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# ENVIRONMENTAL PLANNING AND HEALTH IN NIGERIA



*Essays in Honour of*

**PROF. TIMOTHY  
OLAYIWOLA EGUNJOBI**

**Edited By:-**

Tunde Agbola, Olatubara C.O.  
Bolanle Wahab, Lekan Sanni, Ipingbemi O.

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## Chapter Twelve

# Some Aspects Of Physical Planning And Development In Nigeria

Bolanle Wahab

### 1.0 Introduction

**P**lanning generally involves thinking ahead and making advance arrangements to achieve particular objectives. Planning can be applied to virtually all human activities, right from the level of individual, the family or the neighbourhood to that of the town, district or the society (Egunjobi 1985:93-4).

We plan to solve problems, to allocate limited resources to unlimited needs, to deal with changes, to guide settlement growth in an orderly or desired pattern, and to prepare for the future. Nearly all developments of land in certain respects are planned even if not set out formally on drawing board with the aid of set-square and T-square or, lately, with the aid of computer. As Keeble (1969:1) observes, the gradual development of a medieval town or of a village may often truly be said to be unplanned but the rate of growth of these places has normally been so slow that each individual building can be erected as needed with full consideration of its relationship with other developments.

In this kind of situation, unplanned growth may result in satisfactory condition. Planning takes place every where, every time and is done by everybody. One almost certainly needs to plan for a house, either to rent or purchase or build; a farmer needs to plan what to cultivate, what quantity, on what

size of land and when; a fun-seeker needs to plan for which holiday resort to visit, where, when and for what length of time; while a nation certainly needs to plan for possible aggression, stronger economy and welfare of her citizens.

Planning in the formal way takes quite a number of various forms and dimensions, such as economic planning, social planning, physical planning, educational planning, strategic planning, corporate planning, health planning and so on (Egunjobi 1985:94).

Our focus in this paper is to highlight some aspects of physical planning and development in Nigeria. As such, our discussion will be limited to physical planning, economic planning, and perspective planning. Each will be discussed in relation to development. The discussions will be woven round some of Egunjobi's works that bear relevance to the theme of this chapter.

## **2. Conceptual Issues**

### **2.1 Physical Planning**

Planning is a word of many meanings. To some, it means blueprint for the future; to others, it means government responsibility to take whatever action is necessary to ensure that the economic system operates efficiently. One common meaning of planning is that planning is concerned with deliberately achieving some objectives (which may be individual or corporate), and it proceeds by evolving strategies and actions arranged in a prioritized order or sequence.

Planning deals with the totality of human environment and the activities that take place there-in, including economic-, social-, cultural-, recreational and even political activities. The term "planning" does not have a restricted definition as many scholars have defined it from several perspectives, for example, Friedman (1964) Keeble (1969, 1983), Roberts (1974), Bruton (1974), Ratcliffe (1974), Beekie (1975), Hall (1976).



Apart from the problems of definition, many scholars are wont to qualify the term with words that have spatial connotation: 'Town and Country Planning'; 'Environmental Planning', 'Land Planning', 'Land Use Planning', 'Spatial Planning', 'Urban Planning', and 'Urban and Regional Planning'. For the purpose of our discussion, "physical planning" will be used.

As Egunjobi (1985:94) observes, the term "Town and Country Planning" is the traditional reference term for physical planning, especially in Britain and her former colonies. This term is also used inter-changeably with 'Urban and Regional Planning' in Britain and is almost exclusively used to mean physical planning in the U.S.A. In Nigeria, many state and local level planning agencies use "Town Planning" (Town Planning Department or Division), while at the Federal level, "Urban and Regional Planning" is used. There is no uniformity in the term used by planning schools either. Until the last 4 years or thereabout when the regulating/accrediting bodies of planning programmes in Polytechnics and Universities (National Board for Technical Education, (NBTE) and Town Planners Registration Council (TOPREC) compelled the schools to use "Urban and Regional Planning" to describe their programme/ department, the planning schools used either "Town Planning" or "Town and Regional Planning".

Formal planning began in most countries in the 19th century, with rules for building development directed mainly to achieving adequate sanitary and safety conditions. Much of its impetus stemmed from the realization that diseases, fire, flood, quakes and other disasters could be reduced or prevented by improving city design (Wahab 1987:5). Italy was the first country to include "Town Planning" in legislation (the Act of 1865), ten years before either Germany or Sweden. The first British Planning Act was in 1909 while Nigeria had her first one in 1863 - the Town Improvement Ordinance meant to control development and urban sanitation in Lagos. This was

followed by Township Ordinance No. 29 of 1917, Lagos Town Planning Ordinance of 1928; Nigerian Town and Country Planning Ordinance of 1946, Land Development (Roads) Law of 1948, Building Lines Regulations of 1948, and finally the Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Decree No. 88 of 1992 (the first truly 'indigenous' planning law for the country).

Physical planning is a many-sided study which demands contributions from many areas of specialization, such as civil/municipal engineering, architecture, anthropology, history, ecology, social sciences, medicine/public health, estate management, and even law, but which is firmly established as a discipline in its own right. Benevole (1967) sees town planning decisions as being political in nature. Ashworth (1954) sees the planning of human settlement as philosophy in its active application and that matters that town planning treat are social in character.

One of the most popular definitions of what physical planning is all about is that given by Lewis Keeble when he wrote of the subject as:

the art and science of ordering the use of land and the character and siting of buildings and communication routes so as to secure maximum practicable degree of economy, convenience and beauty (Keeble 1969:1).

Physical planning is defined by Bruton as:

A physical design of something which already exists or might exist in the future and this sort of plan is a representation in a geographical or spatial sense, of actual physical structures or elements (Bruton, 1974:7).

Physical planning is a conscious but comprehensive approach to the orderly and healthy use and management of the natural environment of human settlements. It does this by systematically anticipating and achieving adjustment in the

physical environment of part of or a whole settlement, given the constraint of social, economic, political and human resources.

Another way of describing Physical Planning is to see it as the general disposition of land areas for various uses (including residential, commercial, industrial, religious, educational, health and transportation), the general location of buildings and open spaces, and the provision of services and channels of movement (vehicular and pedestrian) to offer the required linkages among the activity areas so created.

### 3. The Purpose of Physical Planning

The main purpose of physical planning is to create an improved, protected and sustainable human environment, by which is meant both its appearance and the need to ensure that the living and working condition in settlements are healthy (Wahab 1987:6). Wahab goes further to identify some other purposes or reasons for physical planning:

- (i) to preserve some older buildings for their invaluable role in the economic life of a city (see Jacob 1961) open space and historical development;
- (ii) to conserve some economic, medicinal and ecologically sensitive trees;
- (iii) to save the country side from great deal of thoughtless urban sprawl, the menace of the violent and discordant element of our urban environment (that is, the vehicular and motor-cycle traffic), and the despoliation of rural hinterlands;
- (iv) to prevent unsightly advertisement and ribbons of houses, shops and kiosks (that are usually built on or very close to main roads in major Nigerian towns and cities) which often obscure good vistas, urban aesthetics and, most of the time, create hazards for traffic.

- (v) to create order in the functional relationship of land and traffic ways such that the use of urban spaces and the traffic ways are properly co-ordinated to prevent chaos;
- (vi) to ensure orderly and economic organisation of human activities to achieve maximum efficiency in the supply, use and distribution of scarce resources while reducing waste and increasing wealth. This is an economic purpose of physical planning, and
- (vii) to make people's lives happier by creating a physical environment which is conducive to health, which allows convenient and safe passage from one part to the other while promoting social intercourse. This is a social purpose of physical planning.

Physical planning, as Egunjobi (1985:95) observes, is concerned with distribution and arrangement in orderly, balanced and consistent forms, or different competing land-use types and structures in space to achieve economy, convenience, beauty, good health and security.

Physical planning is the art and science of spatial organisation. It is primarily concerned with the allocation, use, development, control and management of land, including all activities that take place there-on for the overall benefit of the community. The task of physical planning, according to Crook, is "the prevention, the control and the promotion of changes which have, which are and which might occur within the physical environment" (Crook, 1974:85).

