



Urban Africa Risk Knowledge

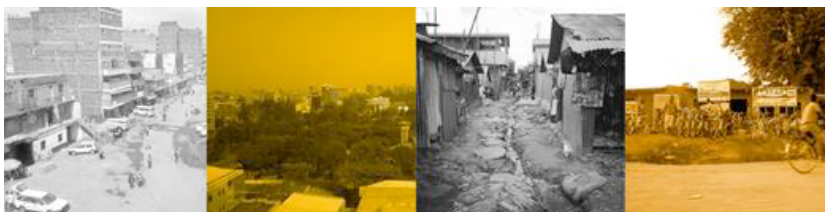
IBADAN CITY DIAGNOSTIC REPORT

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1. The City: Population and Growth

Ibadan, historically acknowledged as the largest traditional city in sub-Saharan Africa, has grown rapidly from a modest population of 70,000 inhabitants in 1856 to a cosmopolitan and densely populated city. The rapid development and spatial expansion of the city became pronounced in the wake of Nigeria's oil boom period of the 1970s. The influx of large population of migrants associated with the period resulted in the transformation of the predominantly indigenous city to a multi-cultural and multi-ethnic urban settlement. Ibadan is among West African cities that are increasing by more than 100,000 inhabitants annually, a reflection of the combined effects of natural increase and net-migration (United Nations, 2014). The 2006 National Population Census estimated the metropolis to be inhabited by 1.34 million people while the total population of Greater Ibadan was 2.55 million. The rapid rate of urbanization and the attendant socio-economic problems has resulted in the proliferation of diverse risks within the urban environment.

Urban growth in the city is largely associated with the process of peri-urbanization. Extensive areas which were earlier characterized by rural features have either been incorporated into the city or transformed into peri-urban areas. The peri-urban developments were principally residential zones. During the period 1991 and 2006 the average population growth rate per year in the metropolis was 0.5 per cent while the average growth rate for the peri-urban areas was 4.8 per cent a year over the same period (Adelekan et al., 2014).

A noteworthy feature of the city before 1972 was the absence of high density areas. By 1984, 11.42 km² of the urban area was classified as high-density and 64.8 km² by 2003. With the current density of approximately 2,889 people per square kilometer, Ibadan has one of the highest population densities in Nigeria (NPC, 2006). The city is projected to increase to about 5.03 million inhabitants by 2025, considering an average annual growth rate of 4.6% during the period 2010-2020 (UNDESA, 2012).

Ibadan consists of 11 local government areas (LGAs) for governance and administrative purposes. Five of the LGAs are located in the metropolitan core of the city, while the remaining six are either predominantly peri-urban or rural settlements

2. Urban Pattern

A characteristic of the urban form of the city is the differentiation of the city into a core, traditional area occupied largely by the indigenous population and a largely migrant, sub-urban city (Chokor, 1986). This characteristic has implications for its internal structure and social geography, observed in the socially segregated pattern of urban development (Okafor, 1991).

Over the years the inner core of the city grew by the process of densification which resulted emergence of informal settlements (Mabogunje, 1968; Fourchard, 2003). Natural spaces surrounding houses in the traditional core area were built up to provide for more dwelling houses within traditional family compounds as family units grew larger. This compound disintegration was largely a reflection of changes in the socioeconomic and cultural circumstances of the people (Ayeni, 1994). About 26,254 housing units are located in the core area of the city. The unplanned core area characterized by the presence of slums is therefore densely populated, comprises poor quality housing, absence or irregular pipe-borne water supply, poor or non-existent drainage and sewerage systems and inadequate sanitation facilities (Coker et al, 2008; OYSG and UNICEF, 1997).

The sub-urban city comprises a mix of neighborhoods some of which are well-defined and better planned residential areas than the core areas while many are mixed agglomerations which cannot be clearly defined on the basis of socio-economic class or residential density. Nevertheless a pattern of haphazard development is still evident especially in the newly developed and peripheries of the city. This is an outcome of the Nigerian Land Use Law of 1978 which hampered the preparation of a layout (Egunjobi, 1999). The inability to provide a city plan by successive city governments has resulted in the absence of a standard zoning arrangement (Egunjobi, 1999).

