

Analysis of Slum Formation in Core Area of Ilesa, Nigeria

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Abstract

Slums are one of the effects of migration and the most important reason for living in the slums is poor access to better living spaces. In other words, people move into the slums due more to obstacles in their original dwelling places than to the attraction of the target city. For the collection of primary data, a set of questionnaires; targeted at slum residents; were administered to household heads living in Ilesa, Nigeria. Systematic sampling was used to select household heads in one out of every ten (10) houses located in the five (5) identified political wards that formed the core area of the ancient city. A pilot study and a reconnaissance survey revealed that there were 4,560 buildings in the five political wards. Therefore, a total of 456 household heads were selected for questionnaire administration. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used for analysis. The findings revealed that slums in the core area are the product of inadequate housing, lack of timely maintenance of infrastructures and structures, disappointment with the unmet need for housing and social amenities. The consequences of such conditions are a negative impact on the environment as well as on human health and comfort. Measures aimed at improving the situation include an urban renewal programme; which should include the reconstruction and rehabilitation of existing facilities or the redevelopment of the whole area. The study also suggests a holistic and integrated planning approach that can reduce rural poverty and improve urban livelihoods since these appear to be the main causes of slum growth in developing nations.

Keywords: slum, core area, sustainable development, urbanization and environment

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Introduction

Today, over half of the world's population lives in urban areas, and by the middle of this century 7 out of 10 people will live in a city. This increase in urbanization has also led to more and more people residing in informal settlements generally known as slums (Roy et. al., 2014). Slum development is not restricted to developed, developing or less developed nations only, but is a global phenomenon (UNHSP, 2016). The total number of slum dwellers in the world stood at about 924 million in 2001. This represents about 32% of the world's total urban population. In the same year, 43 per cent of the combined urban populations of all developing regions and 78.2% of those in least developed countries were slum dwellers.

Rapid urbanization in Africa comes with myriads of problems. Carter (1981) outlined the problems of urbanization as alienation, traffic congestion, pollution, vulnerability and slum growth. Hardiman and Midgley (1982) also identified some of the negative effects of urbanization and articulated the need for planning and efficient urban management to address poverty, inadequate housing, homelessness, erratic sprawl of economic activities on public spaces, urban violence, waste management problems, and poor access to basic infrastructure and services.

Today, slum settlements represent about one-third of the urban population in all developing countries and in many cases, they account for more than 60% of this population. During the late 1980s, about 72 out of every 100 new households established in the urban areas of developing countries were located in shanties and slums. In Africa, the number was 92 out of every 100. Most of the settlements are without clean water, sewage systems or electricity. For example, Metropolitan Cairo is attempting to cope with a population of about 14 million people and a water and sanitation system built to serve only 2 million 30 years ago (Todaro and Smith, 2006).

However, sub-Saharan Africa was reported to have the largest proportion of urban slum dwellers of about 71.9%. In the sub-Saharan Africa's projection, it was estimated that in the next thirty years, the global number of slum dwellers would have increased to about two billion. In some cities in developing countries, slums are so pervasive that it is the rich who segregate themselves behind small gated enclaves (UN-Habitat Report, 2014).

Slum formation in Nigeria and in Africa is on the increase as the world rapidly urbanizes and most of the growth in slums and informal settlements is taking place in Sub-Saharan Africa. Nigeria has a population of 140 million people (2006 census) and land coverage of an estimated 1 million square meters. The urbanisation rate in Nigeria is 5.5%, almost twice the population growth rate of the country (Agbola, & Agunbiade 2007). According to the Lagos State 2004 Report, by the year 2010, it is estimated that Nigeria's urban population will exceed the rural population because of the constant immigration of rural dwellers to urban centers. There is a mismatch between the rapid urbanization experienced in Nigeria and the slow rate of development; as Nigerian cities expand, they lack the resources needed to provide and maintain the urban infrastructure for their growing population. In addition, population distribution in Nigeria is concentrated in only a few cities such as Lagos. This puts immense pressure on such cities because it is believed that they offer the highest rate employment in the country.

