URBAN YOUTH EQUITY AND DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA
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Executive Summary

Commitment to promoting various dimensions of equity: Most of the respondents (average 38.44 per cent) in all the cities posit that their cities do not promote equitable growth at all. With regard to youth equity, the highest percentage (average 44.47 per cent) of respondents is of the view that cities are not making necessary efforts. On the other hand, some youths think that cities are committed to the promotion of social, cultural and political equity and environment sustainability.

**Economic Equity:** The majority of respondents are of the opinion that economic benefits are not uniformly distributed, rather that economic policies are tailored in such a manner that they are mostly beneficial to wealthy people. As far as new employment opportunities are concerned, it is only labour-intensive employment that is available. Around 62 per cent are of the view that economic policies are employment creating. However, the majority of respondents opine that youths are excluded from urban economic activities. The highest average percentage of respondents (30.05 per cent) thinks that youths of different ethnic backgrounds from Ondo State are excluded from employment and new economic activities. Vocational training and skill creation programmes are considered very effective by respondents in all the cities. A system that creates equal opportunities for all is rated highest for positive youth development, while the creation of science and technology universities as a driver of youth equity is ranked highest.

Corruption has been cited as the most detrimental factor to the youth being more productive. More than two-thirds of respondents (67.76 per cent) think that equity alone does not promote youth wellbeing.

**Political Equity:** About half (50.88 per cent) of the respondents opine that cities do not promote human rights. Further to this, 73.54 per cent do not view the system of public administration as transparent and accountable, citing corruption of and discrimination by public administrators. With respect to ease of access to information, 56.38 per cent think that it is difficult to obtain information in a timely manner from government agencies. Consequently, more than 56.68 per cent of respondents rely on the press as the only source of information. Also, almost three-quarters (74.26 per cent) of respondents opine that political and economic elites

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**SAMPLE CHARACTERISTIC**

The State of Nigeria (Ondo) Urban Youth Report is based on data collected from five cities in Ondo state, namely: Akure, Owo, Ikare, Ondo, and Okitipupa; the distribution of a total number of 464 respondents in these cities being 33.7, 16.8, 14.7, 20.7, and 14.0 per cent respectively. The sample is dominated by male respondents at 60.8 per cent. Overall, the highest percentage (an average of 61.77 per cent) of respondents fall within the age group of 21-30 years across sample cities. With respect to educational attainment, most of the respondents have acquired education up to a Higher National Diploma (HND)/Bachelor of Science (BSc) in all the sample cities. Highlights of the Report are depicted in Box 1.

**BOX 1: HIGHLIGHTS**

- Majority of the respondents feel that cities do not promote equitable growth
- 44.47% thinks that cities are not making enough efforts for youth equity
- Fairly large percentage thinks that cities are committed to promotion of social equity and cultural equity
- Cities are fully committed to political equity and environment sustainability
- Majority of respondents opine that economic wealth is not at all well-distributed amongst all segments of youth
- Labour-intensive employment is more prevalent
- 50.88 per cent replied that city protects and promotes human rights of youth
- Politicians and bureaucrats followed by the rich urban youth are major beneficiaries of development policies
- 70.50 per cent are of the view that cities do recognize and promote youth cultural rights
- 79.91 per cent of respondents opine that they are not aware of social venues which directly restrict entry to the youth
- 56.98 per cent feel that policies that promote ecological safety and environmental sustainability do not exist in their cities
were the main beneficiaries of policies which were purported to be pro-poor.

**Cultural Equity:** A fairly large percentage (70.50 per cent) of respondents opines that cities recognise and promote cultural equity. Among the type of cultural rights, different ethnic groups are free to use their own languages in many transactions. An average of 91.87 per cent of respondents are of the view that cities promote cultural rights through appropriate intercultural programmes. However, the majority of the respondents believe that disabled people are sometimes excluded from cultural rights.

**Social Equity:** That easy access to health services and quality education contribute to fair social equity is the response of majority of respondents. Almost half of respondents (52.47 per cent) feel that opportunities to reskill workforce exist in their cities. Among the coverage of social infrastructure services, health services received the highest positive response. The majority think that the disabled and youth migrants from other urban areas suffer the most social exclusion. However, an average of 79.91 per cent of respondents said that they are not aware of social venues which directly restrict entry for youths. Financial non-affordability is considered a major factor of indirect social restrictions by most of the respondents. Over half of respondents (57.96 per cent) believe that programmes aimed at promoting social equity are not directed exclusively at youths. Programmes related to security and safety for young people, are rated highest among social equity programmes.

**Environmental sustainability:** On an average, 56.98 per cent feel that policies that promote ecological safety and environmental sustainability do not exist in their cities. The highest percentage of respondents (36.21 per cent) opines that an appropriate waste management policy is the most effective mechanism to promote ecological safety and environmental sustainability. In addition, a majority of respondents believe that economic development programmes could seriously impact upon environment. Vehicular emission was the biggest concern on transport policies that cross over to environmental concerns. Overall, a majority of the respondents across cities consider efforts toward the provision of social infrastructure and environmental protection as the most suitable for cultivating a sustainable environment.

The findings of the Focus Group Discussions which took place in the five cities of Akure, Ondo, Owo, Ikare and Okitipupa in many ways corroborate findings of the cities-wide survey. Participants were carefully selected and registered, with details of their demographic information taken. Generally, across all cities, majority of the participants were between the ages of 21 and 29 years, a majority were males and their highest educational qualification was a Higher National Diploma or Bachelors Degree. Participants were able to express their opinions freely on the state of urban youth in Ondo state, and opinions varied with respect to the different cities.
CHAPTER ONE

EQUITY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIAN CITIES

A girl sells food in Lagos, Nigeria
© Julius Mwelu/UN-Habitat
1.0 INTRODUCTION

The State of Ondo Urban Youth Report (OSUYR) analyzes urban youth equity and development in Nigeria using Ondo State as a case study. Ondo is one of Nigeria’s 36 states and it is situated in the South-West region of the country. Like similar country-specific reports on the state of urban youth, this Report examines the growth of youth inequality in relation to the major structural factors of the growing economic inequalities within the Nigerian society, and also identifies the root causes of these inequalities in the cities. From the early 1980s the occurrence of poverty has continued to rise despite an increase in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). When Nigeria’s economy was rebased in 2014 it became the largest on the continent, overtaking South Africa. However, an analysis of the macroeconomics underlines weak fundamentals that has increasingly been manifesting in socio-political unrest. Between 1985 and 2004, inequality (as measured by Gini coefficient with 1 standing for perfect inequality and 0 for perfect equality) in Nigeria worsened from 0.43 to 0.49, placing it among the countries with the highest levels of inequality globally.

In the Nigerian context, as with much of other developing countries, inequality has become a widespread concern not only in poor countries but also in rich ones. Disparities in right of entry to economic prospects such as income and consumption, location, information and technology are now the norm, not the exception, in these countries. For the majority of the people, income disparities are today bigger than they were a generation ago. Economic gains have sometimes leaked away as rent to the political elites while more people are falling from relative to absolute poverty. Abject poverty is not only found in rural areas but much more in urban areas. It is estimated that more than two-thirds of the world’s population lives in cities where income inequality has increased since the 1980s. In some cases this increase has been staggering.

Consequently, the mass exodus to the cities has led to rapid and uncontrolled urbanization that has created challenges of daunting proportions which include traffic congestion, slum formation, pollution, pressure on natural resources and higher labour and property costs in cities and towns. These inefficiencies grow with city size, especially where urbanization has been poorly managed, and cities in the main have been deprived of essential public investment in infrastructure and services. The effect of dysfunctional systems has in the past deterred private investment, reduced urban productivity and held back economic and employment growth. Although natural location as a direct factor of economic growth has significantly diminished over time, it still has a significant effect on the costs of economic activities by influencing the agglomeration of capital such as people (especially the youth), commodities, investment and trade. Hence it has a significant role in the sustaining of economic growth.

Youth inequalities also manifest in discrimination in access to education, differentiated levels of employment and livelihood opportunities, lack of participation in decision making and prejudice against sexual preferences. Slums, the face of poverty and urban inequality, continue to increase in most countries of the developing world, reinforcing other forms of inequality: access to basic services, education and health, among others. Inequalities are present in the urban space with cities divided by invisible borders that split the centre from the periphery, the high from the low, the east from the west, and other physical divides that take the form of social, cultural and economic exclusion. Gender inequalities persist in many countries, manifesting itself in lower rates of secondary education, access to decent employment, political representation and the gendered nature of the HIV-AIDS pandemic.

This study was conducted by the United Nations Human Settlements Programme’s (UN-Habitat) Youth Empowerment Unit and the Ondo State Government between 2013-2015 in order to learn more about the Nigerian youths’ economic, social-cultural and political values as these factors influence equity, employment and youth development in Nigerian cities. In this analytical study, we present a Report evaluating the challenges facing the urban youth and recommendations are made for new opportunities of inquiries on urban youth development towards policy formulation and implementation.

1.1 GROWING INEQUALITIES AND THE URBANIZATION DIMENSION

Available statistics demonstrate that the number of young people living in urban settlements has been growing steadily. It is estimated that a further 200 million 10 to 24 year olds will live in these cities in the next 25 years. It is also confirmed that more than 1.5 billion people are between the ages of 10 and 25. This largest-ever generation of adolescents is approaching adulthood in a world their elders could not have imagined. Globalization, the HIV-AIDS pandemic, information and communications technologies (ICT) and a changing climate have irrevocably shifted the landscape.

However, according to the World Bank, there are roughly 1.3 billion youths between 15 and 24 years of age, representing a major development challenge for this group. At the same time, the World Bank report highlights youth as a positive force for development and provides recommendations for supporting their essential contributions. The report further asserts that with 1.3 billion young people now living in the developing world, the largest-ever youth group in history, there has never been a better time to invest in youth because they are healthier and better educated than previous generations, and they will...
join the workforce with fewer dependents because of changing demographics. In his contribution, Cohen (2003), Director of the National Academies' Committee on Population, noted that in both absolute and relative terms, youth populations are growing in cities of the developing world, mostly in small- and medium-sized cities. For this reason, Cohen sees prospect for economic growth in this group, because it constitutes a demographic bonus, due to large groups of “working age individuals, low dependency rates, and higher savings rates”.

According to UN-Habitat (2008), 85 per cent reference of the world's working-age population are youth and the least-developed countries remain younger than the rest of the world. The cost of not investing in youth is very high, manifesting for instance in lost output (due to unemployment and underemployment) and increasing urban crime arising from social exclusion. It is therefore more urgent now than ever before that strategies be formulated and new models of youth development be put in place to tap on the energies, skills and talents of youth for sustainable development.

1.2 BACKGROUND ON NIGERIA

Over the past four decades, Nigeria has developed a systemic structure of inequity, by which 20 per cent of the population now owns 65 per cent of national assets, while about 70 per cent of the population is involved in low productivity, low skill or rural labour. This vast and persistent inequality locks a majority out of the right sort of quality of life necessary for an individual to fulfil his or her potential. Nigeria’s non-inclusive growth has proceeded in the midst of impressive economic growth, averaging about 6 per cent. The lack of improvement in the poverty situation questions the nature of the growth and the consequences for inequity. Additionally, the depth of poverty is particularly worrisome as more people are falling from relative to core poverty. The national population has relative poverty levels at about 70 per cent, which has helped exacerbate the levels of socioeconomic unrest in the urban areas around the country (see Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: Zonal Incidence of Poverty by Different Poverty Measure in a Bar Chart

![Figure 1.1: Zonal Incidence of Poverty by Different Poverty Measure in a Bar Chart](source: NBS, Harmonized Nigeria Living Standard Survey, 2010)
While we tend to focus on the rising income inequalities, other forms of inequality related to opportunities in life, political participation, consumption and access to resources, among others, have persisted. Simultaneously, new forms of inequality have emerged, such as access to housing, water and sanitation and decent transportation. Too many Nigerians still find themselves on the fringes of society, unable to share in the benefits of national growth and development and be fully integrated into their communities. Although some countries with well-developed social welfare schemes also still exhibit large levels of inequality the variant in Nigeria is linked as much to a lack of developmental focus as it is to factors related to lack of a differentiated policy to address the urban challenge.

As noted above, since the early 1980s incidence of poverty has continued to rise. Paradoxically, this rise in incidence of poverty has been on the increase with rising GDP, which shows a notable surge in economic growth. The past few decades have witnessed an equally frightening level of multiple forms of inequalities, manifested in part by rising income inequality and deepening poverty in many cities. In Nigeria two-thirds of the population lives in cities where income inequality continues to increase.

### 1.3 STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

This Report examines the various dimensions of inequities and tries to link these to the process of urbanization in order to show how urban areas contribute to the growing inequalities of Ondo state cities and, in turn, how these dimensions relate to the growth and development of urban areas. The State of Nigeria (Ondo) Urban Youth Report (OSUYR) 2014-15 Equity, Employment and Youth Development in Cities of Ondo therefore analyzes the trends of youth inequality in relation to the major structural factors of the growing economic inequalities within the Nigerian society, identifies the root causes of inequities in the cities. The Report takes into account most dimensions of inequalities such as economic, political, social, cultural, access to opportunities. Also, the Report analyses policies, actors and initiatives that have successfully contributed to the prosperity of cities. The OSUYR 2014/2015 consists of four parts as follows:

**Part 1:** Equity employment and youth development in Ondo State’s cities

**Part 2:** Dimensions of equity:
- Economic inequities of cities;
- Social inequities (education, spatial nutrition and health);
- Political inequities in cities;
- Cultural inequities in cities;
- Ecology and environment inequities in cities;
- Inequality of opportunity

**Part 3:** Equity and Urban Employment:
- Global employment trends in relation to the Ondo state cities under study
- Urbanization and employment opportunities in the different regions and cities of Ondo state
- Sectoral employment growth and inequalities in Ondo state cities
- Employment and income inequalities in Ondo state cities
- Youth employment and inequalities in Ondo state cities

**Part 4:** Policies and Institutions:
- Analysis of cities equity from historical and policy perspective
- Cities and the equity agenda: institutions and social protection policies in Ondo, Nigeria;
- Equity in Ondo cities: The way forward

### 1.4 METHODOLOGY

#### 1.4.1 Data Collection and Focus Group Discussion

A multi-method approach was employed to execute the research upon which this Report is based. First, an extensive desk research using secondary data from reports, journals and archival documents together formed a background report. Second, questionnaires are administered in five major cities in the state: Akure (which is the capital city), Ondo, Owo, Ikare and Okitipupa. This forms a part of the policy assessment on Equity, Employment and Youth Development in Ondo State Cities. The Questionnaire was given to more than 500 youths in the selected cities and towns with a total of 464 retrieved and analyzed. Responses from the survey questionnaire from these cities are believed to give some representation of the views of the diverse youths in the state. It has five thematic dimensions of Equity and Employment, including the local institutional and organizational capacities associated with the creation of equitable cities and their sustainability.

Third, to complement the survey questionnaire Focus Group Discussions were conducted among the youth in the selected cities and towns. This facilitated a further capture of youth perspectives on the various issues covered in the Report. Finally, the Report is packaged to integrate results from survey, information from background research and findings from the Focus Group Discussions.
1.4.2 General Characteristics of Respondents

The Report is based on data collected from five cities of Ondo state, namely; Akure, Owo, Ikare, Ondo, and Okitipupa. Total respondents in all the cities are 464. The distribution of respondents in these cities is 33.7, 16.8, 14.7, 20.7, and 14.0 per cent respectively. The sample is dominated by male respondents with 60.8 per cent. The distribution of respondents by age is presented in Figure 1.2.

