

University of Ibadan, Nigeria

Department of Urban and Regional Planning

Tunde Agbola

1. Introduction

Although urbanisation predates British adventurism in Nigeria, the tempo of this process by the end of the last millennium had become astounding, to the extent that Nigeria now houses half of the population of the entire West African subregion. While rural urban migration was responsible for two-thirds of the urban growth before now, available evidences point to the fact that only one-third of the urbanisation process is now due to in-migration, while two-thirds is due to the natural growth of the city population. The challenges of this stupendous growth are enormous for various professions, but more profound for the physical planning profession whose function it is to guide and control the resulting systemic changes arising from the urbanisation process. The planning professionals saddled with these responsibilities of guidance and control are most often constrained by various factors, the most important of which, perhaps, is the limited nature of their own knowledge and experience or professional competence.

While Nigeria has multiple avenues that can be pursued for the training and certification of professional planners to meet current urbanisation challenges, not only is the number inadequate but the quality of the resultant output, in both theory and practice, has sometimes been questioned. Although there is a statutory means of punishing erring professionals, there has nonetheless been a lot of professional rascality which has allowed the public to cast aspersions on the profession and the professionals who practise it. Some of these poor practices arise from the inadequate conceptualisation of planning, its practice in contemporary times and the inability of students and practitioners to situate the profession within the context of the rapidly changing challenges of contemporary city and regional lives. They are most often a consequence of the rigidity of academic and professional curricula, the failure of planners to take advantage of re-training, and a lack of exposure to innovative external ideas.

This new initiative of the Association of African Planning Schools to present, examine and discuss the origin and institutional systems of planning, the plans produced and their impact on the morphology of their respective cities, is therefore very laudable. Perhaps more gratifying is the examination of the curricula of various planning schools in the different regions of Africa which produce the chief actors and professionals in the management of African cities. This exercise is crucial, especially in view of the renewed world attention being paid to the importance of urban planning, the growth of African cities and the increasing importance of African cities to the economies of their respective nations.

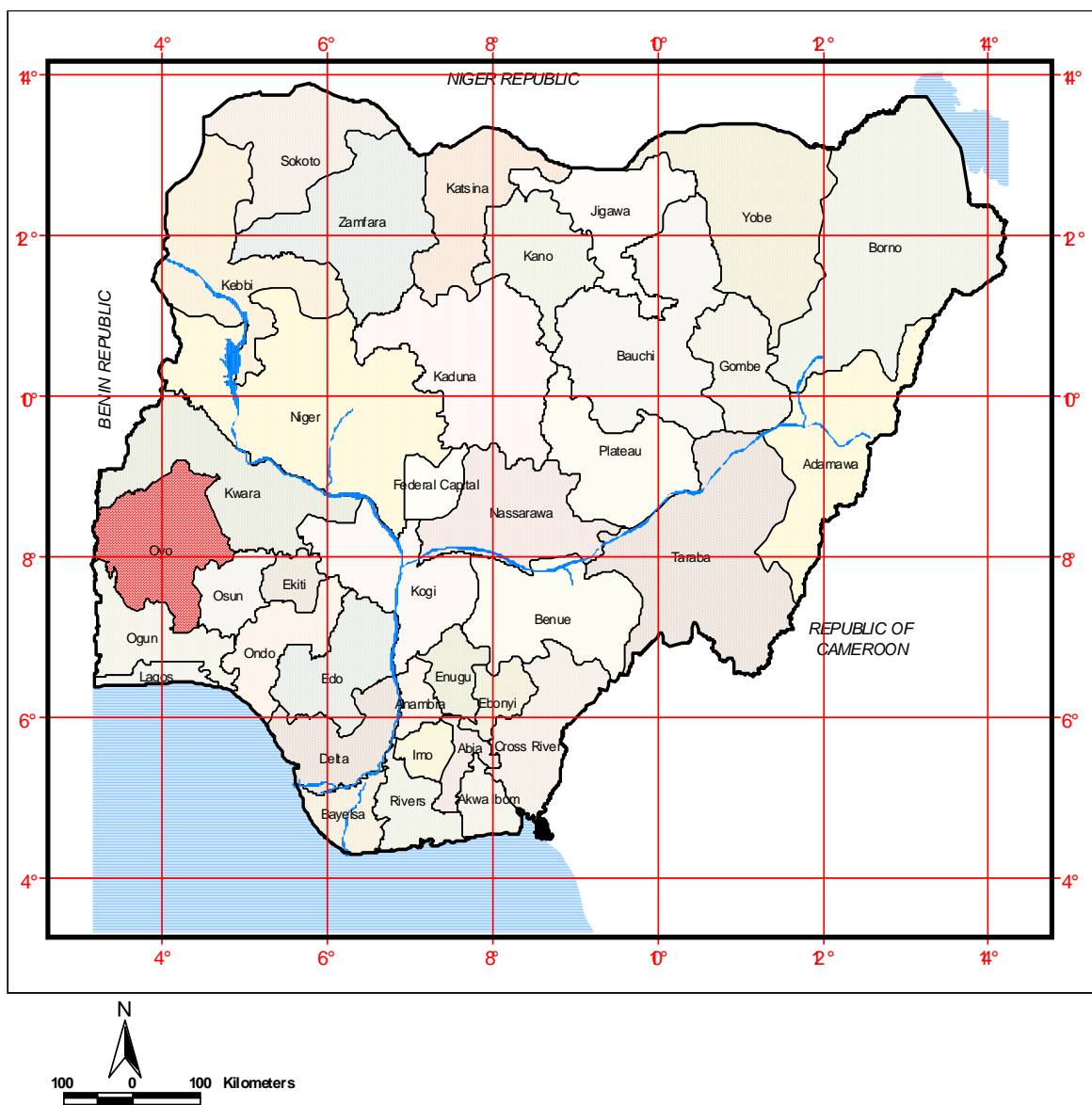
This paper is divided into five main sections. Following this introduction, section two presents a brief contextual profile of the Ibadan city region, its population, socio-economic life and other features. This is followed in section three by a discussion of the planning system in Nigeria as it applies to the city region. Section four describes the planning education system in the city region, and gives details of the programmes, curricula, staffing and library system. Section five contains information about the professional accreditation system and the links between the planning schools and the accreditation bodies. The last section is a futurist appraisal of the relevance of planning education and the suitability of the students being produced to the enormous challenges facing the planning profession in the city region, and indeed in Nigeria as a whole, in the 21st century.