The Nigerian Institute of Town Planning (NITP) defines the purpose of town planning as being concerned with the spatial ordering of land use both in the urban and rural settings for the purpose of creating functionally efficient and aesthetically pleasing physical environment for living, working, circulation and recreation (NITP, 1997 quoted in Soile, 1998:128).

One of the main tasks of physical planning is to generate development. The regulation of the use of land and communication is a conscious and deliberate attempt to promote development. In order that even developments may take place in all parts of the country, physical planning is undertaken, for instance in Nigeria, at three levels:

- (a) Federal;
- (b) State, and
- (c) Local.

The Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law of 1992 explicitly provides for physical planning activities that may go on at each of the three levels such that there will be no conflict in functions. Part I section 2(a)-(j) gives 10 planning responsibilities to the Federal Government, including formulation of national policies, preparation and implementation of 5 types of development plans, formulation of planning standards for the country, and development control over federal lands (FRN 1992: A1018). The Federal Government has responsibility for the preparation of National Physical Development Plan, Regional Plan, Sub-regional Plan, Urban Plan, and Subject Plan (FRN 1992:A1017).

Part I Section 3(1) and (2) stipulates 6 planning responsibilities of State Government, which include formulation of a state policy for urban and regional planning within the framework of national policies, preparation and implementation of 5 types of development plans, and development control on state lands (FRN 1992: A1018-1019). The State Government is expected to prepare Regional Plan, Sub-regional Plan, Urban Plan, Local Plan, and Subject Plan within the state.

Part 1, section 4 of the Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law (1992) gives 2 main planning responsibilities to Local Government, which are mainly the preparation and

implementation of 4 types of development plan (town, rural area, local, and subject plans), and the control of development within its area of jurisdiction other than over federal or state lands (FRN 1992: A1019).

Across the three levels of government in Nigeria, two planning responsibilities are common, the first is the preparation and implementation of development plans, while the second is the control of development. These two responsibilities centre on development - inducing and controlling development. One can, therefore, not agree less with those who describe physical planning as being all about development.

While carrying out the planning responsibilities specified in the Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law (1992), the planner's duty is all embracing: to see to the economic, social and political activities and physical land use - in short, the totality of the human environment. For instance, when one plans for a housing scheme he/she must also plan for where residents will work (industries); where they will buy essentials (commercials); where they will relax after the day's work (recreation); the school their children will attend (education); how they will move from place to place (transportation network); and where they will find solace when ill (health) and so on. Thus, the physical planner needs to comprehend all the factors that make up the backlog of life and provide for them appropriately (Wahab, 1987:21).

However, as important as the physical planner's role is to the survival of humans in the living environment, he enjoys no public respect, recognition or esteem especially in Nigeria. The mass media (both print and electronic) is daily awash with one blame and condemnation and another on the planners for most ills or hazards that befall cities, towns and even rural hinterland: collapsed buildings, blown-up roofs, high-rise flats and neighbourhoods, ghettos, empty office blocks, traffic congestion, desolate streets, hawkers' invasion of roads, road

accidents, abandoned public convenience, and so on. The planner's labour is never appreciated; the public hostility is displayed most in the process of development control.

#### **4. Relationship of Physical Planning to other Types of Planning**

Physical planning is a distinct type of planning concerned with spatial organisation. However, it is related to other types of planning, such as economic planning, social planning, health planning, and perspective planning, among others, in the sense that they all can be translated into physical and spatial terms. In the following paragraphs, the relationship of physical planning to some of the other types of planning are discussed.

##### **4.1 Physical Planning and Economic Planning**

In one of his works, Franklin (1982) identifies three contributions expected of (physical) planning within a territory. Two of these are relevant to the discussion in this chapter. They are:

- (i) to provide a planned spatial framework of development for the physical environment within which a balanced programme of social and economic development can be carried out, and
- (ii) to provide a legislation necessary for the planning, control and implementation of the physical development process (Franklin, 1982:18).

From the foregoing, the concept of development comes out clearly as one of the issues of concern of physical planning. Maximum utilization of the economic and social resources of human environment in a way that will benefit all humans in any given territorial space or community without discrimination as to status, sex, location, and physical

attributes. This is, perhaps, what Palmer (1981) means when he describes physical planning as "the redistribution of the resources and benefits of an unequal society" (Palmer 1981, quoted in Kadiri 1998:40).

In the economic sense, development, as observed by Kadiri (1998:42) "is often associated with growth which is related to some national accounting aggregate, usually the Gross National Product (GNP)" Economic planners, therefore, help to formulate the national economic plans.

The economic results of good planning conduce to increased happiness, though indirectly. A proper spatial relationship between the communities in a region and the constituent parts of a town, and an efficient arrangement of communication routes all result in human activities being carried on more efficiently and less wastefully, and thus increase wealth (Wahab 1987:7). Hence, the physical planner contributes to the national economic development by helping to "solve problem of hunger, poverty, unemployment and inequality" (Keung, 1982, quoted in Kadiri 1998: 42) and also by "creating opportunities for individuals to have all the basic needs" (Kadiri 1998:43).

There is a close relationship between economic development planning and physical planning. "While the former concerns itself with investment issues that could lead to a higher level of development, the latter addresses itself to aspect of the spatial organisation of developmental projects" (Egunjobi and Wahab 1990:363). However, in spite of this obvious relationship, the two forms of planning have been operating independent of each other in Nigeria. The consequence is that while various economic development plans produced and operated by the country since 1946 have recorded high rate of economic growth and development, "the national spatial structure exhibits such characteristics as disorderliness, lopsidedness and low environmental quality" (Egunjobi and Wahab 1990:363).



The situation in Nigeria in the last six decades is such that while "Economic planners have been promoting economic growth with little or no appreciation of its spatial implication" (Barlour, 1972), town planning activities have, in most cases, been limited to development control within the boundaries of only a few settlements (Adeniji, 1975). In this way, both economic planning and physical planning, as now practiced in the country, are impotent in dealing with the country's planning problems (Egunjobi 1993a:63).

It, therefore, means that "there is need for more socio-economic intervention than physical ones" (Kadiri 1998:43), for the country to achieve meaningful economic and physical development. There is also the need for better communication and coordination between economic planners and physical planners. However, before the required integrative framework is presented, it is necessary to briefly highlight the past economic development plans in the country and their physical planning provisions.

The first attempt to have a development plan for Nigeria was the Ten-year (1946-56) Plan of Development and Welfare for Nigeria approved on 7th February, 1946 by the then Legislative Council. The Plan, which was meant to be executed under the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund, took effect from 1st April, 1946 (Egunjobi and Wahab 1990:364). The plan was a package of schemes aimed at providing roads, water, hospital, schools, electricity and related social services seen as prerequisite for any policy of wide economic development (Egunjobi 1993a:64).

The Ten-year Plan was revised due to rising cost which rendered some estimates unrealistic coupled with the lack of support for the original plan in 1954 when Nigeria adopted a federal system of government. This resulted in five development programmes, one for each region (Egunjobi, 1993a:64). As Olomojeye (1999) observes, the 1955-62 plan was fashioned within the framework of the Federal Constitution

and exhibited much of the previous ten-year plan in that it featured mainly sectoral allocations, with agriculture, transport and communication leading. Its direct contribution to town and regional planning is nothing to write home about (Olomojeje, 1999:81).

The first indigenously-inspired National Development Plan was formulated in 1961 to cover the period 1962 to 1968. The six-year plan was aimed at achieving a growth rate of 4% and to develop opportunities in education, health and employment with a planned public investment of 2,366 million naira (Egunjobi 1993a:64). However, the plan paid no attention to the problem of urbanization in different parts of the country and its effects on rural areas, despite the fact that the 1952 and 1963 census clearly indicated the high rate of urbanization (Egunjobi 1993a:65). The military coup d'etat of 1966, which culminated in a civil war that lasted till 1970, truncated the plan.

