

IMPACT OF SOCIOECONOMIC FACTORS ON RESIDENTS' QUALITY OF LIFE IN METROPOLITAN IBADAN, NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

The study examined impact of socio-economic factors on residents' quality of life in Ibadan, Nigeria with a view to using information to providing policy guidelines for sustainable development. Using stratified sampling technique, a total of fifteen political wards from the five local government areas in Ibadan metropolis were selected for study. The selection of all the local government areas is based on the fact that all of them cut across the residential zones in the metropolis and they are all main local government of the city. Primary data for the study were collected through the questionnaire administered on 1,035 respondents (2% of household heads in all the residential buildings in the metropolis), using systematic sampling technique. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to analyse the data obtained. Thus, the study concluded that infrastructure facilities in Ibadan metropolis were poor.

Keywords:

Infrastructure, facilities, quality of life, management, environment, Ibadan

INTRODUCTION

World Health Organization (WHO) defined Quality of Life (QoL) as an individual's perception of their position in life, in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectation, standards and concern (WHO, 2007). QoL can be described as a broad ranging concept that is affected by a person's physical health, psychological state, level of independence and their relationships to salient features of the environment. It focuses on all facets of life, which includes cultural, social, environmental, physical, health and the local value systems, among others.

United Nations (2010) QoL index study report shows that Nigeria is placed 156 out of 187 countries. Despite this poor ranking, QoL studies for the cities of Nigeria are noticeably rare. As such, it will be most beneficial to Nigeria and by extension Africa if QoL studies are carried out in order to make clear the dynamics of QoL and its determinants. QoL as a concept has attracted a lot of researches and policy attention in recent time among social scientists and health professionals (Flora, 2004; Olapegba, 2010).

Researchers contend that the construct of QoL is multi-dimensional and contains both objective and subjective aspects (Veenhoven & Hagerty, 2006; Wills-Herrera et al., 2009). In order for measures of QoL to have meaning, individual's point of view must accurately be represented (Pacione, 2003). Therefore, it has been suggested that one must combine objective and subjective elements to obtain a truly holistic and more complete picture (Post et al., 1999; Schalock, 2000).

To underscore the importance of QoL, WHO set up a group dedicated to the study of the concept with a view to improving quality living. QoL has been a developing concept overtime for addressing issues such as health, environment, liveability, housing, urban psychology and many other social and physical aspects that influence human lives directly and indirectly. The concept has also significantly become more relevant in terms of measuring progress toward achieving improved wellbeing and therefore, helping to fulfil sustainability goals and objectives. More so, it helps in

contextualizing relevant policies and strategies by local and regional governments in seeking a foster sustainable regional development in more holistic and inter-disciplinary ways (Costanza, 2007, 2008). Studies on QoL across different nations of the world have established the variation that exist in space (Olapegba, 2000). For instance, while Karsten (2008) found that there is spatial variation in the quality of life of the people in Germany; Schalock (1996) acknowledged the variation in the quality of life of residents in Bosnia and Herzegovina. More so, Ietto et al. (2008) observed a spatial variation in the quality of life conditioning with reference to the local environmental management in Bivona country (Calabria, Southern Italy).

Although, the above studies examined the variation in QoL of some regions, those that put into consideration the variation in the QoL of a traditional urban centre disaggregated into residential zones are hard to come by. Omole (2010) emphasized in Nigeria housing as a unit of the environment that has profound influence on the health, efficiency, social behaviour, and general life satisfaction of the community. The researchers concluded that cultural, social and economic values of a society are the best physical and historical evidence of the civilization of a country. It is against this background that this study examined socio-economic impact on residents' quality of life in Ibadan metropolis, Nigeria.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Study Area

Ibadan city is a traditional urban centre founded in 1820's. It is the largest indigenous urban centre in Africa south of the Sahara (Afon, 2000). It is one of the most urbanized areas in Nigeria. It derived its name from Eba - Odan (i.e. "near the grassland environment"). It is derived from history that its location was not accidental. This is consequent on the fact that the forest provided the much-needed protection for refugees that flock into the town. The presence of grassland provided farmland for cultivation purposes, marketing centre for traders and goods from both the forest and the grassland areas of the Western half of Nigeria.