The deplorable quality of housing in Nigeria is reflected in the predominance of structurally unsound and

substandard houses in urban areas especially in the core areas (Mabogunje, 1975; Onokerhoraye, 1976; Olotuah, 2003; Olotuah and Adesiji, 2005). This is because low quality materials are used for the construction of buildings in these areas, which results in poor housing and unhygienic environmental conditions. Such poor-quality housing is especially common in the core areas. The magnitude of slum formation in Nigeria is manifested in the number of households residing in substandard housing units (Olotuah, 2005). As with the inner city, there is a high percentage of poor and illiterate people, but the percentage varies from slum to slum.

The UN-Habitat (2003), in its report has indicated that since the 1950's, the urban population living in slums has continued to increase in the cities of developing countries. The report further indicated that 78.2% of urban dwellers in developing countries now live in slums and the trend does not show any sign of slowing down. The implications of this trend on the planning of the cities include the difficulty in the enforcement of planning regulations in the cities to ensure orderly development. From the foregoing, less emphasis has been given to the amelioration of slum formation in most African towns and cities. The example of an emerging but traditional city like Ilesa is yet to be examined. It is in this regard that this study examined slum formation in a core area using Ilesa in Nigeria as a case study.

Literature Review

The emergence of slums, and the growing number of people living in them, is now a very significant and intricate global challenge (UN-HABITAT, 2011a; Patel et al., 2012). While there are many different definitions and criteria for determining what constitutes a slum (Richter et al., 2011), for residents the reality is often inadequate shelter, poor access to basic services such as water and sanitation, insufficient access to healthcare and a general low quality of life. Slums are the byproduct of the social and economic impacts of rapid urbanization. Many nations including developed and developing countries are formulating and organizing strategies- to eradicate this problem.

For example, in 2011 the United States introduced a bill to increase aid for “Shelter, Land and Urban Management” (SLUM) in developing countries, while the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDG) aimed to improve the lives of slum dwellers by 2015 (UNDP, 2000). Policy intervention in slums is one of the key mechanisms adopted by various governments to enhance the quality of life of the urban poor. Slum policies have evolved, and urban authorities have adopted different strategies, ranging from in-situ development in slums, to their relocation to resettlement colonies; and slum evictions.

However, the rate of the proliferation of slum in the world at large is alarming and this should be a concern among stakeholders. According to the UN (2008), a total of one billion people worldwide were estimated to be living in slums and this figure translates into one-sixth of the world’s population. Thus, with the rapid and unplanned urbanization experienced in most cities of the world, especially in Africa, there is the likelihood of a significant increase in the number of slum dwellers and environmental problems that will accompany the influx (IDB, 2013). Challenges posed by rapid urbanization are common to all nations, but the developing countries are the ones finding it increasingly difficult to respond to these challenges (Siddharth, 2008).

Slum upgrading is widely seen as one of “the most proactive, pragmatic and effective ways to achieve MDG

7, Target 11” and to improve the lives of about 100 million slum dwellers around the world by the year 2020 (UN-Habitats and City Alliance, 2006). MDG goal 7, focus on ensuring environmental sustainability and providing solution for economic development. Target

11, of MDG 7; focuses on achieving a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers by 2020. It is believed that this can be achieved through slum upgrading initiatives. Upgrading of slums involves “physical, social, economic, organizational and environmental improvements” to the present informal settlement and slums.

This is often carried out by residents of slums themselves via community-based groups, local authorities and external agencies. They work in partnership at the local level by collaborating on different projects that bring about slum upgrading, the results of which include: improvement of basic infrastructure, improvement of homes, rehabilitation of community infrastructure, removal of environmental hazards, improving access to health care and education, and improving opportunities for income earning (UN-Habitats and City Alliance, 2006). Compared to other strategies, slum upgrading programs are cheaper and are associated with marginal loss of buildings or means of livelihood (Arimah, 2011).

Various forms of slum upgrading include: the top-bottom approach, the bottom-top approach and the integrated or participatory approach (Cronin & Guthrie, 2011). With the top-down approach to slum upgrading projects begin with the government through centralized institutions, in which government agencies, acting independently without any consultation with the local people, identify problems and, determine the response, as well as formulate and implement strategies, action programs and projects (Majale, 2008). This approach has failed to yield the expected results in cities and towns where the government has implemented it, due to lack of participation by local people in the projects (Majale, 2008).