The Second National Development Plan 1970-1974 was launched in September, 1970 by the then Federal Military Government to cover the then twelve states of the federation created after the civil war to replace the former four regions. The plan aimed to achieve a growth rate in the GDP of 6.6% per annum, with a total capital investment of 2,050 million naira. As with previous development plans, the 1970-74 plan contained no definite population and urbanization policies, except the establishment of a National Population Council to coordinate all external aid supports for family planning activities in the country (Egunjobi 1993a:65). An important premise of the plan is that "the location of public sector projects shall be guided solely by economic considerations" (Federation of Nigeria, 1970:218).

The Third National Development Plan (1975-80) envisaged a capital programme of 30 billion naira and a growth rate of 9%. Unlike previous development plans, this aimed at improving those areas which had direct bearing on

the quality of life of the people which included housing and country planning, and community development (Egunjobi 1993a:364). The plan recognized the fact that Nigeria had paid little attention to physical planning and was, therefore, to embark on the development of new areas of settlement, urban renewal schemes, reconstruction of township roads and drains (Federation of Nigeria, 1981:313). "The weakness in the policy, however, was the lack of awareness of the inter-relatedness of these items with one another and with general economic development targets" (Egunjobi 1993a:65).

In addition, the objectives were not followed, as developments during the period was totally urban, biased. The policy of even geographical distribution of the benefits of urban-based industrialization was not attempted. In the plan period, however, housing received an allocation of N2.6 billion (5.2%) of the planned total expenditure in all sectors (Egunjobi and Wahab 1990:364).

The Fourth National Development Plan (1981-85) was the first to be drawn up by a civilian government. The plan had a projected capital expenditure of about N82b to achieve a growth rate of 7.2%. it aimed at fostering economic and social development in Nigeria of all the development plans made so far, this plan gave the greatest attention to physical planning by allocating N0.9b (6.98%) to Town an Country Planning by all the governments (Egunjobi and Wahab 1990:364). Housing, Water, resources, population, environ-mental planning and protection, and integral urban and rural development programme also featured. The plan noted the rôle of physical planning as a tool for achieving National Development objectives.

Three-year Rolling Plans succeeded the Fourth National Development Plan. "Their implementation environment (was) plagued with negative forces- a huge debt burden, declining petroleum proceeds... ad less funds accruing to the Federal Government - (made) it unable to provide financial impetus to

foster social services and town planning programmes" (Olomojeye, 1999:84).

#### 4.2 Consequences of Non-Integration of Economic Development Plans With Physical Plans

The review of past development plans in Nigeria, as contained in the preceding sections, shows that the various governments (colonial, civilian and military) pursued high economic growth rates and actually achieved them. This was, however, at the expense of adequate attention to even distribution of resources and services to all settlement (urban and rural) in the country. According to Egunjobi and Wahab (1990:365), there are gross disparities among the various spatial components of the country as well as socio-economic groups which need to be redressed in order to put the word "development" within a more meaningful perspective. They identify such disparity as:

- (i) Disproportionate concentration of industrial activities in a few city regions-with such major city regions as Lagos, Port Harcourt and Kano still maintaining their pre-eminence in industrial and commercial activities despite the emergence of 33 other state capitals. Egunjobi (1993a:66) observes that on the basis of the past economic planning strategies, Lagos metropolitan area has a disproportionate concentration of industrial activities, while the remaining are located around Ibadan, Abeokuta, Kano, Kadua, Zaria and Jos. These places experience a high population of rural-urban immigrants with the attendant problems of overuse of amenities, inability of the cities to meet the employment, housing, health, education, recreation and transportation needs of the migrants. This is overcrowding, traffic congestion and slum formation. Waster mana-gement, electricity and

water supply, orderly physical development, and so on become Herculean tasks. "No thought is given to how the geographical space could be organized to bring about a reasonable balance between growth and the distribution of growth" (Egunjobi, 1993a:68).

- (ii) At the rural end, the story is more pathetic. As a result of migration to urban areas, there is great depletion in the population of able-bodied humans in the primary production sector, vacant houses, impassable earth roads as a result of infrequent maintenance, isolation, low productivity and lack of infrastructural facilities and services.
- (iii) Adverse environmental impact of industrial activities where these activities are located, especially in the oil producing area of the Niger Delta. Incessant oil spillage has created very severe health, unemployment, and environmental/ecological hazards in those areas. The response from the communities in the Niger-Delta area in recent times, is in the form of armed insurgency, kidnapping of expatriate oil workers, blowing-up of flow stations and pipe-lines. These actions have affected crude-oil production in the country, especially between January and April 2006, with its spill-over effect on rising price of crude oil in the world market.

From the foregoing discussion about the position of physical planning in Nigeria, Egunjobi (1993a:70) gave the following conclusions:

- (a) Physical planning has for a long time been limited to development control, slum clearance and the provision of high-income housing.
- (b) Planning activities were confined to city boundaries. "Rural area were hardly included in any planning scheme and overall urban transport, public utility and social services were hardly ever considered as falling within the purview of town planning authorities" (Mabogunje, 1973).
- (c) The relation between economic planning and physical planning was not made explicit. The latter was treated in the former as a sub-sector, as reflected in the meager allocations to it. Moreover, there is general absence of planning organizational framework to embrace the two.

#### 4. Integrating Economic Planning and Physical Planning

Egunjobi and Wahab (1990) observe that the close relationship between economic development planning and physical planning has not been accorded the necessary recognition in Nigeria. Earlier in this chapter the economic benefits of good physical planning were stated. While economic development planning concerns itself with making broad investment decisions according to available resources that may lead to increase in the Gross Domestic Product and Gross National Savings, Physical Planning engages in the translation of these into spatial terms. In other words, physical planning is concerned with rationalization of the activities and structures in space in such a way as to maximize the distribution of benefits of economic growth, as well as minimize its adverse effects on the environment and the health of the people (Egunjobi and Wahab 1990:367).

Economic development planning and physical planning are different sides of the same coin and there is, therefore, need for both types of planning to be integrated and made to operate within the same framework. A planning organisation which embraces both physical planning and economic planning on equal basis is a way of ameliorating existing planning problems. Such integration does not exist at present between town and country planning and economic planning. While economic planning is highly centralized, town planning operates at the local level. Egunjobi (1993a:71) proposes the use of *Regional planning* as an integrative mechanism. Regional planning, according to him, is an instrument for socio-economic policy. Its objectives are: First, "a rational spatial pattern of production, rational in the sense that it conforms with the general economic and social goals of a country; second, the development of every region in a country in accordance with its natural, economic and social conditions; and third, the securing of a harmonious territorial balance between sectoral activities and development of every region within the framework of a unified national economic complex" (Alayev, 1974:155-156). Egunjobi (1993b:94) goes further to propose Regional Planning approach as an effective tool towards an accelerated and sustained development of rural areas of Nigeria, thereby bringing positive changes in the once neglected rural environment.

Meanwhile, Egunjobi and Wahab (1990) present perspective planning as the integrative mechanism to bring economic planning and physical planning together to enhance the needed improvement in the quality of life of the nation's inhabitants. They opine that perspective planning is a new approach to economic development planning and should be captured to give physical planning its rightful position.

A perspective plan is a series of objectives and methods in respect of a distant future expressed in the forms of general guidelines and approved by competent authorities (United

Nations, 1971). At the level of national economy, it has been defined as concerted measures by the government directed towards the achievement of a stable and balanced socio-economic development of the country (Hannan, 1989:194). The need for perspective planning arose out of the realization of the fact that a five-year period is too short for consideration of problems such as development of natural resources, education and comprehensive health programme (Egunjobi and Wahab 1990:366).

Nigeria's first perspective plan is intended to tackle the technical and financial problems facing the long-term development of the Nigerian economy. At the same time, its broad framework accommodates short period rolling plans as well as the annual budgets of the federal and state governments in the major capital development areas. (Anyanwu, 1989:55).