National economic development of the 1970s had a significant influence on the urbanization processes of the city. Since then Ibadan has grown to become a large, sprawling city with no discernible pattern of development. Unplanned urban expansion and development of peripheral informal settlements developed mainly along major transportation routes (Fourchard, 2003). This include the rapidly expanding areas of the city extending eastwards from the largely immigrant suburbs to the west and north of the core area which have developed with the slum characteristic of the core areas (Chokor, 1986b). Several sub-urban slums have developed in Olorunsogo, Ogbere, Boluwaji, Olomi, Kehinsi, Aroye, Alakia, Isebo, Akobo, Alegongo, Wakajaiye/Olodo, Bembo/Owode Estate and Apete with inadequate supply of pipe-borne water, electricity, motorable roads, sewage system, fire station and health facilities (Tomori, 2012). It is estimated that 70-80 per cent of households in Ibadan reside in virtual slum conditions (Arimah, 1994).

In addition, extensive areas, which were earlier characterized by rural features, have either been incorporated into the city or transformed into peri-urban areas, such that former rural areas including Alakia, Bode-Igbo, Lalupon, Moniya, Odo-Ona, Ogbere and Olodo are all now part of peri-urban Ibadan (Adelekan et al, 2014).

An assessment of housing amenities in the city by Arimah (1994) showed distinct spatial inequalities with wards in the central, eastern, south-eastern and extreme northern sections of the city which are largely in the core area recording negative scores on the spaciousness and modern housing amenities dimensions. Wards with high scores extend from the north-eastern sections of the city (Kongi, Ikolaba, Agodi, Idi-Ape, Orita-Bashorun) to the north-western and south-western sections comprising areas such as Bodija, Iyaganku, Oke-Bola, Onireke, Eleyele, Jericho, Idi-Ishin, Oke-Ado, Challenge, Ring Road and Oluyole Estate.

To a large extent, urban development has taken place in the city without compliance with building regulations. Arimah and Adeagbo (2000) noted that the most violated aspects of building regulations are plot coverage, setback stipulations, room size, provision of utilities and the change of use from a wholly residential use to the incorporation of home-based enterprises. For example, in two localities of Mapo (core area) and Apete (newly developed sub-urban) only

10% and 41% of houses respectively have approved building plans (Adeniji and Ogundiji, 2009). Also, although the State regulations guiding the minimum riparian setbacks on either side of watercourses ranges from 15 to 46 m, depending on the size of the river or stream (Oyo State 2005), after the August 2011 floods in Ibadan 26,533 buildings in the city were identified within the statutory setbacks for rivers and streams (Oyo State 2011). Similarly Agbola and Alabi (2010) in an inventory of illegal structures identified 871 illegal structures under electricity transmission lines (11KV, 33KV, 132KV and 330KV) in Ibadan. The relatively low levels of compliance with building regulations have been attributed to several factors which include the institutional context of urban development and planning regulations; the administrative machinery for physical planning implementation which does not make for inter-agency coordination; poverty of the general populace; and the disdain and apathy of the public towards formal planning institutions in the city (Arimah and Adeagbo, 2000). The outcomes of the absence of adequate planning in the city are increasing poverty and proliferation of slum and informal settlements (UN-HABITAT 2009).

3. Urban Challenges

Ibadan is plagued by diverse problems which are mostly a consequence of city and population growth, macro-scale economic conditions, environmental changes at the local scale and the inability of city governments to effectively manage urban development. Some of the outstanding urban challenges are discussed below.

i. Unemployment and poverty

Nigeria's economy which had become largely dependent on oil was severely affected by the significant fall in crude oil prices in the international market in the 1980s that heralded an economic crisis. As a consequence, Nigeria adopted a macro-policy prescription by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, in July 1986 to correct the disequilibrium in the national economy. The Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) had adverse consequences on all sectors of the economy, the effect of which still pervades many sectors of the Nigerian economy. Relative economic growth over the past decade has been accompanied by increasing inequality and vulnerability (AEO 2015). The 2014 re-based GDP figures that showed an

increase in the size of the Nigerian economy have drawn attention to official poverty statistics and concern about their accuracy (AEO 2015). Official statistics of Nigeria's poverty profile show that while relative poverty measurement was 54.4% in 2004 it increased to 69% in 2010. Also, poverty rate has not reduced markedly. In the south west of Nigeria 59.1% live on less than one dollar a day (NBS, 2012).