Recent literature argues that slum upgrading should be addressed through the participatory or integrated approach where public and private organizations, NGOs, slum dwellers and community-based institutions collaborate in order to improve the living conditions in slums (Cronin & Guthrie, 2011; Majale, 2008; UN-Habitat and City Alliance, 2006). The role which slum dwellers and their community groups play in developing cities, towns and settlements where they live and work should be recognized, as they (slum dwellers) are in a better position to identify what needs to be done and how best to do it (Majale, 2008).

Imparato and Ruster (2003) in their study on participation and slum upgrading in Latin America, found that implementing a participatory process in projects helps to improve project’s performance and increase its impact and sustainability. They argued that participatory approaches are directly connected to the nature of urban upgrading and the reasons for initiating such a process. At the very heart of urban upgrading projects are needs and demands of people which need to be clearly identified, prioritized and understood; hence, there is the need for participatory processes.

Several factors could provide an impetus for the implementation of a participatory approach in a slum upgrading project including any of the following: the use of local information and knowledge to make sure that the project management team makes more informed decisions; the need to overcome resource constraints through financial contributions or community labour; or to improve project targeting, through knowing more about the needs of the different groups in a community and the beneficiary community.

The participatory approach could also; enhance accountability and transparency in managing public funds; encourage decentralization and democratization in the allocation of resources; promote sustainability through stakeholder ownership; develop local capacities and make information available to different users, all of which can strengthen all odds for further development initiatives. In the account of the World Bank (1999-2001) applying participatory approaches in slum upgrading promotes key aspects of informed decision making and overcoming resource constraints for the attainment of successful results.

Also, previous slum upgrading efforts carried out in Lagos, Nigeria identified a number of slum areas in the city. The Lagos State Urban Renewal Board, which later became the Lagos State Urban Renewal Authority, was set up to deal with the problem of slums. However, the agency embarked on a renewal scheme that failed due to lack of community input. An example is the Olaleye- Iponri Urban Renewal Project. Low levels of implementation, sustainability and success characterized this project (Cities Alliance, 2008).

Generally, the key to a more sustainable approach lies in the community's responsibility for and participation in the upgrading process, as this can generate "ownership" that is increasingly recognized as a prerequisite for sustainable urban development projects (UN-HABITAT 2003). This situation has implications for the planning and management of the city where the population increases on a daily basis without a corresponding increase in resources.

Study Area

Ilesa is one of the ancient cities in the Yoruba kingdom of South Western Nigeria located in Osun State, Ilesa has a population of about 334,000 (NPC, 2006). Formerly a caravan trade centre, Ilesa is today an agricultural and commercial city. Cocoa, kola nuts, palm oil, and yams are exported from this city; which also has an abundance of alluvial gold deposits. Ilesa was the capital of the Ilesa kingdom of the Oyo Empire. After Oyo's collapse in the early 19th century, Ilesa became subject to Ibadan before it was taken by the British in 1893. The town is now divided into parts which were established in 1991. The two regions are ruled by Ilesa East and Ilesa West Local Governments, with their headquarters located at Iyemogun and Ereja respectively. Ilesa East has eleven (11) administrative wards, which represents the residential districts, while Ilesa West has ten (10). The residential districts consist of the central core which is traditional in its setting and pattern, and the new residential areas. The central core is made up of compound houses, where all members of the extended family live together (Figure I). A cursory analysis shows that, like most Yoruba cities, the highest concentration of the poor in Ilesa is found in the core area. As the city grew away from the traditional core, new residential areas were formed, made up of houses and apartments owned by individuals or rented by families (Ayoola & Amole, 2014).