Ibadan comprises eleven (11) local government councils with 5 in the inner city and 6 in the outer areas. Since its foundation in the 1800s, the city has had rapid growth; in fact, it was regarded as one of the pre-colonial urban centres in Nigeria (Mabogunje, 1968). The built-up areas of Ibadan metropolis in 1984, 2000 and 2016 was analyzed through land use land cover classification of the Landsat images of 1984, 2000 and 2016; and subsequently overlaying the results. The built up area of Ibadan metropolis in 1984 was 28.15km², 46.35km² in 2000 and 52.48km² in 2016. Further analysis of the built-up statistics shows that there was an increase in the built-up area by 18.02km² between 1984 and 2000 which was found to be 64.65% increase in extent with an annual rate of expansion of 4.04%. Between 2000 and 2016, there was an increase in the built-up area by 6.13km² which represents an increase in extent of 13.23% which an annual rate of 0.83%. The reduction in the rate of expansion from 4.04% between 1984 and 2000 to 0.83% between 2000 and 2016 was because there is virtually no vacant land area in the metropolis available for expansion (refer Figure 1).

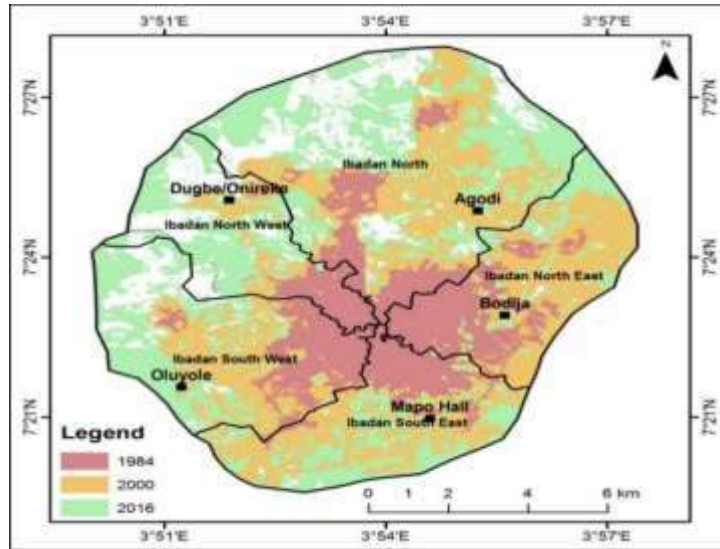


Figure 1: Spatial Growth of Ibadan from 1984 to 2016 (Source: Author's Analysis)

METHODOLOGY

Multi-stage sampling technique was employed for data collection. The first stage is the selection of the five Local Government Areas in the metropolis. These are Ibadan North, Ibadan North East, Ibadan North West, Ibadan South East and Ibadan South West. The selection of all the local government areas is based on the fact that all of them cut across all the residential zones in the metropolis and they are all spatially coverage at the centre of the city. The second stage involves the stratification of study areas into residential zones based on Afon's (2000, 2007) scheme: the core, transition and suburban. As a result, the residential areas in the five local government areas of the metropolis were stratified into three: the core, transition and suburban. Furthermore, local government areas in Ibadan metropolis were stratified into the existing political wards, as recognized by Oyo State Independence Electoral Commission (2012) in the conduct of electoral polls. According to the pilot study, the total number of political wards in Ibadan metropolis was 59. In each Ibadan North, Ibadan Northeast, Ibadan Southeast and Ibadan Southwest, there were 12 political wards while Ibadan Northwest was with eleven (11) political wards. The spatial distribution of political wards showed that there were 29, 17 and 23 wards in the core, transition and suburban respectively.

In the third stage, a ward in each residential zone of Ibadan North, Ibadan North East, Ibadan North West, Ibadan South East and Ibadan South West was selected randomly without replacement for questionnaire administration. Through this method, a total of fifteen (15) wards were selected for survey consisting of three (3) wards respectively from the core, transition and suburban of the five local government area council of Ibadan metropolis. This selection represents 33.8% of the sampling frame.

The primary and the secondary data which were obtained through the GPS field operations, the quick bird image and existing maps were integrated together in the ArcGIS software from which local queries were performed to produce a GIS database containing the facilities in Ibadan metropolis. As presented in Table 1, information from the Google Earth and reconnaissance survey revealed that there were 51,351 buildings in the selected political wards across the three residential zones of the metropolis. These comprised 26,427 buildings in the core residential zone, 14,924 buildings in the

transition zone and 10,417 buildings in the suburban zone. Systematic sampling technique was employed to identify where households heads will be selected for survey. The first building was chosen randomly. Subsequent unit of investigation was every 50th building in each ward, representing 2% of the buildings in the selected wards. Thus, 1,035 buildings were sampled comprising of 528 buildings in the core residential zone, 299 in the transition zone and 208 in the sub-urban zone. A household head was the respondent selected from a sampled building. In the case where the household head was not available, any available adult was sampled. Thus, a total of 1,035 copies of questionnaire were administered for the study.

