

Spatial dimension of social exclusion of urban poor in traditional core areas of Ilorin, Nigeria

A.I. Bako, O. T. B. Aduloju, A. O. Anofi & K. V. Otokiti

To cite this article: A.I. Bako, O. T. B. Aduloju, A. O. Anofi & K. V. Otokiti (2021): Spatial dimension of social exclusion of urban poor in traditional core areas of Ilorin, Nigeria, Local Development & Society, DOI: [10.1080/26883597.2021.1918017](https://doi.org/10.1080/26883597.2021.1918017)

To link to this article: <https://doi.org/10.1080/26883597.2021.1918017>



Published online: 04 May 2021.



Submit your article to this journal [↗](#)



Article views: 30



View related articles [↗](#)



View Crossmark data [↗](#)



Spatial dimension of social exclusion of urban poor in traditional core areas of Ilorin, Nigeria

A.I. Bako^a, O. T. B. Aduloju^a, A. O. Anofi^a and K. V. Otokiti^b

^aDepartment of Urban and Regional Planning, Faculty of Environmental Science, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria; ^bDepartment of Urban and Regional Planning, School of Environmental Technology, Federal University of Technology, Akure, Nigeria

ABSTRACT

This study assesses the spatial dimensions of social exclusion in the traditional core areas of Ilorin with specific emphases on the urban poor in Ilorin. For methodology, data collection instruments used include questionnaire administration, oral interview, personal observation for primary data; journals, reports for secondary data, respectively. The findings among others reveal that Agbarigidoma, Abimbola, Anifowose and Sheik Abdulquadri sectors in Oloje; as well as Abayawo, Kongbari, Sarumi and Sefura in Okelele were excluded from urban processes and operations based on a low income, poor housing condition, unemployment and lack of essential services. Furthermore, this study reveals that the study area is running at the risk of poor environmental sanitation, inadequate infrastructure and environmental degradation. Policy responses like proper budgetary allocation, citizen participation toward protecting human rights and strategies like the bottom-up approach were recommended as a way forward in coping and forestalling exclusion.

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received 17 October 2020
Accepted 12 April 2021

KEYWORDS

Deprivation; poverty; social exclusion; spatial exclusion; urban poor

Introduction

Global thinking has it that social exclusion is becoming a legacy that reproduces itself. It remains a phenomenon the preceding and the current population grapple with and if nothing is done, the succeeding generation would also suffer the same fate (Estivill, 2003). Millions of people are currently under the siege of exclusion and try to eke out in the most challenging, living and working conditions. The ontology of the term social exclusion was first heralded in Europe with staunch emphases on spatio-social exclusion (Khan, 2012). The report of Khan (2012) further has it on record that political interventions are growing in sectors regarded as disadvantaged. These disadvantaged sectors are characterized by the weak political voice, poor health, sprawl and slum processes, inadequate basic services, people living with disabilities and dearth of gainful employment for all, which all combine to create a phenomenon of marginalization. Conceptually, the concept of social exclusion has been contested fiercely in many urban and social science literature, in

that it is a considerable onerous task to fairly identify and classify who a socially excluded person is, as it relates more to both the standard and judgments employed (Siver, 1994).

The concept of social exclusion has been synonymously used with spatial exclusion; but in the truest sense, spatial exclusion is the physical as well as the geographical representation of social exclusion both in time and space. Exclusion is also spatially described as living in an area classified as a slum by all standards with little or no access to education or job openings (Byrne, 1999). Exclusion is often represented spatially in cities. Urban space is vital to rural migrants who confederate in large and small groups within urban territory due to the tremendous benefits and specialized functions it offers (Balbo, 2009). The term *divided cities* have been synonymously used with spatio-socio exclusion. This term serves as a scaffold for understanding the multicultural, socio-economic and political lucidity governing the partitions in cities today, along with its teleology and ravaging consequences. By definition, social exclusion is a situation where a certain person or group of persons classified as vulnerable are debarred from societal functions and operations (Corbett, 2009). From the viewpoints of Brown (2015), it is the process by which vulnerable groups are exempted from urban processes and operations.

Concerning the welfare state and formal employment, Betts, Watson, and Gaynor (2010) define it as a process by which certain groups are systematically disadvantaged because they are discriminated against based on their ethnicity, race, religion, sexual orientation, caste, descent, gender, age, disability, HIV status, migrant status or where they live. Discrimination occurs in public institutions, such as the legal systems or education and health services, as well as social institutions like the household. (p. 1)

Furthermore, International Institute for Labor Studies (International Institute for Labour Studies (IILS), 1998) in Thailand, defines social exclusion as a process by which the citizenry rights, expressed in forms of living standards and right to livelihood are constantly discountenanced and disregarded. These citizenry rights are often challenged by industrial actions/conflicts or defended through negotiations. All these regional and historical definitions describe the conceptual dimensions of spatio-social exclusion. However, to reverse the trend and reduce the stronghold of exclusion in cities, the concept of inclusiveness (city by all and city for all) presents a way to eke out of the complex web of spatio-exclusion and inequality. For instance, urban upgrading in Vietnam has unlocked potentials for 7.5 million urban poor (World Bank, 2020). In Cameroon, the lives of 650,000 residents under the siege of urban vulnerability and poverty are being addressed and improved by inclusive and resilient policies of the Cameroonian government. Additionally, over 48,000 residents in both urban and peri-urban of Buenos Aires has witnessed a tremendous transformation and integrated into the wider urban fabric (World Bank, 2020). The *idée fixe* of scholars and policymakers is to make sure succeeding cities play a crucial role in providing opportunities and better living conditions for all.