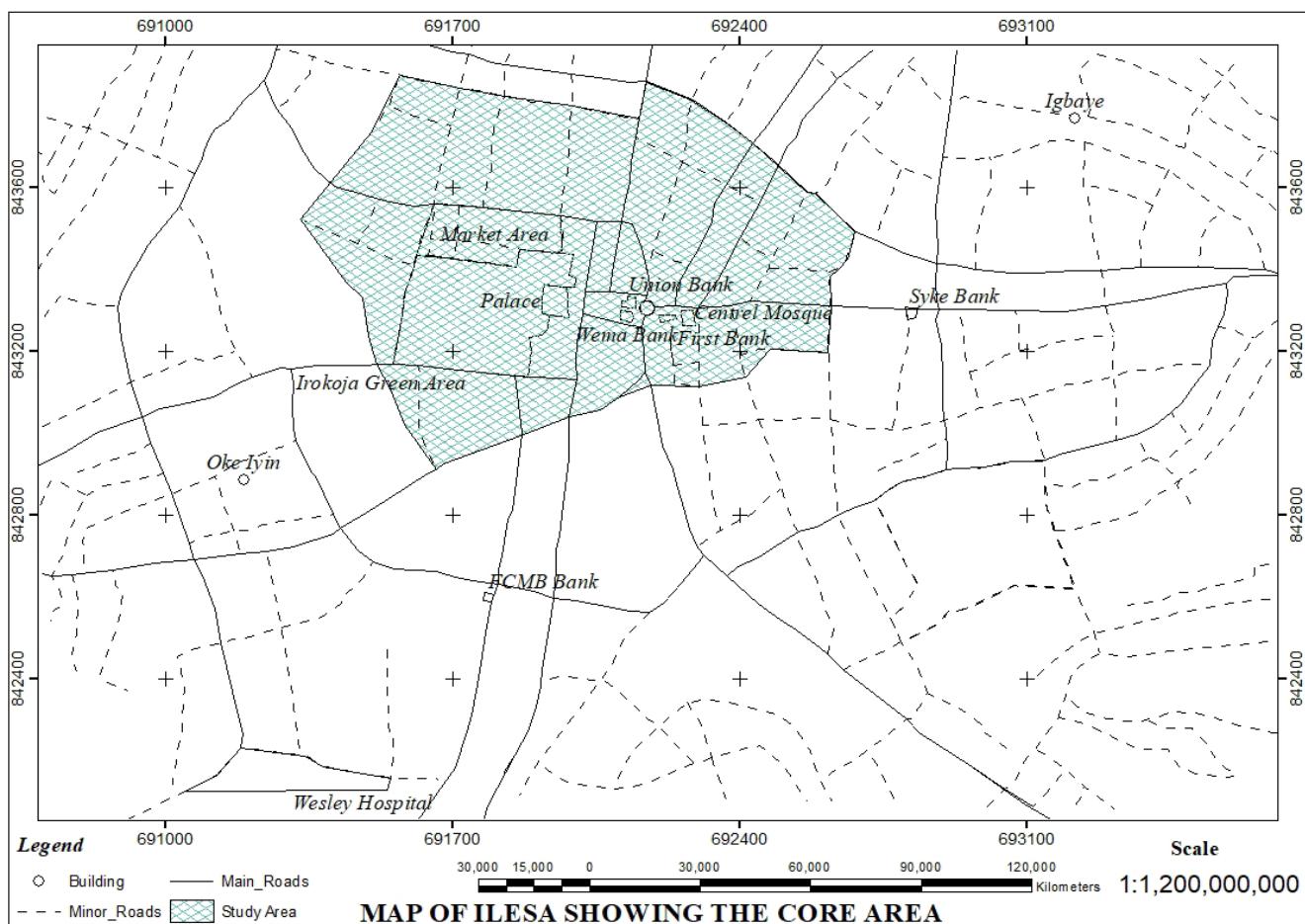


Figure I: Map of Ilesa showing the Core Area

Source: Osun State Ministry of Lands, Physical Planning and Urban Development Osogbo, 2017

Methodology

Data for the study were obtained from both primary and secondary sources. For the collection of primary data, a set of questionnaires, targeted at slum residents were administered to household heads living in Ilesha. Systematic sampling was used to select household heads in one out of every ten (10) houses located in the five (5) identified political wards that form the core area of the ancient city. A pilot study and a reconnaissance survey revealed that there were 4,560 buildings in the five political wards. Therefore, a total of 456 household heads were selected for questionnaire administration. Information was obtained on residents' socio-economic background, physical characteristics and the environmental conditions in the study area. Sources of secondary data included journals, conference proceedings, unpublished these and books. Data collected were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 17. Both descriptive and inferential tools were used to analyze the data collected.