The duration of a perspective plan could be one to two decades; it could even cover a period of thirty years. Perspective plans help in providing continuity in operations between fiscal years or in the event that there is a change in administration. The plans are necessary for the determination of the main directions of economic development for the solution of crucial problems in the way of progress, for the complex development of separate regions, for the improvement in the quality of living of the people, and even expansion of basic industries (Egunjobi and Wahab 1990:367).

Perspective plans are futuristic and so, by nature, are amenable to harmony with physical planning. Both aspects of planning for development have considerable time frame. While the past economic plans were mostly formulated within five-year periods, perspective plans span over a period of one to three decades. This, according to Egunjobi and Wahab (1990), fits perfectly well within the **frame of local plans** at the local/rural level, or physical planning which, in the form of Master (Development Plans at the urban level, or Regional



plans at a broader geographical/administrative level or National Physical Plans, looks at what the future spatial structures will be in the next twenty-five to thirty years. The two types of planning, therefore, have identical time span and, in addition, also have in-built mechanism for modifications, adjustment or revisions to accommodate unexpected emerging new situations. While perspective plans give broad indications or guidelines about future development, physical plans are necessarily general guideline regarding future land uses.

The conclusion of Egunjobi and Wahab (1990) is that attention to physical aspects of national development will assist in rationalizing the national spatial structure, narrow the gap between the rural and urban sectors, minimize regional disparities in the level of development and mitigate the adverse environmental impacts of industrial and other development-related activities.

## **5. The Role of Cities in National Development**

Urban centres are the loci of power and prestige-economic, political and social. They are where the action is, in terms of innovation and control. Tremendous quantities of capital have been invested in them and their development and redevelopment represent an ongoing process (Agbola, 205:3).

Cities in Nigeria, as in other nations of the world, play critical roles in the development of the nation. According to Egunjobi, (1998:25) "indeed cities are a driving force behind national and international development. While attesting to the positive roles cities play in national development, Wahab (1998:14) observes that "cities are engines of economic growth. In Nigeria, cities such as Lagos, Kaduna, Enugu, Port-Harcourt and Ibadan generate abundant revenues for urban government while providing the required earnings/income for individuals to meet their welfare requirements".

While one is tempted to be carried away by these positive developmental roles of cities, there is the counter notion from the anti-urban or anti-city school of thought, which continuously emphasizes the negative roles of cities "as resulting from urban development activities" (Egunjobi, 1998:25). Most of these cities have become heavily plagued with such environmental problems as desertification, deterioration of urban physical quality, land degradation (Egunjobi, 1993:33), overcrowding, pollution of all types, rapid urbanization, poverty, street children, unemployment and lack of basic services (Wahab, 1998:14). The urban centers, rather than providing comfort and being centers of arts and civilization, have simply become urban jungles (Agbola, 205:10).

While there are proponents of the positivism of the roles of cities in development on the one hand, and negativism on the other, there are the "arbitrators", the liberals or "the neutral school that believes that urbanization is inherently neither good nor bad". (Egunjobi 1998:25).

Whether we see cities as a good phenomenon in the national development or a bad occurrence/product of human activities, cities are an inevitable product of human existence whose continuous growth no one can ever stop not even the most sophisticated 21st Century scientific or technological devices. Cities are the phenomenon that people of the modern world especially the developing countries in Africa must learn to live in and cope with.

### **5.1 Urbanization (City Growth) in Nigeria**

Urbanisation, a global phenomenon, is a process of spatial concentration of urban population that is hinged on some basic push and pull factors called urban transformation forces (Agbola 2005:4). Egunjobi (1998:26) observes that, in Africa, the urban population as a proportion of the continent's total

population in 1960 was only 18.3 percent. And that in 1990 the proportion was 33.9 percent which retained her as the least urbanized region of the world. He goes further to state that the real concern about urbanization in Africa is not its sheer size but the rapid rate at which it proceeds. He illustrates this position with a table containing the average population growth rates of Lagos, Abidjan, Dakar, Ibadan, Conakry, and Accra from 1950 to 1999. As Agbola (2005:2) observes, rapid urban growth in African countries reflects substantial migration to cities from rural areas and also natural population increase among city residents.

**Table 1: Annual Average Population Growth Rates in Urban Population (West Africa: 1950-2000)**

City/Country	Annual Average Growth Rates (%)		
	1950-1959	1970-1979	1990-1999
Lagos (Nigeria)	10.2	8.0	5.3
Abidjan(Cote d'Ivoire)	11.8	8.6	5.0
Dakar (Senegal)	5.1	5.1	4.4
Ibadan (Nigeria)	2.9	2.7	4.0
Conakry (Guinea)	11.2	8.3	5.7
Accra (Ghana)	4.7	1.9	3.1

*Source:* Egunjobi (1998:27) culled from UN (1990)

From the Table 1 above, Egunjobi observes an astronomical annual average growth rates in the population of the six cities between 1950 and 1959 ranging between 2.9 percent for Ibadan to 11.8 percent for Abidjan. However, he notes a decline in the rate of growth within the 1970-79 period and yet a further projected decline between 1990 and 1999. All said the growth rates which stood as 3.1 percent (Accra) and 5.7 percent (Conakry) were still among the highest in the world Egunjobi (1998:27).

Falade (2005:3) avers that the level of urbanization in West Africa in 2001 was 38 percent and by 2015 the level of urbanization should have risen to 42.5 percent. By 2015, seven countries would have attained an urbanization level of more than 50%: Mauritania (60.7%), Benin (53.5%), cote d'Ivoire (51%), Ghana (51.1%), Liberia (55.5%), Nigeria (55.5%) and Senegal (57.9%).

Although urbanization in West Africa preceded colonization, it was largely under colonial rule that the major cities and the urban systems that exist today were defined. The colonial policy in West Africa was targeted at promoting rural-urban migration because low population density in the urban environments was equated with scarcity of manpower and an absence of development (Agbola 205:4).

On the trend of urbanization in Nigeria, Egunjobi (1998:27) hints that, as at 1932, less than 7 percent of Nigerians lived in urban centres of a population of 20,000 people and above. The proportion rose to 10 percent in 1952 and 19.2 percent in 1963, which is more than triple what it was in 1932. He adds that the urban population as at 1998 was between 35 and 40 percent. He concludes that Nigerian cities were among the fastest growing in the world with growth rates of 12.5 percent for Lagos and between 7-10 percent for Ibadan, Kano and Enugu. These rates compare favourable with those of Seoul 7.8 percent, Amman 10.5 percent, Yaounde 8.7 percent, and Bagdad 7.5 percent. According to Abola (2005:2), an average of 33 people enters Lagos every minute and only a fraction leaves at the end of the day.

## 5.2 Positive Roles of Cities

Some of the positive roles of cities in development, which Egunjobi (1998:28-29) calls "the pretty face of urbanization", are, according to him:

- (i) Value added per worker in the urban area is around three times in the rural areas coupled with the fact that nearly 60 percent of the GNP (and 80 percent of the increment in national output) of developing countries is derived from urban areas;
- (ii) Lower mortality (mainly infantile) and natality;
- (iii) Bring about new behaviours, invent new social relations through the opportunities they offer for contracts, expression and creativity (especially in the area of enterprises and jobs) (Beauce 1990);
- (iv) Serve as centres of power, performing administrative, religious, educational, cultural and leisure functions, and
- (v) Stronger generators of revenues than villages; cities and towns are major contributors to national, provincial and local tax revenue.

### **The Negative Roles of Cities**

The negative role of cities in national development is what Egunjobi (1998) terms "the ugly face of urbanization". He highlights the following negative side of urbanization:

- Environmental degradation;
- Growth of slums and squatter settlements;
- Traffic congestion;
- Air and water pollution;
- Deteriorating infrastructure;
- Shortfall in service delivery;
- Unwholesome public health

- Social instability;
- Retarding growth of intermediate centres, and
- Impersonal relations, anonymity and social disorganization.

As stated in the previous paragraphs, urbanization is more of a modern 21st century phenomenon whose rate of growth is very difficult to halt. More big cities will develop and the already big ones will grow bigger. As this happens so will those problems associated with city growth increase in number and magnitude such that the "ugly face" of cities will overshadow "the pretty face". This will be calamitous.

