



T.C.
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URBANIZATION AND URBAN PROBLEMS IN IBADAN (NIGERIA)

MASTER'S THESIS

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SCIENTIFIC ETHICAL STATEMENT

According to the thesis writing guide of the Graduate Institute of Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa University, I declare that my master's thesis titled “Urbanization and Urban Problems in Ibadan (Nigeria)” which I have prepared under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gündüz AKSU KOCATÜRK is an original work that complies with scientific ethical values and rules, and I will accept any legal sanctions if it is determined otherwise

.../.../2024

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Defense exam of the thesis study titled “Urbanization and Urban Problems in Ibadan (Nigeria)” prepared by Tobi Timilehin OGEDENGBE was held on 01/04/2024 it was accepted as a Master's Thesis in Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa University Graduate Education Institute, Department of Public Administration, by the Jury given below.

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ABSTRACT**URBANIZATION AND URBAN PROBLEMS IN IBADAN (NIGERIA)**

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This study aims at examining the urbanization and urban problems, using Ibadan as a case study. Ibadan, the capital city of Oyo state is growing at an alarming rate resulted from migration of people from countryside in search of job opportunity and infrastructural facilities. Access to decent housing among the low income households has becoming difficult due to growing housing demand, rising land prices and growing in urban poverty level. The study reveal that, low income households are living within the housing units characterized by substandard housing condition in terms of quality and provision of basic infrastructural facilities such as accessibility. This study suggests government intervention in terms of rural development in order to reduce massive movement of the people from the countryside to the urban centre, there is need to review 1978 land use decree in order to address the land tenure problem, rent control and partnership with private housing sector in order to enhance affordable housing among low income households.

Keywords: Urbanization, Urban Problems, Ibadan, Nigeria.

ÖZET

IBADAN'DA (NİJERYA) KENTLEŞME VE KENTSEL SORUNLAR

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Bu çalışma, İbadan üzerinden kentleşme ve kentsel sorunları incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Oyo eyaletinin başkenti İbadan, kırsal kesimden iş fırsatı ve altyapı tesisleri arayan insanların göç etmesinden dolayı endişe verici bir hızla büyüyor. Artan konut talebi, artan arazi fiyatları ve artan kentsel yoksulluk düzeyi nedeniyle düşük gelirli hane halklarının insana yakışır konuta erişimi zorlaşmaktadır. Bu çalışma, düşük gelirli hanelerin, kalite ve erişilebilirlik gibi temel altyapı olanaklarının sağlanması açısından standartların altında kalan konut birimlerinde yaşadığını ortaya koymaktadır. Bu çalışma, halkın kırsal kesimden kent merkezine kitlesel hareketini azaltmak için kırsal kalkınma açısından hükümet müdahalesini önermektedir. Düşük gelirli haneler arasında uygun fiyatlı konutların geliştirilmesi amacıyla arazi mülkiyeti sorununun çözülmesi, kira kontrolü ve özel konut sektörüyle ortaklık için 1978 arazi kullanım kararnamesinin gözden geçirilmesi gerekmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kentleşme, Kent Sorunları, İbadan, Nijerya.

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CHAPTER ONE

PURPOSE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH

1.1. Background of the Study

Widely, or in a broader manner, Globally, nations are now dealing with similar difficulties and challenges related to the environment, society, transportation, economics, and many other areas in their own cities. The disparity in development between cities and villages is the primary cause of these problems, which are common in emerging nations (Latif Fauzi, E. O. 2007). Such challenges are said to be caused by the imbalanced growth of urban and rural regions. The world's population has been growing at an alarming rate, according to available data. Cities and villages are expanding quite rapidly. The lightning rate of urbanization in the third world countries has led to the development of a debate over the accelerated pace of this process, its causes and consequences. The academic world has given the study, known as the "urbanization thesis," a lot of attention. According to this school of thinking, Asia is currently over-urbanized in the sense that, at similar levels of urbanization, a larger percentage of the work force was employed in non-agricultural sectors in developed nations. The primary driver of urbanization has been the increasing number of rural migrants moving into cities as a result of both pull and push influences in their place of origin. A situation like this has prevented cities from playing the dynamic role they were intended to, turning them into hubs of urban misery and poverty. The concept was first put out by Hozelitz, I. (2004), who argued that given the industrial mix of emerging countries' economy, urbanization there may be excessive. According to this, third-world nations' urbanization processes are unable to produce the same positive and dynamic forces of social transformation as they did in the industrialized world. According to Sovani, R. (2014), two indices are used to define urbanization: the proportion of the population that lives in urban regions and the split of the labor force's total employment between non-agricultural and agricultural jobs. While the second is the reverse, the first is a spatial index without being an occupational one. We can all agree that there is a basis for this analogy because modern urbanization is linked to industry.

According to Abu Lughod (2015), a number of urbanization scholars have proposed that early industrializing nations have an imbalance in the number and distribution of their urban populations, implying that their urban population is higher than

its "warranted" for their level of economic development. This process is referred to as "urbanization," which is the outcome of an excessive number of rural residents who are unemployed or underemployed moving to cities before there is a sufficient increase in the number of urban work prospects. Due to unrelenting migration from the countryside, the work force in these large cities keeps growing, contributing to the high rates of underemployment and unemployment in the cities. Cities in the Third World have a significant labor numbers in a variety of forms. Despite this, their labor force is still growing, thanks in part to rural-urban migration, which accounts for between one-third and half of the urban growth observed in the majority of third-world nations. In third-world nations, there is significant population pressure on land in rural regions. A "Push" or economic pressure from the countryside drives each person seeking work and a living toward the metropolis. Urbanization results from migration from rural to urban areas, which is mostly caused by the "push" of the countryside rather than the "pull," or growing economic activity in the city. According to Abu Lughod (2015), these migrants either increase the unemployment rate or work in jobs with extremely poor productivity.

According to Nsiah-Gyabaah, O. P. (2007), urbanization is the process of moving from a rural to an urban society and is characterized by a growth in the population of urban regions in a given year. In a similar vein, Gooden, G. (2009) defined urbanization as the mass migration of individuals from rural to urban regions, mostly brought about by the concentration of amenities and resources in towns and cities. According to Reynolds (2009), urbanization is the process by which cities and populations grow to the point that a larger percentage of people reside in urban regions. In general, modernization, industry, and the social rationalization process are intimately associated with urbanization. As rural occupations became less prevalent throughout the industrial revolution, laborers relocated to cities' manufacturing centers in search of factory jobs, which is how urbanization started (Materialism). Urbanization results from social, economic, and political factors that cause major cities to concentrate and grow, alter inland usage, and shift the organization and governance pattern from rural to metropolitan (Nsiah-Gyabaah, 2007).

Ibadan, widely recognized as the biggest traditional city in sub-Saharan Africa, has experienced significant growth from a small population of 70,000 in 1856 to a modern, densely populated metropolis. Following Nigeria's oil boom of the 1970s, the city began to grow quickly both in terms of area and development. The primarily

indigenous community was transformed into an urban colony with a diverse population due to the large-scale migration associated with that era. Ibadan is one of the West African cities where population growth is above 100,000 per year, which is a result of both net migration and natural rise (United Nations, 2014).

According to the 2006 National Population Census, there were 2.55 million people living in Greater Ibadan overall, compared to 1.34 million in the city. Numerous hazards have multiplied inside the urban environment as a result of the high rate of urbanization and the accompanying socioeconomic issues. Two recent studies were examined out on urban challenges in Ibadan and urban infrastructure in three major cities (Onibokun, F., 2007). The studies revealed the glaring inadequacies and deteriorating state of urban infrastructure. They specifically showed that a sizable percentage of the dwelling units (up to 34% in the city) lacked access to proper liquid waste disposal systems, pipe-borne water, and power.

The city, which was primarily indigenous, underwent a metamorphosis into an urban community with a diverse population due to the large-scale migration that was connected with the time. The United Nations (2014) reports that Ibadan is one of the West African cities where the population is growing by over 100,000 per year due to a combination of natural increase and net migration.

The urbanization processes in the city of Ibadan were significantly impacted by the national economic boom in the 1970s. Ibadan has expanded into a sizable metropolis with no apparent trend of growth since that time. Mainly along important transportation corridors, unplanned urban growth and the emergence of peripheral informal communities occurred (Fourchard, 2003). This includes the city's quickly growing eastern regions, which have evolved with the core area's slum characteristics, and stretch eastward from the predominantly immigrant suburbs to the west and north (Chokor, 2006).

In Olorunsogo, Ogbere, Boluwaji, Olomi, Kehinsi, Aroye, Alakia, Isebo, Akobo, Alegongo, Wakajaiye/Olodo, Bembo/Owode Estate, and Apete, there are a number of sub-urban slums that have grown up due to a lack of access to motorized roads, sewage systems, fire stations, and health facilities (Tomori, 2012). According to estimates, 70–80% of Ibadan's families live practically in slum conditions (Arimah, 2004).

Moreover, large areas that were previously distinguished by rural characteristics have either been merged into the city or changed into peri-urban areas. As a result, a number of former rural areas, such as Alakia, Bode-Igbo, Lalupon, Moniya, Odo-Ona, Ogbere, and Olodo, are now a part of peri-urban Ibadan (Adelekan, 2014). Arimah (2004) conducted an assessment of housing amenities in the city and found clear spatial disparities, with wards in the majority of the core area—the central, eastern, south-eastern, and extreme northern sections of the city—receiving lower scores on the features of spaciousness and modern housing amenities. The north-eastern (Kongi, Ikolaba, Agodi, Idi-Ape, Orita-Bashorun) and north-western (Bodija, Iyaganku, Oke-Bola, Onireke, Eleyele, Jericho, Idi-Ishin, Oke-Ado, Challenge, Ring Road, and Oluyole Estate) sections of the city are home to wards with high scores. Building codes have not always been followed when it comes to urban growth in the city.

According to Arimah and Adeagbo (2000), the most frequently broken construction code pertains to plot coverage, setback requirements, room size, utility provision, and the conversion of a fully residential space into a home-based business. For instance, just 51% and 41%, respectively, of the homes in the Mapo core region and the recently created Apete sub-urban area have authorized building plans (Adeniji and Ogundiji, 2009). Furthermore, following the August 2011 floods in Ibadan, 26,533 buildings in the city were found to be within the statutory setbacks for rivers and streams (Oyo State), despite the fact that State regulations governing the minimum riparian setbacks on either side of watercourses range from 15 to 46 m, depending on the size of the river or stream (Oyo State 2005).

Similar to this, Agbola and Alabi (2010) discovered 871 unlawful buildings in Ibadan that were located beneath 11KV, 33KV, 132KV, and 330KV power transmission lines. Many factors have been cited as the reason for the relatively low levels of compliance with building regulations. These include the institutional framework of urban planning and development rules; and the administrative machinery for physical planning implementation that does not facilitate interagency balance issues; the general public's poverty; and the public's contempt and apathy toward the city's formal planning institutions (Arimah and Adeagbo, 2000). Inadequate planning has led to a rise in poverty and the spread of slums and informal settlements throughout the city (Arimah, B. C., & Adeagbo, D., 2000).

Numerous issues afflict Ibadan, most of which are related to the city's and its population's expansion, macroeconomic circumstances, local environmental changes, and the incapacity of local administrations to properly manage urbanization. As per Mannion's (2007) findings, the ongoing processes of urbanization have a significant effect on the peripheral areas. The increased demands for land, housing, physical infrastructure development, and transportation can lead to significant changes in the peripheral areas/settlements. According to Owoeye (2013), these alterations are the result of both the socioeconomic growth and the detrimental enhancement of infrastructure, both of which are important factors in the organization and transformation of the outskirts of Ibadan's metropolitan centers. According to Mabogunje (2015), there has been a noticeable increase in green poverty in large metropolitan areas. This has affected not only how people live but also transportation within the city, house congestion, waste management and disposal, insufficient power and water supplies, parking space shortages, traffic jams, flooding, and a host of other issues.

According to Mabogunje (2015), the incapacity of Ibadan city to create sufficient resources and anticipate future demands is a sign of inadequate management. Thus, the developing imbalance in the processes of growth and capacities to handle them may be the root cause of Ibadan's urbanization-related issues. Ibadan City is exhibiting several signs of environmental poverty, including overuse of existing infrastructure, inadequate social facilities, indiscriminate discharge of liquid and solid waste, poor drainage and sewage systems, housing shortages, traffic jams, and pollution. Ibadan has seen a great deal of unofficial physical development; some previously residential homes have been transformed to commercial spaces, and locations that were initially designated as setbacks are now home to shops and stores. Against this backdrop, the study looks at the issues that urbanization has brought about in Ibadan's residential neighborhoods.

1.2. Research Gap

Future study will be recommended on how to improve the urban problems in Ibadan, are hereby suggested:

- Policies created within the context of urban development should be consistent and follow a long-term planning strategy. Also, in order to keep up with the latest advancements in urban sciences, these policies must to be regularly reviewed under the short- and medium-term planning strategy.

- Data collection should be consistent in order to inform research that influences how society is developing. iii. All actors should be able to develop a shared understanding of their roles and responsibilities in urban development and management.
- Enhance the ability of pertinent organizations and individuals to carry out their duties and obligations in advancing sustainable urban development and management, as well as to oversee the operations of the physical planning regulatory authorities.
- Urban spaces are home to people with very low productive skills which, when brought to cities, have little relevance for their sustenance. The difference between developed societies like in Europe is that when people migrate they bring in skills while in Nigeria most of the people from the rural spaces are farmers without skills, making them unable to contribute which creates an imbalance of skills. The government should encourage the development of skills in urban settlements in order to reduce the level of urbanization and to help increase people's development.
- Most urban spaces in Ibadan are in their infancy and there are opportunities because the country is currently battling with urban planning problems and challenges, in the sense that most of the major metropolis are growing exponentially. The government can intervene in controlling the master plan and proposing a sustainable strategic growth pattern. Overall the researcher recommends that the government reviews master plans for sustainable purposes.
- Build and strengthen the capacities of relevant ministries, departments and agencies to facilitate the adaptation of sustainable urban development principles and also provide necessary support and incentives to the private sector to effectively participate in the establishment of sustainability assessment schemes.
- Build and strengthen the capacities of state planning boards and local planning authorities to implement these schemes using a top-down approach.

Sustainability Urban Assessment Tool/Framework should be established in order to act as a mechanism for promoting the participation and collaboration of major actors involved in the process of achieving sustainable urbanism.

All this recommendation if properly taken into consideration will help in achieving a truly sustainable urban development in Ibadan, Nigeria.

1.3. Research Questions

RQ 1: There is no significant relationship between urbanization and poor housing condition in Ibadan.

RQ 2: There is no significant relationship between urbanization and inadequate social facilities in Ibadan.

RQ 3. There is no significant relationship between urbanization and environmental pollution in Ibadan.

1.4. Research Objectives

This current research study highlights the Urbanization and Urban problems In Ibadan (Nigeria) within the geographical areas. It focuses on the relationship between Urbanization and urban problems in Ibadan. The current research specifically spotlights the relationships of Urbanization and Urban problems In Ibadan (Nigeria). Also, it explains the how distinct the population growth relate to the broader factors influencing economic development in Nigeria. Following objectives were developed by studying literature;

The objective is to show that;

- A city is not static; rather it is dynamic with effect from diverse sources such as regional, inter-regional, national and international economic forces.
- Also, it aims at developing a framework that would enhance a mutually sustainable development for our urban centers.
- It aims at contributing to the existing researches that have been done in Kaduna metropolis of which other works would lay the foundation basis for the research
- It aims at using the interdisciplinary approach, techniques and methods in understanding the relationship between urbanization and economic development in Nigeria. It is hoped that the research will contribute positively to knowledge.

1.5. Rational Approach of the Study

Ibadan city was chosen for study as it is one of the highest population greater than other states in Nigeria also there are affiliated towns which can help in our data. Further data collection will be easy in terms of time and finance as the access in this province is more rather than other parts of the states. Ibadan city has also a great history related to

education, leadership, economy of the country, research, agriculture development etc...

The region (currently known as Ibadan, one of the city in Nigeria) along the south-West boundaries of the huge, culturally and ethnically diverse, which spread from the north to the south of Nigeria, provoked a huge movement of people from the north to the south of Yoruba land, and from the countryside to the walled cities. Thus, many old cities disappeared (Old-Oyo, Owu) whereas a new generation of fortified towns came into being (New Oyo, Abéokuta, Ibadan). Ibadan was created in 1829 as a war camp for warriors coming from Oyo, Ife and Ijebu. A forest site and several ranges of hills, varying in elevation from 160 to 275 metres, offered strategic defence opportunities.

Also, the choice of Ibadan for the study is hinged on its position in the population of Nigeria from its inception and after independence. This is because its population was enhanced by South-West bureaucrats who decided that Ibadan should remain the site of major federal departments and boards. For example, multi-millionaire naira industries like the fertilizers factory, Peugeot Automobile industry, the cocoa house amongst others are located in Ibadan. Furthermore, the infrastructural demands of modern manufacturing activities have tended to be concentrated in the Ibadan. This explains why the thesis focuses on Ibadan instead of other states as a whole.

Ibadan is located in Oyo State, Nigeria, and is made up of largely Yoruba speaking peoples. It is reputed to be the largest indigenous city in Nigeria with a total area of 3,080 sq. kilometers. The total population of the five local government areas in the municipality is 1,889,776 while that of the outlying communities is 1,413,081. It is not a city of remote antiquity, but is highly metropolitan and urbanised. Its large size clearly marks it out among other Yoruba cities. Ibadan is a city of numerous hills (Oke) after which some of the wards are named like Oke-Ado, OkeFoko, Oke-Sapati, Oke-Are, Oke-Oluokun, Oke-Bola etc. It is a city with an early cosmopolitan culture accentuated by colonial rule. Today, as a state capital, Ibadan is an administrative centre that houses the Oyo State Secretariat. It is also a centre for different ideas; a home of myriads of diverse peoples with the indigenous core of the population still preserving its identity.