Results and Discussion

Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Respondents

The findings revealed that most (97.4%) of the respondents had lived in the core of Ilesha for at least five (5) years. The age distribution indicates that only 6.8% of the respondents are below twenty (20) years, while the majority (93.2%) is adults who are above twenty (20) years of age. It can therefore be inferred that the data provided by the respondents can be relied upon for the purpose of analysis. Data on household size

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indicates that 12.1% of respondents have between seven (7) and eight (8) persons constituting members of their households. This is followed by 39.5% of respondents who have five (5) or six (6) persons. More than half (52.2%) of respondents have a household monthly income equal to or below N10, 000; only 9.7% of them earn above N30, 001 monthly. The findings revealed that the majority (58.8%) of the respondents were females while 41.2% were males. Also, most (71.5%) of the respondents were married, 14.7% were single while just 0.4% were separated from their spouses. The result of the analysis of the findings established that the majority (55.7%) of the respondents have no formal education, 23.0% of them have primary education while just 7.0% have tertiary education.

Table 1: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

| | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|--|-----------|----------------|
| Sex | | |
| Male | 188 | 41.2 |
| Female | 268 | 58.8 |
| Age Distribution | | |
| Below 20 years | 30 | 6.8 |
| 20-29years | 100 | 21.9 |
| 30-39years | 124 | 27.2 |
| 40-49years | 72 | 15.7 |
| 50years and above | 129 | 28.3 |
| Number of Years Spent in the Neighbourhood | | |
| Less than 5 years | 12 | 2.6 |
| 6-10 years | 33 | 7.2 |
| 11-15 years | 54 | 11.8 |
| 16-20 years | 101 | 22.2 |
| 20 years and above | 256 | 54.2 |
| Marital Status | | |
| Married | 326 | 71.5 |
| Single | 67 | 14.7 |
| Widow | 61 | 13.4 |
| Separated | 2 | 0.4 |
| Educational Level | | |
| No Formal Education | 254 | 55.7 |
| Primary | 105 | 23.0 |
| Secondary | 65 | 14.3 |
| Tertiary | 32 | 7.0 |
| Occupation Pattern | | |
| Farming | 58 | 12.7 |
| Craftsmanship | 79 | 17.3 |
| Trading | 140 | 30.7 |
| Civil Service | 36 | 7.9 |
| Unemployed | 101 | 22.1 |
| Apprentices | 42 | 9.2 |
| Income Level | | |
| No Fixed Income | 78 | 17.1 |
| Below #10,000 | 160 | 35.1 |
| #10,001-#20,000 | 103 | 22.6 |
| #20,001-#30,000 | 72 | 15.8 |
| Above #30,001 | 43 | 9.4 |
| Household Size | | |
| 1-2 Persons | 76 | 16.7 |
| 3-4 Persons | 130 | 28.5 |
| 5-6 Persons | 180 | 39.5 |
| 7-8 Persons | 55 | 12.1 |
| 9-10 Persons | 15 | 3.3 |
| Total | 456 | 100 |

Source: Field work, 2017

Physical Characteristics

The main types of residential properties found in the core areas of Ilesa are tenement buildings. According to Oni and Durodola (2010), low-income earners have a preference for tenement properties because of their low rent, though many of such properties lack basic infrastructure. The tenements usually consist of unit rooms flanking both sides of a central passage that connects the rooms to shared unit kitchens and toilets at the rear. Sometimes the kitchen is attached to the structure while the conveniences (toilets and bathrooms) are in most cases detached from the main building. This design of type of property was said to have been imported from Brazil at the end of slave trade. The property was also characterized by overcrowding; with several individual families occupying unit rooms or room-and-parlor units. This type of accommodation is occupied by 87.9% of the respondents.

There is evidence of leakages in the roofs, broken windows and cracks on the floors of many properties. Many properties either do not have paint on the outside or the paints is very old. It was revealed that the majority (80.3%) of respondents claimed to be living in accommodation with evidence of damp. This as been established in the literature can promote health hazards. The findings revealed that 80.3% of the respondents used mud blocks in construction while 19.7% used cement blocks. The data analysis showed that most (96.5%) of the respondents used corrugated iron sheets while 3.5% of them used asbestos for their roofs. On the condition of roofs, the majority (60.8%) of the respondents revealed that their roofs either leaked or had been patched while 39.2% had good roofs.

Furthermore, the results of the analysis showed that most (95.6%) of the buildings in the study area were more than 10 years old; only 4.4% of the respondents had built their houses less than 10 years earlier. The majority (68.4%) of the respondents admitted that their houses were either old, dilapidated or needed major rehabilitation while 16.7% of them believed that their houses were structurally sound. Also, on the condition of walls, 54.8% of the buildings were half plastered, 30.0% were not plastered, 13.4% had cracks and the remaining 1.8% were plastered and painted.