In order to reduce the negative consequences of city growth to national development, inclusive physical planning approach has to be judiciously and consciously applied. Physical planning is a handy and effective tool that can be applied to control urbanization in a sustainable manner to achieve meaningful, efficient and healthy national development in Nigeria. Inclusive and participatory urban planning and management is capable of reinvigorating and revitalizing our existing and future cities. When this happens, the national economy will be healthier and human environment will be better managed and maintained. As Hague (2005) suggests, there can be no sustainable development without sustainable urbanization and these can be no sustainable urbanization without a renewal and effective form of planning – that form of planning has to be pro-poor (Hague 2005:4).

Both the Sustainable Development and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) constitute internationally accepted goals for the 21st century to which all nations, including and especially Nigeria, have subscribed to implement. Nigeria has been very active in the

experimentation of the sustainable cities programme of the UN (Habitat) since 1995 when the Sustainable Ibadan Project (SIP) took-off. Later, the Sustainable Enugu Project and Sustainable Kano Project were added. The Sustainable Ibadan Project has been adjudged as very successful, with a number of demonstration projects show-cased as lessons of experience in participatory urban environmental planning and management to address developmental problems of cities in a collaborative, participatory, holistic and sustainable manner (Wahab 1998). Some of the demonstration projects include: (a) Odo-Osun (formerly Odo-Akeu) natural spring development (at Oke-Ofa Baba-Sale in Ibadan North LGA), (b) Pace-setter Organic Fertilizer Plant at Bodija Market (Ibadan North LGA), (c) Agbada-gbudu Natural Spring Development (Ibadan North-LGA), Bore-hole and Toilets Improvement Projects at Bodija Market (Ibadan North LGA), Community-based Waste Sorting Centre at Ayeye-Agbeni area (Ibadan North-West LGA).

With respect to the MDGs, Nigeria has put in place an elaborate framework to ensure adoption and implementation of the MDGs principles. There is a Senior Special Assistant to the President on MDGs (Mrs. Amina J. Ibrahim). A Minister is in charge of implementation. In addition, the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners, in collaboration with Commonwealth Association of Planners, organized a 2-day international conference tagged "West African-CAP-NITP world Planners Congress Agenda setting Workshop" in Abuja from 14-15 November, 2005, preparatory to Canada 2006 World Congress where the MDGs were further discussed under the UN umbrella.

In the next decade or two, Nigerian government at the federal, state and local levels have to show greater understanding of the need to control urbanization to achieve sustainable national development through rational and conscious planning. Physical planning must be seen and used as an inevitable instrument to achieve the desired improved

standard of living for the citizens. Physical development plans must be prepared for all categories of settlements, urban management agencies must network and be better coordinated for effectiveness, while a public-private-popular sector partnership in urban planning and management activities must be encouraged as a matter of policy.

## 6. Physical Planning as Instrument of National Defence

Human settlements are concentrations of activities and people. They, according to De Blij (1993), are purposely grouped, organized clusters of houses and non-residential buildings. The smallest cluster of houses is called a hamlet (which may contain about a dozen buildings) and a bigger cluster is the village. A settlement may either be rural or urban (based on population size, number and complexity of facilities, and so forth); in form or pattern, it may be linear, dispersed, and compact or nucleated (Wahab 1996:66).

From the time of the early man, the siting of human settlements is governed by such factors as defence, fertile and well-drained soil, availability of water, accessibility, and climate. This was the way early settlements across the world were founded before the industrial revolution and the coming of European-derived formal planning.

It will be wrong to say that early settlements were not planned just because their founding was not preceded by drawings by a few "foreign technocrats" who, in most cases, did not live in such settlements they planned for others. As Egunjobi (1985) rightly observes,

Planning of human settlements and the environment in general has been an age long exercise ... In the early times, planning might not have been as formal as it is being conceived in modern times; nonetheless, cities were subjected to some sort of planning (Egunjobi 1985:93).



Traditional settlement and cities in the ancient world are, according to Wahab (1996:67), cognitively clear and legible, perceptually complex and rich. Elements of the town are conceptually related, closely linked and self-explanatory. Settlements in the same major geographical region of the world possess the same form in their overall layout. As Lagopoulos (1972) observes, with the exception of certain linear settlements, all African settlements are organized around a central feature either concentrically (south of the equator) or quadrilaterally (north of the equator). The layout of most Yoruba traditional settlements, according to Wahab (1996:67), is very similar, based on an unwritten concept/technique that is universally adopted to the extent that the Oba's (King's) palace and the town market form the centre (and a major landmark/reference point) from which other areas or elements of the settlement take off.

Hall (1976) also attests to the statement that all settlement of pre-modern time was planned by their founders who are no less intelligent than the computer-age planners:

Many cities both in the ancient and the medieval world were planned, at least in the sense that their existence and location were laid down consciously by some ruler or some groups of merchants (Hall, 1976:20).

In the modern times, and especially after the industrial revolution in Britain, some other factors apart from the ones earlier stated are considered in the siting or creation of new towns or settlements. Abuja, the new federal capital of Nigeria, was located based on its geographical centrality, among other factors. This is similar to the relocation of the capital of Tanzania from Dar-es-Salam to Dodoma. Ajoda New Town, in

Egbeda Local Government area of Oyo State, was created to decongest Ibadan City.

The factor of defence in the planning of settlements was considered by Egunjobi in one of his works. He opines that physical planning and defence are closely related: "Whether planning is viewed in its ancient connotation, or interpreted in the modern and formal context, it has always had defence implication" (Egunjobi, 1985:93).

Egunjobi further contends that physical planning can and should be used to promote national defence. He elucidates the argument using the structure of classical Roman towns which was a rectangular area enclosed by defence walls and ditches with a grid layout of roads. In Britain, such medieval towns as Winchelsea on the Sussex coast, Flint, Conway and Caernarvon in North Wales were all fortified towns. Nigerian towns such as Kano, Zaria, Kaduna, Benin, Iseyin, Oyo, Ilesha, were walled round for defence purposes. Ibadan, for instance, was surrounded by a wall about 16 kilometres in circumference. In addition, Ibadan, Okeho, Ilaji-Oke, Iganna, Ado-Awaye, Saki and Iseyin (Oyo State) and Abeokuta (Ogun State) Okene (Kwara State), Idanre (Ondo State) are a few of early settlements in Nigeria sited in consideration of the natural security offered by the chains of hills in their locations.

The advent of formal planning in the period just before the Industrial Revolution created a new dimension to the relationship between planning and defence. Seventeenth and eighteenth century towns, rather than being surrounded by defence walls, had "broad formal avenues where mobile armies could (easily) deploy themselves" (Egunjobi 1985:95). This was the Baroque Era described by Hall (1976:20) as "the expression of a new style of warfare".

From the foregoing paragraphs it can be established that informal physical planning was effectively used to facilitate defence in traditional (early) towns through the use of designed walls and ditches. While defence walls and ditches

have been discontinued in contemporary times (though we seem to have transferred to individual houses), "the implications of modern physical planning for modern defence cannot be discounted" Egunjobi 1985: 96) identifies the following contributions that physical planning could make towards defence efforts and the eventual socio-economic development of the nation. He calls them three principles which are basic to physical planning:

- (i) Influencing the territorial distribution of strategically important projects to avoid over-concentration in few places. Projects such as industries, military institutions and installations, airports, water reservoirs and refineries should not be concentrated only in a few areas for social and strategic reasons. A concentration of a few of them in a few enclaves can facilitate invasion by aggressors or dissidents. If they are fairly dispersed through the application of physical planning principles, if any one or two of the strategic locations are attacked, the other locations will offer launching bases and sources of supplies by the defence troops.
- (ii) Guiding exact locations of projects to keep away from sites that are vulnerable to attack. Based on defence consideration, location of strategic establishments or heavy projects should avoid, as much as possible, disputed areas, including, and especially, frontiers or national boundaries, e.g. Nigeria/Cameroun, Nigeria/Chad and Nigeria/Republic of Benin borders. Physical planners can and should make provision in their designs and proposals for the continuous defence of strategic establishments after being constructed e.g. hydro-electric dams, regional gas processing plants,

petroleum refineries, national satellite village, Egunjobi (1985) states further that the physical planning of airports should take account of defence factors, such that every airports is able to accommodate jet fighters with adequate reserve areas for physical occupation of troops in time of invasion. There are no evidences that our major airports are equipped with such defence facilities. (Egunjobi 1985:97).