Poverty and deprivation consciously remain the two foundational components of social exclusion, as Saunders, Naidoo, and Griffiths (2008) argue that the combination of these two constructs presents some visible strongholds of social exclusion in cities, which is expressed in terms of limited access to basic services and participation in socio-economic functions as well as scarce opportunities for personal development. According to Miliband (2006), the proximate or palpable signs of spatio-social exclusion

are compartmentalized into three (3) forms, concentration (the intensification and extension of the territory under the siege of the manifold dimension of exclusion); breadth (enormous populace affected by one or more facets of exclusion); and depth (individual or group of individuals influenced by one or more dimensions of exclusion). Cities have and will always be crucibles of diversities, and commitment to this cause through the concept of inclusion presents a new and considerable dimension of ending poverty and exclusion in urban planning studies. As Brown (2015) observes exclusion to be that tool the ruling class employ to impose dominance over other minority groups, and the term social exclusion is widely used in urban planning literature to reflect the unequal consequences of urban development (Fainstein, 2010).

Low income is an important component of exclusion but is often combined with other factors, such as gender, ethnicity or disability. Certain groups are more likely to be excluded than others – women, the elderly, disabled people, young people or ethnic minorities. For example, there is now growing evidence of *feminization of poverty*, reflecting the high proportion of women among the world's urban poor (Chant, 2008). Urban poverty is the major determinant of exclusion, and one of the major urban challenges of the 21st century (Brown, 2015). Figures suggest that in 2010, 1.2 billion people, around one-sixth of the world's population, still lived in extreme poverty, more than 100 million children under five were undernourished, and numbers of people displaced by conflict or persecution were at their highest for 18 years, totaling 45.2 million United Nations (United Nations, 2014). One thing is constant, poverty and deprivation are complementary. Anywhere spatial exclusion occurs, pieces of evidence of slum dwellers, migrants, minority groups, women or young people being excluded in urban processes present themselves.

According to the National Bureau of Statistics (National Bureau of Statistics, 2020), 38.1% of the urban population in Ilorin are regarded as food poor. These poor people have been considered as mere objects and not citizens – poor people as without rights. The presence of slum, overcrowding, lack of tenure coupled with sprawl processes is a significant factor contributing to exclusion in the Ilorin study area. Consequently, the exclusion is often expressed spatially in areas like Oloje and Okelele, and the partitioned urban spaces in Ilorin are a result of old planning laws like the 1917 Township Ordinance or civil/ethnic war, which compartmentalized Ilorin city along the socio-cultural, religious or class lines. Also, in the Ilorin metropolis, urban spaces are partitioned by government neglect and poor access to urban resources. Based on these conceptual arguments, this study tends to assess the spatial dimensions of social exclusion in Oloje and Okelele areas of Ilorin with emphases on the urban poor in Ilorin, Nigeria. To efficiently achieve this aim, this study addressed two (2) germane questions:

- (1) To what dimension is the pattern of spatio-social exclusion?
- (2) What are the dominant risk factors of the territories under exclusion?

Conceptual and empirical clarification of social exclusion

The construct of social exclusion is not dormant in nature; in the truest sense, it is the chain of processes that creates the feeling of marginalization and discrimination in all spheres of human lives and social interaction. Arthurson and Jacobs (2004), perceives

social exclusion as an “explanatory tool instituted to understand and analyze the processes that cause poverty and inequality compared to its use as a descriptive term to describe or label disadvantaged individuals or communities” (p. 1). The description surrounding social exclusion identifies different processes of deprivation and not just the mere situation that people go through (De Haan, 1999).

The spatio-social exclusion movement that became a widely accepted construct in explaining the territorial partitions manifesting in our cities today was first heralded in the early 1970s in France’s research and policy discourse (De Haan, 1999). The tenor of this construct transcends beyond the general influence of poverty and deprivation, it was used to examine the noticeable effects of rapid financial restructuring on social solidarity; and to subsequently create some realistic developmental policies that will foster social inclusion within the European Union (Aasland & Fløtten, 2001). The term exclusion portends the presence of inequality (spatial, social and economic) in cities. However, the term was first coined in 1974 by Rene Lenoir, where he described a fraction of a large population comprising pluralistic interest groups such as children, aged, disabled, urban poor, vulnerable, substance abusers and other groups classified as have-nots or social misfits (De Haan, 1999; Sen, 1999). Nonetheless, it may seem as though that the term exclusion has mutated over the years and expanded in scope to cover multiple interest groups under the web of poverty and deprivation (Lessof & Jowell, 2000; Siver, 1994).

The inclusion of social exclusion as one of the four cardinal principles of poverty reduction strategy (PRSP) created the much-needed awareness about social exclusion and the need to realistically reduce its stronghold in our cities. For better understanding, Department for International Development (Department for International Development (DFID), 2005) observes exclusion as a structural problem that is better understood through the proper definition of citizenship, which is the right of citizens to all. Recently, the criteria designed in explaining the tenets of exclusion or inclusion has taken different shape at the national setting. This, however, does not fit into the regional or local setting because exclusion is a territorial issue due to the ethnographic characteristics of areas facing exclusion such as the case of Ilorin core areas. A spate of urban literature on exclusion and inclusion are more concerned about the interpretation of the current statistics at the national level, rather than providing a deep understanding of the processes underpinning exclusion in cities.

Urban literature posited the multidimensional nature of social exclusion and inclusion both in time and context with less emphasis on poverty and deprivation while focusing on the process. However, most public discourses on social exclusion in Ilorin delve on group base approach and de-emphasize the multidimensional aspects. The spatial disadvantage in socially-excluded areas does emanate from a remote location with associated poor accessibility for its residents to engage in broader socio-economic activities. As contended by Kanbur and Venables (2005), it may otherwise manifest in the segregation of urban environments and the “subcultures” of violence, criminality, drug dependence and squalor, which can often characterize urban slums and excluded neighborhoods. Similarly, ghettos of marginalized religious or ethnic groups are formed due to ensuing communal clashes. Mathieson et al. (2008) informed that the phrase social exclusion is used in different ways at different times reflecting different institutional, political, historical and geographic contexts resulting from its origins and rapid spread across the globe.