Access roads are another important facility in the study area that needs serious attention. The majority (62.5%) of the respondents agreed that their area was accessible while 37.5% of them reported that their area was not accessible by road. In addition 41.0% of the respondents indicated that the roads in their area were tarred, 31.8% stated that the roads were un-tarred, while 27.2% reported that the roads in the study area had been damaged. The findings also revealed that most (91.0%) of the respondents depend on P.H.C.N for electricity, 22.2% on generating plants and 6.8% on hurricane lamps. On the availability of electricity supply, most respondents (89.9%) revealed that it was always irregular and erratic, 7.2% said it was hardly available, while 2.9% indicated that it was regular.

Table 2: Physical Characteristics

| | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|--|-----------|----------------|
| House Type | | |
| Brazilian | 401 | 87.9 |
| Flats | 54 | 11.9 |
| Duplex | 1 | 0.2 |
| Material Used for Wall Construction | | |
| Mud or Mud Block | 366 | 80.3 |
| Cement Block | 90 | 19.7 |
| Roofing | | |
| Zinc/ Corrugated Iron Sheet | 440 | 96.5 |
| Asbestos | 16 | 3.5 |
| Condition of Wall | | |
| Plastered and painted | 8 | 1.8 |
| Half Plastered | 250 | 54.8 |
| Not Plastered | 137 | 30.0 |
| Cracked | 61 | 13.4 |
| Roofing Condition | | |
| Good | 179 | 39.2 |
| Patched | 147 | 32.2 |
| Leaking | 130 | 28.5 |
| Structure | | |
| Physically sound | 76 | 16.7 |
| Need minor repair | 68 | 14.9 |
| Need major repair | 137 | 30.0 |
| Dilapidated and old | 175 | 38.4 |
| Age of the Building | | |
| Below 10 years | 20 | 4.4 |
| 10-19 years | 28 | 6.1 |
| 20-29 years | 35 | 7.7 |
| 30-39 years | 105 | 23.0 |
| 40 years and above | 268 | 58.8 |
| Electricity Supply (Source) | | |
| PHCN | 415 | 91.0 |
| Generating plant | 10 | 22.2 |
| Hurricane lamp | 31 | 6.8 |
| Electricity Supply (Availability) | | |
| Regular | 13 | 2.9 |
| Irregular/Erratic | 410 | 89.9 |
| Not available | 33 | 7.2 |
| Road Accessibility | | |
| Yes (Available) | 285 | 62.5 |
| No (Not available) | 171 | 37.5 |
| Road Condition | | |
| Tarred | 187 | 41.0 |
| Un-tarred | 145 | 31.8 |
| Footpath | 0 | 0 |
| Damaged | 124 | 27.2 |
| Total | 456 | 100 |

Source: Field work, 2017

Environmental Sanitation Conditions

The common types of toilet facilities at the core were pit latrines. Findings revealed that the majority (61.4%) of the respondents in the study area used of pit latrines. Also, 21.5% defecated in nearby open spaces, refuse dumps, and bush or nearby streams. The main source of water supply was surface hand dug wells (84.4%); 11.2% of the respondents depended on pipe borne water while 4.4% depended on private or public boreholes. However, in most cases fees were collected by operators for the maintenance of the

boreholes. It was observed that 2.94% of the respondents depended on stream water. The results revealed that 63.6% of the respondents depended on in-door shared kitchens, 28.0% depended on out-door shared kitchens while 2.6% did not have kitchen facilities in their houses. Where kitchen facilities did not exist, cooking was done in corridors, passages or even bedrooms. Cooking in such spaces could be hazardous to health because residents inhale smoke from the stoves or, from firewood used in cooking. Findings revealed that the majority (54.6%) of the respondents depend on in-door shared bathrooms, 30.7% used bathrooms in on outdoor-open courtyards, while 10.7% indicated that their houses did not have bathrooms. Various methods of waste disposal employed by the residents of Ilesa core are illustrated in the Table 3. One major feature of an undeveloped core area is a dirty environment, and Ilesa is no exception. The findings established that residents of the study area dump their refuse at the road side, so that the refuse emits an offensive odour and is quite unsightly. Again, most of the refuse gets into the gutters and clogs them up. The study established that most (74.8%) of the respondents disposed of their waste at dump sites, 23.4% of them burn their waste while just 1.8% made use of central collection system for disposal. The findings revealed that the majority (74.5%) of the respondents reported that there were no health facilities in their area, while 25.5% indicated that they had health facilities in their neighbourhood.