- (iii) Ensuring efficient linkage among projects. Physical planning principles should be used to relate the planning of communication lines to defence purposes. Different modes (road, rail, water, air) should be coordinated into a single efficient national communications network with proper alignment of the lines.

For physical planning to be able to play its roles in national defence, Egunjobi (1985:98-99) concludes with the following suggestions:

- (a) Formulation of national land-use policy which will spell out the quantity, spatial distribution, location, sizes of projects and their linkage from which national land-use plans will be prepared to cover stipulated periods.
- (b) Effective coordination among the different levels of public decision-making bodies.
- (c) Setting up of Corps of Physical Planners in each of the three armed forces (the Navy, the Airforce and the Army) that will routinely advise on location of strategic projects with defence implications in view. They will monitor projects and liaise with civil

physical planners and socio-economic development agencies.

## 7. Women in Development

Participatory urban planning and management tools emphasize a deliberate (not voluntary) effort on the part of policy makers and development officials to involve all stakeholders in development initiative(s) at every stage of a programme/project without recourse to age, sex, religion, tribe, handicap (or physical stability). The sex variable is included on the realization over time that women were most of the time excluded from participation in development activities from programme/project identification conception to implementation, management and review. One reason for this is the wrong status accorded women: "Women's traditional position is to be seen and not heard" (Egunjobi 1991-92:56).

Unfortunately, there is hardly any development activity/programme/project which does not require the input of women or whose implementation does/may not impact on women directly or indirectly, at work, market, neighbourhood, home (as wife or mother).

Egunjobi (1991-92:55) observes that:

women the world over always lagged behind their male counterparts in terms of status, prestige, power and esteem. Consequently, women as a group have been given appellations such as: unequal partners in development, neglected or forgotten resources in development, or an untapped source of power... they are the least educated; they participate less than men in politics.

The above predicament of women, especially in Africa, not withstanding, Egunjobi observes that African women not only contribute significantly to national development, they

also perform leading roles in the organisation and sustenance of families. To wrestle themselves from the dominance of men African women, have in many instances "inspired frictions, struggles, agitations, conflicts and even rebellions". (Egunjobi 1991-92:55)

In the area of agricultural production, women predominate in about half of African societies. The proportion of female-managed rural households in Africa ranges from 5 percent in Niger to as high as 45 percent in Kenya. As head of rural households, women make all important agricultural decisions and carry out all agricultural tasks, including ploughing and planting while, among the Haya of Nigeria, the husband controls the farms and collects the income (Egunjobi (1991-92:56).

Besides family development (procreation, birth, child rearing and home management), and agriculture, housing development (house building or construction and management.) is the third aspect of national development where women contribute greatly. It is universally accepted that the housing sector constitutes a key sector that can revamp an ailing economy. If the economy of a nation is rearing collapse, all that is require is for some funds to be injected into housing and, in no time, that ailing economy will bounce back, as many jobs will be created for unskilled labour, artisans, professionals, building materials manufacturers, distributors, retailers, transporters, fuel marketers, land speculators and financial institutions. By extension, the education sector will also have a share, as participants in house building will earn enough income and make some savings from which to pay their children's and wards' school fees. Farmers will also enjoy more sale of their farm produce. It is a long chain of positive impacts on the economy.

The role of women in housing development cannot be ignored. In traditional house construction, women will carry clayish soil from where it is needed. Whenever the soil is to be

worked upon into malleable (swish mud) women will supply the required water and also prepare the meals which everybody would eat. Women are involved in all the stages of house construction: foundation, walling, roofing and ceiling. Interior decoration and floor screeding with local materials (sea shells, pieces of "china-wares" or breakable plates for floor; and mixture of cow-dung and indigo leaves known as "boto" or "igbole-aja" for smoothing the floor) are mainly women's job. In modern house building, women's role is even greater. They carry sand and water to prepare cement-sand-water mixture for block-making, to set the blocks, to form concrete lintel, slabs and decks, and so on. Some women are so energetic that they mix concrete at construction sites. They create humour which keeps men working harder on site.

In the area of commerce, African women dominate and constitute a far larger proportion of the daily and periodic markets than men. Women have in uncountable instances spearheaded political struggles and liberation wars against foreign invasion, colonial enslavement and exploitation. Egunjobi (1991-92) highlights a few of such instances: In Angola in the seventeenth century, Anna Zingha, Queen of Matamba and Central Africa's first political figure-led the fight against the Portuguese colonialists. The Zambian Women's League of the African National Congress fought against their discrimination in entering shops owned by whites and choosing what to buy for their families, and also the right to brew beer for their husbands and/or sell for household money. In 1929, women in Aba, Nigeria, rioted against the colonial administration and the native authorities on a rumour that taxation would be levied on women.

Women's struggle for emancipation has forced many governments to evolve policies and enact legislations meant to accord women legitimate roles, opportunities and incentives aimed at empowering women to play active and tangible roles in national development. United Nations Charter of 1945 and

the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights and also Agenda 21 of the United Nation Earth Summit of 1992 in Rio De Janeiro, among others, have enshrined the principle of equality and women participation in development. The Sustainable Cities Programme of the UN (Habitat), as being operated by the Sustainable Ibadan Project (SIP), places great emphasis on the inclusion of women in every Working Group (WG), Sub-Working Group, training workshops, sensitization and/or consultation programme. This has paid-off as women's participation in most of the SIP activities greatly facilitated quick/smooth resolutions, consensus, resource mobilization, and advocacy of the Environmental Planning and Management (EPM) process.

The core of the institutional framework in Nigeria for women recognition in national development is the National Commission for Women at the federal level. There are equivalent agencies at the state level. In Oyo State, there is Ministry of Women Affairs and Community Development and the Commissioner in the Ministry is always a woman. As at the time of writing, Mrs. Falilat Titilayo Akande, a retired school principal and Permanent Secretary, is the Commissioner.

Various enlightenment and education-awareness programmes embarked upon by the Women Affairs Ministries and some external donor agencies, especially UNICEF, UNESCO and UNDP, have encouraged many parents to enrol their female children in schools - from primary to tertiary levels. Many professional associations in Nigeria (e.g. Nigerian Institute of Town Planners, Nigerian Institute of Architects) have sizeable female memberships that are competing effectively with their male counterparts. With the recent election of Mrs. Shears, in 2006, as the President of Sierra Leone, one is tempted to say that the period of discrimination against women is nearly over and women can now conveniently and freely contribute to physical planning and development of Nigeria to the best of their ability.



In the area of physical planning education, it is heart-warming to note that in the last two decades every planning school in Nigeria has female students, some of whom are competing very well with their male colleagues. In fact, the then Technical College, Ibadan (now The Polytechnic, Ibadan) which had the first Town Planning School in Nigeria had two female pioneer students (who were twin sisters) - former Taiwo and Kehinde Sogunro-Pitan. They are both at present Fellows of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners. In fact, Kehinde (now Mrs Kehinde George) retired as a Chief Lecturer in the Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Yaba College of Technology, Lagos, Nigeria. Similarly quite a number of planning schools have female faculties, although at a very low proportion (a reflection of the low female student enrolment in planning programmes). The Department of Urban and Regional Planning, The Polytechnic, Ibadan, as at the time of writing, has Mrs. Olurin and Mrs. Agbola as female lecturers out of a total of 12. With female empowerment, and flexible time-tabling of academic activities in favour of housewives/married and working-class females, the enrolment of females in urban and regional planning programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate levels is bound to increase. This will positively impact on physical planning and development in Nigeria.