This chapter looks at the urbanization and urban problems in Ibadan over the years and its salient characteristics. It examines the political, social and economic aspects of the Ibadan society, bearing in mind the changes that have taken place therein. While a detailed analysis of developments in Ibadan over time is clearly beyond the confines of

this brief survey, attempts shall be made here to highlight only the major developments in the city. In his work on the functions of the city, Mumford has identified the role of the city as being that of a container and transmitter of culture. Ibadan, like any other city, has a distinctive culture, which it transmits from one generation to the other with several innovations from time to time. But this role of cultural transmission is more fascinating and at the same time complicated when one considers the different cultural strands that make up Ibadan. A city is supposed to be a melting pot, synthesising different ‘cultures’, but in Ibadan the ‘cultures’ converge without integration. The indigenous core still maintains its traditional identity. In Ibadan, tradition and modernity are juxtaposed. While the city is far from being xenophobic, its immigrant components in the twentieth century are clearly identifiable. This was probably why Lloyd could distinguish between “the nineteenth century town and its twentieth century additions”.

1.5.1. Economic Environment

Ibadan was put firmly on the path of rapid economic expansion after strong foundations for a robust economy were built during the early stages of urbanization via significant investments in physical infrastructure and advancements in techniques of product manufacturing. Town Planners' Association of Nigeria, 2010). New aspects of a varied economy emerged as trade increased. Many homes and brokerages sprung up; the building industry was arranged along professional lines; and the overland and river transport networks developed, creating jobs for a large number of individuals in the transport sector and related professions. Ayeni (2014)

1.5.2. Dynamic Institutions

Owing to Ibadan's advantageous socioeconomic and political climate, its institutions developed quite differently from the other vibrant structures of the southern West. Owing to Ibadan's advantageous economical and political climate, its institutions have grown in a very different way from those of the other cities in the South West, in accordance with Community Improvement Programmes (CIP, 2016).

Ibadan, the capital of the Western Region, developed as the hub for regional institutional planning and implementation. Ibadan now has an impressive range of educational establishments. It serves as the headquarters for a State Polytechnic, a Federal University, and a privately held university. It also has hundreds of primary schools, a few Teachers' Colleges, many nursing institutions, and more than 500 secondary schools.

Numerous research institutes are also located in Ibadan, including the Institute of Agriculture, Research and Training (IAR&T), Nigerian Institute for Horticultural Research (NIHORT), Nigerian Institute of Social and Economic Research (NISER), Nigerian Forestry Research Institute, and Cocoa Research Institute of Nigeria (CRIN). Numerous unauthorized educational institutions exist in addition to this, including typing schools, Bible colleges, sewing schools (fashion design schools), secretarial schools, Koranic schools, continuing education centers, and catering schools. For those unable to attend the formal institutions, all of these institutions have been especially helpful in offering some vocational training. Programs for Community Improvement (CIP, 2016).

Religion: Islam, Christianity, and Traditional Religion are the three main religions practiced in Ibadan. But certain contemporary belief systems, such as the devotion of "Guru Maharaji," "Hare Krishna," and the "Grail Message," are starting to seep into the upper classes of society. Ibadan has been influenced by Islam from the city's founding. This is so because among the first people to settle in Ibadan in 1829 were Muslims.²⁴ They had an Imam named Gunnugun, but the true practice of Islam did not begin until 1839, when Uthman Abu Bakr, a well-known Islamic scholar from Borno, began a systematic program of teaching and reforming Islam. Islam had solidified in Ibadan by 1871, and Aare Latosa, the military governor of Ibadan at the time, was a Muslim. By the late 1800s, pilgrims from Ibadan started traveling to Mecca as a result of the arrival of more Islamic missionaries who strengthened the faith in the city. Hundreds of elementary schools and teachers' colleges in Ibadan contributed to the growth of Islam in the 20th century. The Forestry Research Institute, the Nigerian Institute of Horticultural Research (NIHORT), the Nigerian Institute of Social and Economic Research (NISER), the Nigerian Cereal Research Institute, the Nigerian Institute of Cocoa Research Institute of Nigeria (CRIN), and the Institute of Agriculture, Research and Training (IAR&T) are just a few of the research institutes that call Ibadan home. Numerous more non-official educational establishments exist, such as Bible Colleges, Koranic Schools, Typing Schools, Fashion Design Schools, Secretarial Schools, Koranic Schools, and Continuing Education Centers. All of these establishments have been very helpful in offering some vocational instruction to those who were unable to enter the official establishments. Grants for Community Development (CIP, 2016).

The Chief Imam was the leader of the Islamic society. The Oja'ba central mosque served as a hub for Muslim unity, but in the 1930s, some Islamic organizations emerged to offer secular education to Muslim children after the former failed to do so. These organizations then built their own mosques, which diminished the central mosque's status and revenue. Kohen and Aliyu (2012).

Nonetheless, there is still only one Chief Imam in Ibadan, and during Islamic holidays like Id el-Fitri and Id el Malud, the Muslim community unites. The Church Missionary Society (CMS) was the first Christian organization to arrive in Ibadan; in 1853, Rev. David Hinderer served as the organization's first missionary in the city. He established the first Anglican church in Kudeti, which subsequently adopted the name St. David's. They were shortly followed by other missionary groups. After arriving in 1888, the Methodists had solidified their position by 1891. The Baptists arrived in 1906, the Salvation Army in 1921, the Roman Catholics in 1895, and the Seventh Day Adventists in 1926. There are more African churches outside these orthodox denominations, such as the United African Methodist Church, the African Church (Inc.), and the United African Church. Other autonomous churches like the Assemblies of God, the New Covenant Church, Scripture Pasture, Christ Life Church, and Glory Tabernacle, as well as the Redeemed Christian Church of God (RCCG), the Apostolic Church (T.A.C.), the Cherubim and Seraphim churches (C&S), and the Celestial Church of Christ (C.C.C.) are also listed among the Christian churches in Ibadan. In Ibadan, there are also Jehovah's Witnesses (Aluko, 2010). Given that there are several additional churches and denominations in Ibadan, the list above is by no means comprehensive. But the growth of churches is not unique to Ibadan; rather, it is a widespread occurrence in Nigeria following independence. These Christian organizations, particularly the orthodox faiths, have improved Ibadan society via their medical services and educational initiatives. Some of them have also contributed to the city's infrastructure. The worship of Oke Ibadan, the Egungun ancestor cult, and other basic Yoruba deities constitute Ibadan's traditional religion. The goddess Olomu Oru, or the big breasts, is a common representation of Oke Ibadan's energy and fertility. It's Ibadan's tutelary brilliance. Every year, the Oke Ibadan celebration honors what is said to have happened at the city's birth (Partnerships in the Planning and Management of Cities, 2016). The festival is held every day from March through April. On that day, people of both genders are allowed to sing vulgar songs and

make crude remarks to one another. The ancestor worship is represented by the Egungun. Because it is widely held among Yoruba people that there is life after death, the essence of its devotion resides in communication with the other world. Over the course of two weeks in June, the festival falls. Every year, it falls around the time of the fresh yam harvest, and many Ibadan residents go from the countryside to the city to join in the festivities. In Ibadan, the followers of many religions get along well with one another, particularly since it is not uncommon to come across a single family that practices multiple religions. But when it comes to traditional religious adherents, who they consider to be "pagans" and "unbelievers," Christians and Muslims get along better than others (Afolayan, 2007).

Social Life: Ibadan boasts a vibrant social scene. There are several leisure amenities located there. The Cultural Center, which is located on Mokola Hill in the northwest of the city, features an arena theater, a music practice hall, and a main hall with seating for 1,300 people. Old movie theaters including "Scala," "Queens," and "Rex" are no longer in use. Within the confines of contemporary retail centers, new ones have appeared. The Ibadan Recreational Club is still in operation, having been founded in 1902. With a newly refurbished botanical garden, zoological garden, swimming pool, guest accommodation, bar and restaurant, Agodi Gardens was just reopened. Recreation is still available in the city at both the Trans Amusement Park and the University of Ibadan's Zoological Garden. Numerous athletic and community activities are still held in Ibadan's three sports arenas: Olubadan Stadium, Liberty Stadium (currently called Obafemi Awolowo Stadium), and Lekan Salami Sports Complex at Adamasingba. Collaborations for Urban Planning and Management, 2016).

The numerous social clubs and Improvement Unions in the city are another noteworthy aspect of it. Ibadan Progressive Union (IPU), Lagelu Club, Oluyole Club, etc. are a few of the Improvement Unions that only accept Ibadan natives as members. There are Progressive Unions for other ethnic communities in Ibadan as well. Social groups like Rotary Club and Lion Club are where the wealthy, whether native-born or immigrant, congregate. Given its pliable borders, Ibadan's continuous growth is anticipated. However, this would lead to new issues in addition to more opportunities. In the meanwhile, the populace continues to be diverse. The city of Ibadan and the Trans Amusement Park both still offer recreational opportunities. Numerous athletic and

community activities are still held in Ibadan's three sports arenas: Olubadan Stadium, Liberty Stadium (currently called Obafemi Awolowo Stadium), and Lekan Salami Sports Complex at Adamasingba (Collaborations for Urban Planning and Management, 2016).

1.5.3. Spread

During its advanced stage, Ibadan's urbanization included a central region of around 200,000 square kilometers. Situated in southwest Nigeria, Oyo state has 1,353,816 residents living in its capital city of Ibadan (NPC, 2010). The city is roughly situated at latitude 7°23'1" North of the Equator and longitude 3°51' East of the Greenwich Meridian, 145 kilometers inland northeast of Lagos and 530 kilometers southwest of Abuja, the federal capital territory (FCT). Ibadan's height varies from 150 meters in the valley region to 275 meters above sea level on the main north-south ridge that cuts through the city's center. The city's recreational offerings still include the Trans Amusement Park. Numerous athletic and community activities are still held in Ibadan's three sports arenas: Olubadan Stadium, Liberty Stadium (currently called Obafemi Awolowo Stadium), and Lekan Salami Sports Complex at Adamasingba. Collaborations for Urban Planning and Management, 2016).

There are 3,080 square kilometers of land in all. Four rivers, with several tributaries, naturally drain Ibadan: the Ona River to the north and west, the Ogbere River to the east, the Ogunpa River that runs through the city, and the Kudeti River in the central region of the city. Since the days of British colonialism, Ibadan has served as the former Western Region's administrative hub. After successfully overthrowing the neighboring kingdom of Owu, the warriors of the Ife, Ijebu, and Oyo established a camp in 1829, giving rise to Ibadan (Akinyele, 1911). Lagelu founded the current location of Ibadan following the devastation of the first village close to Awotan in the Apete neighborhood of the Ido Local Government region. Ibadan has direct connections to a number of Nigerian locations. The city's terrain is made up of hills with ridges; the biggest of these ridges can be found in the center, in areas like Mapo, Mokola, and Aremo. According to Akerele (2017).

1.5.4. Topography and Physical Environment

Ibadan's terrain, geography, and physical environment have had a significant impact on the growth of the city's metropolitan districts. The Urban Environment of Nigeria and the Slum Problem (2016). They fostered respect for cultural differences

among locals and enabled the development of a social infrastructure. Ibadan is a city of several hills called Oke, after which some of the wards in the West are named: Oke-Ado, Oke-Foko, Oke-Sapati, Oke-Are, Oke-Oluokun, Oke-Bola, etc. The city has a variety of physical characteristics that have allowed it to play a significant role in urbanization. Ibadan was situated at the intersection of grassland and woodland. As a result, it became a hub for trade and began receiving commodities from the coast, the Yoruba heartland, and other parts of northern Yorubaland. To exchange goods, traders from Hausaland, Nupeland, Oyo, Ogbomosho, Ijaye, Egbaland, and Ijebuland gathered in Ibadan (Abumere, 2015).

Given the martial attitude that ruled Yoruba nation in the eighteenth century, the town walls must have been constructed for security, according to Nigerian Urban Environment and the Problem of Slums, (2016). Farmers, craftsmen, and warriors made up the population of Ibadan. Since Ibadan was a major force in Yoruba politics in the nineteenth century, its elite members were really professional soldiers. As a result, Ibadan developed from a military garrison to a city and the seat of an empire that included Yoruba ethnic groupings like the Ekiti and Ijesha. The imperial capital expanded in cosmopolitanism as more individuals were brought into the empire through conquering campaigns. In 1893, Ibadan had already become a heavily urbanized community when the British arrived (The Sasa Resettlement Project, 2010).

1.5.5. Achaemenid Administrative Skills

The majority of Western scholars acknowledge the administrative talents had by the Achaemenids. They made large expenditures in communications, physical infrastructure, and administrative support in each of their satrapies. In order to increase agricultural output, they built irrigation canals, and they also built a huge network of roadways to make it easier to transport other items and agricultural products (The Urban Environment of Nigeria and the Slum Problem, 2016). The Achaemenids assessed each satrapy's wealth and used that information to determine how much tribute to charge. All lands were resurveyed under the Ibadan empire, yield estimates were calculated using averages over a number of years, and tributes were set in accordance with these evaluations (The Nigerian Urban Environment and the Problem of Slums, 2016). The Achaemenids united many diverse and disparate groups into a country by applying all of their administrative expertise. They achieved consolidation of Ibadan through a series of

administrative and socioeconomic reforms:

The satraps of the two satrapies were given enormous powers of government by the Achaemenids. Through three or four local chieftains known as rajas or deputy satraps, these satraps held administrative authority over the territory. The Urban Environment of Nigeria and the Slum Problem (2016).

The Achaemenids created an efficient communications network across the whole region in order to gain political authority over a huge area that was socioeconomically poor but potentially rich (The Nigerian Urban Environment and the Problem of Slums, 2016).

1.6. Importance of the Study

This study highlights the importance of urbanization and urban problems within Ibadan city. The study further elaborates that how important urbanization improves the quality of production, farming and industrialization. The study consists of three constructs or variables. First Urbanization, second urban problems and third is in Ibadan.

In this study, first testing the impact of urbanization is pointed out on the greatest increases in food production (both during the raining and dry seasons) in Nigeria could come from the wetlands and associated hydromorphic lands. However, with urban populations increasing in Nigeria, food production from the uplands cannot meet increasing population food demand; thus, wetlands may be the most logical environment in which to close this gap.

The study focused on the urbanization and urban problems in Ibadan as well which includes The study elaborates on the increase in the population and the industrialization provides a higher level and availability of skill required to provide the necessary services for a good and prosperous life. The primary benefit of urbanization is the economic value. The combination of diverse people, their idea and experiences, make urban centers a whirlpool of economic activities and industrialization. The increased population and their proximity makes room for economics of scale, higher wages, foster an innovative environment and allows for the development complex systems..

The research will be useful in determining which ecosystems are best for producing rice during the rainy season and in figuring out how to cultivate other vegetables and arable crops during the dry seasons when the water levels have dropped. Therefore, a wetland ecosystem of this type may be thought of as small-scale irrigation

sites created by private farmers who maintain and invest in their crops by taking use of shallow groundwater.

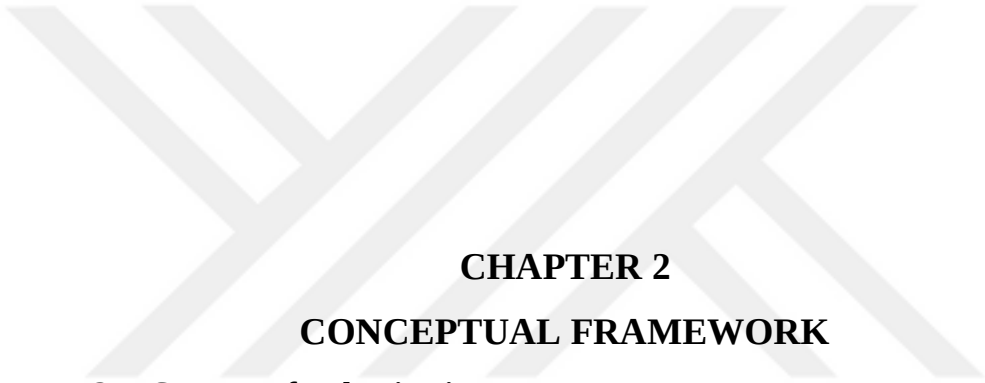
The research will be useful in the situation of Ibadan, where urban growth is anticipated to occur. This multifaceted process would require the services of specialists from several disciplines. It comprises the established planning agencies at all levels of government in the nation coordinating and harmonizing the numerous land-use choices and building operations of a multiplicity of players (government institutions and agencies, stakeholders, civil society groups, and people).

1.7. Structural Organization of the Study

Chapter 1: In this part a deep insight is provided of the selected research area. The current chapter starts with background study followed by research gap, objectives of the study, and rationale of the research and in the end importance of this current research.

Chapter 2: This part of research provides a comprehensive review of the researches previously done on urbanization and urban problems in Ibadan (Nigeria). This chapter also enabled the researcher for building a good understanding of the research area by explanation of the relevant variables. In the end conceptual framework and hypothesis are presented.

Chapter 3: This chapter mainly focuses on the efforts for justification of the methodology proposed for this research. First research approach is explained then population is described, sample size and sampling techniques followed by procedures of data collection and lastly research design is explained. This chapter also provides sources for the collected data and in the end statistical techniques and tools information is provided used for the study.



CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Concept of Urbanization

The most significant and intricate socio-economic and environmental phenomena to arise during the twentieth and twenty-first century is without a doubt the rapid urban growth (Kessides, 2005). Most of the time, urbanization is regarded to be the transition of a mostly rural culture into an urban one, signifying significant, permanent changes in consumption and production patterns as well as human interactions with the natural world (Allen, 2002). The focus of discussions on urbanization has shifted from being interactional to being how the process of urbanization as a whole and its urban settings may be analyzed using a sustainability lens. Urbanization may be defined as the process by which rural regions become urbanized as a result of industry and economic growth (Peng, 2010).

The term "urbanization" can refer to changes in town and city characteristics or in the number of inhabitants. When it comes to population increase, the process of people moving from rural to urban areas over time is referred to as "urbanization" (UNDESAPD, 2014:15). It is essential to emphasize that the primary markers of an urban environment vary among nations. Because of this, it is crucial to use caution when using the word

"urbanization" to describe all civilizations. Additionally, considering the differences in urbanization across different civilizations, care should be used when drawing comparisons (Nsiah-Gyabaah, 2007; UN-Habitat, 2007). According to Peng (2010), the primary distinction between urban and rural settings is that the former are significantly bigger, denser, and more diversely populated than the latter, which are considerably smaller, more sparsely divided, and have fewer distinct areas. One argument for urbanization is that it is the result of social, economic, environmental, and political development, which causes 36 larger cities to concentrate and grow, changes in land use, and a shift in the organization, governance, and way of life from rural to urban areas (Nsiah-Gyabaah, 2007). Furthermore, according to Hall (2001), urbanization is the use of land for urban purposes with an emphasis on people rather than on the land or constructed buildings. It speaks of human activity, which is what makes metropolitan regions unique on an economic, social, and cultural level.

2.2. Concept of City and Urbanization

The people who live in the city need a way to support themselves, and they can only live independently of the land to the extent that their needs for a living and agricultural surplus allow. Mass manufacturing may be tailored due to the unique circumstances found in specific locations. The capacity of the industry to sustain a large population is dependent on the availability of food as well as access to a wide range of industrial system goods.

If a city produces a single good in huge quantities, it cannot sustain its labor force unless it can import goods from other cities through the interchange of commodities. Due to commerce and transportation, cities in highly specialized regions are made viable. In fact, relying mostly on one's immediate hinterland to provide the required agricultural surplus is no longer essential nor unusual for cities. Actually, it is far more likely that agricultural goods from the vast, interconnected commerce system that spans the majority of the planet support cities. In the past, the rise of cities was spurred by the increase of commerce, which came before the main consequences of industrialization. The globe became increasingly intertwined as a result of the economic revolution and the communication technology revolution, which reduced physical distance and shrank space. As a result, changes in one region of the earth inevitably affected and influenced

other regions as well, spreading over the entire planet. As a result, cities began to depend more on global conditions and less on local ones. The second major element contributing to the onset of urbanization is increased transportation efficiency.

Since cities are hubs for trade, the transportation network is essential to a vibrant urban lifestyle. Urban expansion was significantly impacted by the developments in long-distance transportation, such as the steam train road and, later, the motor automobile. Transport efficiency improvements made it easier to transfer people and products between locations, both inside cities and between cities and their hinterlands, swiftly and affordably. Thus, the rise of today's urban centers was made possible by the development of transportation infrastructure.

The process of urbanization gives rise to cities. Put differently, the process by which cities are created is known as urbanization. Urbanization and cities therefore have a cause-and-effect connection. The phenomena of urbanization are multifaceted and intricate, allowing for a multitude of analytical approaches. Because urbanization is such a complicated process, several disciplines are pursuing research on the subject. The contributions to urbanization are now multidisciplinary in character as a result. According to the United Nations (2014), the term "urbanization" refers to the movement of people from scattered, small-town rural communities where agriculture is the main economic activity to concentrated, dense urban communities with an industrial and service-oriented population. Both a state at a certain moment in time and a process that takes place over time are referred to as urbanization. A population's percentage of people living in urban regions, whichever defined, indicates the state of urbanization, also known as the level of urbanization. Urbanization as a process has been applied in many contexts. These include the movement of people from rural to urban regions, the rate at which urban population is growing (urban growth), and the rate at which urban growth is outpacing rural growth²⁹. As a result, the process of urbanization entails a rise in the proportion of people living in cities, and the term "rate of urbanization" describes the pace at which this degree of urbanization is increasing. Three general theories of urbanization that have gained traction in the social sciences are outlined by Lampard (1996). They are the notions of behavior, structure, and demography. The behavioral perspective views urbanization as a modification of individual behavior because it emphasizes how people behave. Irrespective of the social context and geographical location, certain thought or behavior

patterns are classified as urban. As a result, people go through the process of urbanization throughout time. The structural idea concentrates on the structured behaviors of entire populations while disregarding the patterned behavior of individual people. People then relocate from agricultural settlements into other, typically bigger, non-agricultural towns as part of the urbanization process. Urbanization is defined by the demographic approach as a process of population concentration and is space-focused.

According to Lampard (1996), the demographic concept of urbanization is preferable to alternative theories. He claims that this approach's simplicity is the cause. The manner that Kingsley Davis (1965) employed the word "urbanization" is rooted in this heritage of demographic analysis. According to Davis, it is the percentage of the population that is concentrated in urban areas, or alternatively, a growth in this percentage. According to him, the process of urbanization is a limited one that countries go through as they go from an agrarian to an industrial culture. According to Davis, urbanization is the process by which individuals migrate from rural to urban areas in search of industrial jobs. Attention thus is on the movement of people to urban like work in urban like places where they can be counted.

As predictors of city expansion and urbanization, five key elements stand out. Although all of these have affected urban growth at different points in history, they became more pronounced starting about the middle of the eighteenth century. Rapid changes in these variables have, in a sense, produced what is broadly referred to be modern society, which is characterized by urbanization and industrialization. The primary cause of the urbanization trend may be attributed to the agricultural revolution. A requirement for the establishment and expansion of cities was the development of agricultural surplus. The creation of excess freed up a sizable amount of labor from the land and created opportunities for other endeavors.

As a result of not having to produce as much food, people were concentrated in cities and were able to participate in non-agricultural activities that are typical of city life. The use of technology in agriculture resulted in a rise in crop productivity. The use of chemistry and genetics in agriculture has led to a fall in the percentage of agricultural workers supporting non-agricultural workers and an increase in worker productivity. Between 1787 and 1937, there were significant changes in the balance between farms and cities throughout a 150-year period. In 1787, one city family needed the output of nine

farms to sustain themselves, but by 1937, one farm family was providing food for seven urban families.

As a result, the ratio was further reduced by the development of science and technology as well as the use of machinery in agriculture, relieving an increasing number of people of the need to produce food. This demographic segment that was freed up later on in life turned out to be a possible source of migrant workers who were hired by industries throughout the industrial revolution.

The other primary driver of urbanization in metropolitan areas is the advancement of technology. People could congregate in a densely populated pattern thanks to the development of mass manufacturing techniques, the steam engine, and the factory system. Using steam as a power source for transportation and industry was a breakthrough that transformed the nineteenth century. In addition to enabling a significant increase in man's potential means of subsistence and, by extension, population, steam also indirectly contributed to the mass migration of people toward cities by relieving a rapidly growing portion of the population from physical soil tilling. Steam also played a significant role in defining the internal organization of cities as well as the economic structure of which they became the center. It was challenging to provide and provision raw resources to the metropolis before its growth. Thus, the centripetal force of steam was crucial in the development of big, dense, and quickly expanding metropolitan centers.

Hence, the use of non-human energy in production—the invention of the device, initially propelled by the forces of water and wind, then by moisture, and later by mineral fuels or electricity generated from them, with the possibility of atomic energy—was identified as a crucial component in the increased productivity. Therefore, the population and manufacturing, administrative, and wholesale distribution operations finally concentrated in sizable metropolitan centers due to the centripetal force of steam. The next driver of urbanization expansion is the commercial revolution. Cities were able to grow under circumstances that would not have been possible without the creation of global marketplaces, trade networks, and drastically better modes of transportation and communication. Urban communities and national life have probably undergone significant structural changes as a result of the internal combustion engine's ability to move people quickly, easily, and individually. This influence is expressed in the vehicle, airplane, and other new technical gadgets. The progress of urbanization was significantly

impacted by the arrival of electricity as a new force in the automotive sector. The advent of metropolis and megalopolis was made possible by the centrifugal effect that the usage of electricity had on city expansion.

The improvements in the fields of agriculture, trade, manufacturing, and transportation have resulted in the fifth factor, the demographic revolution. The advances in the medical sciences heralded the emergence of an urban, industrial civilization. The medical field's discoveries have undoubtedly improved people's health by offering treatments for a wide range of illnesses and disorders. The death rate dropped significantly as a result. However, birth rates did not decline as quickly, which contributed to the extraordinary population expansion that occurred in western culture in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. These population increments in large measure found their way either to colonial agricultural lands or to the cities. The demographic evolution in this way contributed heavily to the needs of the cities for an increasing labour force and consumer markets.

2.3. Urbanization Concepts, Dimensions and Factors

"Edge cities" are populated and economically active areas on the outskirts of cities that give birth to commercial spaces such as office buildings, retail stores, and even factories. It may manifest as master-planned towns with a designated "downtown" or as developments that line up with parks or lakes. Alternatively, it could happen when isolated homes sprout all over once rural areas. In any event, examining the changes in rural and urban population densities first, followed by the history of the interaction between suburbs and center cities within urban regions, is a popular method of recording the existence of urban sprawl across time. Another factor driving individuals to the suburbs is their desire to live in an area where they are socially at ease. The suburban lifestyle is favored by those who seek a uniform environment, one that is suitable for raising children, one that is near to family values and the romanticism of country living. People left the center city, however, since it was portrayed as a place of immorality, crime, hostility, and physical and social disorder. As a result, people moved to the periphery and out of the core city, with the suburbs emerging as safe havens. Though the negative effects have taken precedent, sprawl may have both good and bad effects.

The low density settlement pattern, the achievement of the garden city ideal, the preference for homogeneous neighborhoods over chaotic city cores, cheaper land prices,

and a better social milieu are all benefits of the urban sprawl process. Current sprawling city patterns, according to Gordon and Richardson (1997), are the optimal result of markets that are only impacted by outside factors like land-use restrictions, transportation subsidies, and other market distortions.

On the down side, urban sprawl is seen to be extremely unsustainable and has an impact on the ecological, social, and economic facets of sustainability. The negative effects of urban sprawl include the loss of open space, urban decay, unsightly strip mall developments, pollution of the air and water in urban areas, traffic jams, low-density housing developments, a sense of community being lost, patchwork housing developments amidst agricultural land, an increase in reliance on automobiles, the division of residential and work areas, and a general spread of urbanized development across the landscape. Unplanned, scattered urban expansion and high land consumption per person are characteristics of urban sprawl, which is found outside of cities. Natural regions are being developed, which implies the loss of biologically significant ecosystems, arable land for agriculture, and deforestation. Hazards from nature like as floods are more likely, and environmental functions like water infiltration and soil cleansing deteriorate.

Socially speaking, urban sprawl causes the core regions to become less populated, which has an adverse effect on the area's vibrancy and innovation. There is an ethnic and socioeconomic component to this depopulation. In the United States, a phenomenon known as "white flight" caused the economically thriving area of the city and its predominately white inhabitants to relocate to the suburbs, abandoning the city center in a condition of social decay. The city center has become a series of iconic ghettos characterized by social disarray, poverty, and exclusion as a result of this exodus. As a result, urban sprawl causes the metropolitan society to become further divided among wealthy suburban areas and the impoverished inner city. Therefore, racial and socioeconomic segregation follow urban sprawl. However, many who moved to the periphery of cities have become reliant on cars and are struggling with a lack of public transportation options.

2.4. Urban Primacy

The degree to which the first city in a country stands out in terms of population and importance is known as urban primacy. It may be expressed simply in terms of

population, as the proportion of all urban residents who live in the major city. Urban primacy is the state in which one city significantly deviates from log-normalcy in the national urban system with respect to population size, or more accurately, when one or a small number of cities dominate other cities in the intra-national urban system. Due to the dominance of a dominant city, the entire urban system becomes stagnant, with class I cities serving as the center of social, political, and economic activity. This furthers the phenomenon of primacy and impedes the development of smaller cities and towns along the urban hierarchy (Hauser, 1957).

However, the primate city confronts significant issues with regard to overcrowding and the necessary municipal infrastructure and amenities because of its strategic location. Some of the characteristics that influence primacy include indivisibilities and externalities; income disparity; economic development level; ethnic makeup; political and administrative organization structure; and kind of economic and social system. The types of indivisibilities and externalities that are likely to concentrate population in a primate city or in a few selected cities due to higher economic efficiency afforded to firms or due to site-specific utility to individuals are the following: indivisibilities in production leading to increasing returns to scale; indivisibilities in consumption associated with collective services or public goods; economies arising from a higher level of utilization of urban infrastructure and from a higher articulation of economic activities in terms of both time and industry; pecuniary and technical positive externalities arising from the spatial proximity of production units; economies afforded by further division of labor; economies afforded by bigger cities as environments conducive to learning and technical change; and consumption externalities afforded by the variety and range of choice in big cities. On the production side, the existence of indivisibilities and positive externalities means that the marginal product of labor will be higher in large population concentrations than in small ones, turning the larger centers into magnets of attraction for migrants.

One further factor influencing an urban settlement's priority is income disparity. Primacy is often the result of income inequality's negative consequences on the rest of the economy as well as the spatial concentration of the high-income group and the implications this has on employment and demand concentration. The primacy generation is influenced by the size of the nation as well. The demand for access to external

economies, which is constrained by the small size of the industrial environment, along with within-plant economies of scale, are likely to outweigh the access costs in small nations. The access costs to consumers are also expected to be low. This gives rise to prominence and concentration at one place. The threshold demand needs of businesses subject to strong economies of scale are likely to be satisfied at several sites, but in nations with dense populations, the costs of access exceed the benefits of scale economies. This causes rival centers to arise, which acts as a check on predominance. The concentration of the market and the physical and social infrastructure is the result of the mutually beneficial political, administrative, and economic elites as well as the adjunct bureaucracy, who are concentrated in one area due to administrative centralization, centralization of government services, and centralized power. These processes are impeded by the spatial decentralization of authority, which in turn limits the importance of spatial primacy (Hauser, 1957).

Aside from economic growth, other elements influencing an urban unit's primacy include its peripheral position in the global system and its level of development. Thus, in a system of cities, the phenomenon of predominance indicates a lack of political, social, and economic coherence. It stands for an imbalance, which is a key feature of dependent capitalism and a hallmark of underdevelopment. Since primacy has a detrimental effect on a nation's urban system, it is viewed as undesirable. Urban systems that are unbalanced are exacerbated by primate cities. Early stages of growth and limited socioeconomic development are associated with the occurrence of primate cities. Thus, Hauser (1957) classified primate cities as "parasitic" as opposed to "generative" since they impede the growth of other cities. Through mechanisms like insufficient investment in rural areas, sectorial distortions of the economy, delayed fertility and mortality decline due to socioeconomic dis-articulation, and poor political integration, an imbalanced urban system represents both a symptom of underdevelopment and possibly a structural barrier to future development. The idea of a megacity represents the primacy phenomenon in its embodiment. Serious environmental issues plague megacities, and they are an unavoidable aspect of the agglomeration phenomena.

2.5. Over-Urbanization

The discourse around the accelerated speed, causes, and effects of urbanization in third-world nations has emerged as a result of the phenomenon's high pace of

urbanization. The academic world has given the over-urbanization thesis dispute a great deal of attention. According to this school of thinking, Asia is currently over-urbanized in the sense that, at similar levels of urbanization, a larger percentage of the work force was employed in non-agricultural sectors in developed nations. The primary cause of the excessive urbanization has been the increasing number of rural migrants moving into the metropolis as a result of both pull and push influences at the place of origin. A situation like this has prevented cities from playing the dynamic role they were intended to, turning them into hubs of urban misery and poverty. The concept originated with Hozelitz (1954), who put out the argument that, given the industrial mix of their economies, urbanization in emerging countries may be excessive. The thesis's proponents contend that, unlike in the developed world, the urbanization process in third-world nations is unable to provide dynamic, constructive forces for social transformation. According to Sovani (2014), two indices are used to define over-urbanization: the proportion of the population that lives in urban regions and the split of the labor force's total employment between non-agricultural and agricultural jobs. While the second is the reverse, the first is a spatial index without being an occupational one. We can all agree that there is validity in drawing a connection between current urbanization and industrialization.

According to Abu Lughod (2015), a number of urbanization scholars have proposed that early industrializing nations have an imbalance in the number and distribution of their urban populations, essentially meaning that their urban population is higher than is "warranted" for their level of economic development. This phenomena is referred to as "over-urbanization," which is the outcome of an excessive number of rural residents who are unemployed or underemployed moving to the city before there is a sufficient increase in the number of urban work prospects. Due to unrelenting migration from the countryside, the work force in these large cities keeps growing, contributing to the high rates of underemployment and unemployment in the cities. Cities in the Third World have a significant excess of labor in many forms. Their labor force is still growing, however, not because of natural population expansion but also because of rural-urban migration, which accounts for half to three-quarters of the urban growth in the majority of third-world nations⁵⁸. In third-world nations, there is significant population pressure on land in rural regions. A "push" or economic pressure from the countryside drives individuals seeking work and a living toward the metropolis. Rather than the "pull" of the

cities' growing economic activity, which is the need for labor, the "push" from the countryside is primarily responsible for the rural-urban movement that causes over-urbanization. These immigrants either increase the unemployment rate or work in jobs with extremely poor productivity. In developing nations, rapid urbanization impedes economic growth. The need for investments in social and economic infrastructure is growing more faster than in numerous other areas due to the rising urbanization trend. This implies that in the early phases of these economies' development, demand for less productive enterprises will be made on their limited capital resources. The over-urbanization phenomenon is believed to have several structural causes, including saturated urban labor markets, reduced opportunities in rural areas, overworked public services, distorted sectorial development in national economies, the exclusion of large portions of the urban and rural populations from the benefits of economic development, and slowed economic growth as a result of the high costs associated with urban development.