2. Ibadan: The urban and regional context

2.1 Location and origin

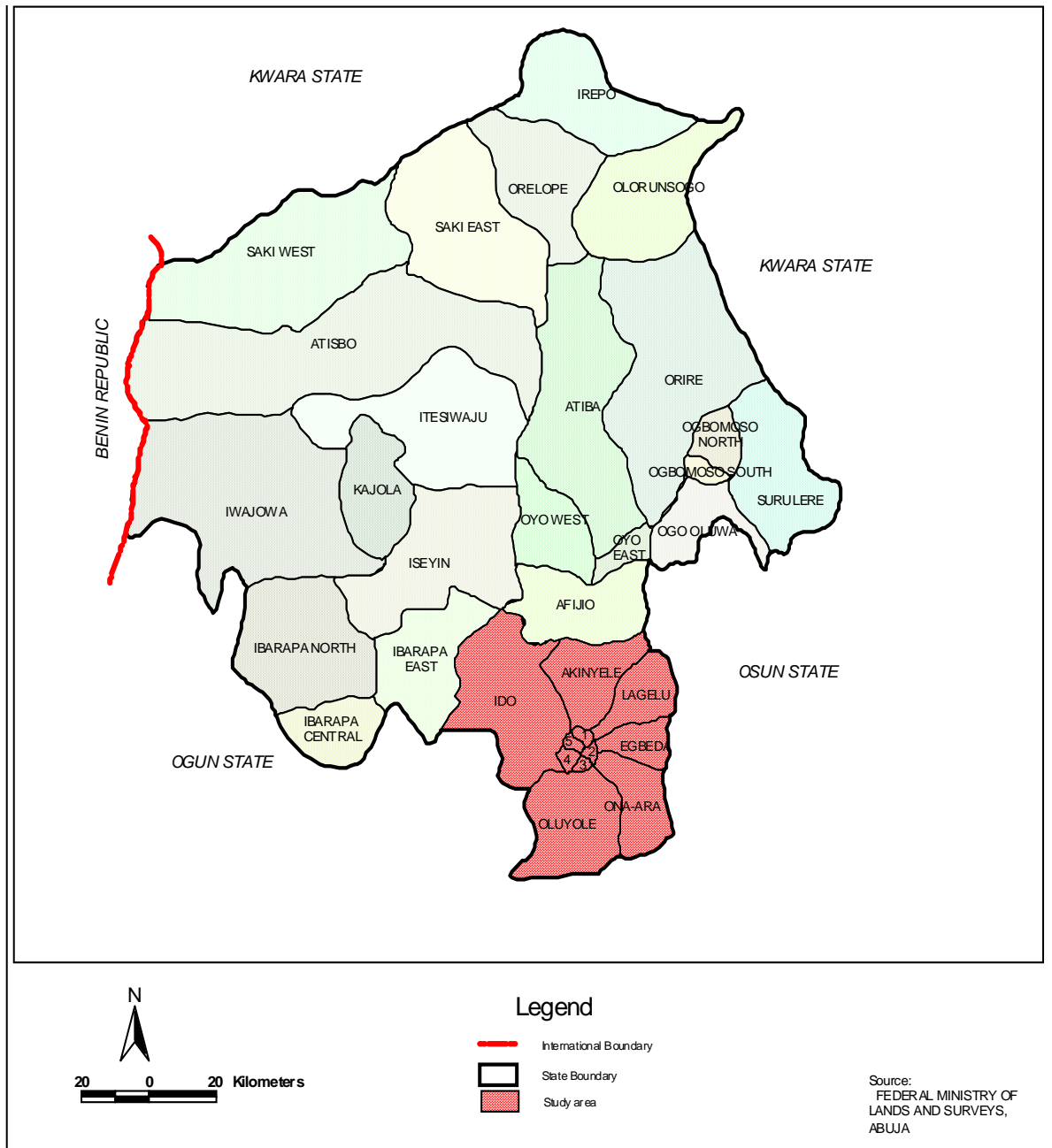
Ibadan is the largest indigenous city in tropical Africa (Ayeni 1994). It is the capital of Oyo State, which is one of the 36 states of the Federal Republic of Nigeria outside the Federal Capital Territory-Abuja (Figure 1). The metropolis is made up of 11 local government areas (Figures 2 and 3). Five of these are in the inner city. They are: Ibadan North West, Ibadan North, Ibadan North East, Ibadan South West and Ibadan South East. These inner-city local governments are surrounded by the six local government areas of Akinyele, Lagelu, Egbeda, Ona-Ara, Oluyole and Ido.

Figure 1: Oyo State in the national setting



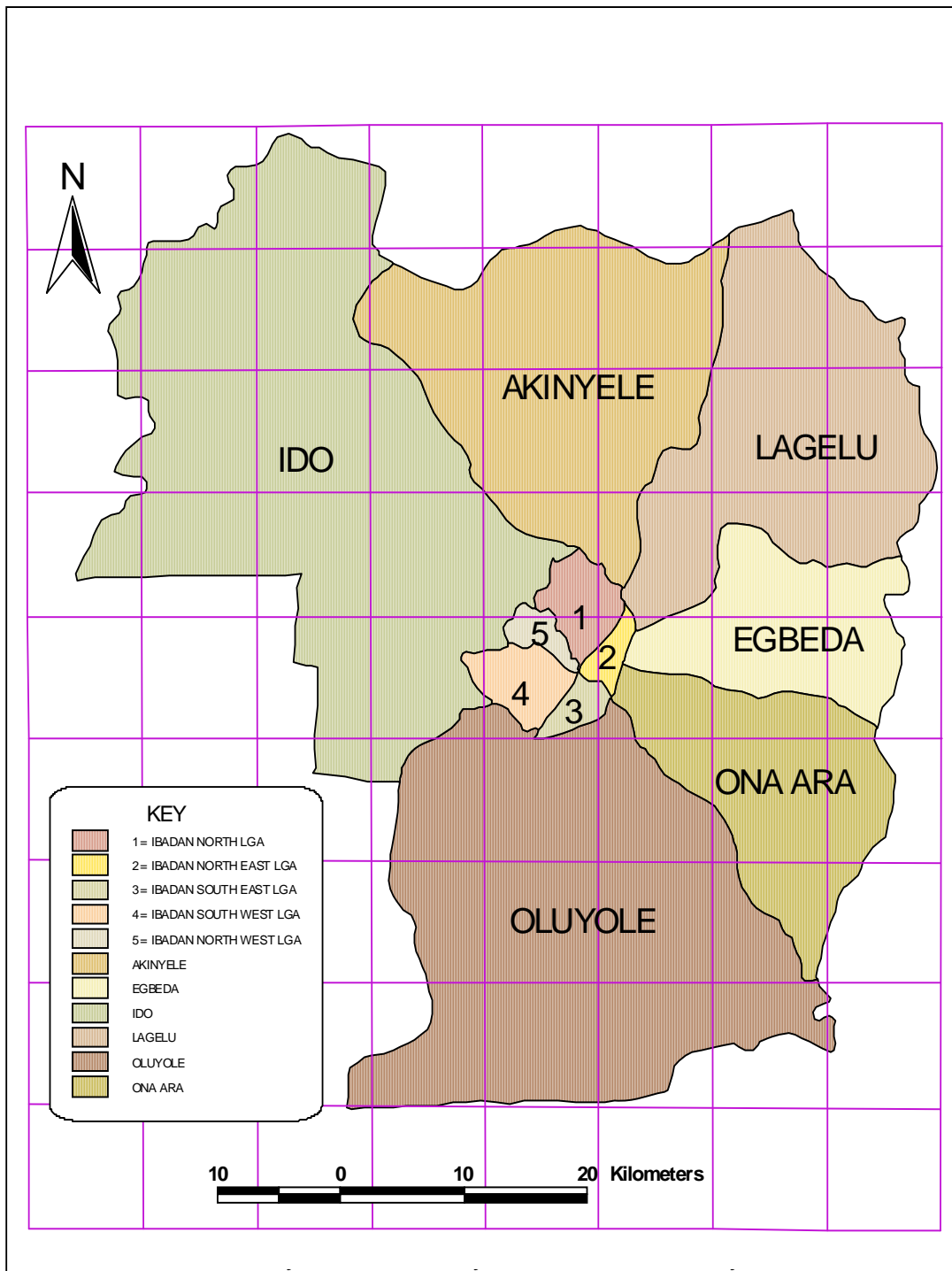
Source: FMLS 2005

Figure 2: Ibadan in the context of Oyo State



Source: FMLS 2005

Figure 3: Ibadan metropolitan area



Source: Oyo State Ministry of Lands and Surveys 2005

Present-day Ibadan is the product of the Yoruba civil wars of the period from about 1810 to 1893, and was established in 1829 as a refuge and war camp for dissidents from Oyo and Ife areas of Yorubaland. It is located on the fringe of the forest zone (Mabogunje 1968). The location of Ibadan

was defined as the area extending for about 55 km from Asejire in the east to Agemo in the west and for about 70 km from Iroko in the north to Mamu in the south.

2.2 Urbanisation processes and population growth

Ibadan is known to be a city-village (Lloyd 1962). The traditional Ibadan has people living in huge compounds, often containing several hundred inhabitants. In the past, there were structures made up of a series of enclosed rectangular courtyards, but now modern buildings, which tend increasingly to face the road, have replaced the older structures. However, the pattern of co-residence and the concept of compounds still remain. The lineage is a strongly cooperative body of men and women in which are vested rights, amounting to ownership, in both town and farming land. All members of the indigenous compounds hold rights to land and elect from among the male members a Mogaji, who represents their interests in the traditional governing councils and who aspires to a chieftaincy title, setting him on the ladder towards the highest political offices.