A major factor of poverty is unemployment. The twin problem of unemployment and poverty in Nigeria has been comprehensively assessed by Iyoha et al (2013). The economic crisis and structural adjustments of the 1980s and 1990s weakened the employment and law enforcement capacity of the state and encouraged a high level of informalization of economic activities (Nwaka 2005). In urban areas many workers lost their jobs and unemployment rates increased as a result of privatization and commercialization of public enterprises and the low capacity utilization of industries. Between 1980 and 1999 the highest rate of urban unemployment (9.8%) in Nigeria was recorded in the years 1985-1987 (National Bureau of Statistics). However, from 2000 the rate of urban unemployment became highly pronounced reaching the highest rate of 22.8% in 2010. The situation of youth (15-24 years) unemployment in the country is much worse with a record of youth unemployment rate of 37.7% in 2011 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2011). Among young women in Nigeria the causes of high level of unemployment has been generally adduced to low levels of education, gender discrimination, cultural factors and early marriage (Okojie, 2013)

Rising unemployment rates especially among youths is a key factor of many social vices among which are car-snatching, armed robbery, kidnapping and violence the rate of which has increased in Ibadan within the last decade (Iyoha et al, 2013; Okojie, 2013).

Urban poverty is a long standing problem in Ibadan. As far back as 1978 when the economic situation in the country was buoyant about 68% of the city population were low-income earners (Obateru, 1994). With national economic depression the situation worsened. The 2010 unemployment rate for Oyo State for which Ibadan is the capital city is 27.7% (National Bureau of Statistics 2012). Large-sized households headed by men who are either old, widowed, self-employed, uneducated or who have only primary school education and with no access to any

form of credit, are suggested to be more vulnerable to poverty than other households in Ibadan (Adesanoye and Okunmadewa, 2007).

ii. Inadequate provision of basic infrastructure and social services

A major outcome of the rapid population growth of the city over the years is the substantial pressure on social services and urban infrastructure. Inadequate provision of social services and ineffective emergency management are characteristic of the city. This is pronounced in informal settlements leading to increased vulnerability to disease and injury on the urban poor, particularly women and children (OYSG and UNICEF, 1997). A major factor which contributed to the inadequate provision of social services was the downturn in the Nigerian economy in the 1980s. This and other factors, including corruption, resulted in inadequate provision of basic infrastructure and facilities in the city. The inadequacy has translated to risk inequality within the city and localities, the geography of which is noted to occur at all scales (UNISDR, 2015). Furthermore, it is reflected in spatial/geographical differences in quality of life and well-being of different social groups in the city (Okafor, 2008). Key areas of deficit are identified below:

Roads

A large proportion of the road network in the city is narrow, winding, lack pedestrian sidewalk and are in a state of disrepair since most of the existing roads were constructed in the late 1940s and early 1950s when the city's economic base and territorial extent were very limited (Tomori, 2011). Over the years increase in population, city expansion, increase in urban activities and increase in number of vehicles has placed greater demand on roads in the city. About 50 percent of houses in the traditional core of the city are not accessible to vehicular traffic (Egunjobi, 1999). This situation has extended to the rapidly expanding slum areas of the city. The fact that the responsibilities for construction and maintenance of the city roads are shared by the three levels of Government; the federal 8%, the state 22%, local government 70% has compounded the management and maintenance of roads in the city (Filani, 1994). Different problems associated with transportation in Ibadan are traceable to the lack of physical planning in many parts of the

city and the inability to adequately control and manage public transport by the local and state governments.

Solid waste management

Enormous quantity of wastes of different types, about 48,586 tonnes, is generated in the city each year (SIP, 2010). The municipal authorities have not however, succeeded in effectively managing the huge quantity of waste generated in the city. This has led to uncontrolled and direct dumping of solid wastes (domestic, agricultural and industrial) in open dumps, rivers and wetlands. The extensive drainage network of the city has facilitated the use of surface waters for waste disposal. This practice is recognized as one of the most critical problems facing the city (Omoleke, 2004).