In most developing countries, social exclusion is conceptualized and implied differently. It is measured from the viewpoint of what would be a basic standard of living (Câmara, Monteiro, Ramos, Sposati, & Koga, 1990). Generally, there are two dominant features of the concept vis multidimensional and dynamic. The multidimensional nature of inequality includes the various causes of inequality, incorporating the dimensions of society where exclusion arises while its dynamic nature focuses on the process of inequality (Arthurson, 2002).

Causes of social exclusion

The concepts of poverty, deprivation and social exclusion are entwined. According to Bruto Da Costa et al. (1994), poverty could be seen as a static one-dimensional outcome with social exclusion being a dynamic and multidimensional process. Room (1995) further asserted that poverty and social exclusion focus on distributional issues and relational issues, respectively, in the sense of inadequate social participation. Social exclusion could be appropriately described within the sphere of capabilities, rather than commodities, thus functioning as a process culminating in deprivation (Sen, 1999). Resultantly, social exclusion is measured in terms of employment opportunities; access to healthcare, education opportunities; social safety nets; credit market exclusion; facilities for disabled persons and marketing limitations, among others.

Yitzhaki (1979) informed that deprivation was the nub of literature on poverty in the late 1960s. It is given that deprivation has some similarities with poverty. Hallerod (1996) provided some insight into deprivation describing it as “an undesired state that arises when people are unable to access necessary goods and services due to a lack of resources” (p. 1). Hallerod’s conceptualization is synonymous with both absolute and relative poverty depending on individual perception. Drawing inferences from the UK, Bailey, Spratt, Pickering, Goodlad, and Shucksmith (2004) described poverty as relative deprivation – a condition of lack or denial of resources to participate in social and economic activities in the society. From all these historical qualifications, one can deduce that poverty definitions always carry the term lack which could be perceived in terms of monetary and material resources while deprivation is a product of the denial of an individual, group, community etc. from accessing basic human rights or essential resources needed.

Poverty is, perhaps, the most pervasive cause of social disadvantage. It precludes people from having an acceptable standard of living and access to the essentials of life. More so, poverty leads to social exclusion. It is noteworthy that factors such as language and cultural barriers, locational disadvantage or discrimination arising from the disability of any kind, can also play a part (UK Social Exclusion Unit, 1998). Inequality is a key manifestation of social exclusion as exemplified by lack of adequate education, poor health, homelessness and disability. Different authors have also variously highlighted other indices to include unemployment, low income, nonparticipation in regular activities of the society, poor social networks and lack of access to informal contacts linking to jobs or appropriate role models (Arthurson & Jacobs, 2004; Forrest & Kearns, 1999; Geddes & Urry, 2000). Interestingly, Arthurson (2002) stressed that poorly maintained housing, as well as lack of services such as bank and credit facilities, also hinder societal participation in exchange relations. Invariably, Bowring (2000) further amplified the multidimensional effects of poor social and physical environments as contributory factors.

As posited by UK Social Exclusion Unit (1998), individuals or groups of individuals who congregate in communities and towns are often under the considerable influence of the combined forces of low income, unemployment, poor housing, poor health, family breakdown, and disability. This influence habitually portends a serious presence of social exclusion. These concerns are often entangled thus resulting in cycles of social disadvantages. The process outcome of social exclusion is schematically explained in Figure 1.

In the 1990s, emphases were placed on the concepts of vulnerability, poverty and exclusion. These provided the impetus for the established link subsisting among poverty, deprivation and social exclusion. By implication, poverty and inequality are somewhat closely linked to development. This indeed is a forerunner to any meaningful development which was hinged on equity and poverty reduction (Sen, 2000). Notwithstanding, one cannot discountenance the development as a multidimensional process involving significant changes in social structure, bridging inequality and poverty eradication. This led to the need for reduction in inequality, unemployment and eradication of poverty. Several declarations by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) gave rise to renewed interest in the interconnectedness among social exclusion, deprivation and poverty in promoting development. Notably, the concept of social exclusion has attracted