The distribution of respondents by their ages suggests that only 7.3 per cent are below the age of 21 years while the percentage of respondents in the age group 21 to 30 years is 61.8 per cent. The lowest per cent (1.7 per cent) of respondents fall in the age group of more than 41 years, while a remainder (29.2 per cent) are 31 to 40 years. We can infer from the figure that the sample is dominated by respondents in the 21-30 year-old age group. A similar pattern of age distribution is observed across all the five sample cities of the state. Figure 1.3 presents the gender distribution of respondents in all the sampled cities in Ondo state.
In general the percentage of male respondents (60.78 per cent) is higher than females (39.22 per cent). The figure further shows that male respondents are highest in Owo (71.79 per cent) and lowest in Ondo (45.83 per cent). The distribution of respondents by their academic background is depicted in Figure 1.4.

Responses to the question on academic background of respondents range from no formal education to possession of professional certifications. Most of the respondents have acquired education up to a Higher National Diploma/Bachelors degree. The highest responses are from Ikare city (83.82 per cent) followed by Akure (75.80 per cent), Owo (60 per cent), Okitipupa (56.92 per cent) and Ondo (30.43 per cent). The next highest category of education that respondents have acquired is OND/NCE. The city distribution of those with OND/NCE degree is 32.31 per cent, 31.52 per cent, 21.33 per cent, 10.19 per cent and 8.82 per cent in Okitipupa, Ondo, Owo, Akure and Ikare respectively.

1.4.3 Overview of Focus Group Discussion

For this Report, focus groups are recruited to complement the survey and engage the participants to discuss various issues related to the State of Ondo Urban Youth. Specific issues such as equity employment and youth development, dimensions of equity, equity and urban employment and policies and institutions in Ondo state cities were the thematic areas of focus by the discussants. This was designed to elicit additional amount of credible information that could assist in the analysis and discussion of the trends in youth inequality in relation to the major structural factors of the growing economic inequalities, as well as to identify the root causes of inequities in the cities and analyze city-wide pattern of inequities within Ondo state.

In doing this, participants were put into three groups in relation to the thematic areas, each one with a skilled moderator who gets them talking about the issues under discussion and is capable of allowing a free flow of communication amongst the participants. The selection process ensured that the participants nominated were not acquainted with each other as this will allow them to express their opinions more freely as they are unlikely to see again. This was done in agreement to the work of Krueger (1994) who stated that ‘familiarity tends to inhibit disclosure’. In addition, the discussions were organized in such a way to allow the participants to agree or disagree with each other so that this provides an insight into how a group thinks about the issues in focus, the range of opinion and ideas, the inconsistencies and variation that exist in a particular community in terms of beliefs, and their experiences and practices in relation to each of the thematic areas.

Above all, the discussions are used to explore the meanings of survey findings that cannot be explained statistically, the range of opinions/views on the issues of interest and to collect a wide variety of local terms. In bridging research and policy, the discussions are useful in providing an insight into different opinions among the participants involved in the process of data gathering.
**Topic Areas Covered by the Facilitator’s Guide**

**Syndicate Group A: Urban Equity Employment and Youth Development.** Discussions in this group covered the following areas:

a. Urban trends on poverty and equity

b. Urban equity employment and Ondo state labor market

c. Factors explaining employment growth and equity in cities

d. Global employment trends in relation to the Ondo state cities under study

e. Urbanization and employment opportunities in the different regions and cities of Ondo state

f. Sectorial employment growth and inequalities in Ondo state cities

g. Employment and income inequalities in Ondo state cities

h. Youth employment and inequalities in Ondo state cities

**Syndicate Group B: Equity Youth Development.** Discussions in this group covered the six dimensions of equity:

a. Economic inequities of cities

b. Social inequities (education, spatial nutrition and health)

c. Political inequities in cities

d. Cultural inequities in cities (ethnic, racial and regional cohesion)

e. Ecology and Environment inequities in cities

f. Inequality of opportunity

**Syndicate Group C: Policies and Institutions.** Discussions in this group covered the following areas:

a. Analysis of cities equity from historical and policy perspective

b. Cities and the equity agenda: institutions and social protection policies in Ondo

c. Equity in Ondo state: the way forward
CHAPTER TWO

EQUALITY, EQUITY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT IN ONDO STATE
2.0 INTRODUCTION: FEATURES AND TRENDS

Economic inequality - widely referred to as the gap between rich and poor, income inequality, wealth disparity, or wealth and income differences - points to differences in the distribution of economic assets (wealth) and income within or between populations or individuals. The term typically refers to inequality among individuals and groups within a society but can also refer to inequality among countries. Economic inequality tends to drive other inequalities. An example of this is inequality in access to basic education as well as the quality of schooling which could lead to opportunity deprivations in income, employment and housing. More poignantly, unequal opportunities exacerbate exposure to the risk factors that undermine people's development into responsible, accomplished adults. In the long term, persistent and subsequent intergenerational inequity deprives the youth in particular of their political, economic, social and cultural rights to opportunities in the country. The scourge of inequality suggests a nurturing and protection of people through equal access to shelter, education and services during childhood and the transition to adulthood is a capital investment that is essential to stable, cohesive societies.

The Report articulates four notable inequalities that fuel social divides; these help us translate this rather abstract concept into concrete operational terms. The key inequalities that lead to the sort of asymmetric structures of an unequal society that we have come to accept in Nigeria are as follows:

i. Social Inequality speaks to the factors that generate and perpetuate divisions between individuals and groups along tribe, region/states, ethnicity, gender or socio-economic status in areas such as adequate housing and decent basic services, denial of equal access to social amenities and public goods that are essential to promote the general and environmental well-being of all citizens.

ii. Political Inequality: whereby citizens' rights and freedom are stripped or denied directly or indirectly, and in ways where political participation that contributes to more relevant and democratic decision making are made void.

iii. Economic Inequality speaks of deep economic divide and denials of development to groups and individuals by way of unequal opportunities for business development and unequal access to employment, promoting inclusive economic policies.

iv. Cultural Inequality is a situation that promotes gaps that widens capabilities for integration and denies heterogeneity and diversity. It denies people's cultural rights, and does not recognize the human capital of certain segments of society.

A most fundamental reason why equity matters is that inequality circumscribes the capacity of a nation's most important asset - the individual citizen - by degrading their existential capabilities, notably through inequality of opportunity, the foundation upon which people tend to develop their abilities for 'agency', the power to shape the city. The evolution of a country's identity is closely related to the development of identity and agency of the change agents in the country; a social process that is a generic attribute of opportunities made available to people through quality education and skills. For instance, a place shaped by manufacturing and high technology systems such as Seattle and Shenzhen will be very different from a context whose institutional roots are in farming such as Iowa or Naivasha or natural resource prospecting such as Port Harcourt and Luanda. How the context shapes, and is in turn shaped by people, will depend in large part on whether national systems provide individuals and households equal opportunities for development and the ability to exert agency.

Significantly inequality is costly to economies and societies; it leads to lower growth, lower productivity and throws the economy into an inefficiency cycle. In a recent study, a strong association was established between lower levels of inequality in developing countries and sustained periods of economic growth. Developing countries with high inequality have 'succeeded in initiating growth at high rates for a few years' but ‘longer growth spells are robustly associated with more equality in the income distribution.’ In other words, long-run sustainability is closely connected to sustained equality. Moreover, there is even more to inequality beyond the economic consequences. Societies with high outcome inequality tend to have concomitantly high opportunity inequality which, in the long run, manifests in poor employment opportunities for a vast section of society. A very important channel for redistributive growth is employment for large swathes of the population, particularly youths and the middle class who have had short shift by the employment market.

This shortcoming of growth without equity strikes at the heart of the notion of human development as the agent of prosperity. Opportunity deprivation robs society of its most valuable asset (its people) by making sure that they are not engaged in productive activities. In this current Report, we place the role of the human asset as core of city prosperity and the systematic underinvestment in skills and education that in part circumscribe social and technological innovations will on the long run jeopardize sustainable development. A number of studies show that inequality is closely associated with poor human capital formation (education, experience and apprenticeship) while lower levels of human capital are associated with slower economic growth.

In addition, inequality is a main source of social tension and
a powerful channel for social conflict and widespread mistrust between different groups. According to Adam Smith, “No society can surely be flourishing and happy, of which the far greater part of the members are poor and miserable. It is but equity, besides, that they who feed, clothe, and lodge the whole body of the people, should have such a share of the produce of their own labour as to be themselves tolerably well fed, clothed, and lodged” 12.

A study for UNU-WIDER also concluded that “high levels of inequality (above a Gini coefficient of 0.40) negatively impacts growth”, due to “incentive traps, erosion of social cohesion, social conflicts, [and] uncertain property rights”. They advocate policies which put equality at the low end of this ‘efficient’ range. Inequality has wide-ranging negative effects in developing countries because, by their very nature of being ‘latecomers’, they are characterized by fragmented markets that are relatively weak and governments that are less effective in compensating through public policy for these problems. As well as the fundamental failures that prevail everywhere, regardless of the level of development, inequality has a large ‘destructive’ component that is associated with unequal opportunities and this ‘destructive’ inequality contributes to lower growth.13

### 2.1 National Trends and Patterns of Inequalities in Nigeria

The pervasiveness of inequality and poverty in Nigeria is alarmingly high, not only for its rise but also for levels attained. The anomalies from 2004 show either an inability to properly gather data or a purposeful deception. The national population has relative poverty levels at about 70 per cent, which has exacerbated socioeconomic unrest around the country. It is frightful that up to 60 per cent of the population live in abject poverty but not surprising that they are not now only concentrated in rural areas as was the case in the past, which are often neglected as they hold little political capital, but urban poverty has equally worsened.

The incidence of poverty received a sharp jolt in the early 1980s, and the economy has never fully recovered from that; instead, it continued at a steady rise. It is of major consequence that the incidence of poverty has seen its greatest increase during this decade of large national coexisting with prosperity and penury when oil prices rose considerably. This paradox highlights how endemic corruption vitiates a country’s energy, when nothing is reinvested but simply siphoned off as rent by the political elite. In this chapter we begin the articulation of the several fractures that characterizes a deeply-divided country. Presently, we focus on the economic divide which is the underlying rationale for much of the other social, political and cultural divides.

Figure 2.1 reveals the typology of economic inequality across Nigerian states by capital income although we will deepen the analysis with other indicators of multi-dimensional poverty index (MPI). Evidently, the Northern parts of the country continue to lag behind in practically all dimensions of prosperity.

The above graph is also instructive of faction politics and a broken system that rewards patronage. In a country with rising incidence of poverty, disturbing socioeconomic statistics and crumbling institutions, those in the country’s capital - politicians - enjoy the highest living standard, almost triple of...
those in Lagos, the country's economic engine. It will seem that titles and positions rather than hard work and innovation are rewarded in the Nigeria spoil system. Additionally, we see the oil states of Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers also performing admirably on this graph, highlighting the dominance of oil, the sole commodity.

Table 2.1 shows different indicators of poverty across the regions. The South West has the lowest incident of poverty while poverty by all measure is highest in the North West. In more than 30 years the poverty situation seems not to have changed significantly. According to Chief Obafemi Awolowo “anyone who has been to all parts of our country will readily agree that more than 70 million of our estimated 80 million people live in abjectly poor conditions, and no less than 60 million of them are actually starving. They have for houses, shelters unsuitable for modern poultry or piggery.”

2.2 COMMITMENT TO PROMOTING VARIOUS DIMENSIONS OF EQUITY

From this section responses to questions on promotion of all dimensions of equity (Economic, Social, Infrastructure Development, Political, Cultural and Ecological Safety and Environmental Sustainability) are presented. First of all, the opinion on economic equity was sought; Figure 2.2 presents the distribution of opinion on economic equity.
As far as promotion of economic equity is concerned, although most of the respondents were negative (59.38 per cent in Okitipupa and 35.26 per cent in Akure) in their opinion towards authorities’ commitment of economic equity, the respondents of Akure believed that their city is committed (30.77 per cent) to it. Respondents also shared their opinion on the extent of commitment to promoting social equity and inclusion, see Figure 2.3.

As depicted in Figure 2.3, 36.84 per cent of respondents in Ondo felt that the city is ‘fully committed’ towards social equity while 32.43 per cent in Owo opined that the city is ‘not making enough efforts’ and the respondents of Akure (29.87 per cent) thought the city is ‘committed’. On the average, 24.34 per cent of all respondents felt that cities are ‘committed’ to promoting social equity and inclusion. Figure 2.4 depicts opinion on infrastructure development across the cities.
The overall response to the question on commitment towards infrastructure development indicates that city residents are quite satisfied as the maximum percentage of respondents think the cities are ‘committed’ (27.75 per cent) followed by ‘fully committed’ (24.01 per cent). Again, in the city of Akure, the highest percentage of affirmative answers (36.77 per cent) felt that they are ‘committed’ though 18 per cent of respondents think that the city is ‘not making enough efforts’. A distribution of responses to a question on the city’s commitment to political equity and inclusion of youth is shown in Figure 2.5.

In response to the question on the political equity and inclusion of youth, the overall picture indicates that 25.17 per cent respondents are of the view that their city is ‘fully committed’ while 20.75 per cent think it is ‘committed’. An equal percentage thinks it is ‘not making enough efforts’. The pattern of responses is similar in other cities except Akure and Okitipupa. The highest respondents (31.41 per cent) in Akure are of the opinion that the city is ‘committed’ and 23.08 per cent are of the view that city is ‘fully committed’. On the other hand, in Okitipupa the highest percentage (35.48 per cent) feel that the city is ‘not making enough efforts’.

Figure 2.6 depicts the distribution of responses on the promotion regarding cultural inclusion. The respondents across the cities seemed quite content as they thought that local authorities are ‘committed’ (27.15 per cent) and ‘fully committed’ (25.39 per cent) towards cultural equity. The pattern is similar in all the sample cities.
In response to the question on promotion of ecological safety and environmental sustainability, it was found that 50.62 per cent of the respondents in Akure thought that authorities are ‘fully committed’ and ‘committed’ while only 12 per cent thought the city is ‘not making enough efforts’ (Figure 2.7). An exceptionally high percentage (38.95 per cent) of residents in Ondo finds that the city is ‘fully committed’. The picture is quite different in Okitipupa, where almost 30.65 per cent of respondents opined the city is ‘not making enough efforts’.

In what follows based on available data and information, the state of Nigerian youth in relation to education, employment and equity was reviewed.

Figure 2.6: Commitment Towards Promotion of Cultural Inclusion

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014

Figure 2.7: Commitment towards Promotion of Ecological Safety and Environment Sustainability

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014
CHAPTER THREE

EQUITY, EMPLOYMENT AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT
3.1. INTRODUCTION

The world is experiencing an unemployment crisis, which is disproportionately affecting youth both in advanced economies and developing countries. Nigeria’s National Youth Policy defines youth as persons between the ages of 18 and 35 years. According to an ILO 2014 report, global youth unemployment rate is currently about 13.1 per cent which is “almost three times as high as the adult unemployment rate”15, while an estimated 73 million young people were unemployed in 2013.16 After the 2008 financial crisis, youth unemployment rates have soared in almost all developed economies. In the Euro zone, youth unemployment rate exceeded 22 per cent, while in some countries such as Greece and Spain it was more than 50 per cent. One of the impacts of rising unemployment is a decline in real wages, which in turn reduces the contribution of total domestic consumption to economic activity and growth.17

In Nigeria, unemployment remains a critical challenge. Nigeria defines unemployment as the “proportion of those who were looking for work but could not find work for at least 40 hours during the reference period to the total currently active (labour force) population.”18 The national unemployment rate in 2012 was 25.7 per cent,19 this rose from 13.1 per cent in 2001, as seen in figure 3.1 below.