Water supply

Provision of municipal water supply in the city is grossly inadequate. At the end of the 1990s the water corporation pipeline network covered only 65% of Ibadan municipality but less than 30% of households enjoyed regular supply of water (Adelekan, 2006). Only about 700 km of piping had been installed out of about 5000 km of piping required for adequate water distribution. Most of the existing pipes in the city are obsolete due to old age as about 76% are more than 50 years old and have not carried water for many years. The present water supply situation is worsened by urban expansion and population growth. Several other institutional and technical factors responsible for the water supply situation in the city have been identified (Adelekan, 2006). Some of which include the hilly topography of the city which necessitates pumping of water to higher elevations. The irregular electricity supply situation in the city, expensive use of alternative power sources (generators) and lack/high cost of diesel for running these. Water distribution is also undertaken with little or no planning as adequate data and information on hydrologic, hydro-geologic, yield recovery, recharge, population distribution and consumption pattern is lacking.

The inadequate supply of water by the Water Corporation in Ibadan has to a large extent affected water use pattern in the city. The middle-income and high-income groups mainly depend on the

construction of hand-dug wells or boreholes per housing unit for their water supply. In many low-income areas of the city municipal water supply is mainly by public standpipes or yard taps, the number of households served by one standpipe is however very large. In the new suburban areas, municipal water supply is virtually non-existent or very erratic and many residents depend on well water and other water sources for their household use. A survey of the water use pattern in low-income communities of traditional core areas (Aremo, Oje, Foko, Ayeye and Opo-Yeosa) and the more recent low/middle-income sub-urban areas of Ijokodo, Mokola, Orogun, Agbowo and Monatan-Iwo road areas showed that more than 60% of households did not depend on the municipal water supply for their domestic use (Adelekan, 2006).

Electricity supply

The power sector in Nigeria operates well below its estimated capacity. The wide gap between the installed capacity and total electricity generation capacity resulting in frequent power outages began to emerge in 1978 (Babatunde and Shuaibu, 2009). Low water levels at Kanji, Jebba, and Shiroro hydropower stations are often claimed to be responsible for the frequent power shortages, while the Lagos, Egbin, Delta, and Port Harcourt Afam power plants are also operating at below capacity due to poor maintenance. The general consensus is that failure in provision of regular electricity supply in Nigeria is a product of corruption and bad leadership, poor assets maintenance, inadequate gas supply to thermal generation plants, transmission infrastructure and inconsistent government policies. Only 40% of Nigeria's population is connected to the electricity grid; and this population faces power problems 60% of the time (Aliyu et al, 2013). The statistics for individual cities is however not available.

Small-scale firms, informal sector activities and households bear the greater proportion of the cost of the power failure. Adenikinju (2003) observed that as much as 20–30% of initial investment is spent on the acquisition of alternative facilities to enhance electricity supply reliability resulting in significant negative impact on costs competitiveness of the manufacturing sector. Many local industries have either shut down because of the high cost of running electric power generators or had to downsize their labour force. Inadequate supply of electricity therefore exacerbates poverty and contributes to its perpetration, as it precludes most industrial activities

and the jobs they create (IEA, 2002). The use of electricity power generators has reduced household budget on essentials for large population of urban dwellers and is a source of noise and air pollution. Storage of petrol and diesel for generator use in residences and work places as well as private electricity connections are also sources of fire hazards in the city.

Health services

Healthcare needs of the population of the metropolis are served by the University College Hospital, two State hospitals, and several private medical facilities, in addition to traditional medical practitioners scattered all over the city (UN-HABITAT. 2007).