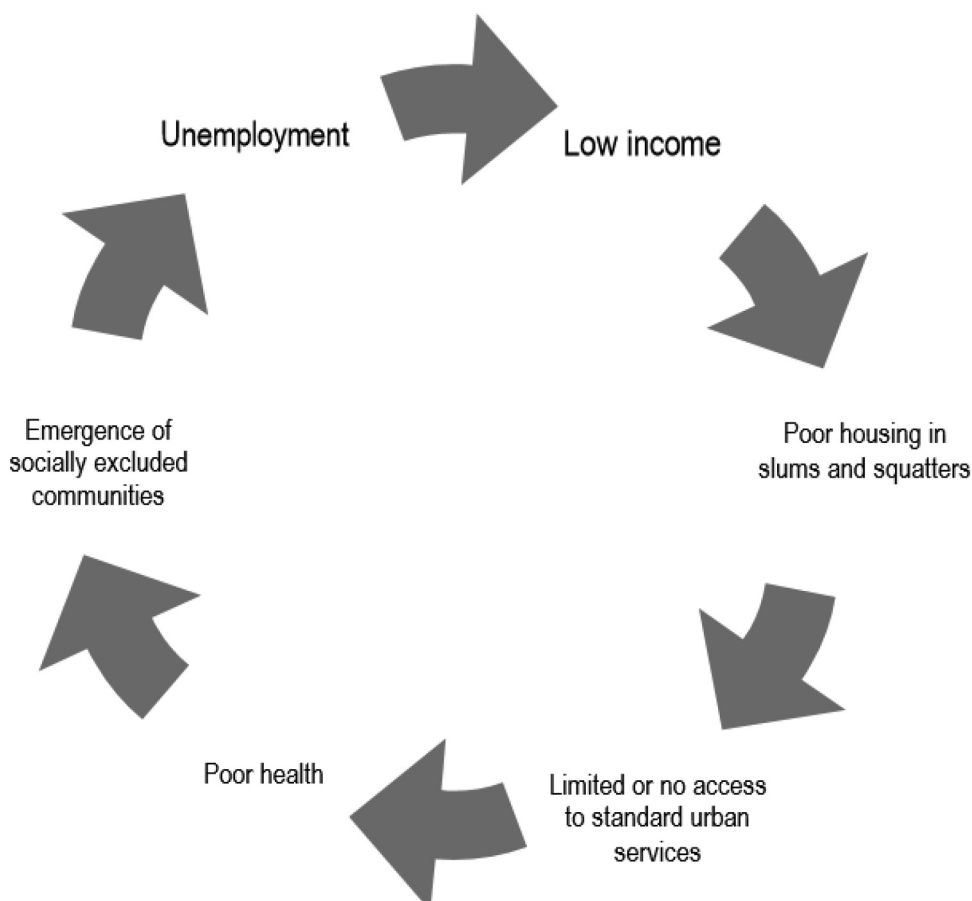


Figure 1. Cycle of social exclusion disadvantage. Source: (Saunders et al., 2008)

increased interest in literature since the profound economic and social transformations in western countries, owing to decades of theoretical and empirical researches.

Study area

Ilorin, the capital of Kwara State, Nigeria, is located on Latitude 8°24' N and 83°6' N and longitude 4°10' E and 4°36' E of the equator. The city sits on an area of about 468 square kilometers(km) and sandwiched between the rainforest and guinea savannah regions of Nigeria. The population census figures showed that the city has a population of 777,667 (Nigerian Population Commission [NPC], 2006). The present projected population of Ilorin Kwara State is 1,171,196 people. It has a tropical wet and dry climate of average maximum temperature, average minimum temperature and average relative humidity in a year standing at 32.5°C (90.5°F) of 21.2°C (70.2°F) and 51.1%, respectively (National Ocean and Atmospheric Administration, 2016). The relief of the study area is gently undulating, and the height of the land ranges between 266 m to 344 m above sea level. Ilorin central area is primarily drained by the Asa River and some seasonal rivers such as Agba, Oyun, Osere, Aweke, Ogan, Aluko, Odota, Bude and Are. The drainage patterns in Ilorin are dendritic in nature (Bako, Aduloju, Suleiman, & Lawal, 2018). The growth of Ilorin has been greatly influenced by its status as the state capital, the physical development and socio-economic lifestyles of the residents.

The occupation characteristics of the people in the study area comprise farm practices in form of food crops production, local craft such as; cloth weaving, leather works, pottery, mat making etc; trading industrial and administrative activities. Hence, the study area has a major impact on the socio-economic lives of the surrounding communities, and more specifically to the study area, the residential housing conditions and densities are characterized by various housing typologies in the city (Akogun & Ojo, 2013). The communities covered which are largely high-density areas have some degree of slum formation, pigeon-holed with tenement and contiguous buildings. The residential conditions of the study areas breed violence, social exclusion, and vis-à-vis shows clear shreds of evidence of risks. Fundamentally, existential realities of social exclusion are tied to the customary land tenure system. In other words, the land tenure system in the traditional core areas of Ilorin is more of inheritance rather than statutory acquisition. Identified neglected communities have survived many generations. The central area of study can best be described as socially-disadvantaged neighborhoods that are dominated by the locals (Abdullahi, Seedat-Khan, & Abdulrahman, 2016).

Research methodology

This study focuses on the spatial dimension of urban slums/poor in Ilorin core areas concerning how they have been socially excluded. The study area covers Oloje in Ilorin West and Okelele- Adangba in Ilorin West and East, Kwara State as Okelele-Adangba is a composite area with most of it in Ilorin west and some of it in Ilorin East. This study examines the spatial dimension of social exclusion of households in these areas, the relationship between the forms of exclusion they face, their location and the institutions which deprive this group. Oloje and Okelele-Adangba areas were chosen for the study due to manifestations of exclusion such as poverty, unemployment, low income, poor

housing and deprivation. Furthermore, there exists a complex interplay of spatial, economic and social exclusion in the study area – Okelele-Adangba, perhaps due to the historical antecedents of Ilorin metropolis with years of neglect and interventions.

This study employs a survey research approach that facilitates the investigation of the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. Relevant data for this study were obtained through primary and secondary data sources. Questionnaire administration was one of the tools used to sample the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. Observations, random interviews, still photograph as well as Geographic Information System (GIS) mappings supplemented this research. Secondary data which include a delineated map of the study areas, satellite imagery, records of population distribution and extant planning standards in the state were obtained from Town Planning Offices, Government Secretariat and monographs, reports, journals. etc., as these help in map analysis. However, this study identified Oloje and Okelele-Adangba communities as the areas of neglect facing exclusion. To this end, 3,270 buildings were identified in the study areas and digitized accordingly. This study, however, adopted a 7% sample size for both Oloje and Okelele-Adangba amounting to 159 and 70 buildings sampled for the study respectively (Table 1). This is because the sample size in social sciences should be between 1 to 10% (Bako, Aduloju, & Abubakar-Karma, 2017). Data collected were analyzed descriptively using charts, frequency tables and pictorial illustrations. Satellite imagery acquired was analyzed in a GIS environment to determine the spatial dimensions and magnitude of social exclusion in Oloje and Okelele-Adangba communities respectively in the Ilorin metropolis.