But N.V. Sovani's criticism has completely flipped the notion of over-urbanization. Sovani shows how the term "over-urbanization" is imprecise and how its causes and effects are oversimplified. He believes there is no evidence to support the claim that more urbanization is detrimental to economic growth. The claim that urbanization won't foster creativity in third-world nations doesn't hold up either. According to Sovani, these claims ought to be looked into. urban encroachment One of the earliest city planners in the Southeast United States, Earle Draper, is credited with coining the term "sprawl" in modern usage in 1937. There has been a significant increase in public attention about this topic since Draper coined the term. The multifaceted character of the idea of urban sprawl contributes to the intricacy of its application. Depending on where their study interests led them, different academics have employed it in different ways. According to Johnson (2001), urban sprawl happens to varying degrees on a continuous scale and is not binary, with just two categories: sprawl and non-sprawl. A city's and its suburbs' expansion over rural territory on the outside of an urban region is known as urban sprawl. A lack of transit choices and pedestrian-friendly neighborhoods are among the qualitative elements of sprawl that urban planners highlight. Defenders of the environment frequently concentrate on the precise area that sprawl has urbanized (Hauser, 1957).

On the other hand, the phrase indicates unfavorable urban growth. Certain characteristics define urban sprawl. These characteristics include segregated land use, low density, leap frog development, large-scale exurban agricultural land consumption, dependence on cars, and absence of an integrated land use plan. The result of shifting lifestyles, increasing wealth, and the enormous advancement in personal mobility made possible by the private vehicle is urban sprawl. The vehicle has influenced the modern metropolis' scattered nature and made it dependent on automobiles. As core cities have battled to retain employment and homes, the growing tendency toward suburbanization has been the dominant topic of urban development throughout the last century. The urban economics research primarily focuses on the role of growing wages and reducing transportation costs in explaining this trend; supporting influences also come from a variety of government spending, tax, and zoning policies. On the other hand, the literature on local public finance highlights the desire of mobile households to segregate, which is motivated by their preferences for local taxes and amenities as well as their desire to benefit from peer externalities.

Urban sprawl can manifest in several ways. Low-density housing constructions or Manzoor Hussain and Iram Imtiaz (2012) might be included. As predictors of city expansion and urbanization, five key elements stand out. Although all of these have affected urban growth at different points in history, they became more pronounced starting about the middle of the eighteenth century. Rapid changes in these variables have, in a sense, produced what is broadly referred to be modern society, which is characterized by urbanization and industrialization. The primary cause of the urbanization trend may be attributed to the agricultural revolution. A requirement for the establishment and expansion of cities was the development of agricultural surplus. The creation of excess freed up a sizable amount of labor from the land and created opportunities for other endeavors. As a result of not having to produce as much food, people were concentrated in cities and were able to participate in non-agricultural activities that are typical of city life. The use of technology in agriculture resulted in a rise in crop productivity. The use of chemistry and genetics in agriculture has led to a fall in the percentage of agricultural workers supporting non-agricultural workers and an increase in worker productivity.

Significant changes in the balance between farms and cities had place in the 150 years between 1787 and 1937. In 1787 the product of nine farms was needed to support

one household in the city; by 1937, however, one farm family was providing food for seven urban families. Hence, the development of science and technology as well as the use of agricultural mechanization techniques reduced this ratio even further, relieving an increasing number of people of the need to produce food. Later on in the industrial revolution, this freed segment of the population turned out to be a possible source of migrant laborers hired by the factories.

The second main driver of urbanization is the development in technology. People could congregate in a densely populated pattern thanks to the development of mass manufacturing techniques, the steam engine, and the factory system. Using steam as a power source for transportation and industry was a breakthrough that transformed the nineteenth century.

Steam was a major factor in determining the internal structure of cities and the economic organization of which they became the center. It also released a rapidly growing portion of the population from the physical tilling of the soil, which in turn allowed for a vast increase in man's potential means of subsistence and, consequently, his numbers. It was challenging to provide and provision raw resources to the metropolis before its growth.

2.6. Challenges, Consequences, Benefits of Urbanization

According to the United Nations Human Settlement Programme's 2008 study on the condition of African cities, numerous areas of some African cities exhibit severe urban sprawl and the establishment of urban corridors (UN-HABITAT, 2008; NUDP, 2012). The distribution of already limited resources is further reduced as a result of the growing population in metropolitan areas and the ensuing decline in these rural villages. As a result, this drives them deeper into the vicious cycle of underdevelopment that generates both the pull and push forces that draw in economic development and migration. Among these rural population push causes are conditions that make it difficult for the people to make a living wage. This covers issues including excessive poverty, inadequate land, uneven land distribution, droughts, inadequate health systems, and religious strife. While pull forces tend to drive this rural population to transfer to metropolitan centers for lifestyle reasons, local economic difficulties are important push factors as well (Gugler, 1997). The industrial earnings are the main draw; as long as urban wages are higher than rural ones, people would relocate to cities. Additional variables include the availability

of work, the allure of a better lifestyle, access to healthcare, education, and basic infrastructure (Sajor, 2001). These causes of rapid urbanization have been as a result of migration, and an increase in population growth. This process of urbanization comes with challenges/benefits such as increased population density, gentrification, overstretched public facilities and services, labour, development (High population density)

The number of persons per unit of land grows when urbanization causes a society's population to grow. This raises the likelihood of an epidemic occurring and its ease of dissemination among the inhabitants in these locations as they compete for resources. Furthermore, a high population density raises living expenses proportionately. The top ten most expensive cities to live in in 2016 are urban centers including Singapore, Hong Kong, Geneva, Paris, London, New York, Copenhagen, Denmark, Seoul, South Korea, and Los Angeles (CNN, 2016). People from smaller cities are moving to metropolitan centers at a faster pace in search of better living conditions due to these prices overburdened on public infrastructure and services.

Rarely does population growth correspond with an expansion of the public services and infrastructure that is accessible. There are negative effects and grave repercussions from this stress as well as from inadequate services, infrastructure, and drainage systems. Because of the excessive usage of infrastructure, this can frequently result in incorrect or inadequate maintenance and environmental degradation. In order to facilitate easy traveling to work, urban extension develops suburbs that become dependent on services like the automotive transport system. This has led to severe traffic congestion and air pollution from the burning of fossil fuels. In most developing nations, cities are ill-equipped to handle the surge of urban migration, leading to the emergence of suburban slum regions and shanty towns that are beset by a number of issues (UNDEAP, 2014).

2.7. Consequences of Urbanization

The loss of natural and human resources from rural regions is one of the effects of urbanization. As previously noted, a high rate of migration from rural to urban areas contributes to the development of megacities. The able-bodied labor force moves from the rural periphery to the urban center in quest of better working conditions, an event that is addressed by the dependence theory. As a result, the rural regions become even more degraded since they lack competent and productive labor. Urban regions are recognized

as breeding grounds for socioeconomic inequality, exhibiting a diverse array of social norms, gentrification, social disintegration, and intercultural tensions stemming from the many social classes residing in the area. A sizable portion of the urban poor reside outside of the city center (Hall, 2001; Kotter, 2004). Progress New expansions have been developed around the periphery of metropolitan centers, primarily encroaching on neighboring cities and countryside due to rapid urban growth and expansion. This expansion, while occasionally detrimental to the environment, makes it necessary to build roads and utilities in addition to facilities like schools, parks for recreation, hospitals, and shopping centers (Sajor, 2001). The rise of these cities leads to megacities, which in turn develops manufacturing businesses that supply locally created consumer items, employment opportunities and extra tax money - but at the same time the presence of industry exerts severe strain on. Laws, regulations, and guidelines pertaining to urban planning get better as cities grow. In essence, the expansion of cities often aids in the advancement of urban development projects and the creation of public amenities, which can serve to direct growth towards the achievement of a proper, sustainable built environment (Kotter, 2004).

The majority of migrants themselves dwell in slums, squats, and informal housing when an expansion grows without following the law and without following appropriate urban planning rules. Manpower In addition, cities draw a lot of both unskilled and highly skilled labor due to the inflow of individuals looking for better opportunities. There is also a lot of concentrated capital stock, which draws in investment. Bigger cities and urban agglomerations stimulate local economies by generating money and investment, which benefits the rural areas nearby.

2.8. Problems of Urbanization in General

The tremendous issues and difficulties brought forth by Nigeria's fast urbanization are numerous. The overall poverty of people and the environment, the falling standard of living, and the unused and untapped treasure of human resources are more readily apparent and maybe rather alarming. The standard of housing and related amenities (such trash management, power, and water) is egregiously low. Millions of people live in subpar conditions known as slums, which are characterized by filth and woefully inadequate social amenities such a dearth of entertainment options, subpar health care facilities, and few schools. The loss of family connection and communal spirit, along with the steady

erosion of conventional societal norms, have made juvenile delinquency and criminality prevalent in metropolitan areas. Moreover, resource and technical constraints are making it harder for law enforcement agencies to prevent crime.

One of the biggest issues facing Nigerian cities is a lack of infrastructure (Lee, 1989; Linn, 1982; Mschelia, 1986 ; Verma et al., 1991). A sizable number of homes in large towns and cities lack access to pipe-borne water, electricity, or clean restrooms. About 3 million housing units are needed to satisfy the backlog of housing demands and the replacement of substandard ones, with the share of the current urban housing stock that is decrepit or in need of substantial repairs estimated to be 22.3% nationally (Onibokun, 1987). In many Nigerian cities, new urban peripheries are developing without proper planning or infrastructure, and the city centers are collapsing without any restoration programs in place. The majority of individuals thought that increased urbanization would result in better economic conditions, a rise in business activity, social and cultural integration, effective services, and the ability to use resources. Nonetheless, there are still certain problems brought on by urbanization. According to TCPD (2006), cities and towns throughout the country face a number of significant challenges as a result of urbanization. These include:

Rapid Rate of Urbanization

More additional lands need to be developed for housing, social facilities, commercial space, and other urban land uses due to the annual rate of urbanization. Nevertheless, the absence of distinct urban boundaries has resulted in the growth of urban sprawl that is encroaching on regions that are unsuitable for development, significant agricultural areas, and ecologically sensitive areas (TCPD, 2006). Land use disputes have also been brought on by the strong demand for land usage in important places. These circumstances have exacerbated a number of urbanization-related problems, including pollution of the environment, gridlock in the streets, loss of green space, and deterioration of urban living standards.

As stated in Agenda 21, the majority of issues facing Nigeria's cities, towns, and residents are inadequate financial resources, a lack of job opportunities, the growth of squatter settlements and homelessness, poverty, growing rates of crime and insecurity, inadequate and deteriorating building stock, and infrastructure. A growing number of issues include poor and subpar housing, slums, traffic issues, low productivity, crime, and

juvenile delinquency; inadequate and substandard housing; insecure land tenure; improper land use; rising traffic congestion; growing pollution; a lack of green spaces; inadequate water supply and sanitation; uncoordinated urban development; and an increased susceptibility to disasters. The contradiction lies in the fact that cities are now centers of extreme poverty and hardship. This is especially true in emerging nations where inequality is rising together with fast and chaotic urbanization, creating serious obstacles to people's security and safety (United Nations Conference on Human Settlements, 2001). Potentials A larger percentage of people lived in metropolitan regions or planned to move there in order to compete for the limited resources. Cities are now powerful tools for the social and economic advancement of a country, drawing in investments and generating riches. Urbanization has the ability to bring about extraordinary advances in productivity and competitiveness via social development and the utilization of people and technology resources. Cities do indeed serve as both knowledge archival centers and catalysts for sociopolitical change.

As the world, helped by radical innovations in transportation and communication technology, becomes a global village and market place, cities are playing a central role in this new constellation as the hub of production, innovation, and specialized services. They are also generating new forms of social organization, cultural integration, and dialogue among civilizations. Academics are beginning to see urbanization as a fundamental aspect of social and economic advancement, as it reflects the logical choices made by millions of internal migrants to relocate to urban areas in search of better prospects. The GDP (gross domestic product) of urban regions is significantly higher in terms of economic production than its population proportion. According to Kessides (2006), the concentration of this kind of activity in cities may result in more efficient marketplaces and consequently foster growth in both urban and rural areas. The core of contemporary economic and social functions are found in urban centers, which have also been repeatedly recognized as privileged locations. These centers frequently provide superior amenities and services due to the combination of political leverage and the economic advantages of scale and proximity (Lipton, 1976; Lowry, 1990; Chen et al, 1998). Accordingly, social indices often demonstrate the benefits of urban living for public health, which are linked to easier access to contemporary healthcare, clean water, and hygienic conditions (Montgomery et al., 2003). Since the industrial revolution, there has

been a strong direct correlation between urbanization, economic progress, and social development. However, in sub-Saharan Africa, this relationship has lately been questioned. The growth of urban poverty has been connected to both urban natural rise and rural-urban migration (Mabogunje, 2015).

Degradation of Environmental Quality

Degradation of the environment, particularly of the air, water, and noise quality, is another effect of urbanization. The issue of careless dumping of solid trash in open areas, along roadways, and in waterways was identified by the studies. This procedure was used when garbage in state depots was not picked up, when the depots were crammed to capacity, or when they were difficult to get to. There were only fourteen vehicles and one loader for garbage disposal in one of the cities under study, which had a population of more than a million people. The majority of Nigeria's metropolitan centers lacked the necessary amount and quality of waste management equipment (Faniran, 1982). Building waste is dumped straight into the closest river or other body of water, which contaminates the water. The water quality has been impacted by trash that was deposited into rivers directly, including industrial effluents and household waste. In addition, the use of non-environmentally friendly fuel sources, industrial development, and motor vehicle emissions have all contributed to an increase in air pollution. Meanwhile, the noise pollution is generated from the various human activities which are increasing every now and then. The increase in population has generated a very high volume of solid waste and there is pressure to provide a waste disposal site in the urban areas.

Inefficient Transportation System

Every year, there are more and more cars on Nigerian roads. Even while cities provide a variety of public transit options, many urban residents still choose to drive their own cars. This is a result of public transportation's inefficiency. The lack of consideration for the integration of various modes of transportation in the provision of public transportation facilities results in challenges for users wishing to switch between them. Due to the unreliability of public transit, urban residents have a propensity to choose private automobiles over public transportation, which has finally resulted in the serious issue of traffic congestion in cities. In the event of a traffic congestion, private automobiles and public transportation -particularly buses and taxis- are stuck together and unable to proceed.

Decline in Quality of Living for Urban Dwellers

The quality of life for those who live in cities is diminishing, and this is partly due to urbanization. Undoubtedly, as the city strives to become a developed one, the value of the land will rise as well. The high income group's requirements will be given more attention in terms of housing supply. As a result, housing will be a difficulty, particularly for the lower income group. Because these homes are out of their price range, there is still a shortage of housing for the urban poor. Squatter communities are present in the city as a result of the lack of housing options for the low-income population. The absence of adequate infrastructure in these squatter settlements would undoubtedly result in several negative effects on the urban environment, including social issues like drug abuse, crime, delinquency, and education for children, among others. In addition to the dearth of affordable housing options for lower-class individuals, the fast expansion of the metropolitan population has resulted in a surge in demand for infrastructure and utilities, beyond the capacity of the current facilities. Ineffective trash collection and drain upkeep contribute to a number of issues, including flash floods and bad public health. The recurrence of flash floods is due to the drainage system being unable ineffective Urban Governance.

The urban governance is faced with a various complex challenges in managing a city. The rapid pace of urbanization is one of the challenges which require every party to be more focused in undertaking each and every responsibility in urban development. However, the coordination of several initiatives was hampered by the engagement of numerous agencies and departments in urban administration, which in turn affected the efficacy of those actions. In addition, the local government had to address the various objectives and concerns of community organizations. The local government must also provide solutions for a range of social problems and detrimental influences.

CHAPTER THREE

IBADAN CITY

3.1. A Brief History of Ibadan City

The chapter attempts to focus briefly on the history of Ibadan. Its emphasis centers on the process that led to the establishment and development of the city. Yoruba territory was marked by insecurity throughout the 19th century. Many people moved from the north to the south of Yoruba land and from the countryside to the walled towns as a result of the intra-Yoruba conflict (1825-1893) and the military jihad that originated in the Sokoto Sultanate and expanded from the north to the south of Nigeria. As a result, some ancient cities vanished, including Old Oyo and Owu, while a new wave of fortified towns emerged, including New Oyo, Abéokuta, and Ibadan. In 1829, Ibadan was established as a military camp to house warriors from Oyo, Ife, and Ijebu. Strategic defense options were provided by a forest location and many ranges of hills, ranging in elevation from 160 to 275 meters. Furthermore, its position on the edge of the forest aided in its development as a hub for the sale of commodities and traders from both the grassland and forest regions. As a result, Ibadan was founded as a military state and stayed that way until the last ten years of the 1800s. Between the 1860s and the 1890s, the city-state was also successful in expanding its empire to encompass a substantial portion of the northern and eastern Yoruba territory. The fitting moniker "butt of a gun," *idi-Ibon*, was given to it due to its distinct military nature. The warriors were the most significant economic group and the city's rulers (Falola, 1984).