Table 3: Environmental Sanitation Conditions

| | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|---------------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Sewage Disposal (Toilet) | | |
| Pit latrine | 280 | 61.4 |
| Water closet | 55 | 12.1 |
| Bucket latrine | 23 | 5.0 |
| Non-bush and dunghills | 60 | 13.2 |
| Streams and Drainages | 38 | 8.3 |
| Bathroom Facilities | | |
| In-door Self-contained | 18 | 3.9 |
| In-door shared | 249 | 54.6 |
| Outdoor-open courtyard | 140 | 30.7 |
| Not available | 49 | 10.7 |
| Kitchen Facilities | | |
| In-door Self-contained | 26 | 5.7 |
| In-door shared | 290 | 63.6 |
| Outdoor-open courtyard | 128 | 28.0 |
| Not available | 12 | 2.6 |
| Water Supply | | |
| Pipe borne water | 51 | 11.2 |
| Underground well water | 385 | 84.4 |
| Bore-hole | 20 | 4.4 |
| Surface stream | 0 | 0 |
| Waste Disposal Facilities | | |
| Central collection | 8 | 1.8 |
| Dumping ground | 107 | 23.4 |
| Burning | 341 | 74.8 |
| Health Facilities | | |
| Yes (Available) | 116 | 25.5 |
| No (Not Available) | 340 | 74.5 |
| Total | 456 | 100 |

Source: Field work, 2017

Environment Related Problems and Likely Causative Factors

It was observed that indiscriminate dumping of refuse, apart from emitting an offensive odour also creates a good breeding ground for flies, rats, cockroaches and mosquitoes. Similarly, blocked gutters are good breeding grounds for mosquitoes and flies which can cause outbreaks of cholera and malaria among residents. The study revealed that 44.3% of the respondents complained of malaria fever, 28.5% reported that they had typhoid fever, 15.1% had experienced a diarrhea while just 2.2% had been victims of flooding. Furthermore, suggested causative factors include poor drainage system (43.8), dirty environment (22.8%), overcrowding (22.4%) and poor water supply (11.0%).

However, the inadequacy or lack of basic facilities in the area has numerous effects on the general environment, socio-economic lifestyle and health of the residents. The larger parts of the housing environment had been rendered unattractive due to lack of essential facilities like water, access roads, schools, health facilities and regular supply of electricity. These findings corroborate the study of Olarenwaju and Akinbamijo (2002), Omole (2010), and Yoade and Adeyemi (2015), which indicate that the environment has great and obvious effects on the health of the dwellers of urban slum areas.

Table 4: Environment Related Problems and Likely Causative Factors

| | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|--------------------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Environmental Related Problems | | |
| Flooding | 10 | 2.2 |
| Cholera | 45 | 9.9 |
| Typhoid fever | 130 | 28.5 |
| Malaria fever | 202 | 44.3 |
| Diahorea | 69 | 15.1 |
| Likely Causative Factors | | |
| Poor drainage system | 200 | 43.8 |
| Dirty environment | 104 | 22.8 |
| Overcrowding | 102 | 22.4 |
| Poor water supply | 50 | 11.0 |
| Total | 456 | 100 |

Source: Field work, 2017

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study concluded that sustainable development is necessary in both urban and rural areas to avoid slum formation. The government should therefore create more facilities such as pipe-borne water, electricity, and good housing for both urban dwellers and those in sub-urban areas. Also, western approaches to regeneration will not work well in non-Western contexts such as Ilesa bearing in mind the differences in cultural values and availability of resources. As such, this study recommends strongly, the strategy of cooperative leadership, both at government and community levels. For a good urban renewal to emerge in the study area, the government must first relocate residents to new settlements with better facilities. In line with UNDP (2008); Shahrad (2012), Minnery et. al. (2013) and Roy et. al. (2014), it is therefore recommended that the federal government but also local government and community leaders be involved in the conception and implementation of renewal programme for the study area. The study also suggests a holistic and an integrated planning approach that can reduce rural poverty and improve urban livelihoods since these appear to be the main causes of slum growth in developing nations.

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