Table 1. Sampling frame and size.

Areas	Streets	Buildings per street	Questionnaires administered per street
Oloje	Sheikh Alimi/Kiama road	172	12
	Agbarigidoma street	181	13
	Alfa Yahaya street	189	13
	Owode street	157	11
	Sooto street	142	10
	Anifowose street	136	10
	Ifesowapo street	117	8
	Sheikh Abdukadir close	197	14
	Owode close	82	6
	Abimbola street	198	14
	Market road	163	11
	Ile-igbeti road	188	13
	Araromi street	182	13
	Gaa street	173	12
Sub-total		2277	159
Okelele- Adangba	Okele/Alagbado Road	85	6
	Abayawo street	123	9
	Sarumi street	140	10
	Sefura road	111	8
	Lasinmi street	143	10
	kongbari street	102	7
	larokun street	113	8
	Iyana Afese street	95	7
Sub-total	Iyana Igbeti street	81	6
		993	70
Grand Total		3270	229

Source: Authors' Compilation, 2019

Findings and discussion

The main thrust of the study is the measurement of the spatial dimensions of social exclusion in Oloje and Okelele-Adangba communities within the Ilorin metropolis. However, by way of contrast, macro-level research was preoccupied with interpreting many dimensions of urban social exclusion in the study areas. The research was carried out to review spatial dimension, magnitude, risks and vulnerabilities of socially excluded areas and further interrogate the experiences, perceptions, attitudes and inter-generational, spatial and underlying structural conditions making the study areas susceptible to exclusion and deprivation. To this end, 229 copies of questionnaires were administered to sample the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents, also to acquire data about the objectives of this study. However, 22 copies of the questionnaire could not be retrieved leaving a total of 207 questionnaires which represents more than 90percent copies of the questionnaire used for the analysis.

Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

The questionnaire administration focused on adults above 25 years, constituting 98.1percent of respondents. From the findings of this study as shown in [Figure 2](#). However, there was a sharp difference between the gender distribution in the study areas as 56.5percent of respondents were males and the remaining 43.5percent of the respondents were females. Nevertheless, 23.2percent of the respondents were single; 64.3percent were married while 1.0percent, 6.3percent and 5.3percent were divorced, widowed and separated, respectively. Further inferences from collected data and prior studies showed a positive relationship between education, knowledge and practices of people. Generally, findings showed that 26.6percent of the respondents were illiterates with no formal education; 31.4percent of the participants had completed secondary education, 22.2percent were primary school leavers while 19.3percent had tertiary education. Furthermore, analysis shows that the men have a higher level of education (38.2percent were illiterate) compared to the women, where 61.8percent of the respondents were women. The low level of education could be attributed to relatively high poverty and lack of motivation to pursue higher education. By implication, Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) four (4) still has not been achieved, and essentially has a serious implication on the vulnerability of the study areas and a significant index for social exclusion. Furthermore, [Table 2](#) shows that the majority of the respondents (31.9percent) were businessmen and women who were mostly petty traders. Similarly, 15.9percent, 22.2percent and 8.7percent were civil/public servants, artisans and entrepreneurs, respectively. However, 7percent of respondents who were students also owned up to the fact that they engage themselves in small scale businesses. The residents in the study areas cannot compete with economic opportunities available in the society including certain skilled employment opportunities due to lack of requisite knowledge, skillsets and cognate experiences for some positions.

[Table 2](#) shows the monthly income of the households sampled. Since the majority of the respondents were business owners, a large number of the dwellers derived their monthly income mainly from the profits realized from their business. From the findings of the study, more than half of the respondents (75.8percent) earn below the old minimum wage of N18,000 and not even up to the new threshold of N30,000 jointly agreed by both