National unemployment rates rose to levels above one in five, the sudden acceleration in numbers from 2007 paradoxically coinciding with the liberalization of the telecommunications sector. This unemployment rate is seven times the population growth rate; meaning that not only is there a dearth of opportunities for the newly employable, but existing industries are shedding jobs. Large rates of unemployment in an emerging economy such as Nigeria might well signal growth without development that characterizes an economy that is almost fully dependent on oil exploitation whose growth is disconnected from a large segment of the labour market. The country’s growth rate has been based on resources exploited by a few despite being national by design.

Geographical disparities are also evident among the states. A 2010 report of the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), shows that South-Western states – Lagos (7.6 per cent), Oyo (8.8 per cent) and Ogun (9.9 per cent) – had the lowest unemployment rates, while Yobe, Zamfara, Sokoto, Imo, Bauchi, Jigawa, and Delta had the highest rates – 39.0, 33.4, 32.4, 29.9, 29.7, 28.6 and 27.2 per cent respectively.20

Taking a close look at unemployment rates among the age groups, we find that unemployment is highest among the youth (see Figure 3.2). Survey results show that some of the problems people encounter during the job search include a lack of funds to facilitate the job searching process (24 per cent), lack of contact (22.9 per cent) and poor market information (11 per cent).21

![Figure 3.1: National unemployment levels 2000-2012](source: Central Bank of Nigeria, 2012)
Notably, unemployment was higher in the rural areas than in the urban ones across all ages. However, other studies show that, through the years, urban unemployment among the youth is higher than rural unemployment, as people migrate to the urban areas in search of jobs,22 as seen in Figure 3.3 below.

The stagnating nature of the Nigerian economy is brought to full light by this graph. Not only does the high youth unemployment rate highlight the barrier to entry for new workers but we see this is more so in urban areas where the necessary skills to participate in higher productivity labour are not being developed. In 2008, there were as much as 1 in 2 young people unemployed, meaning half of the next generation are neither fit for the labour force nor cannot be incorporated due to a lack of jobs. Yet the country continues to record high economic growth rates; a feature and nature of unequal growth that freezes out a huge majority from

Figure 3.2: Male and Female Unemployment across age groups (%)
participating in the routine economic life of the country.

Several factors have been attributed to account for higher youth unemployment rate in the country; notable among these are low economic growth, low economic activity and low investment. The manufacturing sector is weak in Nigeria. Furthermore, while industrialization has been recognized as a key development strategy by various administrations, the level of industrialization has remained very low since independence. However, there is some glimmer of hope as the share of manufacturing in industry has been increasing, though still less than the 25 per cent for meeting the condition of industrialization, while the share of the extractive sector’s contribution to industry, which the country has been heavily dependent on, and has not been known to be the best pathway for Nigeria’s development, has been reducing.

Graduate unemployment is also unacceptably high for a country with so much room for economic growth. Agu and Eovh, cite a report by the British Council and Harvard School of Public Health (2010, p. 25), which states that a “highly educated Nigerian is not significantly more likely to find work than one with no education at all… and an average Nigerian does not generate more labor income than her or his individual consumption until 32 years of age, when she, or he becomes a net contributor to society.”

3.2 REVIEW OF YOUTH TARGETED POLICIES IN NIGERIA

Nigeria’s youth unemployment issue however does not stem from government’s lack of policies as much as ineptitude in their implementation. Indeed, the first National Youth Policy was issued in 1983. The Federal Government on 26 March, 1986 set up the Chukwuma Committee after youth unemployment failed to be addressed by the introduction of vocational courses in the school curriculum through a policy promulgated in 1977. The report of the Committee led to the creation of the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) in November 1986 with the general objective of promptly and effectively fighting unemployment by designing and implementing innovative programmes, which were directed towards the provision of training opportunities through the guidance and management support services to graduate farmers and small scale entrepreneurs. The objectives of the NDE spanned across the following programmes: agricultural development; youth employment and vocational skills development; special public works and small-scale industries and graduate employment. Currently, vocational skills training receives greater attention as many centres have been established.

The implementation mechanisms of the Social Development Policy for Nigeria of 1989 were weak and ineffective, while the macro-economic and socio-political environment was not conducive for implementation. Hence, the policy faced setbacks by the early 1990s, and these commendable efforts aimed at youth development started to suffer tremendous neglect. Besides, the policy attempts hardly provided a concrete framework for addressing the heightened problems confronting the youth. Thus, in the 1990s, sporting activities and competition became substitutes for youth development as it was not given the necessary support and good framework to thrive, and was also denied of the required policy materials. This resulted in serious setbacks for programmes on civic education and leadership training among the youth, while youth empowerment was hardly ever addressed. Against this backdrop the Federal Government dismantled the Ministry of Youth and Sports and many State Governments followed suit.

With the return of democracy in 1999, and the determination to remove some of the constraining factors
which had prevented a serious effort at youth policy formulation and implementation, a review of existing policies was carried out. In 2001, a National Youth Development Policy was developed. Another National Youth Development Policy was put in place in 2007 but as is the case with most urban dwellers, Nigerian youths are still deprived and facing rising poverty.

Against this background, the strategic thrust of Nigeria’s Vision 20:2020 is to develop and empower the youths to be innovative, gainfully employed, have a voice and participate fully in the development of the nation. The NIP of NV 20:202032 notes that Nigeria probably has one of the highest levels of unemployment in the world. Other issues and challenges militating against sustainable youth development in the country include:

- Intensification of youth restiveness and crime
- Young people used as cannon fodder in times of political, ethnic and religious conflicts around the country
- Inadequate parental care and breakdown of family and positive traditional values in society
- Girls and young women bearing the brunt of HIV-AIDS infection
- Youth exclusion in the political and policy development processes

Table 3.1 indicates the priority projects for the sector under NV 20:2020, though most, if not all, are yet to be implemented.

Table 3.1: Priority Youth Developments under NV:20:2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priority Projects</th>
<th>Costs in ₦ million</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Youth Development</td>
<td>281.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMI-Construction, Equipment and Furnishing of National Youth Development Centres</td>
<td>3,576.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Network and Social Mobilisation</td>
<td>300.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterprise development and promotion</td>
<td>491.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Youth Service Corps</td>
<td>2,739.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizenship Leadership Training Centre</td>
<td>842.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth Development</td>
<td>7,887.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Priority Projects</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7,887.80</td>
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</tbody>
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3.3. ANALYSIS FROM SURVEYS AND FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

In this section, we look at results from the survey questionnaires and focus group discussions (FGDs) to assess respondents’ views on economic equity in Ondo.

3.3.1 Distribution of economic wealth

We first consider questions relating to equity, employment and youth development. Survey respondents were questioned about economic equity in the city and were required to respond on a five point Likert scale ranging from 1 as ‘strongly disagree’ to 5 ‘strongly agree’. The responses were similar in all the five cities. The overall score (3.43) suggests that respondents are in agreement with the fact that economic equity ‘benefits only the wealthy’. The next score (2.87) for ‘not at all well-defined amongst all segments of youths’ and (2.72) for ‘it benefits only the educated class’ indicates that respondents were neutral to these choices. The findings suggest that the distribution of economic wealth among the residents is not fair.

3.3.2 Employment opportunities

In response to a question on whether the city promotes youth employment and development, Figure 3.5 depicts that the majority of the respondents of Akure (51.32 per cent) and Okitipupa (53.13 per cent) were of the opinion that their city somehow promoted youth employment and development. In the remaining three cities, the opinion varies from 38.03 per cent, 42.65 per cent and 34.78 per cent in Owo, Ikare and Ondo respectively for the same option. Most of the respondents in Owo (56.34 per cent), Ikare (47.06 per cent), Ondo (46.74 per cent) cities, however, thought that the city was ‘not at all’ promoting youth employment and development.

Figure 3.4: Distribution of Economic Equity or Economic Wealth

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014

Note: Score (1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly agree)
With the exception of Akure, FGDs show that participants believe that the youth were not given equal opportunities in terms of employment and income generation. A participant in Ondo expressed the fact that “There is nothing like distribution of opportunities, income generation means job opportunities, there is no job …….Adedotun (Ondo FGD).” In the participant’s opinion, there were no jobs! In Okitipupa, the group believed that employment opportunities were only given to the influential.

From the Ikare FGD, there was the sense that there was a geographical bias in employment opportunities, as well as access to these opportunities. As asserted by one of the participants: “Most of the government programmes in the area for youth development, income generation and employment opportunities are taking place at the urban centres of the state only” Abiodun Adeleye (FGD Ikare). Furthermore, it was expressed that before a vacancy was declared, there were already people to fill such vacancies even when an advert was placed.

The next question was on the trends of youth employment in the city. The respondents were requested to give their opinion on a five-point Likert scale between 1 as ‘least prevalent’ to 5 ‘highly prevalent’. Once again, the responses were similar in all the cities. The option ‘labour intensive employment in construction, textiles and agro processing’ received the highest score – 2.78 – across the cities, suggesting that labour intensive employment is prevalent in all the cities. The option ‘others’ received a composite score of 2.76 while it scored 3.03 in Ondo. What is included in ‘others’ is explained in Figure 3.6.
Figure 3.6: Form of youth employment trends do you observe in your city

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014

Note: Score (1=Least prevalent, 2=Less prevalent, 3=Prevalent, 4=More prevalent, 5=Highly prevalent)

Figure 3.7 depicts the various ‘other’ forms of youth employment trends in the sample cities. It can be seen from the figure that majority of respondents in Ondo (71.43 per cent), Owo (62.50 per cent) and Akure (44.44 per cent) were ‘engage the youths in volunteered programmes’. However, the scenario in Ikare was different as majority of youths (60 per cent) were busy in ‘personal or individual business (artisan)’.

Figure 3.7: Form of youth employment trends observed in your city – Others

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014
A significant number of respondents indicated that new employment opportunities had been created as a result of governmental economic planning. The percentage of those who responded affirmatively in the five cities were 70.20 in Akure, 61.43 in Owo, 60.22 in Ondo, 56.25 in Okitipupa, with Ikare being the lowest at 47.69. Results are shown in Figure 3.8.

### 3.3.3 Equity in access to employment

The next question probed the extent to which certain categories of youth were excluded from new urban economic opportunities. The respondents were expected to give their opinion on a five-point scale ranging from 1 ‘not excluded’ to 5 ‘very excluded’. The answers were very similar in all the cities as ‘uneducated youth’, ‘disabled youth’, and ‘non-indigenes from outside the state’, were seen to be fairly excluded from new urban economic opportunities. Thus, we can conclude that cities must work towards ensuring that all youth gain from economic benefits.

*Note: Score (1 = Not excluded, 2 = Partially excluded, 3 = Fairly excluded, 4 = Excluded, 5 = Very excluded)*
Respondents were also asked for their opinion on varying kinds of exclusion that might be prevalent in their cities. Results, shown in Figure 3.10 below, show that issues related to state of origin is a major concern of respondents in almost all the cities. For instance, 37.41 per cent of respondents in Akure opined that ‘issues of State of origin should be addressed to include non-indigenes’. Indeed, in 4 out of the 5 cities (Okitipupa being the exception at 34.48 percent, which is still quite low), fewer than 20 percent of the respondents believed that the ‘City takes care of indigenes and non-indigenes alike.’ Another issue that stands out in Owo and Ondo is that of those with disabilities and lacked education. There, 32.79 per cent and 31.03 per cent in Owo and Ondo respectively opined that ‘disabled uneducated are excluded from all urban economic activities’.

Notwithstanding, in three of the cities, survey results show that there is some belief that income inequalities and opportunities were being addressed through specific programmes and planning initiatives (Figure 3.11). In particular, affirmative responses were received by 66.23 per cent, 63.16 per cent and 48.65 per cent in Akure, Ondo and Owo respectively when questioned on the issue. On the other hand, 67.69 per cent in Okitipupa and 67.65 per cent in Ikare felt that income inequality is not being addressed by specific programmes.

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014
Subsequently, respondents were asked to rate the effectiveness of specific programmes and planning initiatives that targeted income inequality and opportunities. The average ratings of such initiatives are depicted in Figure 3.12. The rating of ‘vocational and other training to enable skills creation by the state’ received the highest rating in four out of five cities. Overall it received a score of 3.33, which lies between fairly effective (score 3) and more effective (score 4). This is followed by ‘micro credit programme’ with an average score of 3.10 and considered ‘fairly effective’. We can infer from the findings that training and finance related programmes have been appreciated most by the respondents.

Next, respondents were questioned on programmes or initiatives to specifically address youth employment and opportunities in the informal sector. Nearly 70 per cent (69.03 per cent) respondents in Akure and 50 per cent (45.16 per cent) in Ondo felt that their city had programmes to address youth employment in the informal sector (Figure 3.13). In other cities, the responses were not so optimistic, meaning that these other cities need to improve on programmes and initiatives to address the youth employment in the informal sector.

Figure 3.12: Rating of specific programmes and planning initiatives

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014

Note: Score (1= Least effective, 2= Less effective, 3= Fairly effective, 4= More effective, 5= Most effective)

Subsequently, respondents were asked to rate the effectiveness of specific programmes and planning initiatives that targeted income inequality and opportunities. The average ratings of such initiatives are depicted in Figure 3.12. The rating of ‘vocational and other training to enable skills creation by the state’ received the highest rating in four out of five cities. Overall it received a score of 3.33, which lies between fairly effective (score 3) and more effective (score 4). This is followed by ‘micro credit programme’ with an average score of 3.10 and considered ‘fairly effective’. We can infer from the findings that training and finance related programmes have been appreciated most by the respondents.

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Figure 3.13: Does your city have programmes or initiatives to specifically address youth employment and opportunities in the informal sector? -Yes

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014
Next, respondents who opted ‘yes’ to the existence of such programmes were asked to suggest two focus areas of such programmes. Their responses are depicted in Figure 3.14.

It can be seen from the figure that 22.93 per cent of respondents in Akure are of the view that initiatives should ‘specially seek to improve the quality of informal sector employment’ while 17.20 per cent preferred programmes that ‘aim at legalizing certain informal sector activities in order to enhance its scope and income generation potentials’. In total, 13.58 per cent preferred programmes that improved the quality of employment while 10.34 per cent favoured programmes aimed at the legalization of certain activities within the informal sector. This pattern of a preference towards quality is followed in both Ikare and Ondo, while the reverse is the case in Okitipupa.

Respondents were also asked about the existence of sustained initiatives to reduce youth unemployment and urban poverty in their cities.