#### **8. Public Participation in Physical Planning and Development**

As noted in an earlier section of this paper, cities and towns are centres of civilization, generating development and social, cultural, spiritual and scientific advancement (UNCHS, 1997:3). However, uncontrolled urbanization has resulted in the sporadic growth of slums (residential, commercial and industrial) characterized by highly unsanitary environment. As Wahab (2004:147) observes, squatters have invaded every

available space, such as designated open/recreational areas, school grounds, markets, railway set-backs, derelict lands, and under-developed government acquisitions. Commercial squatters (hawkers, vendors etc.) are constantly invading not only right-of-ways but vehicular lanes thereby forcing motorists and pedestrians to struggle for passage within the remaining less-than-half of the road space as found in Sango, Agbeni, Oje, Ayeye, and Agodi-Gate areas of Ibadan.

The rural settlements in Nigeria do not fare better. They are faced with qualitative housing problems, lack of basic facilities and amenities, low standard of living, abject poverty, and rural-urban migration [all of which have slowed down their physical developments considerably] (Wahab 2004:147).

A sustainable transformation of our urban slum and neglected rural settlements require, to use Wahan's (204) expression, a genuine alliance and collaboration between local and other governmental agencies, the private sector, and grassroots organisations "based on consensus, partnership, accountability, transparency and active participation" (Wahab 1998:27).

The National Urban Development Policy document for Nigeria is very comprehensive and can adequately address the problems of our slum and squatter settlements. However, this may only be possible if the public sector will promote and facilitate active and full participation of the grass-roots sector in the planning and management of the process of urban and rural development (Wahab, 2004:47). Abumere (1998:1) observes that "any (development) strategy that did not involve the people, the stakeholders can hardly succeed".

Olujimi and Egunjobi (1990:165) observe that the rural areas of Nigeria harbour over 70 percent of the entire population and are characterized by inadequate provision of

infrastructure, poverty, and neglect in terms of development, policy formulation and implementation. They opined that in order to achieve a meaningful development of the rural areas:

the importance of involving the rural dwellers in the initiation, planning and implementation of rural development schemes has become relevant, hence the need for public participation in rural development (Olujimi and Egunjobi, 1990:165).

### 8.1 Public Participation: Definition and Concept

The word 'participation' means open, popular, and broad involvement of the people of the community in decisions that affect their lives (Carry, 1973:11). To participate means a share in decisions about goals and objectives, about what should be done, how and by whom. Participation, to public administrator, may mean an access to the decision-making process, while to the grass-roots; it means involvement in decision-making and taking action in issues affecting their daily lives or the right to select their representatives (Wahab 2004:147).

Public or community participation (Okpala, 1982), citizen participation (Graves 1972, Burke 1968, Mogulof 1970; Palmer and German 1974; O'Riordan, 1977, Agboola 1988) or grass-roots participation (Wahab 2004) is a concept defined severally by several scholars from different perspectives. The common feature is that public or citizen or grass-roots participation is a concept that "evolved from self-help and the provision of more responsive local services in a movement towards the re-examination of the whole social and economic structure" (Olujimi and Egunmjobi 1990:165).

Magulof (1970) sees citizen participation as an act or a series of acts by which the people (i.e. the governed) have the opportunity to influence the distribution of benefits or losses

which may be vested upon them. To Palmer and German (1974), quoted in Olujimi and Egunjobi 1990:166). Citizen participation is any activity or action which enables individuals, old and young, rich and poor to have an input in the decision-making process and to play a role in improving the quality of life in the environment.

Agbola (1988) examines citizen participation as a means; as an end in itself; and as a basic need. He further observes that citizen participation is the active process in which the persons in question (e.g. rural dwellers) take part in the initiation and implementation of decisions and assert their autonomy in taking these initiatives.

Grass-roots participation according to Wahab (2004:147) is a concept used to refer to the need for local involvement in the sustainable urban and, by extension, rural planning and management process. It is a means and a process employed by urban and rural communities to effect changes, increase control over resources and regulative institutions, through sharing and then transfer of power as social groups to control their own lives and improve their living conditions. Grass-roots participation in the context of rural development (such as provision of deep well or boreholes, classrooms blocks, construction of earth roads and bridges, building of primary health centre, cassava or palm-oil process mills) means the active involvement of the local or village people in the identification and assessment of environmental, social and economic problems, prioritization of the problems, formulation of the appropriate issue-specific strategy(ies), formulation of actor-specific action-plans, project packaging and implementation, project management and monitoring or review. Grass-roots participation is therefore a mean of addressing developmental problems of rural communities.

Olujimi and Egunjobi (1990) applied the concept of public participation to examine the extent of the involvement of the inhabitants of "Ajowa group of villages" in the

conception, planning and execution of "Ajowa Village regrouping scheme". The scheme was purposely conceived to achieve rural development in the then Western Region of Nigeria in 1955.

Ajowa villagers demanded for a separate local government administration of their own from Ikaramu Local Government Council. Ajowa means "they have come together". In March 1955, Ajowa Local Government Council, which was made up of 12 scattered villages, was created. The scattered nature of the settlements hindered provision of amenities and this forced the village heads to decide to move their villagers from the original locations and regroup together at Daja - a geographically central village with very large expanse of land. This was to enable them have a larger settlement that could attract development grants for rural infrastructure.

A physical plan otherwise referred to as "Ajowa Village Regrouping Scheme" was prepared by the Town Planning Division of the Ministry of Lands, Ibadan on the invitation of the Heads of "Ajowa group of villages" in 1955 (Olujimi and Egunjobi 1990:167). On the level of participation of Ajowa villagers in the scheme, Olujimi and Egunjobi noted the following:

- (i) The village heads at a meeting held on October 2nd 1954 with Chief R.A. Olusa, a Community leader from, and Hon. Member, Western Region House of Assembly saw the need and agreed to relocate to Daja, the Headquarters of Ajowa Local Government Council, to attract rural infrastructural facilities. This is the lowest level of participation in the Arnstein's (1969) ladder of citizen participation.
- (ii) Chief Olusa, in collaboration with the other village heads, selected Daja on behalf of the people. This is

token/representative participation which is what Arnstein calls "Degree of Tokenism", representing the 3rd, 4th and 5th rungs in the ladder. Olujimi and Egunjobi (1990:168) states that four of the twelve villages later refused to move to the scheme site claiming disagreement on the choice of Daja.

- (iii) The objectives of the Physical (Master) Plan of Ajowa Scheme were formulated exclusively by the Town Planning Division without involving the villagers or their representatives. The actual preparation and final adoption of the plan were undertaken by the Town Planning Officials and the Regional Minister for Lands, Chief Odunjo, without the involvement of the villager. It, thus, became an *imposed plan* whose process was devoid of partnership, consultation and citizen control.
- (iv) Implementation strategies were devised which involved the participation of the people through the formation of Ajowa Community Council whose members were drawn from all the eight quarters in Ajowa and the quarters-chiefs to monitor the development of the scheme. Under this arrangement, the community undertook the construction of the blocks of classrooms (1958), Ajowa Community Hall (1956), erection of temporary sheds (1957) and 2 block of market-stalls (1959) in Ajowa market.
- (v) Ajowa Town Planning Authority, established in December 1959, had 10 appointed Board members drawn from Ajowa Community (WNG, 1959). This enlisted the support of the community towards the

success of the scheme which they (villagers) henceforth saw as "their physical development scheme", thereby "accepting the scheme in spite of its deficiencies (Olujimi 1988).

The Ajowa scheme scenario contrasts sharply with the Bodija Market Community Association in Ibadan, where, in 1996, a borehole project was conceived, initiated, planned, implemented and managed through the active involvement of the entire members of the association through their section leaders/representatives. Base-line information on population of market operators and surrounding residential neighbourhood (e.g. Akingbola), existing water supply facilities, and the possible/feasible sources of water in the market area was collected and analysed with active participation of the representatives of the market men and women.