Table 1: Buildings in the different residential zones where household heads were selected for survey
 (Source: Author’s Field Survey, 2018)

Residential Areas		Ibadan North	Ibadan NE	Ibadan NW	Ibadan SE	Ibadan SW	Total
Core	Total Buildings	3 556	6 224	4 805	5 433	6 409	26 427
	Sampled Buildings	71	124	96	109	128	528
Transition	Total Buildings	5 673	2 580	1 857	2 238	2 576	14 924
	Sampled Buildings	113	52	37	45	52	299
Sub-urban	Total Buildings	2 315	2 195	2 122	1 792	1 993	10 417
	Sampled Buildings	46	44	42	36	40	208
Total	Total Buildings	11 544	10 999	8 784	9 463	10 561	51 351
	Sampled Buildings	232	220	176	192	212	1035

Also, residents were made to express their opinion on the condition of the facilities in their locality using a five-point Likert scale of ‘Very Good’ (VG), Good' (G), ‘Neither Poor nor Good’ (NPNG), 'Poor' (P) and ‘Very Poor’(VP). Therefore, respondents also rated their level of satisfaction on each facility using a five-point likert scale of 'Very Dissatisfied, 'Dissatisfied', 'Just Satisfied, 'Satisfied and 'Very Satisfied'. The level of satisfaction was measured by an index called Residents' Satisfaction in Infrastructure Index (RSII). Procedures for arriving at the indices were discussed under chapter three.

RESULT OF FINDINGS

Socioeconomic Characteristics of Residents

Scholars have documented that gender of respondents has influence on people’s perception of quality of life (Andrews & McKennel, 1980). The implication of these gender studies is that men and women do not only have different roles and different access to and control of resources, they also have different needs. Hence, gender characteristics are context specific in respect of quality of life. The analysis of quality of life from gender and environment perspective show that perceptions may vary according to gender characteristics, needs and roles; access to resources; and to decision-making processes within the household. It is imperative therefore, to analyse the gender variation of residents' as it affect quality of life perception in Ibadan metropolis. The summary presented in Table 2 reveals that 52.37% of the residents were males, while 47.63% were females. In the identified residential

areas, household heads were mainly males. That the number of male household heads outweighed that of their female counterparts could be attributed to the fact that in African society, particularly in Nigeria, household headship is a role ascribed to the male gender. In addition, the community has able men that can be integrated into the workforce as they are considered to be playing a significant role and perhaps relatively stronger than their female counterparts.

Table 2: Gender Distribution of Residents

Gender	Core	Transition	Sub-urban	Ibadan metropolis
Male	297 (56.25%)	140 (46.82%)	105 (50.48%)	542 (52.37%)
Female	231 (43.75%)	159 (53.18%)	103 (49.52%)	493 (47.63%)
Total	528 (100.0%)	299 (100.0%)	208 (100.0%)	1035 (100.0%)

The core residential area had the highest male household heads. This area had 56.25% of the household heads as males. In the transition area, 53.18% were female household heads. This figure put transition area to have the highest females as household heads in the study area. Furthermore, core residential area recorded the least of female household heads when compared with other areas of the metropolis.

Age of Respondents

Age is an important socio-economic attribute, which has impacts on the perception of residents' quality of life. Bovaird and Löffler (2003) documented that the older and younger people perceive quality of life differently based on their life experiences. The age of household heads in Ibadan metropolis was grouped into three for ease of analysis. This grouping was on the basis of dependency and active population as adopted by demographers and social statisticians. The groupings were: 18-30 years (the youth or dependency population), 31-60 years (the young adult or the active population), and above 60 years (retired/old adult). As stated in the methodology section, questionnaires were administered on respondents not below the age of 18 years in each of the selected buildings in the study area (see Figure 2).

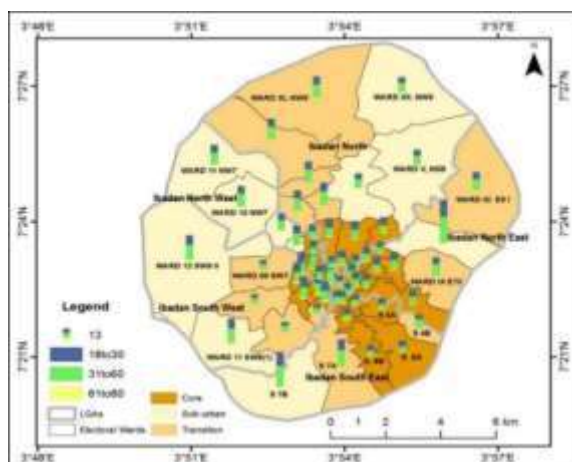


Figure 2: Age distribution of respondents in the study area

Through the summary presented in Table 3 it is apparent that residents' age group of 30-60 years accounted for 51.79% of the residents in Ibadan metropolis. Therefore, the dominant age group in the study area was 31 to 60 years. Next to this was those aged between 18 and 30 years which accounted for 42.22% of the residents in the study area. Furthermore, 5.99% of the residents accounted for ages that were above 60 years