However, Ibadan became politically important in the era of British consular officials, who made it an administrative centre in the late 1930s. The railway line from Lagos reached Ibadan in 1901 and the major expatriate commercial firms and banks made the town their headquarters. These economic and political developments led to a substantial immigration into Ibadan from all parts of Nigeria. These immigrants comprise the Hausas and the Ibos (with Ibibio) and also the Edos, Nupes and Urhobos. Of these immigrants, only the Hausas are ethnically segregated, in Sabo, while the Ibos and other southern Nigerian people are more widely dispersed through the Ekotedo and Oke-Ado quarters of Ibadan. Thus Ibadan was known to consist of two towns—that of the indigenous people and that of the strangers.

Apart from these groups, ambitious young men eager to achieve success, craftsmen looking for better opportunities for their trade, and rich men bored with life in their own towns came to Ibadan. A handful of Sierra Leoneans and Brazilians also found their way to Ibadan. Often these newcomers settled in groups according to their place of origin, and there are still areas in Ibadan being colonised by people from particular towns. In 1851, the town was said to have a population of between 10 000 and 60 000. However, the city soon expanded to cover an area of nearly 25 km², beginning with the closely packed houses, spreading over the slopes of the hill on which the old town was built, and continuing into the plains below where houses are less crowded. The town continued to expand, spreading beyond this hill as settlements grew around the other hills, notable Oke Are to the north. Town walls, which were estimated to be about 16 km in circumference in 1857, surrounded the whole settlement. There were four main gates in these walls, leading to Abeokuta, Ijebu, Oyo and Iwo.

As further stated by Awe (1967), some small farms were situated within the town walls, but the main farms were outside them. These stretched in 1858 as far as Lalupon and beyond to the north-east, and as far as Apomu town in the south-east. They also embraced other deserted Egba townships such as Ojo, Ika, Iroko and Ikeye, which then became Ibadan farm villages. As Ibadan grew in size, so also did it grow in commercial importance. Its geographical location between the coast and the interior made it a convenient meeting place for traders from all parts of Yoruba country. Indeed, Ibadan's trading activities and its policy of accepting all newcomers combined to form a substantial town with a large heterogeneous population.

Ibadan is well known for its hills. This has meant that residential districts tended to begin on hilltops, spreading down the slope of the hill until they were near the unoccupied flood plains of streams and rivers. Because of the circumstances of the city's founding, very little attempt seems to have been made to plan each district as it was founded on a hill adjoining others. This was largely because the land was given out in blocks as grants to chiefs, who then proceeded, with their relations and followers, to occupy them as they thought fit. Such blocks of buildings came to form a 'quarter' of the

town and bore the name of the chief, prefixed by the significant topographic element such as hills (oke), roads (opo or popo) or a marketplace (ita) (Mabogunje 1962). Being the oldest settled part of the city, the area around Mapo Hill was the most densely occupied portion of the city. Today, the congestion in this area of the city, that is, in both the old centre and the suburbs of the 1950s, defies description.

A number of significant changes explain the growth of the city beyond its 1900 boundary. These include: erosion of the powers of the head of lineages; the attraction of the newer central business districts on the other side of the older city; the advent of the free primary education programme introduced in 1955; the arrival of the railways in 1901, which created a new suburb; and the growing centralisation of more functions in Ibadan since the 1940s which has led to an increase in the number of Europeans in the city. The resulting morphology of Ibadan exhibits three dominant characteristics. The most obvious are: the extensive, confused mass of housing which occupies a large proportion of the city; the small proportion of land devoted to roads, especially in the older parts of the city; and the persistence of uncontrolled growth.

In the 1991 population census, the population of Ibadan region was put at 1 991 367. The population of Ibadan town was 1 222 579 while that of the entire urban area was 1 829 187, although there were contentions that the population of Ibadan, including the temporary residents, was more than the estimated 2 million inhabitants. The population density of Ibadan is 400 people per hectare. The population density, by local government area, is highlighted in Table 1.

Table 1: Population of Ibadan City Region, by local government area

Local government area	Area in km ²	Population (1991)	Population density (persons /km ²)	Number of households
Ibadan North	145. 58	302 271	2 067	68 464
Ibadan North East	81. 37	275 627	3 355	65 335
Ibadan North West	31. 38	147 918	4 677	36 667
Ibadan South East	80. 45	225 800	2 832	52 278
Ibadan South West	125. 55	277 047	2 200	64 333
Akinyele	427. 26	140 118	327	30 257
Egbeda	136. 83	129 461	943	28 086
Ona Ara	577. 10	123 048	212	26 976
Oluyole	369. 37	91 527	246	20 268
Lagelu	283. 92	68 901	242	14 963
Ido	2 659. 97	53 582	65	12 085

Source: National Population Commission 1991

2.3 Access to housing and housing infrastructure

About 45% of households in Ibadan live in one-bedroom accommodation, with an average of 3.3 persons per room, having no separate toilet and kitchen. Most of these units exhibit serious structural defects which constitute danger to life and property. The housing units, usually developed spontaneously, provide shelter, but are completely lacking in infrastructural services.

Based on the two land tenure systems in Ibadan and Nigeria (the traditional and the statutory systems), public and private production of housing exists in Ibadan, although the public intervention in residential housing has been greatly limited by policy inconsistencies in Nigeria. The last registered and approved private estate development in the city was in 1978. A large share of new developments and transformation of the existing building stock are usually carried out informally, or outside the legal system. In addition, the new housing units are built in unregistered and uncoordinated ways or

developments by the informal sector, thus contributing to the amorphous development of the city and the creation of new slums. In the central areas, conversions of existing buildings and densification (through construction of new floors) are carried out without any form of regulation or control. Urban regulations intended to limit housing density are never applied, while sanitary and safety standards are also ignored. This results in poorly serviced housing in which the sewage system and the distribution of drinking water are inadequate by international standards, while electricity supply is unreliable.

Table 2 presents a land use analysis of the Ibadan Metropolitan Area as at 2004.

Table 2: Land use analysis of Ibadan Metropolitan Area*

Type of use	Area in hectares	Percentage
High-density residential	12 969.75	28.62
Medium-density residential	2 812.50	5.21
Low-density residential	6 406.25	14.14
Govt-acquired for housing	3 750.00	8.28
Industrial	1 500.00	16.55
Commercial	150.25	0.34
Institutional	1 562.50	3.34
Airport	562.50	3.45
Open space	625.00	1.38
Rural use	4 843.75	10.69
Agricultural	1 250.00	2.76
Total	45 312.50	100.00

Source: Oyo State Evaluation Office 2004

Note: * The Ibadan Metropolitan Area is 45 312 hectares or 3 123 km².

Generally in Ibadan, water is unsafe (Adetunji 2006). There is no water in most of the houses and there are many interruptions in the supply. The condition of the network is so bad that partial intervention or replacement is not possible. There are many leakages within the pipes and as a result, the pressure of the water flow varies enormously. Many households have assumed the position of municipal authority by digging wells or boreholes on their premises in order to supplement municipal water supplies, which are potable, while some depend on water vendors. In addition, water turbidity, hardness and suspended matter tend to increase as one moves from the low-density housing areas on the periphery of the city towards the high-density housing areas in the city. Therefore little information exists on some of the boreholes and virtually none on the wells in terms of depth, yield and the quality of the water produced.

There are no sewers in Ibadan and no purification systems. Open drains beside the roads are used as sewers, with the inevitable impact on urban health. The same channels used for rainwater are also used as sewers, especially by houses built beside the road. Lack of an efficient drainage system also threatens the entire road network. The system for distribution of electricity is generally in poor condition. Interruptions are frequent and last for many hours. Also, according to Adetunji (2006), piped sewage disposal systems do not exist and septic tanks are usually blocked due to lack of piped water supply. Household waste finds its way to the nearest stream or sinks into the ground. In terms of sanitation, pit latrines are normally used; most of them were sunk very close to water wells, leading to pollution.