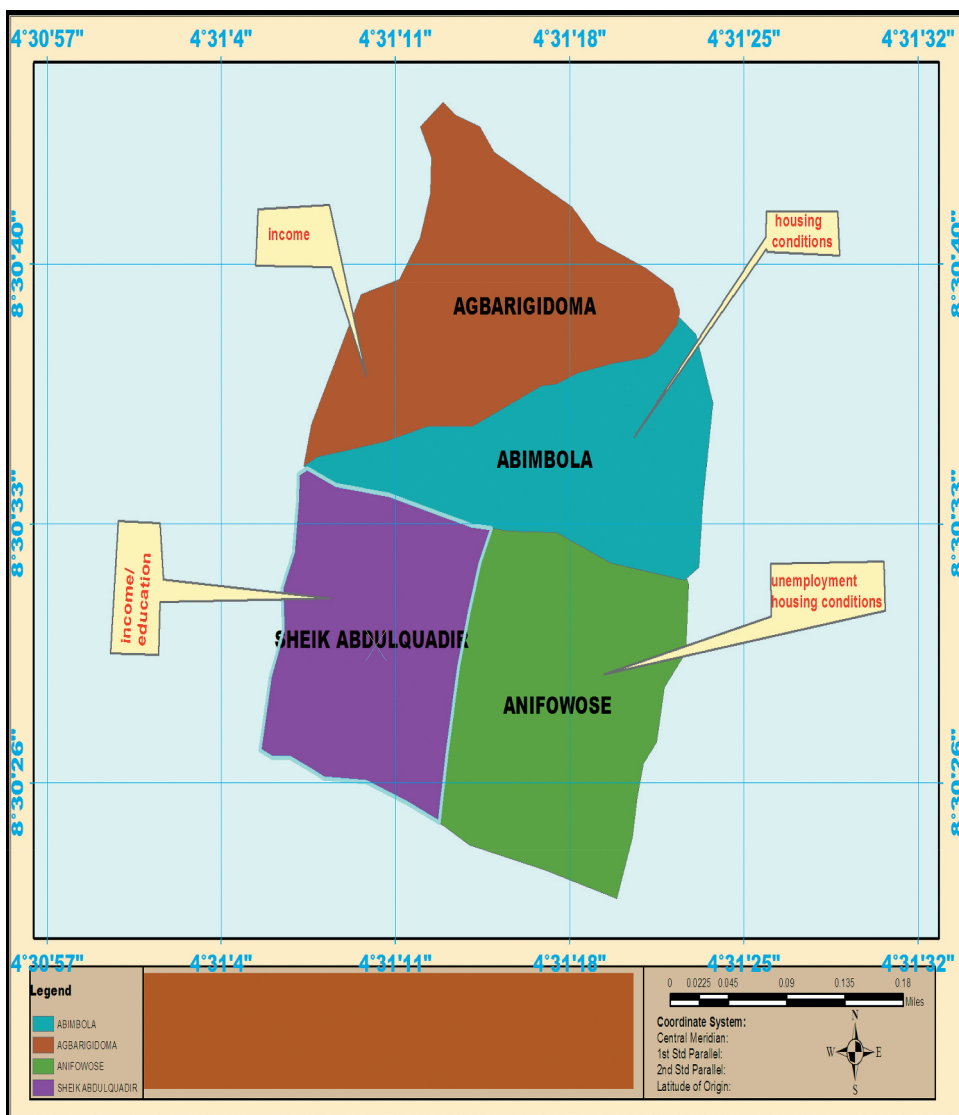


Figure 2. Map of oloje showing the spatial dimension of social exclusion. Source: Author's Field Survey, 2019

the Federal Government of Nigeria and the Nigeria Labor Congress (NLC) as the new minimum wage effective 19 April 2019 as 19.8percent claimed to earn between N31,000 and N50,000. More so, 1.9percent and 2.4percent of respondents claimed to earn N51,000- N100,000 and above N100,000, respectively. On social exclusion, a person with income below the poverty line will potentially be excluded from social relations and institutions while a person with income above the poverty line is not necessarily excluded. Resultantly, the level of income of individuals is a function of exclusion. One can infer that the income situation in the study areas is too low, a condition UNDP (2004) labeled as

Table 2. Socio-demographic characteristics.

Character	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender Distribution		
Male	117	56.5
Female	90	43.5
Age Distribution		
18–25 Years	4	1.9
26–45 Years	65	31.4
46–65 Years	111	52.6
Above 65 Years	27	13.0
Marital Status		
Single	48	23.2
Married	133	64.3
Divorced	2	1.0
Separated	11	5.3
Widowed	13	6.3
Type of Employment		
Trading and commerce	66	31.9
Civil Service	33	15.9
Farming	37	17.9
Artisan	46	22.2
Student/apprentice	7	3.4
Entrepreneur	18	8.7
Income Level Per Monthly		
Less than #18,000	76	36.7
#18,000 – #30,000	81	39.1
#31,000 – #50,000	41	18.2
#51,000 – #100,000	4	10.2
Above #100,000	5	7.3
Total		100

Source: Authors' Field Work, 2019

income poverty, whereby lack of financial resources limits the ability of an individual or household to meet basic needs.

Spatial dimension of social exclusion in oloje and okelele through mean center and spatial analysis

Figure 2 shows how this study employs the use of a participatory geographical information system (PGIS) in analyzing the spatial distribution of spatial exclusion. Furthermore, this study is concerned with mapping processes of exclusion and as well as identify the socially-excluded in the study area. This study, however, mapped the dimensions as well as the negative consequences of social exclusion through the use of such a tool as cultural sensitivity. Other tools deployed were humility, facilitation skills, experience and training. Table 3 shows how the use of PGIS was used in Mean Center and Spatial Analysis to identify the geographic center (the center of concentration or the mean x – coordinate and mean y-coordinate) for a set line and polygon features in the study areas. The utility of the Mean Center and Spatial tool is not in finding a point on the map to throw more resources at or rank prevalent indices of social exclusion in the study area. Rather, it is a reference point used in further analysis such as comparison of different distributions of measures of social exclusion across sectors such as sectors under Oloje and Okelele-Adangba communities (Hill & Paynich, 2013).

The sectors identified in the Oloje area of study represent the mean centers and were Agbarigidoma, Abimbola, Anifowose and Sheik Abdulquadri. Following the indicators of

Table 3. Mean center and spatial analysis of social exclusion across sectors in the study areas.

Area	Social Exclusion Indices	Mean Center Location
Oloje	Low Income	Agbarigidoma
	Poor Housing Condition	Abimbola
	Unemployment and lack of access to public services	Anifowose
Okelele-Adangba	Low Income and Unemployment	Sheik Abdulquadri
	Poor Housing Condition	Abayawo
	Unemployment	Kongbari
	Unemployment and low education attainment	Sarumi
	Poor housing condition, low income and low education attainment	Sefura

Source: Authors’ Fieldwork, 2019

social exclusion as reviewed in the literature, the indicator driving social exclusion in the Agbarigidoma sector was found out to be low income, Ambibola sector was found out to be socially excluded due to poor housing conditions, Sheik Abdulkadir sector was due to low income and unemployment while Anifowose sector was found to be excluded due to unemployment and lack of access to public services. According to De Haan (1999), the disadvantages faced by people are interrelated as minorities or school dropouts may have a greater risk of being unemployed, or employed in precarious jobs, and therefore, receive relatively lower-income, command insignificant political power and relatively fewer social contacts which results in the inability to live in healthy and comfortable environments.