4. Implications for Urban Hazards

As is the case with other rapidly growing cities in West Africa, Ibadan is highly vulnerable to both urban and environmental change (Adelekan 2012, 2014; UN-Habitat, 2014). Urban dynamics and processes have exacerbated existing risks and generated new risks in the city. Ibadan city dwellers are exposed to a host of urban hazards and risks. These include communicable and infectious diseases, flooding, fires, crime (robbery, kidnapping), vehicle accidents, building collapse, deaths resulting from use of electric power generators, building under or near high voltage power lines and telecommunication masts, violence (youth, transport unions). Between the period 2000 and 2013, the number of cases of premature deaths resulting from violence, crimes, road accidents and fire incidents among other risks in the city reported in local newspapers had increased considerably (Adelekan and Nwokocha, 2014). These events which are more prevalent in poorer high-density, residential areas of the city have significant impact on human activity and the persistence of poverty.

i. Health

Since the 1970s the proliferation of slums and unplanned expansion of the city into high risk areas has resulted in increased health hazards arising from poor sanitation, inadequate water supply and ineffective solid waste/wastewater management (Adelekan et al, 2014; World Bank, 2014). The operations of the informal sector enterprises, especially those located in informal communities are a further cause of adverse health impacts for the urban poor (Nwaka 2005).

In an earlier study (Iyun, 1984) showed that the serious health conditions in Ibadan city are communicable and infectious diseases and common symptoms including diarrhoea and gastroenteritis, malaria, tuberculosis, malnutrition, and hypertension. The prevalence of water-borne diseases particularly typhoid, dysentery, cholera and diarrhoea, especially among the urban poor, is largely due to the water supply situation in the city (Adelekan, 2006; Lawoyin et al, 1999; Oguntoke *et al.*, 2009). During the first incidence of cholera in Ibadan in January 1971 (Lewis et al, 1972), the areas of earliest infection were the traditional core of the city (Adeshina, 1981). In this cholera epidemic outbreak over 500 persons died in the built-up area of the city. Since the first incidence, Lawoyin et al (1999) noted that outbreaks of cholera have been recurring with increasing frequency since the first outbreak in 1970. Contaminated potable water sources were responsible for the 1996 cholera outbreak in Ibadan (Southwest) (Lawoyin et al, 1999). The Oyo State government also observed that in the six localities of Ibadan North West Local Government Area where an outbreak of cholera claimed four lives in August 2011, 50 houses had no toilets.

Recent studies further highlight the effects of pollution on the quality of water in wells especially of slum communities in the city (e.g. Ahaneku and Adeoye, 2014; Ochieng et al, 2011; Oloruntoba et al, 2013). Surveys of slum communities in Ibadan South East LG show that most of the wells are grossly polluted by practices such as unsanitary maintenance of wells and their features, proximity to potential pollution sources such as pit latrines, indiscriminate dumping of refuse and poor sanitation. These communities are therefore prone to water-borne diseases because of their dependence on polluted wells for their water supply (Ochieng et al, 2011; Oloruntoba et al, 2013). Also, in the slum community of Foko in Ibadan South West LG biological contaminants exceeded the recommendation of WHO drinking water quality guidelines in shallow wells constructed near pit latrines (Ahaneku and Adeoye, 2014).

The socioeconomic characteristics of the inhabitants are of great significance in the spatial variations of the disease risk-cell areas in the city (Iyun, 1983). This is observed in the prevalence of diseases associated with poverty and ignorance, such as malnutrition and tuberculosis, in the indigenous/traditional core areas of the city. Iyun (1983) further showed that

socio-economic and demographic factors such as age-group, occupation, religion, and population and accommodation densities are significant in determining intra-city variations in sickness levels. She however noted that the precise role of these factors is difficult to establish since major variations in access to and use of medical facilities occur between the modern and older sections of the city. Similarly, a study of the pattern of tuberculosis in the University College Hospital (UCH), Ibadan, between 1966 to 1995 indicated that socio-economic factors and poor health care facilities appear to be more important contributing factors to the gradual increase in the frequency of tuberculosis in the period 1981 to 1995 relative to the earlier period 1966 to 1980 (Nwachokor and Thomas, 2000).

ii. Flood hazards

Changes in the local climate and local environmental changes in the context of urban development in the city have resulted in increased frequency of hazard events particularly floods and windstorms (Adelekan, 2012; Agbola et al, 2012; Adelekan, 2014; Adelekan, 2015). Small increases in hazard levels due to climate change are indicated to have profound disaster impacts on the poor and resulting poverty outcomes (UNISDR 2009). The earliest documentation of flooding in Ibadan was recorded in 1902 as a result of the flooding of the Oranyan swamp and in 1924 (Tomori, 2012). In 1933 another flooding ensued when the Gege River overflowed its banks submerging houses on the river banks (NEST, 1999). Other major flooding events were recorded in the city between 1951 and 2011 (Table 1). Noteworthy are those of 1960, 1963, 1978, and 1980 (Areola and Akintola 1980; Ayoade 1979; Ayoade and Akintola 1980; Oguntala and Oguntoyinbo 1982). These floods resulted from the overflowing of the Ogunpa River, and the impacts were largely confined to areas on its flood plain. Flooding events were also recorded in 1985, 1987 and 1990. The severe flood of August 2011 largely affected the Ona River Basin.