Table 3: Age Distribution of Residents

Age	Core	Transition	Sub-urban	Ibadan metropolis
18-30	248 (46.97%)	109 (36.45%)	80 (38.46%)	437 (42.22%)
31-60	241 (45.64%)	173 (57.86%)	122 (58.65%)	536 (51.79%)
Above 60 years	39 (7.39%)	17 (5.69%)	6 (2.88%)	62 (5.99%)
Total	528 (100.0%)	299 (100.0%)	208 (100.0%)	1035 (100.0%)

It was also established that 58.65% and 57.86% of the residents in the sub-urban and transition residential areas respectively were in the age bracket of 31 to 60 years. Moreover, 46.97% of the residents in the core residential area were in the age group of 18 to 30 years. While residents above the age of 60 years represented 7.39% in the core residential area of the metropolis, those that were above 60 years accounted for 2.88% in the sub-urban residential area. The study observed that the core residential area had the highest number of residents that were above 60 years when compared with other areas in the metropolis. Hence, old adults in the core residential area were large in proportion. This may not be unconnected with the fact that this area is being occupied by the indigenes of Ibadan who happen to be the original settlers.

The mean age of 36 years was thus computed for Ibadan metropolis. This gives an indication that there was more of active population in the study area. The minimum age was 18 years, while the maximum was 75 years. The mean age in the core residential area was 35 years, while that of the transition and the sub-urban residential areas were 37 and 36 years respectively. Variation in the age of residents across the three residential areas was statistically significant. The result of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) ($F=3.644$ and $p=0.026$) confirmed this.

Marital Status of Residents

One other fundamental characteristic of respondents that has been established to be significant to individual's perception of their general quality of life is their marital status. Studies found marriage satisfaction to be an important factor influencing family quality of life. For ease of analysis of this variable, the residents' marital status was classified into four. These are single, married, widowed and separated. The spatial distribution of residents along these classifications in the different residential areas (see Figure 3).

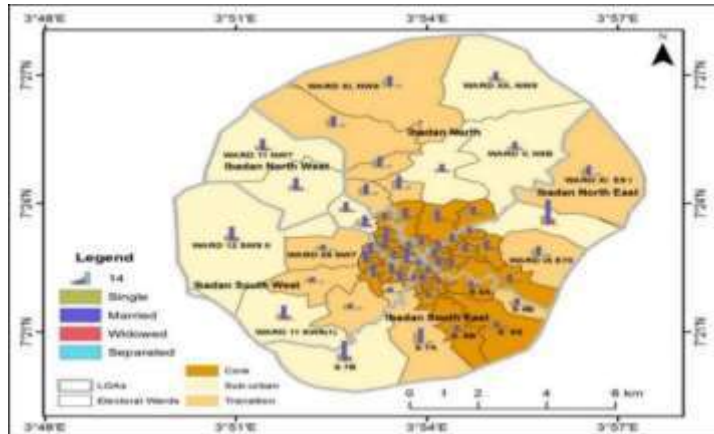


Figure 3: Spatial distribution of marital status of respondents in the study area

The study established that residents were more (59.32%) of married persons than other categories of marital status of the residents in Ibadan metropolis. While 28.50% of the residents were single, a proportion of 8.31% was widowed. Findings on this social attribute in the different residential areas revealed that residents that were separated in marital status were the less predominant. The group represented a proportion of 5.55% and 7.69% in the core and sub-urban, while none was found to be separated in the transition residential area. The implication of these findings is that a great importance was attached to marriage institution in the study area. This is in agreement with Foo (2000), who submitted that people marry at an early age for the benefit of having children to help them on farming activities. The result also implied that since there were many married middle aged and a considerable proportion of unmarried, infrastructure such as the maternity centres and educational facilities, among others, would be highly required. Variation in the marital status of respondents across the three residential areas was statistically significant by chi-square test computed ($\chi^2 = 127.322$ and $p = 0.000$).