Figure 3 shows the spatial dimension of social exclusion of the Okelele study area. The study area was divided into four sectors using the PGIS though Mean Center and Spatial Analysis. These sectors represent the mean centers. These sectors include Abayawo, Kongbari, Sarumi and Sefura sectors. The people in the Abayawo sector were found to be plagued and excluded with the issue of poor housing conditions, those in the Kongbari sector were found to be plagued with unemployment, Sarunmi sector unemployment and low education attainment while Sefura sector was found to be excluded due to poor housing condition, low income and low education attainment. Blair (1998) deduced that social exclusion is a shorthand for the aftermath of residents and communities devastated by a combination of interlinked problems of unemployment, poor skills, low income, poor housing, high crime incidence, poor health and family breakdown.

From the findings above, it can be understood that unemployment and low income represents the facts on which the two neighborhoods were excluded. This shows that unemployment and low income are related and a major ingredient in excluding neighborhoods.

Dominate risk factors due to social exclusion

Risks arising from social exclusion are not evenly distributed but pronounced among the poorest individuals and communities. Table 4 indicate the mean and rank order of the dominant risk factors in the study areas. Looking closely at Table 4, item 1 which is “poor environmental sanitation” ranked 1st with a mean score (3.96). Item 2 ranked 2nd which is poorly managed infrastructure has a mean of (2.93). Item 3 which is environmental degradation ranked 3rd with the mean score (3.79). However, ranked least are item 5 which is a crime and civil unrest with the mean score (3.34), item 6 (poor design and construction) with the mean score (3.24) and item 7 (dependence on the single industry) with a mean score (3.20). From this analysis, it is deduced that poor environmental sanitation, poorly managed

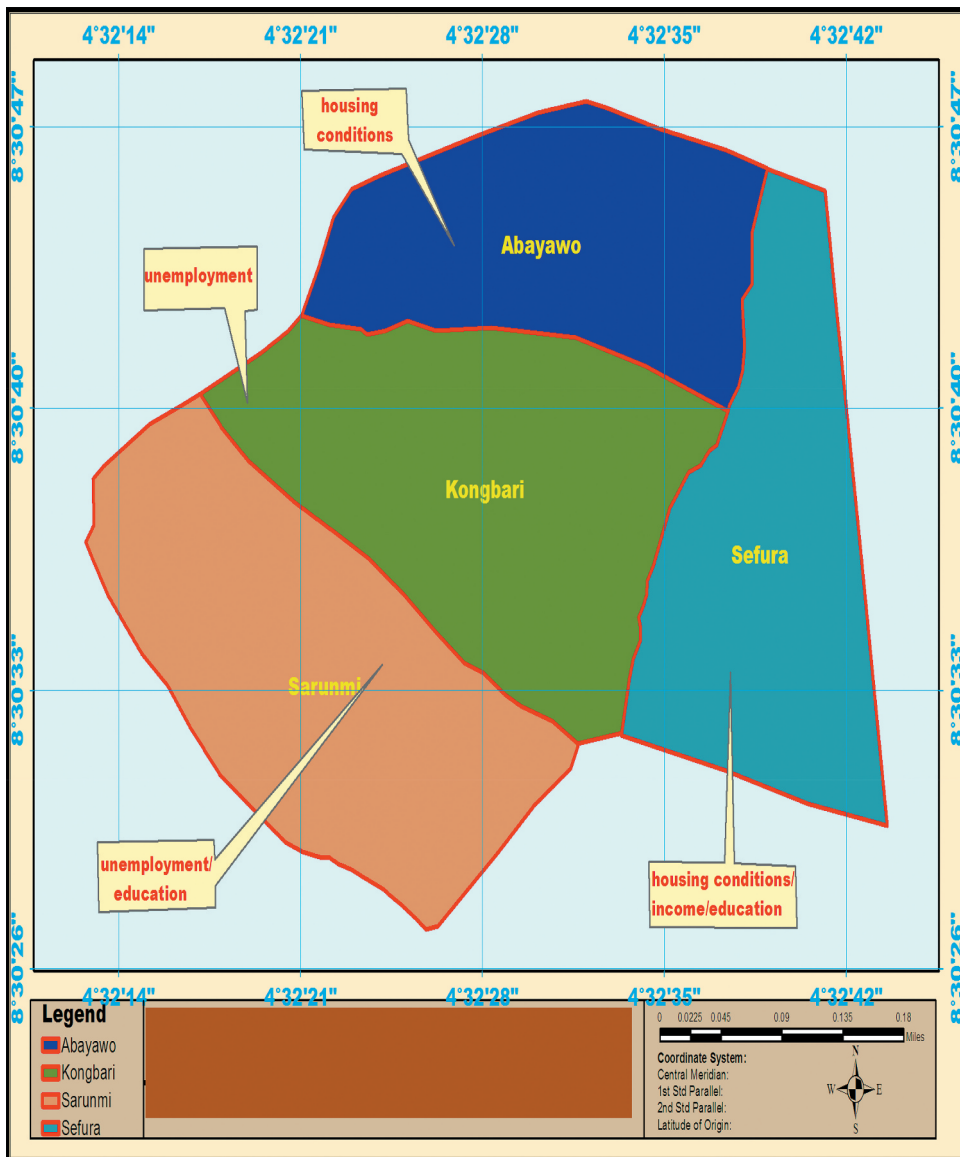


Figure 3. Map of okelele showing the spatial dimension of social exclusion. Source: Author's Field Survey, 2019

infrastructure, environmental degradation and unregulated land use were the dominant risk factors ranked above the mid-mean score of (3.59). However, analyzing the risk factors below the mid-mean score of (3.59) are crime and civil unrest, poor design and construction and dependence on a single industry. From the findings, it is inferred that social exclusion is a process and these risk factors are consequences of social exclusion. Furthermore, exclusion may entail systematic denial of entitlements to resources, services and the right to participate on equal terms in social relationships such as economic, social, cultural or political arenas

Table 4. Dominant risk factors.

