequate education and training, employment,

provision of social support/network and physical support as well as a reorientation of women's mindset about the responsibility for housing provision. In addition, and in order to ensure improved housing for women, there is the need for spatial engineering otherwise known as spatial manipulation with a view to organizing and re-organizing space within the dwelling unit and the dwelling environments in such a way that is gender sensitive.

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