An assessment of the scale and nature of the risk from flooding in the city identified river flooding as the major flood risk source as a consequence of the generally sloping landscape and rapid urban run-off within the city (World Bank 2014). The dense network of rivers and streams is a key factor in the generation of floods with the major rivers being Ona River, Ogunpa stream, Kudeti stream, Ogbere stream. Several other factors however contribute to flooding in the city.

These include heavy rainfall, the lack of, or bad drainage channels, the presence of bridges over rivers which subsequently act as temporary dams due to blockage with solid waste dumped into the river channels. Others are construction of buildings within setbacks, poor floodplain and river channel management, the use of the rivers and drainage channels for solid waste disposal, government negligence in providing and maintaining adequate storm water drainage system in the city and the damming of the Eleyele River (Adelekan, 2015). Furthermore, the emerging pattern of higher-intensity rainstorms in recent years has resulted in increased runoff arising from reduced vegetation cover over the city, a higher percentage of artificial surfaces and poor drainage systems, which trigger flooding (Adelekan et al, 2014).

The flood events in Ibadan have been associated with varying degrees of physical, social and economic impacts and losses. The Ogunpa flood event of 1980 resulted in more than 250 deaths. The outcome of the 2011 floods was the death of more than 100 persons and extensive damage to physical infrastructure including roads, bridges, buildings, property, farms, livelihoods and enterprises across the city. More than 2,000 properties were estimated to have been flooded in the Ona River catchment. Significant economic losses estimated at about \$40 million were also recorded in the housing, education, agriculture and transport sectors (World Bank, 2014).

An assessment of the flood risk management capacity of city officials by the World Bank (2014) indicated an ill-preparedness to address flooding events in the city as a result of the following factors:

- Lack of policy framework for flood management at State level that clarifies roles and responsibilities of the relevant MDAs.
- Lack of development plans to guide urban development in the city.
- Absence of river/stream management policies, especially with regard to the maintenance of the river/stream channels and the waste disposal behavior of the city residents.
- Outdated regulations on setbacks to rivers/streams.
- Limited resources and capacity of the 11 Local Government Authorities to manage flood risk and organize adequate flood responses.

Table 1: Flood disasters in Ibadan; estimated damage and deaths (1951-2014)

Date	Rainfall Amount (mm); climate station in Ibadan	Estimated Damages (Naira)	Estimated Loss of Lives and property
9–10 July 1951	161mm; Forestry Headquarter	Unknown	Unknown
16–17 June 1955	173mm; Moor Plantation	Unknown	Unknown
16–17 August 1960	178mm; Eleyele Waterworks	Over 100,000	Unknown
27–28 August 1963	258mm; University of Ibadan	Over 200,000	At least 2 person
14 May 1969	137mm; University of Ibadan	Over 100,000	At least 2 persons
1973 (undated)*	Unknown	More than 100,000	3
20 April 1978	126mm; University of Ibadan	Over 2 million	Over 30 deaths, more than 15,000 displaced and 100 houses damaged
31 August 1980	274mm; University of Ibadan	Over 300 million	More than 300 deaths, over 40,000 displaced and over 50 houses destroyed
1982**	N/A	Unknown	Unknown
1984**	N/A	Unknown	Unknown
April 1986**	N/A	Unknown	Unknown
June/July 1987**	N/A	Unknown	Unknown
10 July 2010/2011	45mm; Old Airport Samonda	Unknown	Unknown
26 August 2011	154mm; Old Airport Samonda	Over 30 billion	102 reported deaths
	86.2mm; New Airport Alakia	Unknown	Unknown
9 March 2012 ⁺	N/A	Unknown	30 reported deaths, 5000 displaced and 100 persons declared missing
22 September 2013 ⁺	N/A	Unknown	7 persons
28 June 2014 ⁺	N/A	Unknown	15 reported deaths