Figure 3.15: Existence of sustained policies and programmes (at least over a five-year perspective) to reduce youth unemployment and urban poverty in your city
Results of the analysis, presented in Figure 3.15 suggest that response rate is not very encouraging. For instance, while 50 per cent of respondents in Akure were affirmative about the existence, merely 17.91 per cent of the respondents in Ikare were so. The overall average affirmative response across the cities was 35.43 per cent. We can infer from the figure that the majority (64.57 per cent) of respondents denied the existence of sustained initiatives to reduce youth unemployment and urban poverty.

Although roughly two-thirds of respondents were negative about the existence of sustained programmes aimed at poverty reduction, the opinion of the remaining third cannot be ignored. Respondents who were affirmative about the existence of such initiatives were asked to highlight such programmes. Their responses are depicted in Figure 3.16.

It can be seen from Figure 3.16 that ‘Skill acquisition programmes and Entrepreneurial Scheme’ received the highest response at 18.39 per cent, while ‘Creation of employment, micro-credit for short-term loans’ was mentioned by 16.09 per cent of respondents. The third highest according to respondents (10.34 per cent) was ‘Volunteered job for the Youth’.

In the various FGDs, the discussants acknowledged the existence of various government initiatives aimed at creating employment opportunities such as the Skill Acquisition Program, Entrepreneurial Development Program, Agro-business Cities, Microcredit, SEEDS, and Vision 20:2020. However, there were some criticisms of the programmes that things could be done better.

In Owo for example, the group felt that the programmes were just ‘cosmetic’ [to show they existed but in reality not functioning]. Some programmes are lacking the necessary materials and equipment needed to function properly. One participant noted that “There is no doubt[ing] the fact that government in the state embarked on various activities aimed at empowering us as youth, our position is that some of these are just for establishment sake.” Folake (Owo FGD).

In addition, they believed that information, sensitization and awareness about these programmes are not adequate. The group observed that youths are well aware about the need for their welfare and development as a result of the preponderance of them in the area as well as the development brought about by the existence of Owo Polytechnic in the region. As a result, they are more when it comes to search for employment, particularly white-collar jobs, which the government is incapable of providing. The end result is a decline in youth employment. While acknowledging the State Government’s effort in increasing youth inclusion in income and employment generation programmes, they are of the opinion that youth involvement is still very low.

In Ondo, in the area of youth empowerment, the youths commended the efforts of the government in the introduction of some skill acquisition programmes such as soap making, bead making and hair weaving. However, they noted that youth empowerment tended to favour the artisans and unskilled labour rather than graduates. The artisans are also assisted through micro finance. They noted that, in the state, the educated youth encounter difficulties in getting jobs and the government appears to be nonchalant about it; thus, the human capital that was supposed to be used to develop the
state is left untapped. They believed that this is an area that the government needed to address and act on, and that some other sectors of the state economy such as agriculture and manufacturing also needed special attention.

A similar view was expressed in the Ikare FGD, where there was the sense that the observable employment environment is one that favoured unskilled labour rather than graduates. One participant saying: “Here in Ikare, there are few government parastatal and when fresh graduates apply, they are been rejected using year of experience. What is more pronounced here is people riding Okada33 — Ugomba Samsom (FGD Ikare). Although the group acknowledged the presence of government initiatives aimed at creating employment opportunities such as Skill Acquisition Programmes and Centres. They posited that the proportion of these to the number of youths to be absorbed into the workforce of the state is too small. It was also observed that most of the people that are meant to have retired are still in active service.

It was suggested that sufficient information, sensitization and awareness of these programmes need to be increased so that youths will have information about vacancies and requirements for available jobs. The group members were of the opinion that youth involvement in income generation activities was very discouraging as youths were left to struggle for themselves. They mentioned that youths were mostly excluded from participating in income generation activities, as they cannot get easy access to loans unless they have collateral - which many do not have.

The group in Akure also recognized the various government initiatives aimed at creating employment opportunities. However, as in Ikare, they observed that the dissemination of sufficient information, sensitization and awareness on these programmes needed to be intensified. They acknowledged the efforts of the State Government in increasing youth inclusion in income and employment generation programmes, but still held the opinion that youth involvement in income generation activities was very low. The group noted that youths were about 44 per cent of the city’s population and, given this high proportion, there was a decline in youth employment when compared to the increase in their percentage of the overall population. They suggested that Public Private Partnership (PPP) policy be intensified to improve youth inclusion in income generation and employment activities.

Figure 3.17 presents analysis of opinions about the most influential factor in creating an environment for positive youth development. The respondents were expected to rank the programmes on a five-point scale from 1 representing ‘do not agree’ to 5 as ‘strongly agree’. Looking at the average score of programmes in all the cities, it is found that ‘a system that creates equal opportunities for all’ has been considered the most influential factor for positive youth development. This is followed by ‘widespread access to basic services and social amenities’. The preference of respondents is similar in all the sample cities.

Figure 3.17: Most influential factor in creating an environment for positive youth development

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014

Note: Score (1à Do not agree, 2à Somehow agree, 3à Slightly agree, 4à Agree, 5à Strongly agree)
Participants in the FGDs were also asked what ‘was the most influential factor in creating an environment for positive youth development in their city?’ A salient similarity was found in their responses, with the participants asking for an enabling environment for jobs to be created and/or income generation.

The next question followed from the previous one and sought for other important factors that in reality can create an environment for promoting positive youth development (Figure 3.18).

The majority of the respondents in Owo (63.64 per cent), Akure (45.45 per cent) and Ondo (33.33 per cent) expressed that ‘development programmes’ was another influential factor. However, 44.44 per cent of respondents in Okitipupa and 27.27 per cent in Akure were of the opinion that to ‘eliminate favouritism and simplify access to opportunities’ was the next influential factor in youth development.

3.3.4 Programmes promoting youth employment

Respondents were also asked about important factors that had enabled youth in the city to become more productive. They were expected to rank the factors on a 5-point scale from 1 ‘do not agree’ to 5 ‘strongly agree’. Results, displayed in Figure 3.19 below, shows that in all the five cities, the respondents assigned the highest rank to the ‘presence of a stable and safe environment’. This was followed by the ‘presence of high quality instruction and training’. The responses are similar in all the sample cities.

**Figure 3.18: Other influential factors creating an environment for positive youth development in your city**

**Figure 3.19: Important factors that have enabled youth in your city to become more productive**

*Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014*

*Note: Score (1à Do not agree, 2à Somehow agree, 3à Slightly agree, 4à Agree, 5à Strongly agree)*
Drawing from the Akure FGD, discussants noted that the factors that have enabled youths to become more productive were value re-orientation, infrastructural development in the State and information access by the youth to various windows of opportunities provided by the government. In Ondo, the factors they attributed to youth productivity were better funding for investment, infrastructural development in the State and information access by the youth to various employment opportunities provided by the government.

The next question was an extension of the previous one and it tried to find other factors that had enabled youths in the city to become more productive. It can be seen from Figure 3.20 that, in all the cities, ‘introducing skill acquisition and entrepreneurial development’ ranked the highest with 80 per cent of the respondents in Ikare, 66.67 per cent in Okitipupa, 57.89 per cent in Akure, 60 per cent in Ondo, and 37.5 per cent in Owo. In Owo, an equal number of respondents (37.5 per cent) also picked “Equality between the rich and poor” while 33.33 per cent in Okitipupa chose this as well.

When looking at factors that contribute to youth productivity, we asked about important factors that prevent youth in city from becoming more productive; with responses to be given on a five-point Likert scale from 1 as ‘not effective’ to 5 as ‘most effective’. Out of the seven options given, ‘corruption’ received the highest score of 4.03, thus indicating that this is perceived as the most damaging factor in youth productivity gains in sample cities (see Figure 3.21). The other factors in descending order are: ‘high incidence of slums and poverty’, ‘poor governance and weak institutions’, ‘lack of appropriate infrastructure’, ‘high cost of doing business’, ‘other’ reasons and, finally, ‘high levels of crime (or perception thereof)’.

**Figure 3.20: Other factors that have enabled youth in your city to become more productive**

![Chart showing other factors enabling youth productivity](source)

**Figure 3.21: Important factors preventing youth in your city from becoming more productive**

![Chart showing factors preventing youth productivity](source)

*Note: Score (1=Not effective, 2=Less effective, 3=Fairly effective, 4=More effective, 5=Most effective)*
One of the questions asked about factors that prevent the productivity of youths. Findings presented in Figure 3.22, show that more than one-third of the respondents in Owo (42.86 per cent), Ikare (35.71 per cent) and Okitipupa (33.33 per cent) were of the view that ‘corruption is posing serious challenges in cities’. The next factor that prevented youth from being more productive, with 24.24 per cent total response rate, was a ‘lack of fund[s] for prospective producers’. However, this received 37.74 per cent response rate in Akure and 28.57 per cent in Owo. On the average, 13.64 per cent of respondents cited ‘good knowledge of governance required by leaders’ as the third most important factor, that if addressed would likely help youth to become more productive. The responses follow a similar trend in almost all the sample cities.

Discusants from the Ondo FGD also highlighted sexual immorality, lack of social amenities, lack of information, lack of motivation and incentives, corruption and nepotism as factors that prevented youth from being productive. Similarly, the group from Akure identified difficulty in accessing soft loans due to the stringent conditions such as high interest rates and collateral security; lack of opportunities for recreation where youths can dissipate their energies; lack of information; inappropriate value orientation; corruption; nepotism and administrative bottlenecks. According to a participant:

Some of us are very creative and require no government work. We want to be independent of our parents having laboured on us to acquire basic and necessary education. However, using our initiatives alone cannot make us productive and guarantee us means of livelihood as a result of so many challenges including finance, due to difficulty in accessing soft loans caused by the stringent conditions such as high interest rates, collateral security etc, lack of information, inappropriate value orientation, corruption, nepotism, and administrative bottlenecks among others………

Adelaye (Akure FGD)

Finally, the survey questions attempted to analyze the effectiveness of new drivers of change that were influencing youth equity. The respondents were expected to give their opinion on a five-point scale ranging from 1 as ‘not effective’ to 5 as ‘most effective’. The findings are presented in Figure 3.23.

Figure 3.23 shows that although most of the drivers of change received almost similar responses that are ‘effective’, the existence of ‘science and technology university’ ranked highest with a score of 3.56 suggesting that it is considered more effective than others. The other drivers, presented according to their perceived level of effectiveness are ‘the promotion of art and culture’, ‘knowledge and research’, ‘efficient, adaptable and stable institutions’, ‘new entrepreneurial capacities of the city’ followed by ‘a new social and political regime’, ‘innovative or creative urban management’ and, lastly, ‘the
emergence of a cluster of industries’.

In Akure, participants from the FGD expressed that the new drivers of change influencing youth equity were seen to be ‘access to sources of information such as creating a dedicated website, youth involvement in the decision making process on matters affecting them, issues of globalization and ICT’ that enables the group to share their experiences with other countries having peculiarities with Nigeria.

In sum, this chapter has shown that majority of respondents believe that economic benefits are not uniformly distributed; rather, economic policies benefit wealthy people. As far as new employment opportunities are concerned, labour intensive employment is available. There is also the sense that the employment landscape, programmes and opportunities favour unskilled labourers more than graduates. Around 62 per cent are of the view that economic policies are employment creating. However, a majority of respondents say that youths are fairly excluded from urban economic activities, while ‘uneducated youth’, ‘disabled youth’, and ‘non-indigenes from outside the state’ were seen to be fairly excluded from new urban economic opportunities.

Vocational training and skill creation programmes were considered very effective by the respondents in all the cities. However, there is the need for sufficient information, sensitization and awareness on these programmes to be increased so that the youth will have information about vacancies and requirements for available jobs. A system that creates equal opportunities for all is rated highest for positive youth development. Respondents cited corruption as the most detrimental factor in preventing youths being more productive. The creation of science and technology universities is ranked highest among the drivers of youth equity. However, more than two-thirds of respondents (67.76 per cent) think that equity alone does not promote youth well-being.

What role then can the government play? Government can listen to the youth and treat them fairly. One participant noted that: “The youths make the government aware of their problems but the government refuses to listen. There is a form of prejudice in getting employment…” Chineye (Ondo FGD), while one of the participants from Owo FGD suggested that:

![Figure 3.23: Effectiveness of new drivers of change that are influencing youth equity](image)

Note: Score (1 = Not effective, 2 = Less effective, 3 = Fairly effective, 4 = More effective, 5 = Most effective)

Importantly, the youths from Owo also emphasized the need to have a sense of belonging, which could only be done when they were given the opportunity to establish what their needs were before programmes were initiated. When this is done, they believed that such programmes could be beneficial and the youth will indeed have a sense of belonging.
CHAPTER FOUR
FACTORS CREATING EQUITY AND DEVELOPMENT
4.0 INTRODUCTION

Equity is essential to development. There are a number of empirical studies as well as global policy reports that allude to the importance of equity in fulfilling development objectives. Although the importance of equity in development is common knowledge, national, state and local governments especially in developing countries do not give it requisite attention in policy implementation.

The drive for equity ought to be as tenacious as that for efficiency and economic growth. A concern for equity encompasses the notion of distributive justice, government accountability and fair treatment of all. Equity means there are equal life opportunities for all, an equal concern for people’s need and a meritocratic social perspective too, whereby positions in society reflect level of effort and ability as well as fair competition. Social exclusion always results whenever power balances in social, economic and political issues determine access to and interaction with key institutions.

There are a wide range of policy solutions to tackling equity, which include redistribution, actions targeted at disadvantaged and vulnerable groups, social protection, addressing embedded power imbalances in the society and fair distribution of universal public services. Sound leadership and political will is crucial to drive implementation of pro-equity policies at city, state and national levels. Entrenching equity in development contributes to social cohesion and increased productivity and notable improvements in well being. This chapter provides a basis for evaluating the effect of equity on the prosperity of the youth in Ondo cities.

4.1 EQUITY AND WELLBEING OF YOUTH

This section includes analysis of responses to survey questions on factors creating equity and development of youth as well as related excerpts from focused group discussions. In the adjoining section, perspectives of the youth on factors influencing productivity are presented. Respondents were asked to give their opinions on equity in the process of promoting wellbeing, in all five dimensions, of the local youth. Given that the majority of the responses were negative, only these are presented in Figure 4.1. The highest number of respondents, 86.76 per cent in Ikare followed by 80.26 per cent in Owo, 73.85 per cent in Okitipupa and 64.89 per cent in Ondo are of the view that equity in the five dimensions does not promote the well being of youth.

The various discussion groups were asked to share their perspectives on what an equitable society entails. According to them, an equitable society is ‘a society where everybody has equal right to all their needs’. Even though the participants consider good roads, good health care and free education as various dimensions of equity that promote the well being of the youths in their city, they opined that youths are denied access and opportunity to benefit from various available amenities provided by the city.

According to participants, all the dimensions of equity are not enforced well in the state. In the area of social and economic equity, the disabled are vulnerable, restricted and excluded. This category of people (the physically challenged) are particularly excluded from working and participating in some activities in the city. -Funmilayo (Ondo FGD)

Figure 4.1: Opinion on equity in all five dimensions promote the wellbeing of youth

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014
By and large, it was unanimously agreed that youths do not have access or equal opportunity to benefit from or enjoy various available services/amenities like healthcare, education, public goods and offices provided by the cities.