The project was anchored on the sustainable Ibadan Project (SIP) Working Group, with technical support and ideas on sensitization and mobilization freely offered by the SIP-Technical Support Unit (of which this writer was a member). The SIP-Trust Fund provided 0% of the cost of the project as *grant* and 70% as *loan* to the Association. Within 12 months of project commissioning in December 1997, the Association was able to pay back the loan and also purchased a generating set from the user-charges collected from people who draw water from the borehole. This is an example of inclusive/participatory urban infrastructure planning and development.

Olujimi and Egunjobi (1990:71) concluded that, in spite of the poor involvement of Ajowa people generally in the planning stages of the scheme by the technocrats, the people still made the implementation of the scheme a success by embarking on self-help projects. They emphasize the importance of the knowledge, experience and insights of rural dwellers in identifying the scope and dimensions of local

needs, the most effective channel of change, and the type of change they will support:

In a community-initiated scheme...physical planners need to involve the would-be Beneficiaries adequately in the plan preparation stage in particular and at all other stages in general. Their involvement will allow for getting to know what they want, and how they want these needs provided. This will eventually encourage the acceptance of such schemes by the rural people" (Olujimi and Egunjobi 1990:171).

O'Riordan (1977:159-161) reports two case studies of citizen participation in planning process. There is the Greater Vancouver Regional District 's (GVRD) 'Liveable Region' programme, which is a goals-oriented participatory experiment designed to elicit opinions from a broad cross-section of citizens as to the kinds of urban community in which they would like to live. A full-time participation co-ordinator (a planner) was hired to work with any citizen groups in the region to assist them conceptualise their frustrations and aspirations, help them prepare alternative proposals to existing plans to which they were opposed, and also activate their interest in regional implications of municipal planning schemes - zoning codes, shopping centers, open space provision, and so on. In 1973, nine citizen's Task forces (called policy committees) were established, eight of which finally reported. The committees dealt with transportation, government and social services, recreational, health and public protection, education, environmental management and pollution control, residential living, and government and society. The participation co-ordinator encouraged as many citizens as possible to participate and largely left the committees to handle their won affairs. The prescriptions of the citizens Task Forces, were accepted in principle lay of GVRD, particularly the concept of limiting population growth and urban sprawl.



O'Riordan 91977:161) reports that, in 1968, Vancouver City Council initiated an innovative participatory planning process consisting of three stages of council-citizen interaction. In the first stage, professional planners would select key areas within the city and prepare questions known as 'issues' which would be open to public discussion by interested citizens and citizen groups. In stage two, the planning department would produce conceptual schemes (known as 'alternatives') for the areas under consideration to which council would invite public response. The most preferred alternatives would then be turned into specific designs (proposals) either by the planning staff or by consultants. At stage three, the proposal would then be subjected to final public discussion and, where necessary, public hearings. He observes that this experiment offered a rare opportunity for direct consultation by citizens with planning officials.

The Vancouver experiment was similar to the participatory process adopted for three projects in Iowa State, USA in 1997 which the Department of Community and Regional Planning of Iowa State University, Ames, was contracted. The first project was Spatial Redistribution and Strategic Planning of Country Offices in Tama and Toledo, commissioned by the Tama County Board of Supervisors, Toledo, Iowa. The second was LeClairre Road Improvement and City Expansion Plan as a growth management strategy to guide the development of the fast-growing small town community very close to the Quad cities (Betterndorf Davenport (in Iowa) Rock Island and Moline (in Illinois)). The third was a health-planning project. Community-Based Health Case Needs and Services Program for Pocahontas County, Iowa, commissioned by Pocahontas Board of supervisors and the Country Hospital Board.

The three projects were given out as design practicals to students under CRP 432, Advanced Planning Studio, on which Prof. Duane Shinn and the author of this chapter served as

project investigator and Instructor, respectively. Each of the projects went through the following process:

- (i) Preliminary discussion and clarification of project objectives and terms of reference with country officials;
- (ii) Collection of base line information and presentation of data to country officials and cross section of citizens.
- (iii) Presentation of alternative proposals (options) to county officials and citizens.
- (iv) Development of preferred alternative and final draft and presentation to county officials and
- (v) Presentation of final plan document to county officials.

The above process ensured the participation of both country officials as well as citizens and citizen groups. Most meetings were held at community halls and Board rooms, especially in the evenings when most citizens would have closed from work and could spare some time. Citizens had a say in what the problem was and how they wanted it solved in a consensus manner.

The Vancouver and Iowa example of citizen participation in planning is not being experienced in Nigeria. Planning policies, schemes, development control and, in many instances, land acquisition for planning purpose is devoid of citizen involvement. It is the sustainable Ibadan Project (an extra-local level environmental planning and management programmes) that is attempting to evolve citizen participation in urban management. Even then the EPM process is

experiencing a hitch in its 4th principle/stage, i.e. institutionalization at the level of government (Oyo State and the 33 local governments). Since 2002, SIP has held several sensitization meetings with local government functionaries and stakeholders to encourage them to set up in each local government council and each ward in LGA, Development Project Committees (DPC), with the aim of adopting EPM principles in their routine development activities. Up till the time of writing this paper (April 2006), none of the 11 Local Government Councils and no single ward has established a development project committee that will have representative of key stakeholders as members. It is only the SIP Working Group in Waste Management and water supply that are on ground.

The Nigerian public may be said to not be keenly interested in participating in any physical planning matter. They detest planning regulations and have reservations for ply officials whom they see as just "development controllers" (to use Kadiri's (1998) expression) or development police. There is, therefore, great apathy on the part of the Nigerian public, which Daini (1989) captures in the following words: "Planning today has remained unpopular as it had been in the past (with) general apathy on the side of the public" (Daini, 1989 quoted in Kadiri 1998:47).

There is therefore the need to encourage and accommodate true citizens and community participates in the planning process. The professional planner plans of "what will be", the rest of the society should counter with alternative plans for "what should be". It is only by so doing that plans for improvement of community living can be seen as participatory and more acceptances to the relevant community, thus lowering resistance to their implementation (Soile, 1998:141).

## 9. Conclusion

Planning takes place everyday in every human endeavour and in all settlements, be it rural or urban. In the pre-industrial era, human settlements and the activities that went on in them were planned, though informally. In Nigeria, the founding of traditional settlements followed some loosely-defined criteria, among which were the factor of defence and availability of land and water. The siting of structures and designation of land for various uses were based on the king's (Oba's) authority, in consultation with his chiefs.

The British colonialists came to Nigeria and, in furtherance of their drive to export agricultural materials from the country to develop their industries back in Britain; they introduced the concept of segregation in residential pattern and classification of settlements into 1st, 2nd and 3rd order settlements. They planned their own residential enclaves at the expense of other areas of the town. The Bubonic Plague of 1926 in Lagos led to the introduction of the 1928 Planning Ordinance to guide the development of Lagos. From then on, there were series of other planning ordinances and laws in the country, the latest being the 1992 Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law.

Between 1928 and 2006 (78 years), one expects that physical planning would have been properly entrenched not only in the nation's constitution and all facets of the citizens's life but also in the routine economic development plans prepared by the government. This paper has pointed out how past governments in Nigeria have failed to integrate physical planning with economic development planning. The consequence of the non-integration has also been discussed.

The argument of this paper is that physical planning is basic to all developmental activities in the country and must be given the deserved recognition. Unless economic development planning is fused into physical planning, which will translate projected growth into spatial requirements, unplanned growth of small and large settlements will go on unabated.

Uncontrolled urbanization with its attendant problems will continue to confront the already impoverished citizens.

While physical planners will want to regulate physical developments the public's hostile attitude is a problem. The Nigerian public must understand the benefits of planned environments and be receptive to planning officials through active participation. In turn, planners in the public service must be more accessible and friendly with the "ignorant" public.

Physical planning only become strong, relevant to societal needs and influential through their ability to clearly describe and demonstrate the nature and value of the skills and services they have to offer (Soile 1998:143).

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