Sources:

1. Nigerian Environmental Study Action /Team (NEST 1991, 107); Ayoade (2012), **Akintola and Ikwuyatum (2012)
2. Media/Newspaper reports:

⁺Vanguard, 30 June 2014-Ibadan flood: death toll rises to 15

⁺Official website of Oyo State, 12 March 2012- Flood damage at Oluyole Estate
<http://www.oyostate.gov.ng/flood-damage-at-oluyole-estate/>

⁺Premium Times, 23 September 2013- Seven feared killed in Ibadan floods

<http://www.premiumtimesng.com/regional/ssouth-west/145292-seven-feared-killed-ibadan-flood.html>

- Focus of the Oyo State Emergency Management (OSEMA) mainly on disaster response. Only limited resources are allocated to disaster risk reduction and limited technical capacity in disaster risk reduction.
- Lack of coordinated emergency response between OSEMA and National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA).
- Lack of rainfall data monitoring by the State coupled with limited access to rainfall data through the Nigerian Meteorological Agency's (NIMET). NIMET only provides rainfall alerts for the south west region in Nigeria; however, this is insufficient for early flood warning purposes.

iii. Conflict and violence

The major causes of violence in urban Africa are overpopulation, poor quality of urban management and the actions of urban marginalized groups (Albert, 1994). Lack of, or inadequate access to potable water and energy (petrol) has been sources of conflict in the city of Ibadan. The procurement of water at public points especially in slum communities usually results in quarrels and sometimes physical fights among women and children (Adelekan 2006). These conflicts are mainly due to perceived selfishness on the part of some people wanting to fetch more buckets of water than is generally acceptable and for those who have wells located in their compounds a major complaint is that drawers of water constitute disturbance. Acute shortage of water in the city has in the past led to civil unrest as in the case of students of the Ibadan Polytechnic in 1995 and 1997 and University of Ibadan students in 1997. Conflict over space especially in rooming apartments in slum settlements has also been reported.

The introduction or implementation of unfavourable policies by governments has also engendered urban violence (Sunmola, 1994). At different times since 1992 mass violent demonstrations and destruction of property have taken place in the city in response to attempts by government to increase the prices of petrol and allied products. Elections processes have also been a source of conflicts between opposing parties sometimes resulting in injury, loss of lives and properties.

4. Conclusion: Urban Risks and City Governance

While old and familiar hazards are attenuated, new patterns of both extensive and small disaster risk have emerged in the city with certain areas associated with specific risks (e.g. Adelekan, 2012). Nonetheless, there is no targeted policy to prevent and reduce the impacts of natural and environmental/physical hazards and health risks in the city (Fourchard, 2003). The lack of risk sensitive urban planning and management in Ibadan has been noted (World Bank, 2014). A major factor contributing to this situation is the lack of city-wide risk information across the spectrum of risks occurring in the city to inform development and disaster reduction. Although an initial attempt to provide a planning baseline profile of the five local government areas (LGAs) of metropolitan Ibadan was undertaken with the objective of identifying risk areas and vulnerable population within each ward requiring intervention, the varying quality of the secondary data analyzed for the purpose limited the result (OYSG and UNICEF, 1997).

Also important is the fact that the urban planning and management framework in the city is not integrated as all LGAs focus on their own needs without considering the entire city dimension in developing and implementing urban management decisions (World Bank, 2014). Nonetheless, the increase of diverse risks in the city has resulted in social and economic losses, injuries and deaths. The costs of such knowledge gap, in terms of economic loss at the level of individual productivity and for public health interventions and health systems, have been highlighted for sub-Saharan countries (Kaufman et al, 1997).

Although there are media reports of hazard/disaster impacts on men and women in Ibadan, none, so far, have been sighted in formal government reports and in the academic and public literature. Gender aspects on large and small disasters as well as everyday hazards are therefore not routinely identified. Exploring this theme in Ibadan city study will therefore provide new knowledge in this respect.

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