Participants in the Akure group discussion collectively posited that their State government was promoting youth development through agro-business in cities, however, with little attention to security and protection of the youth. This speaks to the inequality of access to economic and social opportunities in the State. In the words of a participant, “In fact, the issue of ‘God-Fatherism’ does not allow everyone to benefit or have equal opportunity to all the five dimensions in a manner that is fair and just.” - Aladesanmi (FGD Akure)

Similarly, the entrenchment of god-fatherism, corruption and favouritism was reiterated by a participant from Owo: The issue of corruption, partiality and ‘God-fatherism’ does not allow the youths here to benefit or have equal opportunity to all the five dimensions in an equitable manner.

Moradeke (Owo FGD)

The various dimensions of equity that promote the well-being of youths in Owo was said to include political, cultural, social, economic and environmental equities. However, as argued by a participant:

We are not allowed to participate in politics; for example when you show interest, there is always recourse to various trivial issues such as which compound (locality) are you from, who is your father, among other unnecessary questions that have nothing to do with necessary requirements.

Michael (Owo FGD)

4.2 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO PRODUCTIVITY OF YOUTH

Another survey question sought respondent opinions about the most influential factors in creating a productive environment for the youth. Averaged out, 54.97 per cent of respondents in all the cities (58.55 per cent in Akure, 44.59 per cent in Owo, 55.88 per cent in Ikare, 51.06 per cent in Ondo, and 63.08 per cent in Okitipupa) think that ‘policies to create employment’ is the best factor. Otherwise, 19.21 per cent of all respondents favoured the option of ‘a system that creates equal opportunities for all’. The pattern of responses is similar across all the cities.

Furthermore, the group discussions across cities point to infrastructural development in the state and easy access to information on opportunities provided by the government as factors which have enabled youths to become more productive.
Also, the groups identified factors preventing youths in the city from becoming more productive, which include inaccessibility to small loans due to lack of collateral security, lack of social amenities, inadequate information, corruption and nepotism. According to a participant; “Mega schools is not one of the drivers of change in Ondo State but job availability and infrastructural facilities such as good roads, health care, electricity among others.” - Arowojulu (Okitipupa FGD). On restrictions in access to economic opportunities, a participant from Ikare noted that: “The youths are particularly restricted from working in the civil service.” - Tomide (FGD Ikare).

Though the group agreed that the government was contributing to youth development through the agro-business initiative, a major challenge still lingers in the area of their social security and protection.

Another question was asked to find the factors that enabled youth in the city to become more productive. Respondents across all the sample cities opined that technological and industrial development was necessary, this is evident by the average high response frequency of 26.71 per cent. The next important factor for stimulating productivity of youth is adjudged the presence of ‘a charismatic and committed leader’ with 18.98 per cent of responses. Notably, responses follow a similar pattern across all the sample cities, indicating that committed and efficient leadership is imperative to productivity of the youth in cities.

In summary, this chapter addressed issues that border on equity dimensions and factors contributing to the productivity of youth in cities. The survey responses show that equity is not promoting youth well being in all the five dimensions, with obvious gaps which need policy intervention. Even though infrastructural provisions continue to create productive opportunities among youths, the prevalence of corruption, godfatherism and favouritism continue to deter access of youths to more opportunities. The group discussions, in addition to validating the survey outcomes, noted widespread exclusion of physically-challenged youths in city development and considerations for improved living standards. In the area of social and economic equity, there is, therefore, a need for inclusive programmes that cater to the well being and productivity of physically-challenged individuals. A merit-based system of administration and open access to opportunities for all is needed to ensure that all equity dimensions are enforced in the state.
CHAPTER FIVE

POLITICAL EQUITY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT
5.0 INTRODUCTION

In order to promote inclusive growth as well as political equity in any society, it is necessary to ensure proper representation of all people irrespective of age, educational background, social class, religious affiliation and ethnic origin. Political equity connotes that all people are equal in law and in the adjudication of justice. In a politically equitable society everyone has the right to express their opinion on how they are governed, regardless of social class or status. Political equity is, therefore, a platform for reinforcing natural rights of all human beings. In furtherance of the objective of political equity, the presence of institutions that protect rights and freedom of persons and promote social and political participation towards engendering democratic decision making processes is imperative. A politically equitable city therefore is one that favours collective decision making, equitable participation of all individual and collective interests.36 Whenever political participation is not equitable this creates tension and a void of a sense of belonging in the society. In most cases the economically poor also tend to be politically poor and marginalized. Giving the strategic important role of youths in nation building, it is important to assess their level of engagement in policies and processes that shape their future.

5.1 HUMAN RIGHTS, POLITICAL FREEDOM AND YOUTH

This section presents responses to survey questions on factors creating political equity and development of youth in Ondo cities. Respondents expressed their opinions on political equity, transparency and accountability of public information, easiness of access to information from public places.

Firstly, respondents were asked whether their city protects and promotes youth human rights. Figure 5.1 depicts the negative responses, because most of the respondents did not suggest that their city protected or promoted the rights of youths. The highest percentage of negative responses came from Owo (60.53 per cent) and Ondo (60 per cent) followed by those of Ikare and Okitipupa at 55.22 per cent and 53.85 per cent respectively, thereby indicating that the cities do not protect the human rights of the youths. On average, 50.88 per cent of respondents opined that their cities do not protect human rights.

The next question was related to the form of political freedom guaranteed in the city. The respondents were asked to rank various forms of political freedom guaranteed on a five point scale ranging from 1 ‘not available’ to 5 ‘highly available’. This analysis is depicted in Figure 5.2. It shows that ‘multiparty system of elections’ got the highest score, that is, 3.72, indicating that this form of political freedom is guaranteed in the cities. Other forms of freedoms according to preference of respondents are ‘congregation’, ‘press’ and ‘expression’. The availability of other forms of freedom is partial. The pattern of responses is similar in all sample cities.

As a follow up to the previous question, respondents were asked about the prevalence of other forms of political freedoms. As shown in Figure 5.3, 100 per cent of respondents from Ikare were of the view that ‘proper sensitization of youths provide jobs for them’ while 70 per cent of respondents of Akure favoured ‘engaging youths in political appointments to encourage participation’ as another form of freedom prevalent in the city. In fact, except in Ikare, respondents from every other city gave preference to youth engagement in political appointment as a form of encouragement for political participation.
Respondents were also asked to rank the reality of enforcement of political guarantees as prevalent in the sampled cities on a five-point scale ranging from 1 'not well enforced' to 5 'very well enforced'. The average scores of various guarantees are presented in Figure 5.4. As can be seen from the Figure, 'multi-party political system' got the highest score (3.50) indicating that multi-party system is well enforced. This is followed by 'freedom of congregation' and 'freedom of expression'. On the other hand, the results suggest that 'ombudsman' is only partially enforced in the sample cities. The pattern of enforcement of political guarantees is similar in individual sample cities.
The degree of transparency and accountability of public administration was also examined. Most respondents from the cities responded in the negative, thereby indicating that public administration is not transparent (Figure 5.5). However, the responses of Akure (66.03 per cent) were different which shows that the city dwellers perceived public administration to be accountable and transparent. We can infer from the results that, on the average, cities need to be more transparent and accountable in administration.

There are some attributes that can be used to rate the conduct of public administration in cities. Respondents were asked to rate the attributes on a five-point scale with 1 being ‘not at all accountable’ to 5 ‘extremely accountable’. On the whole, responses indicate that except ‘not well educated and trained’ all other attributes such as ‘corrupt’, ‘discriminatory’, ‘lacking in funding to work properly’, ‘inefficient and ineffective’ received score of more than 3 indicating that public administration is fairly accountable with respect to all the other attributes. There is hardly any variation in responses from one city to another.
Another survey question set about examining the procedures observed by city authorities in their operations, the analysis of responses is presented in Figure 5.7. Responses indicate affirmative answers from all the five cities. More than 65 per cent respondents from Ikare, Okitipupa and Akure are of the view that proper procedure are being followed with respect to all three aspects of governance: ‘regular independent audit’, ‘formal publication of contract and tenders’ and ‘transparent budgeting and accounting’. The respondents in Owo and Ondo were not positive about proper procedure being followed in governance with response rate less than 40 per cent.

In another question, opinion on the easiness to access information regarding key developments was sought. Figure 5.8 presents the analysis of negative responses. The figure indicates that, in total, 56.38 per cent of responses were negative about easy access to information. Comparing individual cities, it was found that the highest percentage in Owo (61.64 per cent) opined that getting information is not easy while the percentage of such respondents in Akure is 53.33 per cent. Holistically, the results suggest that city administration needs to be more user-friendly as far as access to information is concerned.

Figure 5.6: Rating of the attributes to explain the conduct of the public administration

Note: Score (1=Not at all accountable, 2=Partially accountable, 3=Fairly accountable, 4=Well accountable, 5=Extremely accountable)
In furtherance to the question on easiness of information, respondents were asked about mechanisms through which such information could be accessed by the public. Majority of the respondents (56.68 per cent) opined that the main source of accessing information is ‘through the press’. This was followed by ‘through agency website’ (43.61 per cent) and ‘NGO movements and other community organization initiatives’ (40.09 per cent). The pattern of responses is similar in all the sample cities.

5.2 POLITICAL PROCESSES AND PARTICIPATION OF YOUTH

Public perception on the transparency of the political processes is an important factor in participation of youth in political activities. Survey respondents were asked to assess the participation of people in the political process of their city. Most of the respondents across cities replied in the affirmative showing that most of them contributed to the political process. The responses were 70 per cent from Akure and more than 60 per cent from Ikare, Okitipupa and Ondo cities.
Excerpts from the focused group discussion (FGD) that was conducted in Akure provides some insights on youth perception on the degree of political participation of youth in the State. As argued by a participant: “Youths are not allowed to participate in political setting, for example during national dialogues, there was no person that can be named as a youth among the members that were selected to take part” Mr. Oyeleye (Akure FGD).

Another participant in the group discussions highlighted the pervading nature of low political participation of youth, in Ondo state as well as across the Nigerian polity. In his words, although youth are being restrained from major political activities especially as contestants characterised by the political environment in Ondo state; it is not peculiar to our state only but equally pronounced in Nigerian politics …as there is no even/equal opportunity for youths. Youths are not allowed to participate in political environment; youth should be allowed to participate in politics……… Adewole (FGD Akure)

In order to capture factors causing disinterest in city residents who did not participate in political processes, respondents who answered in the negative were asked to rate reasons on a five-point scale with 1 as ‘not true’ to 5 ‘very true’. Among

Figure 5.10: Participation of people in the political processes that shape the city’s future

Figure 5.11: Main reasons for their disinterest

Note: Score (1à Not true, 2àPartially true, 3à Fairly true, 4à Almost true, 5à Very true)
the three main reasons for disinterest from across all the cities was ‘takes too much effort for the common man to earn a livelihood’ received score 3.65. This was followed by the reason ‘it is not possible to change the system’ and ‘lack of interest in the matters of the city infrastructure’ with scores almost 3.44 and 3.06 respectively. The analysis showed a similar response pattern across all survey cities.

Respondents were also asked to assess the extent of policy makers’ awareness and commitment to the need to improve living conditions of slum dwellers. As shown in Figure 5.12, the highest response ‘not so well’ was from four cities namely Ikare (46.97 per cent), Akure (39.86 per cent), Ondo (35.48 per cent) and Owo (32.39 per cent). Residents of Okitipupa opined that policy makers were ‘not at all concerned’ with the welfare and living conditions of slum dwellers, a response rate of 28.13 per cent. Overall, findings suggest that policy makers in the sample cities are not fully aware and committed to the need to improve living conditions of youth slum dwellers.

The role of community participation in the implementation of new city plans cannot be over emphasized if the goal of inclusiveness must be attained. A question was posed to respondents to ascertain the participatory nature of the implementation process of new city plans and prospects. More than 50 per cent of the responses were negative, in effect Figure 5.13 shows an analysis of these non-affirmative responses. The highest negative responses were from Ikare (73.85 per cent) and lowest being 47.14 per cent was from Akure. The analysis indicates the imperative for encouraging participatory implementation processes in the sample cities.
The level of youth participation was also examined in the survey, with varying responses from the sample cities (Figure 5.14). Majority of the respondents in Akure (47.73 per cent) and Ondo (46.15 per cent) opined that the ‘level of youth participation was high’. Whereas in Ikare (50 per cent) and Owo (43.48 per cent) cities respondents felt that ‘youths are not carried along’ while, in Okitipupa, more than 46.67 per cent thought that ‘youth participation is influenced by politicians’.

The process of policy implementation should necessarily involve consultation with stakeholders at different levels. Figure 5.15 analyses responses to a question by respondents regarding the consultation process by which stakeholders discuss policies in the city. More than 60 per cent of respondents in Ikare and Akure were of the opinion that a due consultation process was followed with respect to all the policies. On the other hand, the response pattern in Owo, Ondo and Okitipupa were negative, indicating the need for establishing and conforming to consultation procedures required before city policies are instituted.
Respondents were requested to highlight possible causal factors for the failure of participatory implementation processes in their cities (Figure 5.16), and the responses were collected on a five-point scale from 1 ‘Least likely’ to 5 ‘Most likely’.

Majority of respondents from all the cities opined ‘lack of monitoring and evaluation of performance’ to be the more likely reason for failure in participatory implementation processes, with average score of 3.77. This is followed by ‘lack of appropriate focus of programmes and policies’, ‘lack of political will’, ‘lack of funding’ and ‘lack of human resources to implement programmes’. All these reasons received an average score of close to 3 suggesting that they are likely reasons for the failure of a participatory implementation process. A similar pattern of response is observed across all sample cities.

5.3 DECISION MAKING PROCESSES AND BENEFICIARIES OF SUCH DECISIONS

Urbanization policies and procedures could impact on all residents of cities, negatively and/or positively. In most cases, the higher income class may tend to reap greater benefits from such policies than low-income slum dwellers. Respondents were asked to rate their perception of benefits derivable from urbanization policies as well as related policy reforms and decisions implemented in their city on a five-point scale with 1 ‘strongly disagree’ and 5 ‘strongly agree’. The analysis is presented in Figure 5.17.
A preponderance of respondents posited that ‘politicians and bureaucrats (due to corruption)’ are the major beneficiaries of urbanization policies with an average score of 4. This is followed by the ‘rich and urban poor’ with an average score of 3.68. This response pattern is observed across all the cities. For the most part, we can infer from the findings that benefits of urbanization are not equally distributed among the Ondo state population.

With respect to the next question on who the beneficiaries of pro-poor policies were, Figure 5.18 shows that, on average, 74.26 per cent of respondents from across the five cities opined that the policies ‘benefit only some political and economic elites’ while only 38.44 per cent residents from all the five cities indicated that ‘they benefited majority’. Although this pattern is similar across all the cities, in Ikare merely 25.40 per cent felt that pro-poor policies benefit the majority while in Akure, the percentage of such respondents is 48.15 per cent. Thus, we can infer that local governments in sample cities need to be more attentive to ensure equitable distribution of benefits among the people.