Table 4: Marital Status of Residents in Ibadan Metropolis

	Single	Married	Widowed	Separated	Total
Core	150 (28.41%)	310 (58.71%)	44 (8.33%)	24 (5.55%)	528 (100.00)
Sub-urban	76 (36.54%)	116 (55.77%)	0 (0.00%)	16 (7.69%)	208 (100.00)
Ibadan metropolis	295 (28.5%)	614 (59.32%)	86 (8.31%)	40 (3.86%)	1035 (100.00)

Educational Level of Residents

Educational attainment is another important attribute that influence both quality and perceived quality of life of residents. Studies have shown that a high educational level increases labour market insertion and offers individuals the chance to get higher income. Also, through better training, there is an increased quality and productivity, all directly or indirectly influencing quality of life (Beckie & Hayduk, 1997). Residents in the study area were categorized into different educational levels: primary, secondary, tertiary and those without formal education and their spatial distribution is shown in Figure 4.

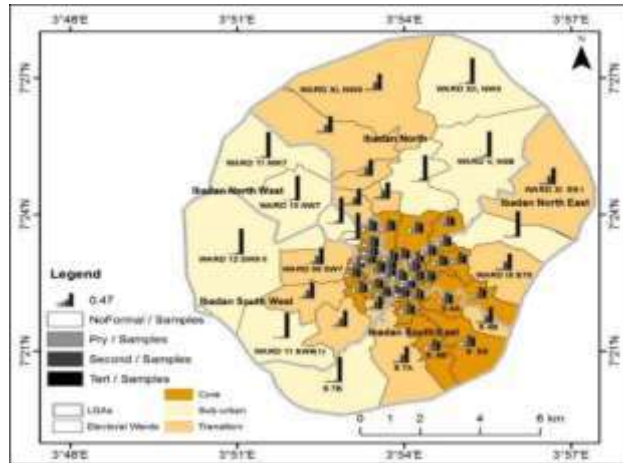


Figure 4: Spatial distribution of Educational Status among residents of Ibadan metropolis

Finding as presented in Table 5, established that 91.88% of the respondents, had one form of formal education or the other. It was, however, ascertained that proportions of 9.1%, 29.66% and 52.66% respectively of residents had primary, secondary and tertiary education qualifications. The proportion of residents in the study area without any form of formal education was only 8.12%. This indicated that there was a high level of literacy in the study area.

Table 5: Education Distribution of Residents in Ibadan Metropolis

	No formal Education	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	Total
Core	68 (12.88%)	78 (14.77%)	209 (39.58%)	173 (32.77%)	528 (100.00%)
Transition	12 (4.01%)	20 (6.69%)	88 (29.43%)	179 (59.87%)	299 (100.00%)
Sub-urban	4 (1.92%)	1 (0.48%)	10 (4.81%)	193 (92.79%)	208 (100.00%)
Ibadan metropolis	84 (8.12%)	99 (9.57%)	307 (29.66%)	545 (52.66%)	1035 (100.00%)

Spatial analysis of residents' level of education revealed that 92.79% and 59.87% were found to have tertiary education in the sub-urban and transition residential areas. Similarly, while a proportion of 12.88% had no formal education in the core residential area, only 1.92% was without formal education in the sub-urban residential area. These findings revealed that residents with no formal education were more concentrated in the core residential area when compared with other two residential areas. Conclusion could, therefore, be drawn that the educational status of residents was on the increase as distance increased from the core towards the sub-urban residential area. This is in tandem with the positions of Afon (2006), who submitted that core residential area of many Nigerian traditional cities is inhabited by people with least form of formal education. This study, however, confirmed that the differences in education status of residents in the different residential areas were significant at 0.05 levels through the chi-square test computed for the study area ($\chi^2=233.379$ and $p=0.000$).

Further investigation into the education status revealed that residents had spent different number of years in the pursuit of formal education. This analysis is necessary so as to authenticate

the formal education qualification claimed by residents in the metropolis. For the purpose of analysis, years spent in pursuit of formal education were categorized into 9 groups as follows: residents who did not attend school at all (0), residents who dropped out of primary school (1-5 years), residents who completed primary school education (6 years), and residents who could not complete secondary school education beyond Junior classes (7-9 years). Others included residents who completed junior secondary school but did not complete senior secondary school (10-11) and 12 year for residents who completed secondary school education. Others included residents that possessed tertiary education qualifications such as National Certificate in Education (NCE) and Ordinary National Diploma (OND) (13-15), residents with Higher National Diploma (HND) and University Graduates (B.Sc) certificates (16-17), while the last group comprised residents who had spent between 18-25 years and thereby possessed higher degrees such as postgraduate diploma, Masters Degree and Ph.D. These classifications were adopted using the Nigeria 6-3-3-4 formal education system and the prevailing postgraduate education employed in most Nigeria Universities.