2.4 Socio-economic profile

Research results show that illiteracy is still rife in the region. Recent reports show that the highest

percentage of the population (41.3%) has only secondary school education, followed by those with a higher degree (40.3%), while those with primary/Koranic school education comprise 14.1% and those in the category of 'others' account for 4.2%.

About 54.4% of the population is self-employed, which means that they are either involved in trading (be it on a small or a large scale) or specialised in a vocation like tailoring, carving/crafting or smithing. This is followed by those categorised as 'others'; this category includes students (in both secondary schools and higher institutions of learning) and full-time housewives, and accounts for 26.9% of the sampled population. The next-largest category consists of civil servants (14.5% of respondents) while the unemployed account for 4.2%.

From a recent survey, it has been discovered that 53.7% of the respondents earn between ₦5 000 and ₦10 000, while 32.9% earn between ₦10 000 and ₦20 000 and only 12% earn above ₦20 000; 1.4% earn less than ₦5 000 per month (one dollar is exchangeable for 125 naira; one rand is exchangeable for 20 naira). If this income profile is merged with the observed size of households, then the level of deprivation can be imagined. Of the total number of respondents, about 48.8% of households consist of 8–10 people, while 38.2% include 3–7 people, 9.9% have more than 10 people and 3.2% consist of 2 people or fewer. Most of the sampled communities are in traditional (core) areas, which could be the reason for households of 8–10 people comprising the highest share and those with fewer than 3 people making up the lowest share of the total.

2.5 Health and environmental issues facing the city region

The activities of the large population of Ibadan, coupled with the city's past spatial expansion, have caused a plethora of socio-economic problems, each of which has profound implications for health. Factors like inadequate water supply and water pollution, poor refuse disposal, poor housing, poor food and nutrition practices and disasters contribute singly or jointly to the ill-health of Ibadan city inhabitants. The most remarkable evidence of the connection between lack of water and diseases is the city's cholera epidemic of the early 1970s, which claimed about 10 031 victims. In addition, uncollected and ill-disposed-of waste invite flies and rodents into the living environment and contribute significantly to the generally unsanitary condition of city-space (Urban Management Programme 1995).

According to Shridar and Bameke (1985), Ibadan is generally filthy, although a few 'islands' of clean areas are found around the city. This has led to the pollution of the city's environmental systems. For example, it has been observed that the popular and now canalised Ogunpa stream in the city has the highest degree of pollution among the city's river and streams. The stream is so polluted that it could kill fish and other aquatic life within four hours. Open drains which serve as the sewers convey effluent from houses, markets and factories to the city streams, thus destroying the city's natural water systems. The heavy metal generated within the city pollutes the soils and underground water, which eventually become harmful to people.

In addition to health issues, the other environmental issues facing Ibadan include solid and liquid waste disposal, flood prevention and, to some extent, fire hazard. In relative terms, noise as a public concern has not been clearly distinguished (Egunjobi 1986).

3. The physical planning system in Nigeria

3.1 Planning legislation and the introduction of formal planning

Prior to colonial rule, traditional settlements, especially in the south-western part of Nigeria where

Ibadan is located, were structured according to the local customs and practice, the traditional land tenure system, the nature of the economy and the existing mode of transportation. Traditionally, settlements were established around palaces and the development and control of such settlements was the joint responsibility of the entire community. However, this traditional approach to development gradually gave way to colonial approaches with the coming of colonial rule (Andah 1995; Osuntokun 1997).

The origin of modern physical planning in Nigeria is similar to that in Britain. This is because the poor state of sanitation in Lagos, and concern for the people living in such an environment, prompted the promulgation of the Town Improvement Ordinance of 1863 with a view to controlling development and urban sanitation in Lagos. This ordinance could be regarded as the first planning-related legislation in Nigeria. It later metamorphosed into the Township Ordinance of 1917, which extended the area of influence of the 1863 ordinance to cover the whole of the country. The impact of the ordinance, which laid down guidelines for the physical layout of towns, is still visible today in such towns as Aba, Enugu, Port Harcourt, Jos, Minna, Kaduna, Lokoja and Makurdi. In addition, the ordinance legalised the segregation of the Europeans from the African Residential Area and established a management order for different parts of the town (NITP 1991).

The outbreak of bubonic plague in Lagos in 1926–1927 ushered in the Lagos Town Planning Ordinance of 1928 which made provision for the re-planning, improvement and development of Lagos. However, as noted by Oyesiku (1998), the first bold move to institutionalise physical planning in Nigeria by the colonial master was the enactment of the Nigerian Town and Country Planning Ordinance of 1946. The origin of this ordinance is traceable to the emerging planning problems of Nigerian cities in the early 1940s. According to Agbola and Agbola (1997), this law seems to be a coalition of the provisions of the 1914, 1917 and 1928 planning or township ordinances. The 1946 ordinance was fashioned after the British Town and Country Planning Act of 1932 and covers all towns in the nation.

The 1946 ordinance, like that of 1928, made provision for planning, re-planning, improvement and development of different parts of the country. It also covered a wide range of physical planning operations ranging from planning schemes, executions of schemes, acquisition and disposal of land for schemes, compensation and betterment, and the legal procedures for the operations of a scheme, to financial matters for successful implementation of schemes. Therefore the ordinance was designed to provide a framework for guiding physical growth and development of settlements in the country. The 1946 Town and Country Planning Ordinance was retained at independence in 1959 as the Town and Country Planning Laws, Chapter 123 of the Laws of Western Nigeria, and was again adopted by Oyo State in 1976. As the law was retained, so also were the problems of discriminatory legislation, inappropriate standards and ineffective administrative frameworks as exemplified in the post-independence development plans (Agbola 2006). Perhaps the most profound of the urban development problems at that time was that of the acquisition of land. This led to the 1978 Land Use Decree (Agbola & Agbola 1997).

The Nigerian Land Use Decree No. 6 of 1978, which came into existence on 29 March 1978, has many social, economic and political objectives. By the provisions of the decree, all rights to land in each state are vested in the State Governor, to be held in trust and administered for the common benefits of all Nigerians. The decree further stipulates that no land granted to an individual and upon which a certificate of occupancy (C-of-O) is issued may be alienated without the consent of the governor. Unfortunately, the system of imposed conveyance of land title by the colonial administration came into conflict with that of customary ownership of land which was running parallel to it, and no steps were taken to reconcile the two systems even with the enactment of the 1978 Land Use Act (Onajide 1988). Thus, the problems of land tenure and acquisition have not been properly resolved.

As a means of correcting the limitations of the 1946 law and ameliorating the ugly effects of the Land

Use Act, the Federal Government promulgated the Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law No. 88 on 15 December 1992. This was a major advancement, aimed at overhauling the old laws and clearly defining the roles of the three tiers of government in the planning process. The 1946 ordinance that was legally enforced for 46 years had formed the basis of public planning practice in Nigeria. While the ordinance was comprehensive enough for the nature and pattern of physical development in the country at the time it was promulgated, it had become obsolete as far back as the early 1970s, when the country witnessed rapid and unprecedented physical development activities as a result of the oil boom and the Udoji salary increment.¹

3.2 Types of plans produced

The 1992 Planning Law repealed the 46-year-old 1946 ordinance as the first post-independence planning law and recognises several types of plans that may be formulated or implemented by professional town planners, as shown in Table 3.

A cursory look at Table 3 shows that, unlike the 1946 Town and Country Planning Ordinance which emphasised planning schemes, the 1992 Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law emphasised the preparation of physical development plans at the national, state and local government levels. Thus, this law recognises the three tiers of government and sets out their roles in the planning process, as well as defining the types of development plans that can be prepared at each level.

Table 3: Types of plan prepared by different tiers of government

Federal	State	Local
National physical development plan*	Regional plan	Town plan
Regional plan	Subregional plan*	Rural area plan*
Subregional plan	Urban plan	Local plan
Urban plan	Local plan	Subject plan
Subject plan	Subject plan	

Source: Adapted from Falade 2003: 10.

Note: * Plan that is unique to each tier of government.