However, Ibadan's economy was based mostly on commerce (which included slaves, palm oil, yam, kola for export, shea butter, salt, horses, and foreign weaponry), production (which included principally weapons, smithery, fabric, and ceramics industries), and agriculture (which included yam, maize, and vegetables). The city's standing in the Yoruba urban network was strengthened during the colonial era. Following a brief boom in the rubber industry (1901-1913), cocoa emerged as the region's primary crop and drew the attention of European and Levantine businesses, as well as traders from Lagos, Ijebu-Ode, and Kano, among other places. Their operations included the import of manufactured goods as well as the export of agricultural products from the area, including rubber, cocoa, palm oil, palm kernels, hides, and skins (Mabogunje, 2015). In 1901, Ibadan was connected to the North by railway, and it

became the hub for all road traffic heading north from Lagos. The city rose to prominence as a hub for bulk commerce. The Western Provinces (1939), which later became the Western Region of Nigeria in 1952, chose Ibadan as their headquarters due in large part to its central location and ease of access from Lagos, the country's capital. With this shift came a significant political power shift from the British Colonial Office to the nation's citizens. Ministerial appointments also started, and the number of government employees and buildings in the city quickly increased (Mabogunje, 2015).

The establishment of the University College in 1948, which subsequently evolved into the University of Ibadan, considerably increased the significance of Ibadan. Additionally, Ibadan boasted the sole teaching hospital in the nation at the time, which was well-equipped. The city's purchasing power expanded due to the concentration of competent individuals, which also sparked a quick development in business and job possibilities. Ibadan, however, was unable to draw in many large companies; in 1963, there were only 2,000 small-scale businesses with fewer than ten employees and a mere ten industrial establishments (Mabogunje, 2015). Ibadan city's industrialization levels remained low despite the acceleration of industrialization being one of the goals of the First through the Third National Development Plans (1960–1980). Small-scale businesses continued to dominate the industrial scene in 1979 (Oketoki, 1998) despite the establishment of a few large corporations, most of which were located in the newly developed industrial parks. The 1986 introduction of the SAP aimed to limit the amount of materials imported and support companies focused on exports by promoting investments from both international and Nigerian sources. In Ibadan, thousands of small-scale and home-based companies have emerged since then. As a result, during the 1980s and 1990s, employment in the unorganized sector of the economy increased (Akerele, 2017).

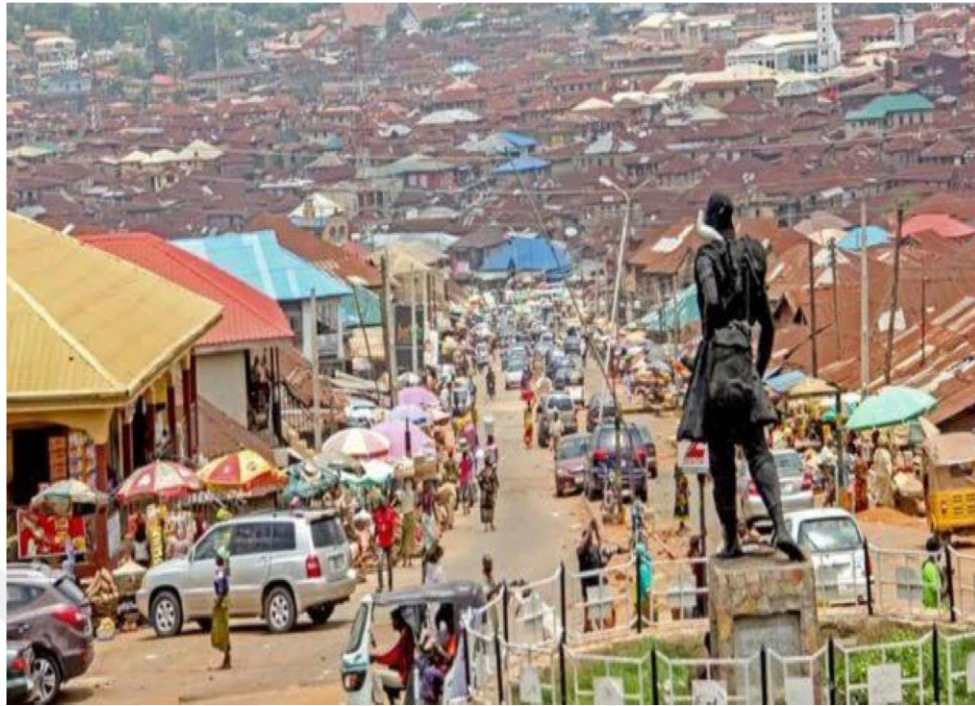


Figure 1: Picture of the Ibadan showing View of the core area of Ibadan and of the oldest market in Ibadan (Oja Oba)

Ibadan, like other Nigerian towns, had a general decline in urban amenities (roads, railway, water and power supply), as well as in social services (education and health), as a result of the Onibokun and Faniran (1995) crises and the reduction of public expenditures. While urban poverty gained national attention in the 1980s, corruption and poor government management significantly grew throughout the military era, particularly during the Abacha and Babangida administrations (1984-1998) (Amuwo, Bach and Lebeau, 2001). Ibadan's precise population is unknown as the 1991 national census most likely overestimated the city's population. There are currently between 2 and 5 million people estimated (Olaniran, 1998; Ayeni, 1994).

Furthermore, it is commonly recognized that population estimates from the colonial era were closer to estimations than actual counts, making it challenging to determine even the percentage rate of expansion. The population of Ibadan increased five times between 1960 and 1991, while the population of Kano increased five times between 1960 and 1991. The population of Ibadan increased five times in just one decade (1991-2000). An approximation of the growth of the three main Nigerian cities (Lagos, Ibadan, and Kano) in the 20th century reveals some unrealistic a very low rate of growth (0.8 percent) for Ibadan between 1931 and 1952, whereas all the other West African cities grew at a higher rate. Two million people were estimated in 1981 using a different

computation based on the average population per dwelling unit (Ayeni, 1994). Nevertheless, we shall use the 1991 National Census as the basis for our study as there isn't a trustworthy substitute. Ibadan was the biggest city in Sub-Saharan Africa until 1970.

According to estimates, the city's total size was around 103.8 km² in 1952 (O. Areola, 1994). But just 36.2 km² were developed (see Map 1). Accordingly, non-urban uses such farmlands, river floodplains, forest reserves, and aquatic bodies occupied the remaining 67 km². The 1960s saw the disappearance of these "non-urban land uses," and an aerial shot taken in 1973 showed that the urban landscape had fully extended across an area of around 100 km². From 136 km² in 1981 to 210–240 km² in 1988–89, the land area expanded (Areola, 1994). Ibadan is expected to have spanned 400 km² by the year 2000 (Onibokun 1995). It is evident from the expansion of the built-up area in the second half of the 20th century -from 40 km² in the 1950s to 250 km² in the 1990s- that the overall growth of the city has been underestimated. The Eleiyele highway (west of the city) and the Ibadan-Lagos expressway (east and north of the city) produced the most urban sprawl in the 1980s. Since then, Ibadan City has grown even further into the nearby local government districts of Egbeda and Akinyele.

3.2. The Structure of Ibadan City

The people did not just happen to settle in Oriyangi (Oja'ba), Ibadan, because it was a place that could maintain their population. The town is dominated by a range of lateraled quartzite hills that typically trend in a northwest-southwest direction. The site was deemed unsuitable, although it did have a sizable land reserve for growth and agriculture (professor Mabogunhe 1969, pp. 187, in urbanization in Nigeria). Four rivers that have several tributaries naturally drain the city: the River Ona on the north and west rivers. River Ogunpa passing through the city, and River Ogbera to the east. The Osun River and Asejire Lake border the city's east, while Lake Eleyele is in its northwest. The River Omi, which originates in the Olodo region and flows past the Olojo/Kumapayi crossing of the Ibadan-Ife Expressway to the Ona-Ara and Oluyole Local Governments, is situated in between. When these rivers are adequately managed and dredged, they are the primary drainage pathways that result in floods. The city's geology and tropical monsoon environment have combined to create a vast network of rivers and streams across the metropolis.

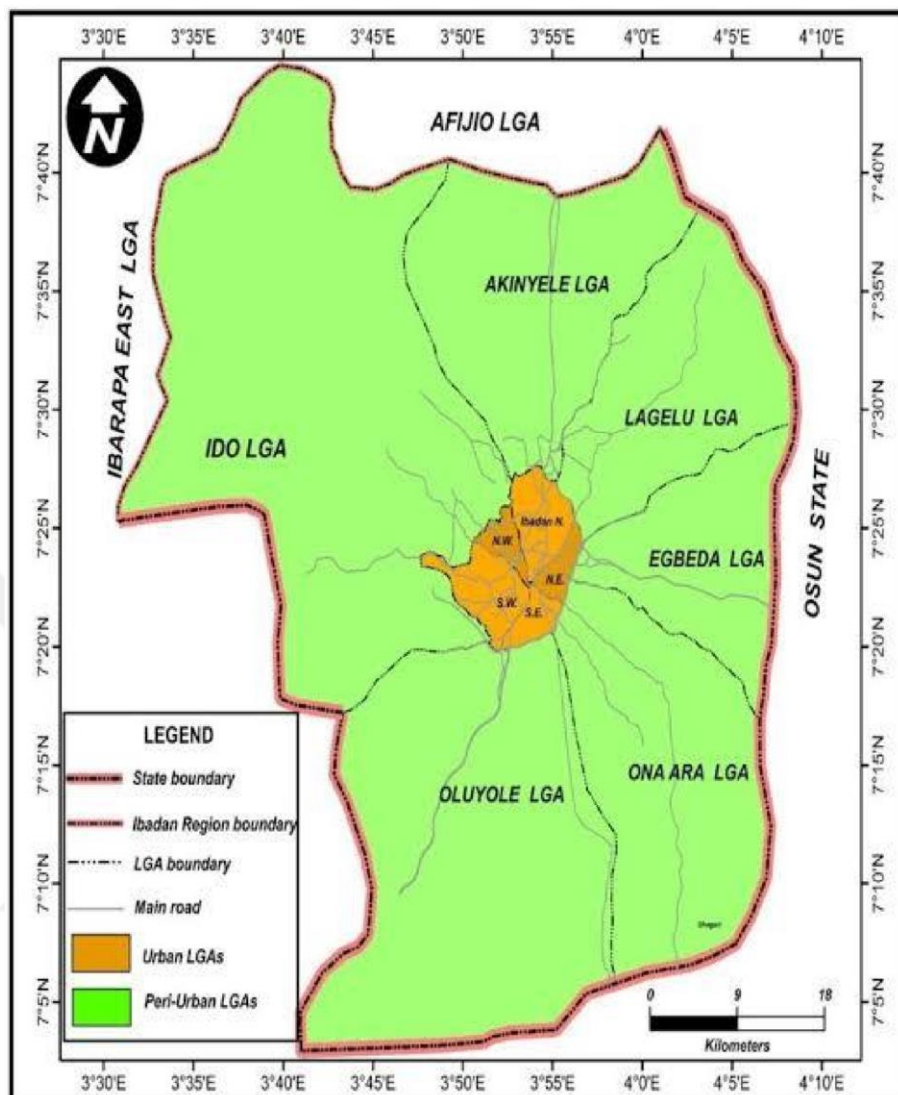


Figure 2: Picture of the Ibadan showing the structure area of Ibadan

Toyin Falola (2012) defined Ibadan as a tiny town in the 1830s. The distance from Oja'ba, the center, was just one kilometer in all directions. The design was almost exactly in line with the previous towns' arrangement. Its market is situated in the middle, at the base of Mapo Hill. The early military leaders' and other famous warriors' compounds surrounded this central market on all sides. The bases and brown areas of Oje-Mapo were developed as compounds. For security purposes, a four-meter-tall defensive wall encircled the whole town, including the compounds. The whole base of this wall was made up of ditches that were dug out by group efforts soon after the Oyos won the Gbanamu/Erunmu battles. With an estimated population of between 60,000 and 100,000 by 1851, Ibadan had expanded into a massive center. It was necessary to occupy additional regions, particularly in the northeast, and by the 1950s, the town's estimated

size had risen to twenty-six (26) square kilometers. The wall that surrounded the developed area was called the Ibikunle wall and was sixteen (16) kilometers in diameter. There were main gates that led to Abeokuta, Oyo, Iwo, and Ijebu, and smaller gates that led to other fields and communities. The parts of the city that are more modern are located to the west and north of the hill range that the founding fathers originally crossed. Oke-sapati, Oke Oluokun, Oke Are, Oke Fojo, Oke Ado, Oke bola, and so on are a few of the hills. The many architectural styles and, to some degree, the social and economic stratification within the expansive metropolis serve as markers for the settlement patterns. Akin Mabogunje pointed out that the first wave of immigrants to arrive in Ibadan about 1900 were from the nearby towns of Ijebu, Egba, and Ijesha. The majority of them were traders who established themselves in the Oke-Padi, Oke-Foko, Amunigun, Agbeni, and Idikan regions in the western sector.

In his book "Yoruba Towns," Prof. Akin Mabogunje claims that the morphology of Ibadan reflects the interaction of two civilizations. Even though the town wall -also known as the Ibikunle wall- has since disappeared, the region it formerly surrounded had a high residential density, was home to a people of local descent, and had traditional marketplaces for commerce. One side of the center has the government and contemporary business districts. The dwellings of immigrants from outside and other parts of Nigeria are located in the outer zone of the city 11 wall, along with spaces used for contemporary educational purposes. Communities Located Outside the City Wall When the railway arrived in 1901, there was a considerable inflow of residents. Ekotedo, or "Lagos settlement," is the name given to this new neighborhood that arose as more Lagosians and descendants of freed slaves who had established in Lagos moved there. It is located slightly north of the railway terminal. Additionally, the railway network attracted settlers who were originally from Nigeria and what is now known as the mid-west southeast. The Hausa arrived in Ibadan in the 1830s, under Basorun Oluyole's rule. Under the direction of Abdullahi Makana, the Sarkin Zango (chief of the cattle transit camp), and Muhammadu Na Garke, the Sarkin Pawa (chief of the butchers), they initially entered the town as dealers of cattle and meat. They were initially welcomed as Basorun Oluyole's guests at Oka'ba. The Hausa community in Ibadan had a sharp growth in population throughout time, leading to the establishment of the Sabongari (sabo) colony in the Mokola region in 1916. Bale Irefin (1902–1914) gave the Hausa Community the land on

which Sabo I was erected. The Nupe people settled in a nearby area of Mokola known as Ago Tapa, which translates to "Nupe hamlets." The same holds true for Ilorin, where they established themselves as Ago Ilorin.

Davis is cognizant, nonetheless, of the way in which urbanization may act as a catalyst for alteration in the entire social structure. Population concentration is what Tisdale (2012) defines as urbanization. There are two steps involved in this process: the expansion of individual concentration areas and the multiplication of concentration sites. There is a becoming process going on. From a state of non-urbanism to a state of total urbanism, or rather from a state of less concentration to a state of greater concentration, it suggests a process that is not necessary straight, constant, or continuous. According to Tisdale, urbanization is therefore a growing kind of togetherness that is brought about by the use of technical instruments, which raises the tolerance of the populace in the places where they operate.

Urbanization, according to Mitchell (2016), is the process of becoming an urban place; the migration of people or processes there; and the growth of urban areas, populations, or processes. He distinctly notes two facets of the urbanization term. The first is the demographic factor, which suggests a shift toward urban living. However, there exists an additional frame of reference. If living in a town causes a change in behavior, then urbanization may also have significance within a sociological framework³⁵. One characteristic of the urban lifestyle is its unique manner of living. According to Thompson (2015), urbanization is the process by which people migrate from small, mostly agricultural settlements to bigger, mainly commercial areas with a focus on manufacturing, government, commerce, or related industries. Urbanization, according to Anderson (2010), is more than just people moving from rural to urban areas and from jobs requiring travel on land to jobs requiring travel in cities. People's core thought processes, behaviors, and societal values all alter as a result of urbanization. Urbanization is defined by Jacobson and Ved Prakash as a phenomena that describes a process of population status changes brought about by shifts in broader societal contexts. According to Breeze (2019), urbanization is the process of becoming urban, relocating to a city, switching from agricultural to other activities prevalent in cities, and altering behavior patterns in tandem. According to Hauser and Duncan, urbanization is a shift in the distribution pattern of the population. It entails a rise in the proportion of the population

living in cities, an expansion in the number and size of urban settlements, and a concentration of people in these areas.

3.3. Urban Economy of Ibadan

The relationship between the rural and urban economies is a key way that expanding metropolitan regions support national growth. In Sub-Saharan Africa, where town and rural households retain various linkages through seasonal migration and remittances, so forming an informal safety net, interdependence is particularly obvious (World Bank IBRD, 2000). As the country's economy expands and undergoes structural changes, resources and revenue flow from rural to urban markets, and productivity varies unevenly throughout the country. Local governments are well aware of the links between the many rural and urban populations that make up their constituency. For example, farming became a common kind of employment in all of the villages of Ibadan. Farmers worked in four primary types of fields: gardens, akuro (rich alluvium deposits), oko etile (neighborhood farms), and oko aba (farmsteads).

Ibadan was encircled by enclaves of similar farmsteads in the late 1850s. In 1858, a European missionary named Daniel May wrote of the existence of a property located some distance from the city. A handful of these farmsteads were located over 48 kilometers away from the town. Reclaimed Egba towns at Ojo, Ika, Iroko, Ikeye, and Owu became well-known farmsteads in Ibadan.