From the summary presented in Table 6, it was established that the proportion of residents who attained tertiary education (NCE, OND) in Ibadan metropolis was 26.67%. This represented the highest proportion. Residents who completed tertiary education (BSc, HND) were 22.90%, while those with secondary school education qualification were 17.58%. Only a proportion (1.02%) of the residents was unable to round off their primary school education. This group was concentrated most in the core, representing 1.70%. Furthermore, residents who could not complete junior secondary school education beyond junior classes accounted for 2.42%. These were concentrated in the core and transition residential areas, with proportions of 3.22% and 2.68% respectively. Similarly, 11.21% of the residents could have completed junior secondary school education but may not have completed senior secondary school education. This category was concentrated in the core and transition residential areas, representing 13.26% and 15.38% of residents respectively.

Table 6: Years Residents spent in pursuit of formal education

Educational Level	Number of years	Core	Transition	Sub-urban	Ibadan metropolis
No formal Education	0	63 (11.93%)	2 (0.67%)	3 (1.44%)	68 (6.57%)
Primary (drop out)	1-5	9 (1.70%)	1 (0.33%)	1 (0.48%)	11 (1.02%)
Primary school	6	45 (8.52%)	12 (4.01%)	1 (0.48%)	58 (5.60%)
Junior secondary (drop out)	7-9	17 (3.22%)	8 (2.68%)	0 (0.00%)	25 (2.42%)
Senior secondary (drop out)	10-11	70 (13.26%)	46 (15.38%)	0 (0.00%)	116 (11.21%)
Senior Secondary school	12	129 (24.43%)	47 (15.72%)	6 (2.88%)	182 (17.58%)
Tertiary (NCE, OND)	13-15	112 (21.21%)	73 (24.41%)	91 (43.75%)	276 (26.67%)
Tertiary (HND, BSc)	16-17	65 (12.31%)	86 (28.76%)	86 (41.35%)	237 (22.90%)
Tertiary (MSc, PhD)	18-25	18 (3.41%)	24 (8.03%)	20 (9.62%)	62 (5.99%)
Total		528 (100.0%)	299 (100.0%)	208 (100.0%)	1035 (100.0%)

The minimum number of years residents spent in pursuit of formal education was 0, while the maximum number was 25. The mean year spent in pursuit of formal education by residents in Ibadan metropolis was 12.58 with a standard deviation of 4.80. Findings further established that the mean year spent in pursuit of formal education by residents was 10.77 in the core, 13.84 and 1536 respectively in the transition and sub-urban residential areas.

Variation in the year spent in pursuit of formal education was statistically significant through the ANOVA computed ($F=98.036$ and $p=0.000$). This implied that the number of years spent in pursuit of formal education was generally high across the three residential areas.

Monthly Income

The monthly income of residents is an important quality of life indicator that needs to be taken into consideration. This is because, in the words of (Onokerhoraye & Omuta, 1994; Karsten, 2008), income influences a person’s or family’s ability to achieve and to maintain a certain lifestyle which is essential to provide for their basic needs. Studies have observed that a higher income positively affects one’s life evaluation, while on the other hand; lower income and sustained unemployment are associated with lower emotional well-being and to a lower quality of life (Senlier et. al., 2009). To evaluate the income status of residents, income group for federal tax rating is adopted to illustrate the income distribution in Ibadan metropolis. The minimum monthly income was ₦2000.00k while the maximum was ₦450000.00k. The average monthly income for the study area was ₦49880.87k with a standard deviation of ₦67330.72k. Therefore, the income range was high. This indicated that residents’ income was not evenly distributed within and between the areas under consideration. The implication of this is that monthly income will, in one way or the other, affect both the quality of life and the residents' perception of their quality of life.

The monthly minimum income in the core was ₦2000.00k, while that of the transition and sub-urban areas was ₦5000.00k each. Similarly, maximum income respectively in these areas was ₦150000.00k, ₦400000.00k, and ₦450000.00k. The mean income computed for the core area was ₦26774.81k, while that for the transition residential area was ₦54560.54k. Also, the sub-urban residential area had mean monthly income of ₦101807.69k. The mean income of the residents in the transition and sub-urban residential areas was higher than the mean of the study area.

Differences in the income of residents across the three residential areas were found to be statistically significant. The result of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) ($F=114.175$ and $p=0.000$) confirmed this variation.