Considering the range of plans to be drawn up, there is wide scope for professional planners to contribute to the planning and managing of human settlements. However, pending full implementation of the provisions of the decree, the bulk of the work of planners consists of development control, which involves preparing plans, making site analysis reports and producing impact assessment reports (as required), all of which are submitted to the planning authority for approval. Since the government has yet to fully implement all the tenets of the decree, the situation has some serious side effects. Major planning commissions, planning boards and planning authorities at the federal, state and local levels of planning respectively, where planners can showcase their contribution to physical development in the country as stipulated by the Planning Law, are not forthcoming. Thus far, except in Lagos State and the Federal Capital Territory Abuja, planning in Nigeria has yet to be properly organised along the lines of the enabling legislation. As noted by Falade (2003), there has been much said and written about the Planning Law of 1992 as amended by Act 18 of 1999; however, 16 years after the passage of this decree, the many dividends of good planning that should result from it are yet to be made manifest.

¹ The Udoji salary increment was implemented in the period around 1976. It followed the agitation of workers for a general salary increase but was largely aided by rising crude oil prices, the proceeds of which the military regime of the time used to appease the workers.

3.3 The plan production process

The processes for the preparation and adoption of any of the physical plans are very similar. Under the 1992 Planning Law, a plan (be it a national physical development plan, regional plan, subregional plan, urban plan, subject plan, town plan, local plan or rural plan) does not come into force unless and until it has been approved by the secretary of the appropriate body (commission, board or authority). However, modifications are expected in the making of the lower-order plans. For example, a town, rural, local or subject plan must be subjected to or be in line with the state plan where it is located. Part 1 Section D of the 1992 Planning Law prescribes the procedure/process for public participation in the preparation and adoption of physical development plans.

Oyesiku (1998) identifies the following stages: call for submission of contributions to the submitted draft plan; appointment of a technical committee to analyse collated submissions; submission of objections to the draft plan by members of the public to the appropriate body during the period of exhibition. The objection must be in written form defining the nature of and reasons for the objections and suggesting alterations and amendments to the draft plan. The final plan must be submitted to the appropriate legislative body for approval. The commission's, board's or authority's decision to adopt a physical development plan is final, except for a right of appeal to the established Urban and Regional Planning Tribunal on matters relating to any regulations made under the 1992 Planning Law (Oyesiku 1998). In addition to this, the plan approved must be reviewed every five years to mirror the country's current state and reflect the urban or local socio-economic dynamics.

In reality, however, it is uncertain that any plan in Nigeria has followed all these processes. For example, the Act made it mandatory for the plan-making process to include public participation as a necessary and indispensable stage of the process. Such participation does not exist in practice. What is still the norm is a top-down, planner-knows-it-all approach, with a simulacrum of public participation. Yet it is common knowledge that citizen involvement in the physical planning process is an important component in the conception and implementation of any successful project. Indeed, one of the most compelling challenges facing contemporary planning in Nigeria is to find ways of empowering ordinary people by giving them the confidence, the skills and the opportunities required to understand the forces that mould their physical environment (Agbola 1989). The case of public excludability in Ibadan is particularly worrisome because there is no plan of any type for this mushrooming city that forms the eastern boundary of the Ibadan–Accra West African urbanising corridor.

3.4 Legislation, plans and the morphology of Nigerian cities

The spirit, purpose and expectations of urban plans, within the confines of the planning legislation, is to positively affect the urban form, by ensuring compatible land uses which would ultimately ensure the efficient use of the available resources and thereby positively affect the lives of the cities' inhabitants. Legislation came into existence to force compliance with these ideals. However, empirical research and cursory observations show that since no plan exists for the Ibadan city region, existing legislation has had minimal beneficial effects on the development and form of Nigerian cities.

Agbola and Agbola (1997) discovered that the cantonment proclamation of 1904 would seem to have positively affected the morphology of Nigerian cities in certain respects, but was ostensibly aimed only at ensuring the proper planning and sanitation of the European quarters where the commercial operators and colonial administrators lived. This law was overly discriminatory against the African environment. Today, these areas in Ibadan stand out as ugly reminders of what Nigerian city form could have been were the colonial government genuinely desirous of affecting the form of Nigerian cities. The culture of planning evident in these areas would probably have caught on in new areas of the city. But these consciously planned areas were merely grafted onto the old sections of the city.

This is the origin of the 'dual city' discussed in planning or sociological literature, a common feature in most Nigerian towns. Both the 1900 and 1914 laws were land-related, and they were meant to ensure the easy supply of land mainly to commercial interests. Since their effects were not concentrated in a single town, or noticeably present in any one location, their impact on cities was largely insignificant.

The 1928 ordinance designed to solve the peculiar problems of Lagos has had selective positive impacts on the form of Lagos. Learning from the problems of the 1917 ordinance, a separate administrative arm set up as part of the creation of the Lagos Executive Development Board (LEDB) ensured the implementation of the 1928 provisions. There was slum clearance in many parts of the city, and new residential, commercial and industrial estates/layouts were created. It could be said that today's commercial and industrial heartland of Lagos is the legacy of the LEDB. That Lagos has now developed into an untamed octopus, largely unplanned in the greater parts of its mainland, may be due to non-revision of the mandate of the LEDB to cover wider areas of metropolitan Lagos. As a piece of legislation, it was successfully executed and positively affected the form of the Lagos of the 1930s, 1940, and to some extent 1950s.

The 1946 Town and Country Law made another attempt to affect the orderly spatial development of Nigerian towns and cities, mainly through the creation of separate planning authorities. Over time, and as reflected in the present situation, these authorities have been rendered largely ineffective through under-funding and lack of political support. Accordingly, commissioned plans remain unimplemented for decades, and many towns and cities have no guiding plans – especially Ibadan – although annual budgetary allocations have often been made for these. Consequently, this law has had no noticeable effect on the form and development of Ibadan.

Also, the acquisition of land for developmental purposes in Nigeria involves a double negotiation process – one with the customary or traditional owner and the other with the government. Agbola (1987) observed that the implications are ruinous for orderly city form. In the first instance, the land is almost lost to development since land cannot be acquired and sold by the government and the original owners cannot sell either. Thus, an individual anxious to develop land for whatever purposes (mainly for housing construction in the urban areas) and impatient with the time-consuming bureaucratic processes of obtaining a C-of-O, buys a piece of land illegally and goes on to develop it (Agbola 1988). The effect is the haphazard development of towns and creation of modern slums in new areas of the Nigerian cities. This is particularly noticeable in Ibadan, where a piece of land may be sold to more than one person. Thus, the 1978 Land Use Act has had little beneficial effect on the form of city development in Ibadan.

The above appraisal shows that the initial attempts at creating an orderly city form through the use of planning legislation and the preparation of plans were piecemeal, inconsistent, half-hearted, largely foreign and had ulterior motives other than the creation of a planned society. Contemporary pieces of legislation had good intentions, but had been badly interpreted and implemented with devastating effects on the structure and development of most Nigerian towns and cities. The new legislation that was brought into being in 1992 is very desirable and almost indispensable. However, as is the case with former planning legislation which was bedevilled by one form or another of inadequacy, inconsistency or sheer insincerity of purpose, the latest, most encompassing law, destined to have mitigating effects on the form and structure of urban Nigeria, has suffered from a lack of political will to implement the dictates of its enabling decree.

3.5 Foreign interests in the planning process

There have been a number of international agencies whose initiatives have assisted the planning

process in affecting the lives of people in the Ibadan city region. They include the Sustainable Cities Programme (SCP), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and United Nations Children's Education Fund (UNICEF).

The SCP was conceived and promoted by the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) in the early 1980s as a showcase of capacity-building in urban environmental planning and management. The programme was conceptualised as a bottom-up, broad-based participatory strategy for the planning and management of the urban environment. A number of Nigerian cities have benefited from the SCP. Ibadan was among the first 18 pilot SCP programmes developed around the world. It was started in 1985 with funds from the UNDP and the programme has been extended to the cities of Kano and Enugu, with the intention of showcasing the principles of the SCP as a veritable planning practice tool in Nigeria (SIP 1999).