The demand for food caused these farmsteads to continue growing. They were estimated to be around 163 in number by another European traveler in 1891. According to Prof. Toyin Falola (2012), the farming zone extended to the northeastern Lalupon neighborhood and the eastern Apomu neighborhood. One of the major changes in the agricultural history of the post-1860 century was the construction of the various farmsteads. It produced a rural economy that was different from the urban one. Farming was the main profession in the farmsteads. They all formed an economic zone that was intimately connected to the capital and from which the city of Ibadana obtained food to feed its urban populace. Tool availability was essential to farming, adjacent industries, and other activities; iron implements in particular. Blacksmiths, highly talented individuals who were well-known and essential to society, created these. Only a few families, mostly centered in the town's Bere, Eleta, Oja'ba, Agbede-Adodo, Kure and Ige neighborhoods, were allowed to work in this capacity.

3.4. The Growing Economic Role of Ibadan City

Nigeria's third-largest city by population, after Lagos and Kano, is Ibadan, the capital of Oyo State, situated at the meeting point of the Savannah and the forest. Though Ibadan is the largest city in terms of area in Nigeria, with eleven administratively distinct local government districts, it was ranked as the tenth most populous city in Africa in 1960, behind Alexandria, Algiers, Cairo, Cape Town, Casablanca, Durban, east Rand, Johannesburg, and Lagos (UN-Habitat, 2007). The population of the Ibadan Municipal Government, which consists of five urban local governments currently, increased by 2.8% year between 1963 and 1991 to 1,288,663. The population of the six local governments, which make up the smaller city, grew slightly from 514,298 in 1963 to 606,639 in 1964, or 0.50% annually. Ibadan's overall population, including its suburbs, increased slightly to 1,829,300 in 1991, a 1.65% rise from 1963. Ibadan saw a notable expansion between the years 1963 to 1991, with the city's urban area covering around 101.9 square kilometers in 1973 and 130.5 square kilometers in 1982. To the south and east of Eleyele Lake and the Ojoo-Olorunsogo-Sanyo neighborhoods in the eastern portion of the city, a quick wave of building construction was sparked by events in the 1980s, such as the construction of an expressway (or dual carriageway) along the Sango-Eleyele and Lagos-Ibadan Expressway. In 1989, the metropolis' built-up area accounted for around 240 square kilometers, with a population density of 5,094 people per square kilometer. Ibadan City's yearly growth rate decreased even further, from 2.43% in 1991 to 0.47% in 2006. 2.55 million people called it home in the Nigerian census of 2006, and 2.67 million in 2007 (estimated using data extrapolated from World Urbanization Prospectus: The 2007 Revisions).

Ibadan is a major transit hub between the coastal area and the Nigerian interior to the north. It is situated in South-Western Nigeria, 140 kilometers inland from Lagos. When Ibadan expanded into a large and magnificent metropolitan center during the British colonial era, it became the administrative hub of the former Western region of Nigeria. The city of Ibadan is a key hub for trade because of its advantageous location on the Lagos-Kano railway and at the meeting point of the savannah and forest habitats.

According to the UN-Habitat Report from 2007, since the implementation of the 13 Structural Adjustment Program in the 1980s, the informal sector has made a substantial contribution to the city's economic growth as a source of subsistence and survival for its

residents. Due to a sharp decline in the demand for formal labor in the public and private sectors, the informal sector is gradually taking the place of regular work as the principal source of income. 90% of the head offices of banks, financial institutions, and international corporations are based in Ibadan, the capital of Oyo State, which serves as the commercial center for both the state and neighboring Yoruba states. They may be found along the Lagos Expressway from the Ibadan Toll gate and in the industrial estates of Oluyole, Lagelu. Maintaining the pace of economic growth is a significant problem that depends on the creation of jobs and the reduction of poverty, both of which are reliant on enhancing the Ibadan metropolitan area's management effectiveness and fostering advancements in urban infrastructure and services. Ibadan's institutional environment has historically consisted of several federal, state, and municipal government entities, each having its own jurisdiction, set of laws, and administrative procedures. These agencies also seldom collaborate with one another. As a result, there is a fragmented management structure, with each agency in charge of several services under its own purview and, frequently, with its own set of regulatory frameworks and rules. This has detrimental effects on the expansion and development of cities that are far-reaching.

Oyo State's consequently inadequate governance and regulations have a negative influence on the state's potential for economic growth and development as well as the standard of public and municipal services, infrastructure development, and city planning. An estimated 60% of Ibadan's population lives in unplanned, densely populated, poorly served informal settlements as a result of the city's fast and uncontrolled growth, which has led to uncontrolled development and improper land-use changes. In the absence of a reliable and efficient mass transportation system, the number of cars on the road rises quickly, causing congestion, pollution, stress, and an increase in traffic accidents. Though there have been sporadic attempts to bring the major rail transit system and Ibadan Circular Road, which have been planned since 2003/4, back to life, neither public nor private investment has been drawn to them until recently. Phase one of the project should be finished as soon as possible, connecting the Ibadan-Ife Expressway to Bioku village, and the railway from Lagos to Ibadan, which passes through Olorisa-Oko near Moniya, will boost the local economy along the Lagos-Abeokuta-Ibadan urban corridor. Moreover, the city's main thoroughfares ought to be dualized, particularly in the business

districts of Lebanon Street, Bere-Oritamerin-Agbeni, and Iwo Road. This will lessen traffic caused by parked cars, which lower road through charges by over 50%.

3.5. Urbanization Process in Nigeria

One of the few nations in Africa with a significant number of pre-industrial towns prior to colonialism is Nigeria. The south-western zone, which is by far the most urbanized area of its size in sub-Saharan Africa, has the highest concentration of these towns (NISER 2007). The ongoing internecine warfare among the Yoruba is one of the main causes of the pre-colonial urbanization in this region. Peasants were driven to seek safety in walled towns as a result. By the middle of the 19th century, the population of six of the 36 towns in the region exceeded 40,000 inhabitants each (Coquery-Vidrovitch, 1993). Nigeria's town distribution pattern was altered by the colonial government's administrative framework at the start of the 20th century. New towns emerged as industrial settlements (Jos and Enugu) or as administrative centers (Kaduna and Nsukka, for example). A railroad station and an administrative center in the southwest strengthened the status of a few towns (Ibadan, Ilorin, and Ogbomosho). Nonetheless, the pace of urbanization was quite modest. Less than 7% of Nigerians were residing in urban areas (settlements with 20,000 or more residents) by 1931. In 1952, the percentage increased to 10 percent; in 1963, it was 19.2 percent, and in 1991, it was 42 percent.

Tens of thousands of people, including many rural residents, were forced to relocate due to political unrest since the country's independence (1960) and the three-year Civil War (1967–1970), which resulted in their eventual settlement in metropolitan areas. A large-scale inflow of rural migrants and inhabitants of other west African nations moved into Lagos, the federal capital, and other towns designated as state capitals throughout the 1970s due to the substantial financial infusion used to build urban services and infrastructure (NISER 1997).

According to UN-HABITAT (2013), the process of urbanization has frequently resulted in a rise in hardship and poverty. According to Browne (2014), there is a correlation between the rise in urban poverty and the growth of slums as well as restricted access to essential services like security, health care, and education. In addition, individuals are more susceptible to oppression, which presents environmental problems. Urbanization is a process that cannot be left to chance. Understanding not just the historical and cultural elements that might influence a society's growth but also the use of

research analytical processes to foresee obstacles is constantly important and requires ongoing study. The majority, as this study demonstrates, are the result of uncontrolled population increase. As has been said time and time again, this creates a number of problems that are made worse by the fact that civilizations are becoming more complicated. In certain instances, urbanization leads to urban development, a complex process requiring the assistance of experts from several disciplines. It comprises the established planning agencies at all levels of government in the nation coordinating and harmonizing the numerous land-use choices and building operations of a multiplicity of players (government institutions and agencies, stakeholders, civil society groups, and people).

3.6. Urbanization Process and Urbanization Problems in Ibadan

The urban structure had been evolving from the early medieval era (around the 7th century) and was especially noticeable in the north of the nation prior to the incursion of European powers in the second half of the 19th and the early 20th centuries (Mabogunje 2015). The focus of this system was trans-Saharan trade. A trading network that extended from the Sudan area northward to the ports of North Africa and ultimately to Europe included the Hausa States and the Kanem Empire, which was centered on Borno. Around the same period, urban communities grew in the Yoruba region of the southwest of the nation. These cities were first settled by Yoruba people as a result of long-distance commerce, but they quickly expanded into major trading hubs (Mabogunje, 2015). The colonial era altered the nation's town distribution pattern, which altered the urban structure (Fourchard, 2003). Some towns, like Nsukka and Kaduna, developed as administrative hubs, while others, like Jos and Enugu, were encouraged to become industrial hubs. This was especially evident in the nation's southeast. Prior to British administration, the southeast was predominately agrarian, and urbanization tended to cluster in the north and southwest (Abumere, 1985). The colonial powers encouraged the urbanization of southeast Nigeria by establishing four important cities -Port Harcourt, Aba, Enugu, and Owerri- for the processing and export of raw resources. The 1917 Township Ordinance divided cities into three classes: first, second, and third class. Though the logic behind the classification is still unclear and does not account for the traditional size of the towns or population, evidence suggests that being near the coast or coastal ports, playing a role in the collection and processing of raw materials, and

contributing to export trade were all important factors. Only Lagos was designated as a first-class town; the other eighteen cities, the most of which were in the south, were categorized as second- and third-class towns (ibid). Infrastructure and facilities were distributed unevenly as a result of the categorization. Northern cities declined as a result of the preference given to southern cities near ports, the coast, and railroad links. The results of this approach are still clearly obvious today: the country's metropolitan districts in the north and south developed differently. Administrative reforms were related to changes in the metropolitan terrain following independence. Three regions -the Northern, Western, and Eastern- each having its capital in Kaduna, Ibadan, and Enugu at the time of independence, with Lagos serving as the federal capital.

A fourth area, the Midwest, was created in 1963, with Benin City serving as its capital. State capitals increased along with the number of states, which rose to 12 in 1967 and 19 in 1976. As of right now, there are 36 states including the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) of Abuja. Urban growth and the development of the modern urban structure Naturally, the development of newly identifiable "urban" communities and the extension of already built-up regions have coincided with the increase of Nigeria's urban population, both in absolute and relative terms. In general, it is anticipated that built-up regions would continue to physically expand over the next many decades. As a result, Ibadan faces a variety of issues, the most of which stem from the city's and its population's expansion, macroeconomic circumstances, local environmental changes, and the incapacity of local administrations to successfully manage urban development. Some of the outstanding urban problems are discussed below.

Unemployment and Poverty

Nigeria's economy, which had grown heavily reliant on oil, was badly impacted by the notable decline in crude oil prices on the global market that signaled the start of an economic crisis in the 1980s. In order to address the economic imbalance, Nigeria implemented a macro-policy recommendation from the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund in July 1986. All economic sectors were negatively impacted by the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), and these effects can still be seen in many areas of the Nigerian economy. Over the last ten years, relative economic progress has been accompanied with rising vulnerability and inequality (AEO 2015). Concerns over the authenticity of official poverty data have been raised in light of the 2014 rebasing of GDP

estimates, which revealed a growth in the size of the Nigerian economy (AEO 2015). According to official data, the relative poverty measurement in Nigeria climbed from 54.4% in 2004 to 69% in 2010. The poverty rate has not much decreased either. 59.1% of people in southwest Nigeria subsist on less than \$1 per day (NBS, 2012). Unemployment is one of the main causes of poverty. Iyoha (2013) provides a thorough analysis of Nigeria's dual problems of poverty and unemployment. The 1980s and 1990s economic crises and structural changes undermined the state's ability to provide jobs and police laws, and they promoted a high degree of informalization in the economy (Nwaka 2005). Due to the low capacity utilization of industries and the privatization and commercialization of public businesses, many workers in metropolitan regions lost their jobs and unemployment rates rose. In Nigeria, the years 1985–1987 saw the highest percentage of urban unemployment (9.8%) between 1980 and 1999 (National Bureau of Statistics).

But starting in 2000, the rate of urban unemployment sharply increased, peaking at 22.8% in 2010. With a record high of 37.7% for youth unemployment in 2011 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2011), the situation for young people (15–24 years old) unemployed in the nation is even worse. The reasons behind Nigerian young women's high work rates have typically been attributed to cultural influences, early marriage, gender discrimination, and poor educational attainment (c Carjackings, armed robberies, kidnappings, and violent crimes are just a few of the social vices that have become more common in Ibadan over the past ten years due in large part to rising unemployment rates, particularly among young people (Iyoha, 2013; Okojie, 2013).

In Ibadan, urban poverty has always been a concern. Around 68% of city dwellers were low-income workers as early as 1978, when the nation's economy was booming (Obateru, 2014). The state of affairs deteriorated with the national economic downturn. Oyo State, whose main city is Ibadan, has a 27.7% unemployment rate in 2010 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2012). According to Adesanoye and Okunmadewa (2007), large homes in Ibadan led by males who are either aged, widower, self-employed, illiterate, or only have a basic school education and no access to credit are thought to be more prone to poverty than other households.

Inadequate Provision of Basic Infrastructure and Social Services

The city's fast population increase over the years has put a great deal of strain on social services and municipal infrastructure. The city is known for its poor emergency management and inadequate social service delivery. This is especially noticeable in informal settlements, where urban poor people -especially women and children- are more susceptible to illness and injury (OYSG and UNICEF, 1997).

The economic recession that hit Nigeria in the 1980s was a key factor in the poor delivery of social services. This, along with other elements like corruption, led to the city's basic infrastructure and amenities being inadequately provided. Due to the insufficiency, there is now risk disparity in the city and its surrounding areas, which is known to exist on all spatial scales (UNISDR, 2015). Additionally, it manifests itself in the spatial and geographic disparities in the well-being and quality of life of various social groups inside the metropolis (Okafor, 2008). The following list of critical areas of deficiency: Highways Since most of the current roads were built in the late 1940s and early 1950s, when the city's economic foundation and territorial expansion were quite restricted, a significant amount of the city's road network remains small, twisting, devoid of pedestrian sidewalks, and in a condition of disrepair (Tomori, 2011). The demand on the city's roadways has increased over time due to population growth, city development, a rise in urban activities, and an increase in the number of cars. Approximately half of the homes in the city's historic center are inaccessible to cars (Egunjobi, 1999). This state of affairs has spread to the city's fast growing impoverished neighborhoods.

The administration and upkeep of roads in the city has been made more difficult by the fact that the three levels of government -the federal, state, and municipal governments- share responsibility for building and maintaining city roadways (Filani, 1994). The absence of physical planning in many areas of Ibadan's eight cities and the state and municipal governments' inadequate supervision and management of the city's public transportation system are the root causes of a number of transportation-related issues. Management of solid waste an enormous amount of various trash, around 48,586 tons, are produced annually in the city (SIP, 2010). Unfortunately, the enormous amount of garbage produced in the city has proven too much for the local authorities to handle efficiently. This has resulted in the direct and unregulated disposal of solid waste (industrial, agricultural, and residential) in wetlands, rivers, and open landfills. The city's

vast drainage system has made it easier to dispose of rubbish in surface waterways. One of the most important issues the city is now dealing with is this practice (Omoleke, 2004).

Water Supply

The city's municipal water supply is egregiously insufficient. Less than 30% of houses in Ibadan municipality had a regular supply of water by the end of the 1990s, despite the water company pipeline network covering just 65% of the municipality (Adelekan, 2006). Out of the approximately 5000 km of piping needed for sufficient water distribution, only around 700 km of piping had been built. Since 76% of the city's pipes are over 50 years old and haven't transported water in a long time, the majority of them are outdated due to aging. The current state of the water supply is made worse by population increase and urbanization. The city's water supply predicament has been attributed to a number of other institutional and technical problems (Adelekan, 2006). Among them is the city's steep terrain, which requires water to be pumped to higher altitudes. The erratic nature of the city's electrical supply, the high cost of using generators as alternative power sources, and the scarcity or high cost of diesel to power them. Due to a lack of sufficient data and knowledge on hydrologic, hydrogeologic, yield recovery, recharge, population distribution, and consumption patterns, water distribution is also carried out with little to no planning.

The primary source of water supply for the middle-class and upper-class populations is the building of nine hand-dug wells or boreholes per dwelling unit. Public standpipes or yard taps are the primary means of municipal water supply in many low-income neighborhoods of the city; however, a single standpipe serves a very large number of houses. Many people in the new suburban regions rely on well water and other water sources for domestic usage because the municipal water supply is either nonexistent or extremely inconsistent. More than 60% of households did not rely on the municipal water supply for their domestic use, according to a survey of the water use patterns in low-income communities in the traditional core areas (Aremo, Oje, Foko, Ayeye, and Opo-Yeosa) and the more recent low- and middle-income sub-urban areas of Ijokodo, Mokola, Orogun, Agbowo, and Monatan-Iwo road areas (Adelekan, 2006).

The research reports revealed that the average daily output and the average per capita output were ridiculously low. In Ibadan, for example, the main water scheme had a design capacity of 120 million litres per day. However, at the time of the survey, it was

pumping out only 36 million litres per day. Although six pumps were supposed to be included in the system, only three had been installed, one of which had malfunctioned. An investigation found that the one that had broken down could not be repaired, and that the remaining three pumps could not be installed owing to budgetary restrictions. Furthermore, a program designed for 500,000 people is already serving more than 3 million. Since then, things have become worse (Faniran, 1991). Water flows for one or two hours a week in many sections of Ibadan, but not at all in others for months at a time. In most Nigerian cities, the same issue exists: having a consistent supply of water is considered a luxury (see Faniran 1994).