Table 7: Monthly Income of Residents

Income (₦)	Core	Transition	Sub-urban	Ibadan metropolis
Below 20000	220 (41.67%)	91 (30.43%)	66 (31.73%)	377 (36.43%)
20000 – 40000	206 (39.02%)	89 (29.77%)	10 (4.81%)	305 (29.47%)
41000 – 60000	77 (14.58%)	31 (10.37%)	30 (14.42%)	138 (13.33%)
61000 – 80000	6 (1.14%)	21 (7.02%)	13 (6.25%)	40 (3.86%)
81000 - 100000	6 (1.14%)	19 (6.35%)	25 (12.02%)	50 (4.83%)
101000 and above	13 (2.46%)	48 (16.05%)	64 (30.77%)	125 (12.08%)
Total	528 (100.0%)	299 (100.0%)	208 (100.0%)	1035 (100.0%)

From the summary presented in Table 7, it is established that, out of the 1035 residents surveyed, 36.43% had their income per month below ₦20000.00k, while a proportion of 12.08% had their income above ₦101000.00k. It was further established that 41.67% and 30.43% of the residents in the core and transition residential areas earned monthly income below ₦20000.00k. Furthermore, while residents who earned income above the average monthly income computed for the study area were concentrated more in the transition and sub-urban residential areas of the metropolis, those with lower income were found in the core residential area (see Table 4.4). Therefore, the study could be concluded that income increased as distance increased from the core residential area to sub-urban residential area of the metropolis.

Household Size

Household size is an important attribute in the explanation of residents' quality of life and their perception of it. Researchers have argued that when household size is high, cares and attention that children in such setting receive may not be adequate (Pacione, 2003; Bramston et al., 2005; Moshen & Afshari, 2009). Families with relatively small size expend lesser on various aspects of life than those with larger families. This has made those with smaller family sizes better-off in terms of their families' economic status and quality of life (Lucas, 2003; Ferris, 2006; Arthur, 2006).

The household size categorization employed in this study was adopted from Afon (2007). Thus the household size was categorized into three: households with 6 members and below, household that contains 7 to 10 members and household with more than 10 members. These were respectively regarded as the small, medium and large sized households. From the summary presented in Table 8, the transition residential area had the largest proportion of residents with small sized household. The group accounted for 88.29% of the residents in this part of the metropolis. Similarly, it was evident that 86.06% of residents in sub-urban residential area had also small sized household, while in the core residential area 67.05% of residents were with small sized household.

Table 8: Household Size of Residents

Household Size	Core	Transition	Sub-urban	Ibadan metropolis
6 or Below	354 (67.05%)	264 (88.29%)	179 (86.06%)	797 (77.00%)
7-10	143 (27.08%)	34 (11.37%)	27 (12.98%)	204 (19.71%)
Above 10	31 (5.87%)	1 (0.33%)	0 (0.00%)	32 (3.09%)
Total	528 (100%)	299 (100%)	208 (100%)	1035 (100%)

The spatial distribution of residents into large size household, however, showed a reversal of the findings in small household. This is because, while 5.87% of the household in the core were in this household sized group, 0.33% of the households were concentrated in the transition residential area. None of the residents was observed in the sub-urban residential area in this household size. The average household size for the study area was 5.45, while it was 5.99 in the core residential area, 4.61 in the transition residential area, and 5.30 in the sub-urban residential area. The average household sizes in the core residential area were found to be above that of the study area.

Variation in household size across the three residential areas was found to be statistically significant. The result of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) ($F=36.447$ and $p=0.000$) confirmed the variation on this demographic attribute of residents in the study area.

Residents' Length of Stay

Residents' length of stay is an important attribute, which determines how people perceive the quality of life in their environment. Residents who have lived longer may be more satisfied with the area, facilities and the services available in that area. The work of Costanza (2007) and Karsten (2008) pointed out that experience in an environment is a function of length of residence. A person that has stayed in an environment for longer period of years would have detailed experience of the environment than a new resident. The relevance of length of stay in a residence is, therefore, extremely important in this study.

Presented in Table 9 was the residents' length of stay in the study area. It was established that 64.64% of the residents had stayed for 1-10 years. The proportion of residents that had spent between 11 and 20 years in the study area was 19.32%, while those that lived 21-30 years accounted for 19.32% of the residents. Those that had stayed for more than 30 years were 4.83%. This category was only concentrated in the core residential area.