The UNDP has also contributed immensely to the initiation, encouragement and sustenance of planning education in the city region by the establishment of the first planning school at the Ibadan Polytechnic in 1961, and through the introduction of the full professional diploma programme in the 1974/75 session under the distinguished leadership of Professor LR Vagale. The objective of the programme has been to produce professional middle-level manpower acceptable to the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITP). This programme produced the first crop of professional town planners for the country.

UNICEF has been active in supporting planning and developmental initiatives, especially in the area of water provision in both the urban and rural areas. For instance, UNICEF has been very active in the SCP by providing funds for the provision of water in its programmes, and by intervening in very poor communities in Ibadan.

4. The planning education system in the city region

4.1 Planning schools in the region

Ibadan is considered to be the origin and citadel of planning education in Nigeria. Planning education in urban and regional planning (physical planning), as a full and separate discipline in Nigeria, started at the sub-professional level shortly after independence with the establishment of the first planning school at the Ibadan Polytechnic in 1961, through the assistance of the UNDP.

The Department of Urban and Regional Planning started as a unit in the former Technical College (now Ibadan Polytechnic) in 1961. The unit offered the Ordinary National Diploma (OND) programme up to 1977. Students of the programme took three years to earn the Sub-Professional Diploma in Town Planning (STP). In the 1974/75 session, the five-year full professional diploma programme was introduced with the assistance of the UNDP. The objective of the programme has been to produce professional-level manpower acceptable to the NITP and latterly, the Town Planners Registration Council. As a complement to these two programmes, the Higher National Diploma (HND) programme was introduced in the 1978/79 session.

During the 1992/93 session, the three-year part-time Professional Diploma in Urban and Regional Planning was introduced for HND graduates and approved by the Board of Studies of the Polytechnic. The part-time programme was essentially designed to upgrade the sub-professional physical planners to the professional level in order to make them more proficient in the practice of physical planning. The goals, objectives and contents of the course are the same as those of the former five-year full professional diploma programme, which is now known as the two-year post-HND Professional Diploma. The department also offers a three-year part-time programme each for the

HND and National Diploma programmes. The student intake of the department had risen from an average of 10 to 12 students in 1960 to 85 in the 1998/99 session for the HND. During the 1999/2000 academic session, the full-time student population was 189, of whom 57 were enrolled in the professional diploma programme. However, student enrolment in the department has dwindled in recent years.

The second planning school in the city region is located in the Department of Urban and Regional Planning at the University of Ibadan, Nigeria's premier university. The department currently runs only postgraduate professional and academic programmes in urban and regional planning and a popular programme in housing. Just like its counterpart at the Ibadan Polytechnic, this department has turned out seasoned, reputable and high-calibre academicians and professionals over the years who man key positions in both public and private sectors.

The department evolved from the Master of Planning Science (MPS) programme run by the Department of Geography in the same faculty between 1974/75 and 1978/79. The MPS course folded due to the non-recognition of the graduates of the programme by the NITP. Efforts were made in the 1980/81 session to reorganise the programme in a way that would guarantee it professional recognition. This led to the design of a new syllabus with major inputs from the NITP through its Education Committee. As a sequel to this, the programme was resuscitated and renamed the Master of Urban and Regional Planning (MURP) programme. It took off in the 1981/82 academic session with 18 students in the Centre for Urban and Regional Planning within the Department of Geography.

By 1983, the NITP had sent a visitation panel to the university with a view to assessing the programme and the facilities for the purpose of recognition. In April 2001, the then Centre for Urban and Regional Planning started the process of institutional enhancement by changing from a centre to a department, going through all the requisite university committees; this process culminated in the Senate approving the upliftment of the Centre to a fully-fledged Department of Urban and Regional Planning in March 2004. With this new status, the department now runs all its academic (up to the PhD level) and professional programmes with all the rights and privileges of a department. Currently, the University of Ibadan is looked towards to produce the much-needed manpower for the increasing number of Town Planning Departments in the expanding number of universities and polytechnics.

4.2 Goals and objectives

The main goal of planning at the polytechnic level is to train middle-level manpower for the planning profession. For example, the HND programme is intended to produce high-level physical planning technicians who are capable of giving effective assistance to professional physical planners. Thus, the products of the polytechnic programme are expected to:

- understand the nature and purposes of physical planning at the national, state, regional, urban and local levels;
- understand the role of physical planning in socio-economic development;
- identify and analyse physical planning problems and offer solutions to them; and
- advise the makers of planning policies and decisions on the organisational and administrative structures suitable for undertaking physical planning.

Conversely, the goal of the University of Ibadan Planning School is the pursuit of excellence in urban and regional planning by production of critical thinkers who are also professionals. It aims to train students in the broadest academic discipline and produce planners who can competently handle

diverse planning issues and concepts, with in-depth focus on some specialised areas. The curricula of each school are designed towards the achievement of these goals.

4.3 The programmes and their curricula

The curriculum of the Urban and Regional Planning Department of the University of Ibadan is designed with a particular bias towards conceptual rigour, while that of the polytechnics is essentially technically biased.

There are five programmes at the University of Ibadan Planning school:

- Master of Urban and Regional Planning (MURP) (Professional);
- MSc Urban and Regional Planning (Professional and Academic);
- MPhil/PhD and PhD in Urban and Regional Planning;
- MPhil in Urban and Regional Planning;
- MSc Housing (Professional).

Each of these programmes contains a series of courses which a student must complete before he/she can graduate. The programmes and the courses for the MURP degree have the following components:

1. Planning Theory and Tradition
2. Planning Methodology
3. Design and Planning Practice
4. Internship
5. Independent Research Project
6. Electives.

The electives are meant to provide programme flexibility so that students can specialise in different areas of the profession of urban and regional planning. The department prepares students for five areas of specialisation:

1. Design
2. Regional planning
3. Environmental and resource management
4. Housing
5. Transportation.

Details of the courses offered by the department are as follows:

I	Core Courses (Compulsory)	
A	PLANNING THEORY AND TRADITIONS	
	URP 701: Philosophy and Theory of Urban and Regional Planning	3 units
	URP 702: History of Urban and Regional Planning	3 units
B	PLANNING METHODOLOGY	
	URP 703: Urban and Regional Planning Methods	3 units
	URP 704: Statistical Method in Urban and Regional Planning	3 units
	URP 705: Land Use Planning	3 units

C	DESIGN AND PLANNING PRACTICE	
	URP 711: Principles of Design and Site Planning	3 units
	URP 753: Advanced Studio Design	3 units
	URP 750: Planning Law and Administration	3 units
	URP 752: Planning Ethics	3 units
II	Required Courses	
	URP 720: Computer Applications in Urban and Regional Planning Research	3 units
	URP 732: Environmental Engineering	3 units
	URP 713: Land Surveying	3 units
III	Internship	
	URP 740: Internship – a two-month period spent under practising planners in planning organisations	3 units
IV	Independent Research	
	URP 745: Seminar	2 units
	URP 791: Project	6 units
V	Electives	
A	DESIGN	
	URP 712: Intermediate Design Studio	3 units
	URP 721: Spatial Decision-Making Information Support System	3 units
	URP 722: Computer-Aided Design in Urban and Regional Planning	3 units
	URP 754: Design Aspects of Urban Development	3 units
	URP 755: Case Study in Urban Design Projects	3 units
	URP 756: Landscape Planning and Design	3 units
B	REGIONAL PLANNING	
	URP 707: Regional Development Planning	3 units
	URP 760: Industrial Location Planning and Implementation	3 units
	URP 762: Rural Settlements and Facilities Planning	3 units
	URP 763: Locational Analysis	3 units
C	HOUSING	
	URP 731: Housing	3 units
	URP 771: Housing Development Process	3 units
	URP 772: Housing Issue and Discourse	3 units
D	ENVIRONMENTAL & RESOURCES PLANNING & MANAGEMENT	
	URP 781: Environmental Planning and Management	3 units
	URP 782: Water Resources Inventory and Development	3 units
	URP 783: Soil and Soil Capability Studies	3 units
	URP 784: Land Resources Evaluation	3 units
	URP 785: Energy Resources Planning and Management	3 units
	URP 786: Environmental Geomorphology	3 units
E.	TRANSPORTATION	
	URP 733: Transportation Planning	3 units
	URP 741: Transportation Engineering and Design	3 units
	URP 741: Public Transportation Planning and Administration	3 units
	URP 741: Transportation Network Design	3 units

	URP 741: Project Design and Evaluation in Transportation	3 units
F	URBAN MANAGEMENT	
	URP 706: Communication Skills in Urban and Regional Planning	3 units
	URP 710: Introduction of Business Management Techniques in Urban and Regional Planning	3 units
	URP 759: Project Planning and Management	3 units

All the courses in the academic and professional MSc degree programme in urban and regional planning are similar to the MURP, except for the required courses which are primarily designed to enable students to have a basic knowledge of skills such as the use of computers, and of the essentials of the public-planning and finance interface. All the programmes within the department are offered on a full-time basis, except at the PhD, MPhil and MPhil/PhD level where part-time registration is allowed. For both the MSc and MURP degree programmes, registration is for a minimum of two years (four semesters).