Electricity Supply

Nigeria's electricity industry runs much below its estimated capacity. Beginning in 1978, there has been a significant discrepancy between installed capacity and overall electrical generating capacity, leading to frequent power outages (Babatunde and Shuaibu, 2009). The frequent power outages are typically attributed to low water levels at the hydropower stations at Kanji, Jebba, and Shiroro; moreover, inadequate maintenance is causing the power plants at Lagos, Egbin, Delta, and Port Harcourt Afam to operate at reduced capacity. Most people agree that corruption, incompetent leadership, poor asset maintenance, insufficient gas supply to thermal production facilities, transmission infrastructure, and contradictory government policies are to blame for Nigeria's inability to provide a continuous supply of energy. According to Aliyu et al. (2013), just 40% of Nigerians are linked to the electrical grid, and those individuals experience power outages 60% of the time. However, the data for specific cities is not available. A larger share of the expense of the power outage is borne by homes, small businesses, and unofficial sector operations. According to Adenikinju (2003), up to 20–30% of the original investment is used to acquire alternative facilities in an effort to improve the stability of the energy supply, which has a major detrimental effect on the industrial sector's capacity to compete on price. Due to the high expense of operating electric power generators, several local industries have had to reduce staff or close. Due to its inability to support most industrial activity and the employment they generate, an inadequate supply of electricity both exacerbates and contributes to poverty (IEA, 2002). For a vast number of urban inhabitants, the usage of electricity power generators has lowered household spending on necessities and is a source of air pollution and noise. Fire

dangers in the city can also arise from the storage of gasoline and diesel for generator usage in homes and workplaces, as well as from private electrical connections. Medical services In addition to conventional medical professionals dispersed throughout the city, the University College Hospital, two State hospitals, and several private medical facilities provide to the healthcare requirements of the metropolitan population (UN-HABITAT, 2007).

Implications for Urban Hazards

Ibadan, like other fast expanding cities in West Africa, is extremely susceptible to changes in the environment and in the city itself (Adelekan 2006; UN-Habitat, 2009). Both new and increased threats have been brought forth by urban dynamics and processes. There are several dangers and hazards associated with living in an urban area like Ibadan. These include fatalities from using electric generators, building under or close to high-voltage power lines and telecommunications masts, infectious and contagious diseases, flooding, fires, crime (robbery, kidnapping), car accidents, building collapse, and violence (youth, transport unions). According to local media, there were significantly more incidences of premature fatalities in the city between 2000 and 2013 as a result of crimes, violence, traffic accidents, fire events, and other dangers (Adelekan and Nwokocha, 2014). These occurrences, which are more common in the city's residential high-density zones and poorer neighborhoods, have a big effect on both human activity and the continuation of poverty.

Health

Since the 1970s, there have been more health risks due to inadequate water supply, poor sanitation, and inefficient solid waste/wastewater management as a result of the growth of slums and unplanned city development into high-risk regions (Adelekan et al, 2014; World Bank, 2014). The activities of businesses in the unofficial sector, particularly those situated in unofficial settlements, contribute to the negative health effects experienced by the urban poor (Nwaka 2005). An previous research (Iyun, 1984) revealed that infectious and communicable illnesses, together with their common symptoms like as diarrhea and gastroenteritis, malaria, TB, malnourishment, and hypertension, are the major health problems in Ibadan city. The city's water supply condition is primarily to blame for the prevalence of water-borne illnesses, including cholera, dysentery, typhoid, and diarrhea, especially among the urban poor (Adelekan, 2006; Lawoyin et al, 1999;

Oguntoke et al., 2009). The historic center of the city was the first to get infected with cholera during the initial outbreak in January 1971 (Lewis et al., 1972; Adeshina, 1981). In the city's populated areas, the cholera pandemic claimed the lives of nearly 500 people. Following the initial epidemic in 1970, Lawoyin et al. (1999) observed that cholera outbreaks have been reoccurring more often. The cholera outbreak that occurred in Ibadan (Southwest) in 1996 was caused by contaminated drinking water sources (Lawoyin et al, 1999). The Oyo State administration also noted that 50 homes lacked toilets in the six villages of Ibadan North West Local administration Area, where a cholera epidemic in August 2011 took four lives. Additional recent research has shown how pollution affects the quality of water in wells, particularly in urban slum areas (e.g., Ahaneku and Adeoye, 2014; Ochieng et al, 2011; Oloruntoba et al, 2013). According to surveys conducted in the impoverished areas of Ibadan South East LG, the majority of the wells are severely contaminated due to several behaviors, including improper upkeep of the wells and its components, close proximity to possible sources of pollution such pit latrines, careless disposal of waste, and inadequate sanitation.

According to Ochieng et al. (2011) and Oloruntoba et al. (2013), these communities' reliance on contaminated wells for their water supply makes them vulnerable to water-borne illnesses. According to Ahaneku and Adeoye (2014), shallow wells built next to pit latrines in the impoverished neighborhood of Foko in Ibadan South West LG had biological pollutants higher than the WHO's recommended daily water quality criteria. Regarding the spatial differences of the city's illness risk-cell zones, the socioeconomic features of the residents have a major role (Iyun, 1984). In the city's indigenous and traditional core neighborhoods, this is demonstrated by the high frequency of illnesses like TB and malnutrition that are linked to illiteracy and poverty. Iyun (1984) further shown the importance of socioeconomic and demographic variables in determining intra-city differences in illness rates, including age group, occupation, religion, and population and housing densities. She did point out that it is challenging to pinpoint the exact contribution of these elements because there are significant differences in the contemporary and older parts of the city in terms of access to and utilization of medical facilities. According to Nwachokor and Thomas (2000), a study on the pattern of tuberculosis at the University College Hospital (UCH), Ibadan, between 1966 and 1995 revealed that socioeconomic factors and subpar medical facilities seemed to be more

significant contributing factors to the gradual rise in tuberculosis frequency between 1981 and 1995 compared to the earlier period between 1966 and 1980.

Flood Hazards

The city's urban expansion in conjunction with alterations to the local climate and environment has led to a rise in the frequency of hazard occurrences, especially windstorms and floods (Adelekan, 2006; Agbola et al, 2012; Adelekan, 2014; Adelekan, 2015). According to UNICEF (2009), even little increases in risk levels brought on by climate change have the potential to have a significant negative impact on the impoverished and lead to poverty. Due to the flooding of the Oranyan wetland, the first records of flooding in Ibadan date back to 1902 and 1924, respectively (Tomori, 2011).

When the Gege River spilled its banks in 1933, buildings along the riverbanks were submerged, causing more floods (NEST, 1999). Between 1951 and 2011, the city had additional significant flooding incidents (Table 1). The years 1960, 1963, 1978, and 1980 are noteworthy (Arimah, B. C., & Adeagbo, D. (2000). The Ogunpa River overflowed, causing these floods, and the effects were mostly limited to regions in its flood plain. In addition, flooding incidents were noted in 1985, 1987, and 1990. The Ona River Basin was heavily impacted by the August 2011 heavy flood. Due to the city's fast urban run-off and usually sloping terrain, river flooding was determined to be the primary source of flood risk in an evaluation of the scope and kind of the city's flood risk (World Bank 2014). One of the main causes of floods is the extensive network of rivers and streams, among which the Ona River, Ogunpa Stream, Kudeti Stream, and Ogbere Stream are the principal ones. However, the city experiences floods due to a number of additional sources. These include high rainfall, inadequate or nonexistent drainage routes, and the existence of river crossings that, when blocked by solid trash poured into the river channels, function as makeshift dams. The building of structures within setbacks, inadequate management of floodplains and river channels, the use of rivers and drainage channels for the disposal of solid waste, government incompetence in creating and maintaining a sufficient storm water drainage system within the city, and the damming of the Eleyele River are a few more (Adelekan, 2015). Furthermore, a larger percentage of artificial surfaces, an increasing trend of higher-intensity rainstorms in recent years, and inadequate drainage systems have all contributed to increased runoff, which in turn causes floods (Adelekan et al, 2014). There have been varied degrees of physical, social, and

economic effects and losses linked to the flood episodes in Ibadan. In 1980, the Ogunpa flood catastrophe claimed the lives of almost 250 people. Over a hundred people lost their lives as a result of the 2011 floods, which also severely damaged the city's physical infrastructure, including its roads, bridges, buildings, property, farms, and businesses. In the Ona River watershed, an estimated 2,000 houses were inundated. Significant financial losses in the housing, education, transportation, and agricultural sectors were also reported; these losses were estimated to be around \$40 million (World Bank, 2014). According to a World Bank (2014) evaluation of city authorities' flood risk management capabilities, the city is ill-prepared to handle flooding occurrences because of the following causes:

- Lack of policy framework for flood management at State level that clarifies roles and responsibilities of the relevant MDAs.
- Lack of development plans to guide urban development in the city.
- Absence of river/stream management policies, especially with regard to the maintenance of the river/stream channels and the waste disposal behavior of the city residents.
- Outdated regulations on setbacks to rivers/streams.
- Limited resources and capacity of the Local Government Authorities to manage flood risk and organize adequate flood responses. Focus of the Oyo State Emergency Management (OSEMA) mainly on disaster response. Only limited resources are allocated to disaster risk reduction and limited technical capacity in disaster risk reduction.
- Lack of coordinated emergency response between OSEMA and National Emergency
- Management Agency (NEMA).
- Lack of rainfall data monitoring by the State coupled with limited access to rainfall data through the Nigerian Meteorological Agency's (NIMET). NIMET only provides rainfall alerts for the south west region in Nigeria; however, this is insufficient for early flood warning purposes.

Conflict and Violence

Urban disadvantaged groups' activities, inadequate urban administration, and overcrowding are the main causes of violence in urban Africa (Albert, 1994). In Ibadan,

disputes have arisen from a lack of access to energy (petrol) and drinkable water. Water collection in public places, particularly in impoverished neighborhoods, sometimes leads to arguments and occasionally violent altercations between mothers and children (Adelekan 2006). The main cause of these confrontations is the seeming greed of some individuals who desire to collect more buckets of water than is customarily allowed. Another significant grievance of those who have wells in their properties is that water drawers are a disruption. Acute water scarcity in the city has already caused civil unrest, as demonstrated by the events involving students at the University of Ibadan in 1997 and the Ibadan Polytechnic in 1995 and 1997. There have also been reports of disputes over space, particularly in rooming units in slum areas. Urban violence has also been caused by governments enacting or introducing unfavorable legislation (Sunmola, 1994). Since 1992, the city has seen many instances of large-scale, violent protests and property destruction in reaction to government attempts to raise the price of gasoline and related goods. Election-related disputes between rival parties have also occasionally resulted in harm, the loss of life, and damage to property.

3.7. Approach to Solve the Urbanization Issues and Problems

From the issues and problems of urbanization that have been discussed before, it can be summarized that the major problems of urbanization are pertinent to the social and environmental problems. Thus, two approaches have been suggested in order to solve the urbanization issues; Islamic approach and Neo-Marxist Theory as explanation of urbanization phenomenon. These approaches will be further elaborated below:

Islamic Approach

The Islamic method is said to be one way to address the challenges and concerns associated with urbanization. The Sunnah and the Holy Quran are often regarded as the most significant sources for Muslims. These two texts address topics in economics, social conduct, family relationships, defense, and even urbanization as they are the ultimate instructions for humanity (Farid Moustapha, 2008).

Consequently, in order to guarantee that they are led in the correct direction, humanity should consult the teachings of the Quran and Sunnah and put them into practice in all facets of their lives. According to Jabal Buaben (2012), several towns have seen a decrease in crime as a result of the Law and Order principles, which are founded on the teachings of the Quran and Sunnah. Put another way, if every home in a city abides by

the teachings of the Holy Quran, then bad things won't happen. The appropriate behavior, attitudes, and thinking of its residents are the reason it is free, balanced, safe, stress-free, and unbothered. In addition, a city's ability to maintain sufficient and easily available services, a setting that fosters social cohesion and connection, the conservation of energy and materials, and the avoidance of ecological harm are all indicators of its citizens' good behavior. Put another way, people's activities and behaviors dictated whether a city was in good or terrible shape. Therefore, incorporating Islamic principles into all facets of daily life, including urban planning, can assist to create high-performing cities and, inadvertently, lessen or eliminate the negative effects of urbanization. In addition, every development ought to coexist peacefully with the environment (Spahic Omer, 2007). The government has to make sure that all developers, architects, and other professionals in a similar field adhere to the rules and regulations set out to minimize environmental disruption. For example, before designing a structure, architects must first analyze the site to become familiar with it. Only then can they create a building that fits the setting. Urban planners, on the other hand, must meticulously design a region or city. A space should, for instance, separate residential, business, or even industrial areas from bodies of water. These locations cannot be situated right adjacent to bodies of water since there is a strong likelihood that the buildings may discharge their waste into the water. Water contamination and other environmental issues will result from the circumstance. Thus, in order to save the environment, buildings must be thoughtfully planned and positioned. Therefore, any strategy that is implemented in accordance with Islamic and Quranic teachings will aid in reducing the environmental effect of development. Furthermore, it has been recognized that protecting the environment is one of the important responsibilities that Allah has given vicegerents.

Neo-Marxist Theory as Explanation of Urbanization Phenomenon

This theory is a subset of the German Frankfurt School's critical theory. It came about as a reaction to the urbanization-related postulations of liberal urban theory (Ezeani, 2001). Urbanization is seen by liberal thinkers and the Chicago school as a benefit and a byproduct of capitalism. By many accounts, the rise of capitalism is responsible for the liberalization and civilization of man. Thus, increasing urbanization is a process of both urban growth and societal advancement. Therefore, it is not appropriate to see the issues brought on by urbanization as abnormal. Both societal and environmental forces influence

them. The combined effects of migration, industrialization, and fertility will continue to drive the growth of new cities as villages turn into towns and urban populations rise. Nonetheless, the Chicago scholars have not agreed with the Neo-Marxists.

Urbanization is the driving force behind capitalism, claims Ezeani (2001). Urbanization is closely related to the process of monetizing economic activity, in which money is sought after by all parties as a necessary good. But the poor, the underprivileged, and the proletariat are always left out of the process because of the structural injustices that come with the capitalist method of production. Thus, labor alienation and urban segregation are processes that are aided by urbanization.

3.8. Summary of Reviewed Literature

The chapter's reviewed material emphasized the significance of urbanization, the causes of urban issues, and the ways in which these factors impacted Ibadan's people and social life. People will keep moving to metropolitan regions in search of a better living and to compete for access to the few resources available to them, as long as there are no facilities for human existence in rural areas. The over-reliance on urban infrastructure, the expansion of the city, and the high population density of Ibadan, Nigeria, are the results of the governments' failure to stop these trends. Regrettably, Ibadan's urban milieus have failed to keep up with the demands of urbanization, leading to high rates of crime and other anti-social behaviors that call for the management of an additional institutional framework. It was anticipated that the current study will close the knowledge gap on urbanization and urban problems in Ibadan, Nigeria by providing local literature as well as resources for future research.

CHAPTER 4

URBANIZATION PROBLEMS IN IBADAN

4.1. The Problems About Urbanization and Urban in Ibadan

In the last chapter we will discuss the urbanization and urban problems in Ibadan. It will show that the growth and population basis of the city of Ibadan was dominated by the different administration. The major problem of urbanization is employment. Therefore, the expediency of population growth enhanced the development of the different sector in the economy. We will also talk about the important developments that happened in the later half of the time. For example, the 1954 constitution established regional administrations and gave them the task of creating and carrying out economic strategies in sectors including industry, education, regional roadways, and agriculture. This chapter will look at Ibadan's urbanization and issues related to it.

The research identified the following: market, mosque or church, community room, police station, post office, public phone, school, health center, bus/minibus stop, bank, and post office. According to the table's findings, a number of factors have been cited as the reason for the comparatively low levels of compliance with building regulations. These include the institutional framework surrounding urban development and planning regulations, the administrative framework for physical planning implementation that prevents interagency coordination, the general public's poverty, and the public's contempt and apathy toward the city's formal planning institutions (Arimah and Adeagbo, 2000).

As shown in the study, the relationship between urbanization and inadequate social facilities in Ibadan were found positive. The coefficient value (β) of conscientiousness is 0.2500 which depicts that conscientiousness has twenty five percent significant relationship with urbanization and inadequate social facilities in Ibadan. Hence, the finding supports hypothesis number 2 (H2). This implied that urbanization has positively impact inadequate social facilities in Ibadan. The finding is consistent with the

studies of (Philips and Bedeian, 1994, Deluga, 1998; Bernerth et al., 2017). They concluded that urbanization was positively connected with inadequate social facilities. The finding supports the argument that urbanization has positive significant influence the inadequate social facilities.

As the result analysis explains, the developing imbalance in development processes and capacities to control them may be the root cause of Ibadan's urbanization-related issues. Ibadan City is exhibiting several signs of environmental poverty, including overuse of existing infrastructure, inadequate social facilities, indiscriminate discharge of liquid and solid waste, poor drainage and sewage systems, housing shortages, traffic jams, and pollution. The study found a positive, substantial association between urbanization and insufficient social facilities, as table 3 in the data analysis illustrates. Ibadan has seen a great deal of unofficial physical development; some previously residential homes have been transformed to commercial spaces, and locations that were initially designated as setbacks are now home to shops and stores. Against this backdrop, the study looks at the issues that urbanization has brought about in Ibadan's residential neighborhoods.

The study found a statistically significant negative correlation between urbanization and insufficient social facilities in Ibadan. Based on the results, the study found that more than 75% of the homes, banks, schools, and communities found in urban areas are subpar and situated in slums, which contributes to a number of issues including crime, unhygienic conditions, poverty, gentrification, and a lack of basic amenities (Oluwatayo and Opoko, 2014). The cost of housing has grown in neighborhoods with greater security and basic infrastructure since there are fewer appropriate housing options, health centers, public phones, post offices, bus/minibus stops, banks, police stations, post offices, markets, mosques or churches, and community rooms. Due to this, rent in estates and city centers will increase to outrageous levels, and the cost of buying property and obtaining the necessary licenses to construct on it will also increase dramatically. Due to these factors, Ibadan is experiencing a rise in the number of homeless people, many of whom choose to live in shantytowns where subpar building materials are utilized for makeshift structures, reside in abandoned buildings, or spend the night beneath bridges and other public areas. Another problem brought on by the increase in urbanization is the collapse of dwellings (NUDP, 2012).