Figure 5.19 depicts responses to the question on the different forms of specific political and legal measures taken to minimize the marginalization of immigrants, youth, women and other such vulnerable groups. About 71.43 per cent of Ikare residents favoured enforcement of existing laws to minimize the marginalization, 66.67 per cent of them wanted ‘guaranteed consideration of all marginalized groups in policy making’ and 64.29 per cent desired ‘an anti-discrimination/affirmative empowerment policy with clear implementation’. On the other hand, the highest percentage of respondents (58.82 per cent) in Akure preferred ‘mechanisms to protect marginalized groups from violence and prejudices’. Generally, a similar percentage of respondents favoured ‘guaranteed consideration of all marginalized groups in policy making’ and ‘an anti-discrimination/affirmative empowerment policy with clear implementation’. The response rate in Owo, Ondo and Okitipupa was very low.
Language is a very important factor in official and political communication, with attendant influences on the degree of political participation. The survey investigated what role the prevalence of a dominant language for official transactions played in excluding youth from political participation. Notable from the distribution of responses shown in Figure 5.20, was that the majority of respondents - 84.38 per cent in Ikare, 77.54 per cent Akure, 73.63 per cent in Ondo, 70.49 per cent in Okitipupa and 70.15 per cent in Owo - replied in the negative. These results suggest that youths are not discriminated against on the basis of dominant language use in the sample cities.

Towards improving the level of youth engagement in municipal activities, respondents were asked to highlight suggestions necessary to improve political participation of youth in the form of additional institutional strengthening/reforms. In Owo, 40.74 per cent of respondents were of the opinion that ‘empowerment and employment of youths’ is essential for the improvement in political participation of youths while, to 39.29 per cent of respondents in Ikare, ‘establishing political sensitization and enlightenment programme’ is necessary. On the other hand, nearly 40 per cent of respondents from Akure gave importance to ‘only sound and mentally upright youths can be productive’ and ‘discourage discrimination in politics’. Even though opinions differ across the cities, many respondents gave preference to the suggestion that ‘only sound and mentally upright youths can be productive’ and the need to ‘discourage discrimination in politics.’
In summary, this chapter highlights the need for political equity in promoting a prosperous city with specific attention to the role of youths. Responses to questions related to human rights, freedom, political participation and decision-making processes from the survey of five Ondo state cities were presented. Specifically, respondents expressed their opinions on political equity, transparency and accountability of public information and easiness of access to information on city administration. Findings indicate that in most of the sample cities there are little or no efforts made to protect the human rights of youth. Even though the level of youth political engagement varies, there is a record low level of youth political participation in the cities; comments made by participants during the focused group discussions on political inequity validate the survey results. The survey outcomes also indicate the need for cities to be more transparent and accountable in administration, as well as more user-friendly in the presentation of and facilitation of access to information.
CHAPTER SIX

CULTURAL EQUITY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT

Mila Supinskaya Glashechenko
6.1 INTRODUCTION

Nigeria has more than 250 ethnic groups. Ondo, located in the south-western part of the country falls under the Yoruba ethnic group. The Yorubas are the second largest ethnic group in Nigeria, making up 21 per cent of the population after the Hausa/Fulani tribe, who make up 29 per cent. The people of Ondo are therefore Yoruba people and speak the Yoruba language. The people of Ondo can be identified by their language, names, clothing, food, traditional music, dancing and festivals; most of these overlaying with the general Yoruba culture. However, even within the Yoruba people, there are differences for example in the dialects spoken and the names given. For instance, such names as Awosika, Fawehinmi and Oladapo are akin to people of Ondo origin.

The passage of time, urbanization and migration to the urban areas and the Western influence have been accompanied by a dilution of the tradition of the Ondo people. For example, in contrast to times past, people do not always give first names in the traditional language, preferring Bible-based names such as Jacob and Dorcas. Traditional clothing such as aso oke and drum beats (gan gan) are also being replaced by Western clothing and the trumpet respectively. Consequently, the youth have to define themselves within this context where the Ondo tradition meets with evolving cultural norms.

6.2 ANALYSIS FROM SURVEYS AND FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

In this section, we analyze responses to questions on cultural equity and development. The first question was if the city recognizes and promotes youth cultural rights. The answer to this question was largely positive with more than 79 per cent of respondents in Okitipupa and Ikare and around 65 per cent from Akure, Ondo and Owo cities answering affirmatively (Figure 6.1). Hence, we can infer that the cities do promote youth cultural rights.

Following from the previous question, the next question sought the extent of the recognition of youth cultural rights. The analysis, presented in Figure 6.1 shows that the majority of respondents (90.48 per cent) from Ikare opined that 'freedom of cultural expression is a constitutional guarantee'; 91.11 per cent of them reported that 'different ethnic groups are free to use their own language in official transactions'. The third choice of Ikare respondents (with 65.53 per cent) is that ‘the city has physical facilities to promote different cultural expressions response rate. This pattern of responses is similar across all the cities.

Figure 6.1: Does your city recognize and promote youth cultural rights?

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014
Youth in the ProsPeritY of Cities

The city has physical facilities to promote different cultural expressions.
The city provides for easy accommodation of new forms of cultural interaction.

Freedom of cultural expression is a constitutional guarantee.
The city has signs and information boards in more than one language.

Different ethnic groups are free to use their own language in official transactions.
It is not a constitutional guarantee but the city (and state/country).

In speaking to discussants in focus groups, certain aspects of the culture in the state negatively affected the youth. In particular, they highlighted that young girls were sometimes forced into marriages at an early age, and against their wishes or made to stay at home as ‘elehas’

Also, some of the youths’ cultural rights such as dancing, dressing, drumming are being restricted by parents, as parents sometimes enforce the way of dressing on youths as well as the language to speak. Discussants from the Akure focus group discussions noted that: “Mothers should train their children not to make themselves inferior to their colleagues and try to listen to them rather than to shout at them when trying to say anything… (Adewole), parents should allow their children to go to school most especially in some religious practices. Giving girls in marriage at a tender age… (Adeyemo) and keeping girl children at home as “elehas”… (Jayeola) are some of the ways whereby youths cultural rights are being violated.”

There was also the fact that their cultural rights of expression were being restricted while some cultural practices placed limitations on their freedom to move where and when they wanted. For example, discussants from the city of Ondo noted that speaking of the Yoruba language or even offering the language (in schools) has been given a relegated or inferior position in society. In addition, across all the cities, restriction of movement during some festivals was alluded to. A specific mention was made about the traditional Orisa festival in Owo where nobody must come out when the sacrifice is being carried to the shrine. During this period, restrictions are placed on movement within town.

However, at what level of government are such cultural rights supposed to be addressed? Survey questionnaires asked whether the majority of cultural programmes and policies were by the city or national government. The opinion of respondents was equally divided among two choices: ‘under the city authorities’ and ‘under national policy strategies’ in all cities except Owo (Fig. 6.3). Roughly two-thirds of respondents in Owo (64.29 per cent) feel urban policies fell under the city’s authority.
The next question probed how the cities enabled cultural rights and expression for the youth. The majority (100 per cent) in Ikare, Ondo, Okitipupa, 97.73 per cent in Owo, and 81.36 per cent in Akure were of the opinion that cultural rights were enabled ‘through appropriate intercultural programmes’. The second preference of respondents was ‘through the provision of shared spaces for cultural events and competitions’ followed by ‘through protection and celebration of specific cultural monuments and highlights’. The pattern of responses was similar in all sample cities.

The next question was on other means of enabling cultural rights and expressions for youth. All of the respondents in Owo and Ikare cited that cultural rights are enabled ‘through appropriate intercultural programmes for the youths’ while all those in Ondo feel that it is achieved through the ‘accommodation by government of people from all social, cultural background’. The response rate in the other two cities was very low.
6.2 CULTURAL RIGHTS AND INCLUSIVENESS

Again, a question seeking the extent of cultural exclusion among various categories of people was posed. The answers were given on a five-point scale from 1 ‘not excluded at all’ to 5 ‘completely excluded’. The average score of respondents is presented in Figure 6.6. We find that the average score of all the categories of people lies between 2 and 3 suggesting that the various categories of people including women and girl children, elderly people, disabled people, uneducated people, immigrants from rural areas and other urban areas within the country, as well as ethnic groups were partially excluded. In Owo, the highest score (2.94) was assigned to ‘elderly people’ while in Ondo and Okitipupa the highest score 2.86 and 2.97 was assigned to ‘immigrants from other urban areas within the country’ and ‘ethnic groups’ respectively. On the other hand, the highest score in Akure (2.57) and Ikare (2.82) was given to ‘people of specific racial backgrounds’ and ‘immigrants from rural areas’. Generally, there is therefore a sense, though partial, of cultural discrimination in the cities which should be addressed.

In the next question, respondents’ opinions on the awareness of upcoming initiatives that will address the freedom of cultural expression was sought. The majority of answers showed no awareness of such programmes, with the figures being 88.89 per cent, 80.74 per cent, 79.69 per cent, 77.17 per cent, and 67.16 per cent in Ikare, Akure, Okitipupa, Ondo, and Owo respectively (Figure 6.7). The findings suggest that either there are no initiatives been carried out, or that information dissemination mechanisms of upcoming initiatives needed to be more effective.

The next question was on the awareness of selected initiatives
that will address the freedom of cultural expression. Lack of awareness has attracted the highest percentage of respondents in all the cities varying from 33.33 per cent in Owo to 71.79 per cent in Ondo. This is followed by ‘no such initiative by the government’, and that ‘freedom of expression will bring development’. The trend in the responses is similar in all the sample cities.

In sum, this chapter shows that a fairly large percentage (70.50 per cent) of respondents were of the opinion that their city recognises and promotes cultural equity. Among the type of cultural rights they had included the liberty of different ethnic groups to use their own languages in many transactions. On the other hand, certain other cultural rights were being restricted such as the expression of Yoruba language being relegated in society; while some cultural practices such as festivals, placed limitations on the freedom of movement during this period. On average, 91.87 per cent of respondents were of the view that cities promote cultural rights through appropriate inter-cultural programmes. However, the majority of respondents also expressed the fact that disabled people were sometimes excluded from cultural rights.

Figure 6.8: Awareness of selected initiatives that will address the freedom of cultural expression

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014
CHAPTER SEVEN

SOCIAL EQUITY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT
7.0 INTRODUCTION

The Millennium Development Goals have effectively focused international attention on primary enrolment, and helped to direct resources towards raising this in developing regions. UNESCO’s 2011 Education for All (EFA) Global Monitoring Report states that between 1999 and 2008, an additional 52 million children enrolled in primary school and, in sub-Saharan Africa, enrolment ratios rose by one-third in spite of a significant increase in the primary school age population.\(^4\) Figures 7.1 and 7.2 depict current net enrolment rates in primary education in Nigeria compared with some countries across developing regions, as well as the progress made in six select countries in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). Significantly, Nigeria falls below the regional average and also lags behind other countries in SSA notably South Africa, Botswana and Tanzania.

Due in part to this slow progress, Nigeria is not on track to achieve the Education for All targets set for 2015, and most of these goals will be missed by a wide margin. Several factors have had significant impact on the many dimensions of poverty on school attendance and education quality, particularly early childhood malnutrition, deprivation based on gender and income inequality. Inter- and intra-regional inequality is apparent in net enrolment rates, and further so in data regarding children out of school. Approximately 5 per cent of Nigerian children and 43 per cent of out-of-school children live in sub-Saharan Africa and 27 per cent live in South and West Asia.\(^4\) Strikingly, approximately half of children out of school live in only 15 countries. Figure 7.2 depicts the historical trend for Nigeria and six other sub-Saharan African countries, four of which are among the 15 countries that account for nearly half of out-of-school children in the world. Nigeria has one of the highest rates shown in Figure 7.2.

According to the United Nations-World Youth Report 2007,

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**Figure 7.1: Net Primary Enrollment Rate\(^{4,2,2009}\)**

![Bar Chart](chart.png)

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators 2011;

*Note: regional data unavailable for East Asia & Pacific
“Sub-Saharan Africa has perhaps made the greatest progress in recent years in providing access to education. Efforts towards achieving universal primary education by 2015, as called for in the Millennium Development Goals, have produced higher number of primary education graduates in sub-Saharan Africa. Enrolment in primary education increased from 57 per cent in 1999 to 70 per cent in 2005” (Bollang 2004 in World Youth Report). The Report indicates that, although many countries in the region had a policy for providing free and compulsory primary school, education remains expensive for the average household because of non-tuition cost such as uniform, books and transportation.

In addition, the above Report states that gender inequality in access to school persists in sub-Saharan Africa and that, although the gender gap has been reduced at the lower level of education, young women are limited in their educational pursuit by societal expectations that they marry and raise a family. This situation may further reinforce the existing tendency for young women to be excluded from decision making. It further states that poverty is by far most important among the reasons for poor education attainment among the youth, especially young women. Policies and strategies should therefore focus on education as the single most effective vehicle of uplifting the life of youths. Education in general has the potential to allow individuals, including youths, to develop their talent and abilities. It plays a major role in increasing income, improving health and nutrition and overcoming some aspect of poverty.

Below is an analysis of the UN-Habitat’s Global Urban Observatory dataset on literacy rate of female and male youths, primary and secondary attainment of education and non-educated youth female and male. Literacy as defined by (UNESCO) ‘is the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning to enable an individual to achieve his or her goals, to develop his or her knowledge and potential, and to participate fully in the wider society.’

The UN-Habitat’s Global Urban Observatory dataset, presented in the Figure 7.3 indicates that the literacy rates of male youths are higher than female youths in almost all African countries with an exception of Zimbabwe where the female rate is higher (at 99.5 per cent) than that of males at 98.8 per cent. Mali has the lowest literacy rate for male at 59 per cent and female at 32 per cent.
Figure 7.4 shows the percentage of non-educated people, Mali takes the lead with female 58 per cent/male 32 per cent; Chad follows with 45/27, Benin has 41/29; Bukina Faso 38/22 and Senegal 32/19 while Zimbabwe is at par with 0.4 per cent. UN-Habitat’s education policy focus should be intensified in countries with higher illiteracy rates.

**Primary and Secondary Education of Youths**

The World Tertiary Gender Equality Ratio was around 24 per cent in 2005; 5 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa. Primary and secondary education of girls has positive effects in families and in the next generation. Investing in girl child education can ensure a future increase in the economic growth and welfare of a country. The UN-Habitat’s Global Urban Observatory dataset reveals that enrolment rate of girls at the primary level is slightly higher than that of male youths, except in countries such as Ethiopia where ratio of male to female is not wide at 28.5 per cent and 26.4 per cent respectively, Cameroon (24.6/23.9) and in Benin (38/37) (Figure 7.5). The enrolment rate is highest in Tanzania with male 71 per cent and female 72 per cent, Mozambique 72.7/65.3 per cent. Ghana and Zimbabwe have the worst levels with 8/14.7 and 10/18.5 respectively.
However, the data presented does not explain low enrolment rate in primary school in countries such as Ghana, Nigeria and Zimbabwe in relation to high enrolment rates in secondary schools in the same countries. Figure 7.6 shows that enrolment rate at secondary education level has evidence of gender disparity. The ratio of male to female is high except in the countries where the gap is not so wide, such as: Zimbabwe male 90 per cent female 81 per cent; Ghana 88/73.3; Nigeria 87.3/68.8 and Cameroon 73.9/69.

The other countries, except Tanzania and Mozambique, have male enrolment at secondary level below 40 per cent. Benin, Chad, Mali, Mozambique and Tanzania have female enrolment rate below 20 per cent. Despite the high level of primary enrolment girls’ transition, retention and completion of education is low. In Sub-Saharan Africa, education is affected by gender-based biases/violence and poverty. The patriarchal system encourages male participation in the development agenda. In the absence or scarcity of resources, males are given priority. Poverty and parents’ illiteracy manifest in the inability to afford necessities such as sanitary towels for girls. As a result girls do not attend school during menstruation period and eventually drop in performance while some opt to drop out of school, a common practice in urban slum settlement and rural areas.