The department prepares students for eight areas of specialisation in the PhD programme. This programme is designed primarily for doctoral students who wish to research and teach in any of the fields of urban and regional planning. These fields include:

1. Design
2. Regional Planning
3. Housing
4. Environmental Planning and Resource Management
5. Transportation
6. Health Planning
7. Urban and Regional Planning Information System
8. Urban Management

The courses required for the PhD degree are :

URP 801: Advanced Quantitative Techniques in Urban and Regional Planning	3 units	Compulsory
URP 802: Advanced Philosophical and Theoretical Reasoning in Urban and Regional Planning	3 units	Elective
URP 803: Contemporary Issues in Planning in the Developing Countries	3 units	Elective
URP 804: Computer Application to Advanced Analytical Techniques in Urban and Regional Planning Research	3 units	Elective

At the polytechnic, a full-time HND student spends two years while the part-time programme lasts three years. There is a two-year post-HND professional diploma which leads to the Full Professional Diploma certificate. The full-time professional diploma qualifies the students to run the MURP programme at the University of Ibadan and this is why the relationship between the two departments becomes inseparable.

4.4 Entry-level qualifications

For the OND, entry-level qualifications are five subjects at the credit level in cognate courses such as mathematics, English, geography and two other subjects. A good OND grade is the qualification for the HND programme. For the University of Ibadan postgraduate school, a good university degree (a

minimum of second-class lower) in environmental and or allied subjects/courses is the minimum requirement.

4.5 Teaching methods

The teaching methods adopted in both institutions are similar and are designed to achieve the goal and objectives of each institution. This involves lectures, assignments, studio work or design, seminars, tests and examinations. Student industrial attachment also provides the much-needed hands-on training. There is also an avenue for lecturer-student interaction. Students are also encouraged to participate in professional meetings, which the state chapter of the NITP holds monthly, and this allows for interaction with practising professional urban and regional planners. Similarly, a high level of communication with feedback response between lecturers and students is made possible during oral presentation of term papers and design studios, as well as at the different stages of the dissertation-writing process. In addition the three-month internship programme, which is normally undertaken between the two years of the programme at the University of Ibadan and the one year spent after the OND programme at the polytechnic, offers students the necessary exposure to the world of planning.

Currently, the teaching methods in both schools have improved significantly because of a number of facilities which are available. For example, there are GIS facilities at the GIS laboratory of the Department of Geography while staff members use multi-media projectors, GPS equipment, sound meters, weather trackers, high-resolution A3 colour printers, high-resolution digital cameras (7.0 pixel), TV and DVD players to aid their teaching. Students are also taught the use of these during seminars and workshops. These facilities are in addition to the modern drawing boards that are available for use, while each institution now has a computer room where design-aided software is used to instruct students.

4.6 Staffing, staff-student ratios and departmental administration

The Planning School at the University of Ibadan has been blessed with high-calibre staff right from its inception. These are seasoned academics and professionals with world-class reputations. Today, the department is blessed with eight academics while specialised professionals like the land and quantity surveyors are sourced from the practising world. Similarly, all staff at the planning school in the polytechnic have a minimum of a master's degree, mainly from the University of Ibadan, in addition to their professional qualifications.

At Ibadan, the number of planning students is on average between 15 and 28 in any given session. The ratio of the staff to students varies between 1 : 4 and 1 : 5. The non-teaching staff also play an important role in the furtherance of the planning profession. At the polytechnic presently, there are 50 full-time students in the HND I and II classes, while there has not been any student intake into the full-time professional programme due to a dwindling number of applicants. The polytechnic also enjoys the same staff-to-student ratio, since it has at least 15 full-time lecturers.

The Head of Department (HOD) in each institution is in charge of the day-to-day administration of the department. Academic staff members are involved in the decision-making in the department; monthly (and sometimes emergency) staff meetings are called where important decisions are usually taken. The HOD is answerable to the Dean of Faculties who, in turn, is subject to the University Senate decisions and through them to the Vice-Chancellor. The polytechnic is subject to the Rector through the Board of Studies, its equivalent of the University Senate.

4.7 Library

The University of Ibadan Department of Urban and Regional Planning has access to various libraries in the university, including the famous Kenneth Dike Library, the Departmental Library and IT centres. All these libraries contain textbooks in various specialised fields of urban and regional planning. The university is well equipped with computers which are strictly designated for academic and administrative purposes. For instance, there are about 80 functional computers at Kenneth Dike Library, 35 of which are used for administrative matters while others are used for internet and electronic classroom work, primarily for teaching and searching the internet for academic purposes.

The university's library has enjoyed donations of books, journals and periodicals from both individual donors as well as international bodies such as UNICEF, UNESCO, ETF, CEBER and the World Bank. For instance, 868 books, monographs and other publications were donated to the department by the late Professor Adepoju Onibokun's estate. Similarly, the Macarthur Foundation donated an ICT building to the university and this is accessible to both staff and students. There are currently about 64 computers and other items of equipment available to enhance effective teaching and learning in the building.

The planning departments in the city region have computer rooms. At the University of Ibadan, there are 10 computers equipped with the necessary software for teaching and design. The Ibadan Polytechnic has enjoyed magnanimous donations from the UNDP over time which have been of immense benefit to both the staff and students of the institution. The students and staff have access to the main library as well as the departmental library. They also have an audio-visual studio, photo laboratory (dark room), drawing/drafting room and computer laboratory, as well as a modelling room. There are currently 6 operational computers, 2 printers, 2 scanners, 1 light table and 2 GPS units. There are 2 Burette drawing boards with drafting machines (all highly operational) in addition to a well equipped model-making studio.

The planning schools in the city region also have access to the very rich library of the Nigerian

Institute of Social and Economic Research (NISER), the Federal Government of Nigeria's foremost research outfit on social and economic issues. This research organisation has a Department of Urban and Regional Planning and its library is well stocked with relevant materials. Cuttings of Nigerian newspaper articles on relevant planning issues are kept in the library and this has proved immensely useful to researchers from all over the world.

There is also a library domiciled in the Institute of African Studies of the University of Ibadan owned and operated by the French Research Institute in Africa (IFRA). It has collections related to urban issues, especially in the areas of urban violence and infrastructural provisions. Indeed, the Department of Urban and Regional Planning of the university has collaborated with IFRA in some research activities. This library also undertakes the compilation of cuttings of relevant pages of national dailies for research purposes.

The import of all this is that serious-minded and dedicated planning students have ample opportunities to increase their planning horizons and become world-class planners. While the facilities may not be the best that could be available in the world, they are surely a good pedestal on which to start the building of planning knowledge.

5. Professional bodies and the accreditation processes for planning schools

Over the years, two bodies have been recognised as the professional controlling bodies for the profession. These are the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITP) and the Town Planners Registration Council (TOPREC). The NITP was established in 1966 and was allocated sole responsibility for regulating planning education and the planning profession in Nigeria until 1988.