In addition, there are now more shoddily built buildings due to the growth in the

construction of health centers, public phones, post offices, bus and minibus stops, banks, police stations, post offices, markets, mosques or churches, and community rooms. Building collapses have increased as a result of this. According to Ede (2013), "it is impossible to overstate the cost of these failures in terms of human lives and enormous economic waste, loss of investments, job, income, etc." These breakdowns are also brought on by the unforeseen strain that these structures endure from use. The expansion of public and private structures is often not meant for the stress that is placed on them, resulting in their untimely collapse, due to the absence of sufficient projections on the growth of major metropolitan centers. The results are in line with earlier investigations by (Soldber, 2009).

Following the daily increase in the population in the city's geographic area, Ibadan has had a sharp increase in population up to this point (Alkali, 2005). In order to adequately manage the use of lands, provide housing and basic infrastructure, maintain public services, and keep up with the unstoppable population expansion, the Federal Capital Development Authority (FCDA) has overreached its financial, technical, and administrative capabilities. Given the ongoing population expansion and the quickly developing urban population, it is critical to analyze the issues and provide effective solutions to the mounting concerns (NUDP, 2012). These solutions have to be able to be used at Ibadan, Nigeria's various levels of government (local government levels, for example). Sustainable urbanization could only be realized through such means. Undoubtedly, the fast pace of urbanization has given rise to a multitude of challenges related to the economy, culture, and environment.

Numerous issues afflict Ibadan, most of which are related to the city's and its population's expansion, macroeconomic circumstances, local environmental changes, and the incapacity of local administrations to properly control urban development. Here are some of the current urban concerns that are being discussed:

4.1.1. Unemployment and Poverty

Nigeria's economy, which had grown heavily dependent on oil, was badly impacted by the 1980s economic crisis that was signaled by a sharp decline in crude oil prices on the global market. Millions of people live in subpar housing, mostly in slums and shanty towns in Ibadan, as a result of issues and challenges that have led to unplanned and uncontrolled cities (Daramola and Ibem, 2010; Jiboye, 2010). Make the case that

these problems are a result of Ibadan, Nigeria's unchecked urbanization. ¹²The study also showed that a large number of small businesses and organizations who were unable to pay for their own basic infrastructure were marginalized and had very low productivity.

This circumstance is in line with the "incubator hypothesis," which demonstrates that the accessibility of utilities and other basic services affects the placement of small businesses (those with less than 20 employees) (Linn, 1982 ; Lee, 1989 ; Verma et al., 1991). This indicates that a nation like Nigeria, with its inadequate infrastructure, cannot provide a favorable atmosphere for small businesses, which are critical to the growth of the economy. A decreasing number of new businesses are able to launch, and those that have already been formed are unable to expand at a rate that would provide enough job opportunities to fulfill the demand of the expanding population (CASSAD, 1993).

Policy makers should not be surprised that Nigeria continues to have a high percentage of unemployment and underemployment, as industrial progress and the creation of jobs in a nation largely depend on the ability of small businesses to expand and prosper. The prevalence of poverty is rising in our cities as well, and it will continue to rise until the infrastructural issues that greatly contribute to the spread of poverty are adequately addressed.

4.1.2. Reduced Access to Social Infrastructure

The current issues have been made worse by ineffective lobbying and ineffective programs that support planned urban expansion and development. Due to increased resource rivalry among a growing population, urbanization -in its fast, unplanned, and unregulated form- which is seen in Ibadan, Southwest Asia, has regrettably led to a surge in poverty in these places (Idowu, 2013). Research has demonstrated that the problems associated with urbanization extend beyond housing and the pain it causes. Instead, they extended to other facets of the community. Here are a some of the issues and how they affect Ibadan. Urbanization and Housing Ibadan's housing need peaked in 2014 with about 17 million units lacking (Afolayan, 2008). This study's primary goal is to demonstrate the strong correlation between Ibadan's urbanization and poor housing conditions. Ibadan. According to the report, low-income households reside in housing units that are underdeveloped in terms of quality and the availability of essential infrastructure features like accessibility.

The findings demonstrate that a lack of available housing and a high demand for

housing drive up rent and prevent low-income people from affording homes. The migration of people from various regions of the state and country to the metropolitan center of Ibadan has resulted in a rise in population, which is driving up demand for housing beyond supply. As a result, a large number of households compete with one another for the few available homes on the market. There is a shortage of housing since most people cannot afford to build their own homes due to low earnings and high building material costs.

The findings showed that the majority of respondents disposed of their garbage in dustbins; some additionally burned their rubbish, while others incinerated it. This suggests that most people who use dustbins are probably going to dump their garbage within the drainage system because there isn't a good waste management system in place, which eventually causes flooding and contamination of the environment. This corroborates the claim made by Nwaka (2005) that "only thirty percent of waste in Nigeria is disposed of satisfactorily; the remainder is dumped by the roadside or into nearby drainage channels, rivers, and streams."

The results align with earlier investigations by Mpofu (2013). However, the results are at odds with other research findings by (Yukl, 1989; Wayne et al., 1993). In Ibadan, they discovered a strong correlation between urbanization and subpar housing conditions. The study's findings, however, refute the claim that Ibadan's urbanization is significantly impacted by subpar housing conditions.

According to, the inadequacy of traditional house development procedures and the absence of investment in the housing market aggravate this shortcoming. Sanusi (2003) contends that the housing system's expansion has been hindered and its development pace slowed by high loan rates and bureaucracy. Due to these shortages, the housing system has become dilapidated, as reported by Adewale (2005), who noted that the housing standards are extremely low because of things like overcrowding, subpar building materials, and inadequate infrastructure, such as roads, drainage systems, and other supporting facilities. According to Oluwatayo and Opoko (2014), over 75% of housing in metropolitan areas is subpar and situated in slums, which contributes to a number of issues including crime, unhygienic conditions, poverty, gentrification, and a lack of basic amenities.

The cost of housing has gone up in neighborhoods with greater security and more

basic infrastructure due to a shortage of appropriate housing. Due to the high expense of buying property and obtaining the necessary licenses for people to build on it, rent in estates and city centers would increase to outrageous levels. Because of this, there is a rise in the number of homeless people in Ibadan and other Nigerian cities. Many of them choose to live in shantytowns where subpar building materials are used for temporary structures, reside in abandoned buildings, or spend the night beneath bridges and other public areas. Another problem brought on by the increase in urbanization is the collapse of dwellings (NUDP, 2012).

In addition, there are now more shoddy buildings due to the difficulties in construction and the rising expenses of labor and materials. Building collapses have increased as a result of this. According to Ede (2013), "it is impossible to overstate the cost of these failures in terms of human lives and enormous economic waste, loss of investments, job, income, etc." These breakdowns are also brought on by the unforeseen strain that these structures endure from use. The expansion of public and private structures is often not meant for the stress that is placed on them, resulting in their untimely collapse, due to the absence of sufficient projections on the growth of major metropolitan centers.

4.1.3. Poverty and Urbanization

Hunger, substandard housing, a lack of access to healthcare, lack of education, and other factors are some of the ways that the World Bank characterizes poverty (Idowu, 2013). It is also perceived as being in a condition of despondency and lacking in necessities, unable to survive until the following day. Like the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) seeks to end poverty in order to improve living conditions for those residing in both urban and rural areas. According to World Bank statistics, poverty in rural areas decreased from 19% to 16%, but it climbed in urban areas from 9% to 12% (UN-Habitat, 2007; Idowu, 2013).

The number of people living in extreme poverty climbed from 10.1 million in 1985 to 13.9 million in 1992, while the number of people living in urban poverty increased nearly thrice, from 1.5 million to 4.3 million (UN-Habitat, 2007).

The process of urbanization has been impeded by the predominance of poverty. Primarily, labor mobility tends to strain the available facilities rather than aiding metropolitan (or growing) centers. This happens when laborers who are skilled or semi-skilled relocate from rural to urban areas, creating a surplus of supply over demand for a

particular talent. Therefore, instead of going back to the rural region, this excess of skilled or semi-skilled labor turns to other jobs. Thus, in addition to raising population density, raising the likelihood of security threats, overstretching infrastructure and social services, and growing population beyond state capacity, this deprives rural regions of these crucial skills.

4.1.4. Crimes and Insecurity Urbanization

As argued earlier, results in a rapid increase in the population density of a given area which creates security challenges. Jiboye, (2011) argues that the rate of crime in Nigerian cities can be associated with the exploded growth in these places with juvenile delinquent youth and adults, poverty, and unemployment (Jiboye, 2010; Jiboye, 2011). NUDP (2012) in a report linked the increase in crime rate to the rising youth unemployment, gradual decline of traditional social values, breakdown of family cohesiveness and community spirit. These ensuing security challenges reduce the willingness for investment in these urban centres. The presence of an unsafe and high crime rate environment reduces the eagerness of investors to pour resources into the society. Another pressing security treats are the rise and spread of Boko haram, which is a terrorist organisation in North-East Nigeria and the operations of the Niger-Delta militants over the past decade has seen a loss in investments across Nigeria.

4.1.5. Food Insecurity and Urbanization

The expansion of the agriculture sector has been negatively impacted by the oil boom of the late 1970s. Compared to agriculture, where it takes longer to till the land, plant, grow, harvest, and then sell, "oil money" is considerably simpler to make since crude oil is pumped out and sold. The majority of skilled individuals in rural regions are agricultural producers who rely on this industry for their family's subsistence (NUDP, 2012). As a result, a large number of rural farmers give up their livelihoods and go to cities in search of work in the manufacturing, processing, and unorganized sectors.

Due to this, agricultural activity has drastically decreased, which has forced food imports such as rice, tomatoes, and wheat. Because of this reliance on imports, staple foods are inevitably vulnerable to fluctuations in worldwide prices that are consistently higher than the average earning capacity of Nigerians. Joblessness Nigeria has a high unemployment rate due to factors including population increase, job production declines, and a large migration of both qualified and unskilled workers into metropolitan areas.

Due to the unequal distribution of population migration throughout the nation, particularly the rural-to-urban migration, the unemployment rate in important destination cities is greatly impacted by rural-to-urban migration (Aworemi et al., 2011). According to estimates, the unemployment rate rose from 5.5% to 6.5% in urban areas between 1998 and 1999, whereas it went from 3.9% to 4.7% nationally over the same time period (USAID, 2002).

The migration of individuals in search of work from neighboring African countries was another contributing element to this (NUDP, 2012). The over-reliance of the populace on the social services that are readily available while the economy is only growing slowly is one of the issues that urbanization brings with it due to unemployment. The mismatch prevents both urban and rural regions from growing healthily, which either results in a decline in living standards or the emergence of slums. City of Ibadan. There are further subcategories of these variables, including global warming, traffic congestion, slum growth, and pollution (land, water, visual, and noise) (Idowu, 2013). Environmental concerns also contribute to a large number of health-related ailments. The environment shapes people's actions, reactions, and behavior; for this reason, prostitution, drug abuse, criminality, and violence are common among urban slum dwellers (Daramola and Ibem, 2010). Poor waste management is another issue that contributes to the rapid spread of illnesses including malaria, diarrhea, and typhoid. The majority of metropolitan areas are notorious for having heavy traffic jams and severely polluting atmospheres due to exhaust emissions (Idowu, 2013). Greenhouse gas emissions from cities are significant (GHG). Because of this, cities are experiencing the negative consequences of climate change more and more. These effects might be avoided by giving greater consideration to the planning, construction, and maintenance of structures in urban areas (NUDP, 2012).

Lastly, while urbanization is not inevitable, it does have a positive impact on Nigerian cities' economic growth, which makes them important hubs for political activity. Nigeria's fast and unplanned urbanization has significant effects on the country's economy as well as on the country's ability to grow peacefully in the areas of politics, society, and the environment, in addition to the people who live in cities and towns. Therefore, fostering urban development is essential to attaining national economic growth, environmental sustainability, and sociopolitical stability. Furthermore, cities are part of the national human settlements system, thus it is important to reevaluate the connections

between the rise of Ibadan's urban areas and the advancement of rural communities (NUDP, 2012; Idowu, 2013).

4.1.6. Water Supply System Situation in Ibadan

For home, industrial, institutional, and commercial use, having a clean, safe, and consistent source of water is now considered essential to Ibadan's growth. The Oyo State administration need to make achieving this objective a top priority. Ibadan's appalling water supply status is indicative of problems in other areas of the Nigerian economy. The depressing tale of the Ibadan water delivery system reflects the fate of all Nigerian metropolitan water supply systems, regardless of size.

The Ogunpa-Kudeti and Ogbere river systems, which drain east of the toll gate into Lagos and create an autonomous river system that empties into the lagoon, are just a few of the many streams and rivers that abound in the Ibadan metropolitan region. The Osun River is the second biggest river in Western Nigeria, located around 20 kilometers east of Ibadan. During the colonial era, Ibadan was one of the towns and cities chosen to receive a contemporary water supply system. Ibadan was privileged to have this because of its position. It was connected to neighboring towns and cities via a significant transportation corridor. A few colonial officials also had their base at Ibadan, where the 1942 completion of the Eleyele reservoir on the River Ona marked the end of work.

With a catchment area of 323.8 km², an impoundment area of 156.2 hectares, and a stronger capacity of 29.5 million liters of water, the reservoir is rather large. Akintola (2015) states that the water is completely treated and piped at a daily volume of around 13.6 million liters. Up to the Asejire Water Supply Scheme's commissioning in 1972, Ibadan was supplied by the water scheme.

The need for the new plan arose from Ibadan's population growth, which increased dramatically between 1940 and 1970. For instance, the 15 February 1952 census found that Ibadan had a population of around 496,196. In 1963 and 1972, this climbed to 627,379 and 783,511, respectively. Thus, according to the 1963 census, the daily water supply per head in 1952 was 29.6 liters. Given that the population of Ibadan was recently believed to be over two million, the daily supply per head from the Asejire and Eleyele waterworks is less than fifteen liters. The N25 million Asejire Scheme was built on the River Osun as a result of the Eleyele Waterworks' diminishing ability to supply the city's growing demand. Currently, the combined daily storage capacity of the Asejire and

Eleyele reservoirs is around 109 million liters. In 1980, a survey revealed that while pipes were directly linked to residences in contemporary districts like Bodija, Jericho, Agodi reservoirs, University of Ibadan, etc., 32% of respondents reported having dry taps at that time, compared to 54% in medium-density housing areas like Oremeji and Oke-Ado. The situation has gotten worse by the year 2000. Just 20% of Ibadan residents have permanent access to pipe-borne municipal water, with the majority (80%) relying on large water from nearby wells (60%) and boreholes (20%). Some were dependent on purchasing water from vendors (Akintola 2015). The new communities outside of the city, with the exception of the structures around Old Ife Road and the Ibadan-Ife Expressway, now rely on boreholes and groundwater from deep wells along the main pipeline from Asejire Dam. In Boluwaji and New Felele Estate, where new residential zones are popping up, people never think of pipe-borne water.

The study findings showed that the average daily production and average per capita output of the water supply were absurdly low. The main water network in Ibadan, for instance, was designed to hold 120 million liters of water each day. However, it was only producing 36 million liters per day at the time of the study.

Although six pumps were supposed to be included in the system, only three had been installed, one of which had malfunctioned. An investigation found that the one that had broken down could not be repaired, and that the remaining three pumps could not be installed owing to budgetary restrictions. Furthermore, a program designed for 500,000 people is already serving more than 3 million. Since then, things have become worse (Faniran, 1982). Water flows for one or two hours a week in many sections of Ibadan, but not at all in others for months at a time. The majority of Nigerian communities have the same issue: having a consistent supply of water is considered a luxury (Faniran, 1982).

CONCLUSION

The chapter has made an effort to look at Ibadan, Nigeria's urbanization and issues related to it. Without a question, Ibadan has been successful in drawing a variety of

demographics since its founding, which has helped to maintain its standing as a major city. The friendly disposition of the locals kept the flood of people in the city going. The growth of the markets in Ibadan as well as the building of the roads and railroads that connected it to other regions of Nigeria made the influx of people easier. Additionally, the location of the administrative centers of the former colonial Oyo Province, Western Region, and the current Oyo State in Ibadan has added to the population's diversity as individuals from other regions have moved there.

However, the city's enormous population brought about a number of issues, from a severe water scarcity to the unhygienic state of most of the city. The densely populated central area of the city continued to provide a challenge for municipal planners and medical professionals. As a result, one of the city's main issues was that the local authority was unable to address the sanitary and hygienic issues that came with living in such close quarters. The division of the Ibadan Municipal Government into many autonomous local councils has significantly lessened this issue. This has made municipal services more accessible to the general public, notwithstanding the ongoing issue of water scarcity. An inadequate supply of power is an additional issue.

Despite being a national issue, this has the primary impact of impeding industrial growth in different regions and undermining the efforts of several small firms. The lack of integration between the city's indigenous people and its immigrant population is a social ill. As a result, the city's population integration efforts have been ineffective.

As a result, however, Ibadan's population did not increase quickly. In essence, during the time of colonial authority, its population increased gradually, reaching 39,000 by 1952. In contrast to the latter phase of its history, when its population rose fast, particularly with the creation of businesses in the city starting in 1957, this has brought about rapid urbanization and gradual growth. This will be the chapter's primary topic in part.

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