The next sections present survey responses to questions on social equity and youth development as well as excerpts from focus group discussions in the sample cities of Ondo state.
7.1 EDUCATIONAL EQUITY AND YOUTH

Education is a crucial component of social equity which impacts on youths and this section presents responses to questions related to educational equity and youth development. Opinions on social equity of youths including educational opportunities, skill development were garnered.

Respondents were asked to rate factors that contributed to the development of educational equity on a five-point scale ranging from 1 ‘does not contribute at all’ to 5 ‘highly contributing’. As shown in Figure 7.7, the pattern of opinion expressed by respondents were similar in all the five cities. Factors that received a score of more than 4 in Akure are – ‘easy access to health services’, ‘good and affordable public transport’, and ‘access to quality education’ - suggesting that these factors contribute substantially to the development of educational equity.

In order to assess the level of education for all in the sample cities, respondents were asked whether or not there was provision of free educational opportunities for all. Figure 7.8 shows that 70 per cent of respondents in Akure, 69.89 per cent in Ondo, 61.90 per cent in Ikare, 52.78 per cent in Owo, and 54.69 per cent in Okitipupa felt that primary school level education was free for all. The opinion about secondary level education was 61.59 per cent, 58.06 per cent, 53.97 per cent, 45.16 per cent, and 40.85 per cent in Akure, Ondo, Ikare, Okitipupa, and Owo respectively. Only a small percentage of respondents opined that university education is free for all.

Figure 7.7: Rate the following elements as they contribute to develop a sense of educational equity for youth development
Some group discussions validated survey responses that only primary and secondary levels of education were free for all. According to a participant at Ikare: ‘Although there is free education, this is limited to primary and secondary schools.’ - Ibukun (Ikare Focus Group Discussion (FGD))

In addition to providing free education for all, participants at focused group discussions were particular about the relevance of the curriculum in grooming youths in their areas of interests and special abilities, right from the primary level of education. According to a participant: ‘Government should start the issue of learning job from cradle i.e. primary schools so that they will be able to detect their area of specialty right from the beginning.’ - Adewole (FGD Akure)

Due to the dynamic nature of the modern labour market due to advances in technology and mode of business, there is a need for the constant upgrading of labour skills to meet the growing demands. Respondents were asked about the availability of opportunities to re-skill work orientation in order to keep pace with rapidly changing work environments. The analysis of responses presented in Figure 7.9 indicates that on average 52.47 per cent of the respondents affirmed the existence of such re-skilling opportunities. The affirmative responses were 65.75 per cent in Owo, 60 per cent in Okitipupa, 57.81 per cent in Ikare and 50.54 per cent in Ondo cities. However, on average 47.53 per cent of respondents negated the existence of such re-skilling opportunities, suggesting the need for cities to create more re-training and capacity-building opportunities.
Comments given by respondents on re-skill work orientation for rapidly-changing work environments were grouped and analysed. As shown in Figure 7.10, factors that received the highest percentage of responses varied from city to city. For instance, in Ikare 56 per cent of the respondents were of the view that ‘opportunities abound but youths are not allowed to benefit from them’ while in Akure 36.05 per cent opined that ‘new skill will be useful in the nearest future’. On the other hand, 34.62 per cent of respondents in Owo emphasized the need for ‘regular training of workers’.

The availability of public space is an important component of the social existence in cities. Respondents were asked whether their city had sufficient amount of free space and social spheres for all residents. On average, as shown in Figure 7.11, 56.01 per cent of the all respondents agreed that there was sufficient public space and social spheres for all. The affirmative responses varied from a low of 40.28 per cent in Owo to a high of 66.67 per cent in Akure. In any case, the 46.91 per cent negative responses cannot be ignored as it indicates the need to create sufficient space for all citizens.
7.2 SOCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND EQUITY

Adequate provision of social infrastructure for all is an important component of creating equitable opportunities for all. Respondents were expected to rate social infrastructure services in their city on a five-point scale from 1 ‘not covered at all’ to 5 ‘fully covered’. The analysis of responses is depicted in Figure 7.12. Options that receive a score of 3.5 and above in all sample cities are ‘health services’, and ‘sanitation facilities’ indicating that these services fall between the categories of ‘fairly covered’ to ‘substantially covered’. In general, the scores are greater than 2 so partially covered with a similar response pattern across cities. Findings from this analysis indicates the need for city governments to pay more attention to these social services and ensure that the entire population is fully covered.

In an adjoining question respondents were asked to rate the availability of social infrastructure services available to residents in their respective cities. As shown in Figure 7.13, majority of respondents (75 per cent) in Ikare think that coverage of ‘free recreational services’ is close to ‘fairly covered’ while 57.14 per cent in Owo, 44.44 per cent in Okitipupa, and 34.62 per cent in Akure opined that ‘good roads’ is partially covered.

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**Figure 7.12: Rate the following social infrastructure services**

![Figure 7.12: Rate the following social infrastructure services](source)

*Note: Score (1: Not covered at all, 2: Partially covered, 3: Fairly covered, 4: Substantially covered, 5: Fully covered)*

**Figure 7.13: Other social infrastructure services rated by the respondent**

![Figure 7.13: Other social infrastructure services rated by the respondent](source)
Ideally, the provision of social services should be inclusive of all categories of people irrespective of level of education, social class, migrant status or other stratifications. Respondents were asked to rate the extent of social exclusion of various categories of people on a five-point scale ranging from 1 ‘not excluded at all’ to 5 ‘completely excluded’. Figure 7.14 shows the average score given by respondents. The average score given to social exclusion of all the categories of people lies between 2 and 3, suggesting that they were partially excluded. In Owo and Okitipupa, highest scores of 3.13 and 3.08 respectively was assigned to ‘disabled people’ indicating that they are fairly excluded while in Ondo, a highest score of 2.90 was assigned to ‘immigrants from other urban areas within the country’. On the other hand, highest scores in the capital city Akure (2.66) and Ikare (2.83) were given to ‘immigrants from other urban areas within the country’ and ‘uneducated people’.

Participants from Ikare group discussions noted that youths had little or no access to various services like health care, education, public goods and offices provided by the city. Specifically, with regard to health services, one participant noted the manner of exclusion in provision: ‘There is no mother and child hospital while the state specialist hospital is not affordable as you still have to pay for every drugs.’ – Ibukun (Ikare FGD)

Social equity implies the elimination of restrictions on activities and association among different categories of people within the public space. Respondents were asked if they were aware of any social venues in their city to which youths were directly restricted. On the average, responses were negative (79.91 per cent) indicating that they were not aware of such social venues to which entry for youth is restricted (Figure 7.15). The negative responses were 91.04 per cent from Ikare, more than 80 per cent from Okitipupa and Akure, and 73.68 per cent from Ondo. It can be inferred from the results that the majority of the citizens enjoy a lot of social liberty, which is a good sign of social inclusion. However, more efforts can be made to ensure all peoples including youths have a perception of a socially free and inclusive city environment.

Figure 7.14: Extent of exclusion of various categories of people from social infrastructural services

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014

Note: Score (1=Not excluded at all, 2=Partially excluded, 3=Fairly excluded, 4=Substantially excluded, 5=Completely excluded)
In furtherance of the inquiry in social restrictions in the sample cities, respondents were asked about the imposition of legal prohibition of social restriction on youths. Based on the analysis depicted in Figure 7.16, more than 75 per cent of the total respondents opined that societal restrictions are not legally prohibited. The majority of respondents, 90.91 per cent in Ikare, 80 per cent in Okitipupa and more than 70 per cent in other cities indicates that social restriction on youth are not legally prohibited. In order to entrench social inclusion in the system and administration of justice, city laws and regulations need to prohibit any social restrictions on youths in cities.

Respondents were also asked to rate any observable forms of restriction on social groups on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ‘not restricted’ to 5 ‘very restricted’. Figure 7.17 shows that by and large all form of restrictions got a score around 3 suggesting that all forms of restrictions are fairly prevalent in the sample cities. However, there are few minor variations. For instance, in Owo and Ikare ‘lack of enforcement of existing guarantees’ got the highest score of 3.32 and 3.35 respectively. The form of restriction that received more than 3 across cities is the ‘lack of enforcement of existing guarantees’.

Figure 7.15: Awareness of social venues which directly restrict entry to the youth

Figure 7.16: Opinion on impositions of social restriction on youths prohibited by the laws of your country
In order to assess the extent of indirect restrictions to social services in the sample cities, respondents were asked to rate indirect restrictions in access to amenities provided for the public by specific groups. The responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale from 1 - not restricted - to 5 - very restricted. As shown in Figure 7.18, the pattern of responses was similar across all sample cities. Among the restrictions, responses that received a score close to 3 or above were ‘no facilities for the elderly’, ‘no facilities for the disabled’, ‘feeling of social insecurity and ‘vulnerability among certain groups of society’.

**Figure 7.17: Forms of restrictions on social groups observable in your city**

**Figure 7.18: Kinds of indirect restrictions to specific public groups to access both public provided amenities in the city**

*Note: Score (1=Not restricted, 2=Least restricted, 3=Fairly restricted, 4=More restricted, 5=Very restricted)*
Cities are generally organized into central business districts, industrial districts, social centres and residential areas. It is always useful to have industrial districts where factory-based production processes far away from residential centre to guard against health hazards resulting from air and environmental pollution. Proper positioning of business districts and industrial districts are a product of effective city planning and administration. Strict divisions in residential and business areas have implications for ease of access to services as well as transportation costs. Respondents from all sample cities were asked if there were strict divisions between residential and business areas in their respective cities. As shown in Figure 7.19, a higher percentage of respondents across the cities opined that there were no such strict divisions, with 72.31 per cent from Okitipupa and 64 per cent in Owo. On average, 55.88 per cent of all respondents stated that there were no strict divisions between residential areas and areas of work.

Respondents were asked if they were aware of city plans to reduce social and spatial polarization Figure 7.20 shows the distribution of negative responses. On average, more than 65 per cent of respondents were of the view that there were no programmes targeted at reducing any social and spatial polarization observable in the sample cities. Negative responses vary from a low of 55.86 per cent in Akure to a high of 74.19 per cent in Okitipupa. The results indicate the need for cities in Ondo state to conceive and implement programmes aimed at reducing social polarization.

Programmes to reduce social or spatial polarizations may be organized differently between municipalities with implications for inclusion in city administration. Whereas in some settings such programmes may be controlled and executed by the central (state-level) government, control may be decentralized to city councils in other settings. Respondents were asked about where the controlling authority lay for programmes aimed at reducing social/spatial polarization in their cities. As shown in Figure 7.21, majority of respondents across all sample cities were of the opinion that most programmes were controlled by urban development or state development authorities. A similar pattern of responses is observed across all sample cities.
To foster inclusion, the opinion of city residents on urban policy and programmes is pertinent. Given that some urban programmes and initiatives existed in their cities, respondents were asked to rate programmes and their objectives. The majority of respondents in Akure (60.61 per cent), Owo (47.06 per cent), and Okitipupa (30.77 per cent) reported the existence of ‘urban renewal policy to achieve a well planned area’ in their cities while 50 per cent in Ikare reported ‘ODSSACA aimed at preventing children and youths from contact’ (Figure 7.22). On the other hand, the highest percentage of respondents (50 per cent) in Ondo city was in favour of ‘recreation centre for job creation’.

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014
Efforts towards fostering social inclusion need be able to be perceived by residents of such cities where social disparities exist. The level of awareness amongst respondents about programmes to minimize social disparity and marginalization was assessed. Figure 7.23 depicts the majority negative responses, which vary from 63.53 per cent in Ondo to 87.04 per cent in Ikare. These findings may indicate the inappropriateness of information dissemination mechanisms employed in sample cities, which explains why most of the respondents were unaware of such programmes. Cities in Ondo state need to improve their awareness creation systems to a great extent.

7.3 POLICIES FOR PROMOTION OF SOCIAL EQUITY

Policies targeted at providing social security and public safety are an important component of social equity for all. In order to assess the level of the social equity in this regard, respondents were asked if there were social security provisions and public safety initiatives in their city. As shown in Figure 7.24, an average of 53.46 per cent of responses was negative, indicating that such initiatives are not implemented in most of the cities. The negative responses vary from 40 per cent in Akure to 75.38 per cent in Okitipupa. There is, therefore, a need for cities to focus on implementing programmes targeted at promoting the security and safety of residents.

The effectiveness of interventions on health care, housing, food security, mobility systems were assessed. Respondents were required to rate the effectiveness of these initiatives on a five-point scale from 1 as ‘not very effective’ to 5 ‘highly effective’. As observed in Figure 7.25, the pattern of responses was similar on all initiatives across sample cities. The initiative of ‘health care programmes’ received the highest score 3.42 in all the cities followed by ‘public transport facilities’ with a score of 3.06. On the average, respondent perceived the initiatives to be somewhat effective, however to varying degrees.
Respondents from sample cities were also asked to give their opinion on the list of excluded socially beneficial programmes in their cities. Figure 7.26 shows that majority of respondents from Ikare (60 per cent), Ondo (55.56 per cent), Okitipupa (50 per cent), and Akure (41.38 per cent) opined that programmes related to ‘water, sanitation, electricity and motor parts & spaces’ are lacking in the cities. On the other hand, the highest percentage of respondents, 44.44 per cent, from Owo felt that ‘provision for the homeless and motherless home’ was most excluded. However, a comment during a group discussion shows that some effort, no matter how little, is being put into the provision of social amenities in Ondo state. ‘In the area of social amenities, there is best water system in Ondo state, government has done it all’. - Wale (Okitipupa FGD).

As an extension to earlier queries on the existence of social security programmes and initiatives, respondents were asked if the target population of such programmes were youths. As shown in Figure 7.27, majority of responses from all the five cities were negative with highest negative responses being 64.06 per cent in Ikare, 63.16 per cent in Okitipupa, 60.94 per cent in Owo and 58.73 per cent in Akure cities.
Grassroot initiatives are usually more effective in dealing with the needs of local communities than top-down initiatives. Respondents were asked if there existed any local initiatives targeted at the reduction of social disparities and marginalization in sample cities. On average, 57.28 per cent of respondents answered in negative (Figure 7.28) with the highest being in Ikare (68.75 per cent) followed by Okitipupa (66.67 per cent), Ondo (59.09 per cent), Owo (54.93 per cent) and Akure (46.83 per cent). These responses show that more efforts need to be garnered to reduce the disparities and marginalization in the society.

Participants at Ikare group discussions reiterate marginalization and the exclusion of youths from social opportunities. This shows that many youths do not feel a sense of belonging in their city. In Okitipupa, the discussion group observed that there is no access to or opportunity by the youths to various services/amenities like health care, education, public goods and offices. In the words of a discussant, ‘If you are not a politician, you cannot have access to anything and in case of the youth, they are being used for thuggery. There is no way you can get appointment without connection.’ - Tomide (FGD Ikare)

The provision and availability of adequate health facilities is also an important aspect of creating quality human existence for all. Respondents were asked if their city offers medical services to the youth. Figure 7.29 shows that 52.08 per cent of all respondents across cities answered in the affirmative. However, the responses were highest in the capital city Akure (66.67 per cent) and lowest in Owo (31.43 per cent). Even though more than 50 per cent of responses were affirmative, the opinion expressed by the remaining 47.92 per cent cannot be ignored. Notably, in three out of five sample cities, more than 50 per cent of respondents were negative about the existence of medical services to youths. These results indicate that there are disparities in the provision of medical services to youths across cities and ample scope for improvements in the provision of such socially-beneficial services.