Table 9: Length of Residence

Length of stay	Core	Transition	Sub-urban	Ibadan metropolis
1-10	240 (45.45%)	275 (91.97%)	154 (74.04%)	669 (64.64%)
11-20	132 (25.00%)	18 (6.02%)	50 (24.04%)	200 (19.32%)
21-30	106 (20.08%)	6 (2.01%)	4 (1.92%)	116 (11.21%)
Above 30	50 (9.47%)	0 (0.00%)	0 (0.00%)	50 (4.83%)
Total	528 (100%)	299 (100%)	208 (100%)	1035 (100%)

Analysis of descriptive statistics of the residents' length of stay in the study area as well as in their current residence revealed that the minimum length of residence was 1 year, while the maximum was 69 years. The mean and standard deviation of residents' length of stay in the study area were 10.89 and 9.40 years respectively, while the mean and standard deviation of residents' length of stay in their current residence were 9.34 and 8.40 years respectively. The mean length of stay in the study area was 14.80, 5.63 and 8.50 years respectively for the core, the transition and the sub-urban residential areas. The mean length of stay in the residents' current dwelling places was respectively 12.94, 5.04 and 6.37 years in the core, the transition and the sub-urban residential areas. The standard deviation of residents length of stay in the neighbourhood (study area) for the core, the transition and the sub-urban were 10.72, 4.29 and 6.16 years respectively, while it was 9.71, 4.15 and 4.31 years for the length of stay in their current residents.

The length of residence was on reduction as distance increased from the core residential area towards the transition residential area. This is because the core residential area is being occupied by the indigenes and the original inhabitants of Ibadan, while the other areas emerged because of influx of people from other neighbouring towns and cities. This is evident from the fact that 0.06% of residents in the core residential area had resided in the area for more than 30 years. No residents had stayed for this period in the transition and the sub-urban residential areas (see Table 10).

Findings established that 4.83% of the residents had lived in the study area for more than 30 years, while 12.85% of the residents had not changed their residences in the last 21 years and above. This, therefore, implied that residents in the study area were very familiar with their immediate environment. There is every likelihood that residents must have been satisfied with life, otherwise the

length of stay would not have been as high as that. The computed ANOVA ($F=124.917$; $p=0.000$) established that differences in the residents' length of stay were statistically significant.

Table 10: Residents' Length of Stay in Ibadan Metropolis

	1 to 10	11 to 20	21 to 30	Above 30	Total
Core	271 (51.33%)	133 (25.19%)	92 (17.42%)	32 (0.06%)	528 (100.00%)
Transition	282 (94.31%)	11 (3.68%)	6 (2.01%)	0 (0.00%)	299 (100.00%)
Sub-urban	188 (90.38%)	17 (8.17%)	3 (1.44%)	0 (0.00%)	208 (100.00%)
Ibadan metropolis	741 (71.59%)	161 (15.56%)	101 (9.76%)	32 (3.09%)	1035 (100.00%)

The survey of socio-economic attributes of residents revealed that significant differences existed in some of the characteristics in the residential areas in Ibadan metropolis. These significant differences were noticeable in the residents' marital status, educational level, and occupation and residents length of stay in the study area. These were confirmed by the ANOVA and Chi-square tests through the summary presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Summary of ANOVA and Chi-Square of the socio-economic attribute of residents in the study area

Socio-economic Attributes	ANOVA		Chi-Square		Significant
	F value	P value	χ^2 value	P value	
Age	3.644	0.026			Significant
Income	144.175	0.000			Significant
Marital status			127.32	0.000	Significant
Educational status			233.379	0.000	Significant
Year spent in education	98.036	0.000			Significant
Occupation			16.929	0.000	Significant
Household size	36.447	0.00			Significant
Length of stay	124.917	0.000			Significant

From the foregoing, since some socio-economic attributes differ significantly across the three residential areas, it then suggests that variation is likely to subsist in the distribution of available infrastructure in the study area, facilities adequacy and residents' satisfaction derived from the facilities, quality of facilities and residents' quality of life. These are the focus of the next section.

CONCLUSION

The study has examined the spatial analysis of residents' quality of life in Ibadan metropolis. The study revealed that facilities such as water supply, restaurant, dispensary, drainage, electricity supply, waste disposal, fire station, among others, were insufficiently available in the study area. However, this could hamper the residents' well-being. The socio-economic characteristics of residents such as marital status, educational background, occupation and residents' length of stay in the study area varied significantly across the residential areas. Thus, the study concluded that the residents' quality of life in Ibadan metropolis was poor.

This study has provided information on residents' quality of life based on residents' perceptions. This information can be used by decision makers in framing development policies aimed at improving the residents' quality of life.

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