On 29 January 1988, Act No. 3 was published in the extraordinary Gazette No. 7, Volume 75 establishing TOPREC. The Act, which is in three parts, deals with the establishment, qualifications, financial provisions and powers of the Council; the procedure and processes for the registration of professional planners; and issues relating to professional discipline (offences, conduct). The decree, which was eventually implemented on 30 November 1988, was designed to regulate and control the practice of the urban and regional planning profession in Nigeria; to set up, determine and maintain the standard of planning education; and to determine the suitability or otherwise (and within the dictates of the Act) of those who could be registered as professional physical planners in Nigeria. This Act, therefore, inaugurated and institutionalised planning practice and the planning profession in Nigeria since its function was to determine what standards of knowledge and skill needed to be attained by persons seeking to become members of the profession of town planning, and review those standards from time to time as circumstances may require. TOPREC therefore took over all the constitutional responsibilities which NITP had previously held.

One of the major responsibilities of TOPREC is the accreditation of town planning education programmes in tertiary institutions in Nigeria, with a view to appraising their suitability, relevance of curricula, available facilities and manpower for planning education. The implication of these accreditations is that graduates of these schools are qualified for registration with the NITP and TOPREC as of the time when the schools are accredited. In essence, employers of labour that patronise or employ graduates of planning schools that are not accredited shall be deemed to be guilty of an offence, and shall be liable to prosecution with corresponding punishment (NITP 1993).

The accreditation processes are the same for all planning schools and it is a serious business for any planning school to be accredited. As a starting point, the school wishing to be accredited writes to TOPREC inviting it to visit, after it has satisfied itself of its readiness by having the necessary

facilities, teachers and many other TOPREC-dictated necessities. Professionals who undertake the TOPREC accreditation exercise are usually sourced from various planning schools and the pool of practising planners to form the visitation panel for the particular school. The event may last between three days and one week, depending on the time allotted to various events in the exercise.

After satisfying themselves of the curricula, equipment and facilities and the qualifications and competences of the lecturers, the visitation panel often holds a session with the students during which the panel members have the opportunity to see first-hand the practical studio work of the students and to ask them questions. The importance of this is to enable the panel to assess the competencies of the staff and the level of understanding of the students. Ibadan Polytechnic has undergone many successful accreditation exercises, as has the University of Ibadan. The maximum time allocated for full accreditation is five years as a result of a successful accreditation exercise. An interim accreditation can be given after a non-satisfying exercise, for two years only.

In the case of a person who cannot avail him/herself of formal educational opportunities but still wants to be a professional planner, he/she could achieve this goal by subjecting him/herself to the various stages of the TOPREC examinations. However, to qualify to write these examinations, he/she must be a member of the NITP. Once selection as a member has taken place, one is qualified to write the TOPREC examination, after which a Seal is given to the successful candidate at an inauguration ceremony. With the TOPREC Seal, one can practise as a planner.

It is this compulsory and indispensable accreditation process that links all planning schools in the country, just like those in the Ibadan city region, to the planning profession through the legally established professional bodies. As at the time of writing this report, the various programmes in the two planning schools in the city region are well accredited and are therefore linked to the profession.

6. The planning curriculum and professional planning practice in the 21st century

Urban and regional planning has evolved over the years in response to various environmental problems, and has indeed moved in recent times from being a fairly limited technical and design-oriented activity to becoming a largely inter- and multidisciplinary profession, focusing on social, economic and physical development issues and problems in the contemporary world in relation to a much broader range of socio-economic and political activities. The change in nature of the profession has led to a continuous change in the scope and content of the discipline which informs the continuous revision of the curriculum.

Given the kind of curriculum already operational in the planning schools, students are prepared to operate in the 21st century. This is achieved through the broadening of the academic base of professional programmes to produce planners who can competently handle diverse planning issues. Thus, the programme is constantly reviewed to capture the prevailing needs of the time. Although planning in earlier decades was largely concentrated on the production of master plans with little or no input from the beneficiaries of the plans, whether in their conception, preparation or execution, there has been a series of changes in the planning process which was designed to replace the planners-know-all process of the past with one which will incorporate the goals and means of the people. This is what is known as environmental planning management. It gives people and communities whose problems they have been trying to solve opportunities to be actively involved in the process right from the conception of a plan to its final execution, including monitoring and evaluation.

I am of the opinion that the present curricula of the two planning schools are more than adequate to

train responsive planners in the convoluted planning environment of 21st-century Nigeria. The schools' curricula are regularly reviewed and updated to keep pace with modern trends and to equip students with contemporary theoretical and practical planning knowledge. The interaction of the lecturers with their counterparts in other parts of the world, especially the many conferences and consultancies engaged in by the schools' lecturers, have the added advantage of exposing the students to contemporary planning knowledge. The planning schools have linkages with many international organisations and agencies like the World Health Organisation, HABITAT and many others. The combined effects of all these elements would seem to be capable of preparing our students for the planning challenges of the 21st century.

7. Conclusion

In the face of the uncontrolled expansion of Nigerian cities since independence, planners and other stakeholders have been forced to accept that development policies for urban and rural areas have failed or have not worked as expected. For the majority of planning officials, cities and their completely uncontrolled growth are a testimony to the failure of development and planning policy in the area involved. Cities in Nigeria have changed in size, spatial organisation or morphology, quality and distribution of services and infrastructure and in their employment base. Urbanisation in Nigeria can be seen at best as false urbanisation, and this has created a crisis of immense proportions. The crisis has arisen because of the inability of the city authorities and urban managers to deal effectively with the aftermath of rapid urbanisation processes, and these in turn could be attributed to low entrepreneurial, technological and managerial capabilities, inadequate finance and large numbers of parasitic individuals (Agbola 2005).

Consequently, the failure of planning and planners, as illustrated in the failure of legislation to affect the morphology of Nigerian towns and cities, is a challenge to the collective intelligence of planning professionals and a general affront to the exercise of their professional calling. Given the magnitude of the challenges that human settlements pose, Nigerian society must value and take advantage of the wisdom, knowledge and skills of key professionals. The planners' role is to invent the future or series of futures and identify possible constraints and pitfalls. They sometimes cannot break through the poverty of their own knowledge, for they are only mortal. Their thinking, like that of most persons, tends to fall into set patterns which are themselves the result of class experience and the overwhelming impact made on their ideas by their perceptions of the environment. The only way to combat this is to be relatively comprehensive in one's thinking, aggressive in one's approach and responsive in one's outlook. Planners will then require a sharpened knowledge of themselves, a heightened consciousness of the roles they will be asked to play and penetrating insight into their own biases, limitations and strength. They must have an understanding of how they appear to others in the public domain so as to know how to play their role effectively. This can be achieved mainly through the supply of educationally qualified and competent planners.

According to Agbola (2006), for planners to meet these challenges and perform their professional role, they must be available not only in quantity but also in quality, which is the product of quality education. That is, the education of planners must be widened and deepened. Today, Nigeria has fewer than two thousand professionally qualified or recognised town planners. For a country as vast and as populous as Nigeria, with about 130 million people, to be served by this number of professional planners attests to a lack of understanding of the need for and use of physical planners. It is not surprising that our environment demonstrates the results of this lack of appreciation for planners. It is more disconcerting to note that many of the few planners who have been produced are either unemployed or under-employed. There is thus a paradox of unemployed planners in a country where there is a shortage of planners.

As noted by Friedman (1966), the education of a planner makes him or her a generalist-specialist. For example, an urban planner is likely to know something of the people that make a city come to life, the structural division of the city into classes and into different publics, their typical behavioural patterns, their aspirations and pathology; and yet he or she is not a sociologist. The planner will know something about the geographic distribution of human activities, will have studied land uses, and distinguished between functional and ideal uses, and yet is not a geographer. He or she will analyse three-dimensional forms of the city, its broad continuities and diversities, the arrangements of historical and modern buildings landmarks, among others, yet is not an architect. And so on. The planner's training, if he or she has attended a good planning school, will have prepared him or her for all of these tasks, and these are the challenges and tasks facing the planning schools in the Ibadan city region.

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