In Owo, youths do not have access or equal opportunity to benefit or enjoy from various available services/amenities like healthcare, education, public goods and offices provided by the cities. This they asserted during the group discussions, for example: ‘We pay for virtually everything at the health centers that were said to be free here. We pay for cards and even paracetamol. So where is the free medical service.’ - Deyemi (Owo FGD)

Another aspect of social equity is the sense of safety and security for all. To that extent, prosperous cities are those in which residents felt safe and secure. Respondents were asked to rate their city’s level of security and safety for the youth on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 as ‘not safe at all’ to 5 as ‘highly safe’. A similar pattern of responses is observed across all the sample cities (Figure 7.30). Respondents in four cities, namely Ikare, Akure, Ondo and Okitipupa opined that the
level of security as ‘safe’ with an average score of 3.28 while residents of Owo city felt that it was ‘somewhat safe’ with score of 2.94.

In summary, this chapter has addressed issues related to social equity and youth development based on survey evidence from five Ondo state cities. Some disparities were noted in access to social services such as healthcare, education, public goods and offices across cities, with greater access in the capital city of Akure. Access to free education for all at primary and secondary levels of education was attested by survey respondents as well as focus group discussants. However, there is need for more investment in the provision of tertiary and technical education for all.

Findings from the survey also indicate that many city residents were unaware of programmes and initiatives aimed at reducing social and spatial marginalization; this calls for better information dissemination mechanisms. On the whole even though the state seems to be performing on all fronts to create a fairly equitable society, more is left to be desired. It is suggested that grass root initiatives be encouraged and urban policy implementation monitored to ensure set objectives are steadily achieved. This will help create a sense of safety and security for all.

Figure 7.30: Rating of the level of security and safety for young people

Note: Score (1=Not secure at all, 2=Slightly secure, 3=Fairly secure, 4=Secure, 5=Highly secure)

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014
CHAPTER EIGHT

ENVIRONMENTAL EQUITY AND YOUTH DEVELOPMENT
8.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we look into environmental equity and youth development in Ondo State. Ondo is the sixth-largest economy in Nigeria and has significant natural resources. It produces large quantities of rubber, palm oil and cocoa and also has extensive forest resources. Apart from crude oil, Ondo has other minerals such as limestone, granite, kaolin, glass sand and bitumen. These resources set Ondo up as a base for industrial growth but also indicate the pertinence of appropriate policies and practices that safeguard the environment.

8.2 ANALYSIS FROM SURVEYS AND FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

In this section, we consider the responses to questions intended to cover the policies related to environmental sustainability and ecological protection that were posed to respondents.

The first question asked whether the city had policies that promote ecological safety and environmental sustainability. The fact that the sample cities did not have such policies is evident from the responses as more than 60 per cent of the respondents from Okitipupa, Ikare, Owo and Ondo cities answered negatively (Figure 8.1). A 40.28 per cent negative response from Akure indicates that the authorities there promote environmental policies to some extent. The findings suggest that there is an urgent need for activating policies related to environmental sustainability in other cities.

Following on from the first question, the next question probed some more in-depth information on the existence of these policies from those who gave a positive response. From Figure 8.2 below, we find that policies related to ‘appropriate waste management authority’ received the highest responses in Okitipupa (55 per cent), Ikare (40 per cent), Owo and Ondo (37.93 per cent). ‘Monitoring environmental programmes and erosion control’ received the second-largest (24.71 per cent) overall score across the cities, while ‘tree planting and waste management’ was third (16.09 per cent).

Figure 8.1: Existence of policies that promote ecological safety and environmental sustainability

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014
In the next question, the respondents were expected to rate the impact that urban activities related to economic development that had a negative impact on environment. The ratings were on a five-point scale and ranged from 1 as 'very serious impact' to 5 as 'no impact'. Findings are presented in Figure 8.3. The figure shows that on an average 28.42 percent of respondents feel that economic development policies have very serious impacts on the environment. The percentage of respondents with same opinion in Owo, Ondo, Akure, Okitipupa and Ikare are 36.78, 28.13, 27.78, 27.45, and 21.43 per cent respectively. The pattern of responses was similar in all the cities.

Source: UN-Habitat Youth Survey 2013/2014
The next question sought if there were any strategies of the city aimed at integrating ecological safety and environmental protection plans into sectoral policies and economic development.

About half (53.13 per cent) of total respondents agreed to the existence of such initiatives, these ranged from 32.35 per cent in Ikare to 69.74 per cent in Akure. While the results show that Akure and Ondo (with 58.7 per cent positive responses) indicate that the authorities in these two cities are more inclined towards this goal, local governments in Ikare and Okitipupa need to come out with strategies that maintain the balance between the environment and economic development.

8.3 ENVIRONMENTAL INSTITUTIONS AND TRANSPORT POLICIES

When probed about environmental systems and institutions, we find that apart from Ondo city (42.7 per cent), across all the cities, more than half of the respondents did not believe that the local authorities had the financial and institutional capacity to deal with ecological and environmental concerns. Furthermore, with the exception of Akure, about 50 or more per cent of the respondents in the other four cities were of the opinion that there were not ‘efficient monitoring systems in the city to measure environmental sustainability’ and that ‘the city does not have actions to integrate environmental concerns into local transport policy’. A breakdown of these results is seen in Figure 8.5 below.
Respondents were then asked to rank the transport policies that integrate environmental concerns on a five-point Likert scale varying from 1 as ‘less integrated’ to 5 as ‘highly integrated’. From Figure 8.6 we find that the overall opinion of majority of respondents is that ‘traffic restrictions in certain areas’, with the highest rank of 3.34, fairly integrates environmental concerns. This is followed by three other options: ‘provision of cycling paths and walkways’, ‘diversifying public transport alternatives’ and ‘traffic restrictions due to high pollution levels’. We find also that almost all the cities responded similarly. Notably, none of the policies attained the position of integrated or highly integrated, reflecting that the cities still have some work to do to ensure that environmental concerns are integrated into their transport policies.

**Note:** Score (1=Less integrated, 2=Partially integrated, 3=Fairly integrated, 4=Integrated, 5=Highly integrated)
8.4 LOCAL INITIATIVES AND ENVIRONMENT EQUITY

Again, respondents were asked if the city had adopted local/municipal targets to improve environmental quality. Roughly two-thirds of the respondents gave negative responses (Figure 8.7). The highest negative responses were from Okitipupa and Ikare, each with 76.92 per cent. This was followed by Owo (66.67 per cent), Ondo and Akure (almost 58 per cent). This should be a matter of concern for cities, as local governments need to be environmentally conscious to ensure that their cities develop in a sustainable manner.

The next three questions asked if respondents’ city encouraged programmes and practices that supported the use of renewable sources of energy; leveraged investments to support sustainable resource use and lowered greenhouse gas emissions; and had new parks built in the last five years that were accessible to the youth. The response to all three questions was largely negative. Across four of the five cities, the use of investments to support sustainable resource use and lower greenhouse gas had the largest negative response, with an average of 65.55 per cent across the cities (Figure 8.8). However, the respondents in Akure showed a positive response towards these questions.
The next set of questions probed issues related to the protection of natural heritage and recycling facilities. Figure 8.9 shows that the highest positive response was received from Akure (74.68 per cent) for ‘city protecting natural heritage resources and landscape’. Similarly, about 75 per cent of respondents in Akure and Ondo were of the opinion that the ‘city has and uses recycling facilities for waste management’ and ‘there were alternative options for motorized public transport’ suggesting that local authorities in Akure and Ondo are more inclined towards addressing environmental concerns. A low affirmative response rate in Owo, Ikare and Okitipupa implies that the cities need to do more for protecting the environment.

Questions that investigated the coordination between various authorities was also sought. Analysis presented in Figure 8.10 shows that, as a whole, about 64.76 per cent of respondents across the cities responded positively to the question ‘do you think the city is making progress towards a more sustainable urban environment?’ These affirmative responses however varied from 36.76 per cent in Ikare to 85.81 per cent in Akure. The second-highest positive response rate (56.50 per cent across the cities) was for ‘do you think municipalities from the same city/region are combining resources and are partnering together for increased environmental sustainability?’ This ranged from 35.29 per cent in Ikare to 69.28 in Akure. The pattern of responses is similar in all the cities.
Finally, respondents were asked to give their opinion on initiatives that contribute towards a more sustainable environment. The analysis is depicted in Figure 8.11.

Findings show that the policy ‘efforts towards provision of social infrastructure and environment protection’ got the highest response in the cities. It varies from 17.14 per cent in Ikare to 62 per cent in Ondo. On the other hand, ‘urban renewable initiatives recording huge success’ got the second-highest response from Akure (30.28 per cent), Owo (18.18 per cent), and Ondo (16 per cent) while 25 per cent of the respondents in Okitipupa preferred ‘youth not fully benefitted in basic amenities’. The findings suggest that efforts towards provision of social infrastructure and environment protection are not enough in any city. Hence, cities need to do more in these areas.

Focus group discussions in all five cities show that the government does have some initiatives in the area of ecological safety and environmental sustainability but they are not properly implemented. For example, the government has an afforestation programme and there is a waste management board for the management and control of wastes, however, none of these institutions are not performing up to the expectations of the citizens. As one participant from Owo said: "Most of the public places in Owo have been defecated by faeces and urine without any action taken to control this attitude of the people."

In sum, this chapter shows that on average, 56.98 per cent feel that policies that promote ecological safety and environmental sustainability do not exist in their cities. The highest percentage of respondents (36.21 per cent) opines that an appropriate waste management policy is the most appropriate mechanism to promote ecological safety and environmental sustainability. That there are economic development programmes having very serious impact on environment was considered true by the highest percentage of respondents, namely 28.42 per cent across the five cities.

Vehicular emission limits was assigned the highest rank among transport policies that cross over into environmental concerns. Efforts towards the provision of social infrastructure and environmental protection were considered more suitable for a sustainable environment by the majority of the respondents.
CHAPTER NINE

CITIES AND THE EQUITY AGENDA: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
9.0 CONCLUSION

The State of Ondo Urban Youth Report (SOUYR) 2013/14 Equity Employment and Youth Development in Ondo State Cities analyzes the trends in youth inequality in relation to the major structural factors of the growing economic inequalities within Ondo State. It identifies the root causes of inequities in the cities and analyzes city-wide pattern of inequities. The Report examines the various dimensions of the inequities and linked these to the process of urbanization in order to show how urban areas contribute to the growing inequities of Ondo state cities, and in turn show how these dimensions relate to the growth and development of urban areas. It also examines the policies, actors and initiatives that have successfully contributed to the prosperity of cities.

The Report shows that various state-wide government initiatives exist that are designed to create employment opportunities and promote youth inclusion. These include the Skill Acquisition Program, Entrepreneurial Development Program, Agro-business Cities, Microcredit and SEEDS. Even though these have been instrumental in providing different youth groups in cities with employment and income-generation opportunities, the success of such programmes is limited due to poor implementation, low level of awareness and uneasy access to requisite and timely information by target groups. Consequently, given the limited income and employment generation opportunities, the contribution of youth to the productive sectors of the economy remains dismal.

Results of the youth survey indicate that economic wealth is not at all well-distributed, with a high percentage of respondents pointing out politicians and bureaucrats and rich urban youth as major beneficiaries of development policies. In this way, the majority of the respondents feel that cities do not promote equitable growth. Also, over half of the respondents across cities are not aware of ecological safety and environmental sustainability measures being taken by city authorities. On the other hand, more than 70 per cent were of the view that their cities sought to promote social and cultural equity and widely attested the absence of social restrictions of youth.

Institutional frameworks that provide an enabling environment are as important as the creation of equal opportunities for youths. The prevalence of corruption and rent-seeking behaviour can be highly prohibitive to youth interest in productive activities. Due to the low level of industrialization in Ondo State, many of the employment opportunities available are labour intensive. For instance, the creation of science and technology universities and promotion of vocational training, technical education and skill development programmes can foster the development of skills which may be instrumental to the development of small- and medium-scale industries in the state. Moreover, value reorientation away from rent seeking behaviours to productive engagement and the provision of enabling infrastructure can improve youth productivity in the state.

Due to the difficulty in obtaining information, more than 50 per cent of survey respondents rely on the press for information on pro-policies administered by government agencies. Transparency and accountability in public administration void of corruption and discrimination, open access to beneficial information from government agencies are veritable means by which political equity can be promoted. Efforts towards promoting cultural equity in the state is laudable as the largest percentage of respondents attest to the promotion of cultural rights, freedom of language use, ethnic and religious affiliation. However, the disabled and other challenged individuals are reportedly excluded from cultural rights.

Information provided by survey respondents as well as focus group discussion participants point to the provision of adequate infrastructural facilities, easy access to health services and quality education as the best pathway to promote social equity. The coverage of health services in the cities were reportedly higher than the coverage of other forms of social amenities identified. Also, more than half of the respondents felt that social equity programmes in the state were not exclusively directed at or intended for the youth. In addition to the need to create opportunities for re-skilling workforces in the cities and providing access to financial aid programmes for business expansion and promotion, migrant youths from other urban areas and physically-challenged people should be given equal opportunities and access to available infrastructural facilities.

In order to instil social confidence in the governance of cities, there needs to be increased efforts towards the various dimensions of equity - social, cultural and political equity along with environmental sustainability. It is also apparent from the Survey that creating and enforcing appropriate wage management policies, transport policies that check vehicular emission as well as the provision of social infrastructure and environmental protection is central to ecological safety and environmental protection in cities.

9.1 RECOMMENDATIONS

Against the background of the survey and discussion outcomes, drivers of change which can positively influence youth equity in the different cities include: improved access to information through a functional state information system, incentivizing youth involvement in decision making and city administration and improved access to information communication technologies that will promote lifelong learning opportunities to youth in cities.
There are other notable suggestions for improved urban youth equity and development in Ondo State cities:

a. Public Private Partnership (PPP) policy should be intensified to improve youth inclusion in income generation and employment activities.

b. Some religious practices must be aligned with modern day development and civilization.

c. Youth must be empowered through formulation of appropriate policies and implementation of various programmes and initiatives as in the case of the developed economy.

d. The “catch them young” policies, programmes and initiatives should be initiated and implemented for the youths so that they will be able to detect their potentials at the early stage of their life.

e. Involvement of youths in policy formulation and implementation with effective monitoring and evaluation.

f. Create an enabling environment that motivates and encourages youths, without any gender bias, through provision of incentives including credit facilities, tax holiday, information access by the youth to various employment opportunities.

g. Harnessing and utilizing available human, materials/natural resources in the communities/cities.

h. Avenues such as town hall meetings, groups and association meetings where stakeholders meet and consult to discuss issues of importance in their city must be encouraged and decisions there be utilised in decision making process.

i. Protect the youths’ socio-cultural, political and economic rights through appropriate constitutional provisions and implementation strategies.

j. Urbanization policies and related policy reforms and decisions in the city must be pro-poor and be beneficial to all.

k. Sufficient information and, sensitization and awareness on government initiatives and empowerment programmes must be strengthened and increased so that youths have information about available opportunities.
References


Youth in the Prosperity of Cities