Item No.	Risk Factors	Mean	Rank
1	Poor environmental sanitation	3.96	1 st
2	Poorly managed infrastructure	3.93	2 nd
3	Environmental Degradation	3.79	3 rd
4	Unregulated Land Use	3.69	4 th
5	Crime and Civil Unrest	3.34	5 th
6	Poor design and construction	3.24	6 th
7	Dependence on Single Industry	3.20	7 th
Mid-mean Score		3.59	

Source: Authors’ Computation, 2019

(Department for International Development (DFID), 2005). Therefore, exclusionary processes can occur at various scales and levels from household to a global level.

Conclusion

The manifestation of social exclusion in human settlements deprives residents of opportunities to achieve certain objectives including, but not limited to, reducing poverty and eliminating malnutrition. This arose from seemingly hidden barriers to reaching those who are socially-excluded. Notwithstanding, inferences from the conceptual and theoretical discourse of this research and as juxtaposed with the study area, the observable preponderance of low wage earners in the study area is a sad manifestation of the poverty cluster. For the people living in miserable conditions, access to basic human need is more important than participation in social and political spheres. Concerted efforts at remedying the food crisis and improving living conditions to ease access to basic human needs, should be the priority for the residents of the study areas of Oloje and Okelele. A review of the dynamics of social exclusion showed its variation among households. The changes in circumstances could be mediated by an institutional process with special consideration of these variations among different households in a target area. Similarly, researchers have advocated more on the current situation of exclusion but seldom focus on processes. Instructively, this study is significant in examining social exclusion and inclusion with a database created for the extent and spatial dimensions of social exclusion in the study area. The focus of policymakers and multilateral agencies should be to institute best practice in defining and identifying the poor; their location and ensure their registration. This is with a view of achieving an inclusive city.

In closing, change from exclusion to inclusion is a long-term plan; attention to timing is extremely important when initiating reform. This change is usually preceded by a series of processes or events. To that end, international organizations such as United Nations, World Bank etc., must reenact themselves as the drivers of social inclusion with the motive of leaving no one behind.

Acknowledgments

We appreciate our colleagues at the Department of Urban and Regional Planning, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria for creating an enabling environment to discuss some dimensions the study should take.

Disclosure statement

We declare no competing or conflicting interest.

References

- Aasland, A., & Fløtten, T. (2001). Ethnicity and social exclusion in Estonia and Latvia. *Europe-Asia Studies*, 53(7), 1023–1049.
- Abdullahi, A. A., Seedat-Khan, M., & Abdulrahman, S. O. (2016). A review of youth violence theories: Developing interventions to promote sustainable peace in Ilorin, Nigeria. *African Sociological Review*, 20(2), 40–60. <https://www.ajol.info/index.php/asr/article/viewFile/153938/143520>
- Akogun, I. T., & Ojo, O. (2013). Tenant eviction in property management practice in Ilorin metropolis, Nigeria. *Journal of Economics and International Finance*, 139–145. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Tajudeen_Akogun/publication/273761565_Aspects_of_tenant_eviction_in_property_management_practice_in_ilorin_metropolis_Nigeria/links/57ed2ca008ae26b51b395b40/Aspects-of-tenant-eviction-in-property-management-practice-in-
- Arthurson, K. (2002). Social inclusion and public housing estate regeneration. AHURI Southern Research Centre Occasional Paper, Flinders University, Adelaide.
- Arthurson, K., & Jacobs, K. (2004). A critique of the concept of social exclusion and its utility for Australian social housing policy. *Australian Journal of Social Issues*, 39(1), 25–40.
- Bailey, N., Spratt, J., Pickering, J., Goodlad, R., & Shucksmith, M. (2004). Deprivation and social exclusion in Argyll and Bute. Report to the Community Planning Partnership. Scottish Centre for Research on Social Justice, Universities of Glasgow and Aberdeen.
- Bako, A. I., Aduloju, O. T., & Abubakar-Karma, A. T. (2017). Liveability and wellness of residence of Oloje community in Ilorin west local government area, Ilorin Nigeria. *KIU Journal of Humanities*, 2 (2B), 21–33.
- Bako, A. I., Aduloju, O. T., Suleiman, A. R., & Lawal, F. O. (2018). Understanding vulnerability of Ilorin central area, Ilorin, Kwara state. *Environmental Spectrum*, 2(2), 1–16.
- Balbo, M. (2009). Social and Spatial inclusion of international migrants: Local responses to a global process. Venice: SSIIM UNESCO. http://www.unescochair-iuav.it/en/wp-content/uploads/sites/2/2014/09/ssiimpsno1_for-web.pdf
- Betts, J., Watson, S., & Gaynor, C. (2010). DFID global social exclusion stocktake report: Annexes. In the *Department for International Development (DFID)* (Issue February).
- Blair, A. (1998). Bringing Britain together: A national strategy for neighborhood renewal (Report No. CM report 4045). London, UK Cabinet Office Social Exclusion Unit.
- Bowring, F. (2000). Social exclusion: Limitations of the debate. *Critical Social Policy*, 20(3), 307–330.
- Brown, A. (2015). Topic guides: Planning for sustainable and inclusive cities in the global south. Department for International Development.
- Bruto Da Costa, A., Anderson, J., Chigot, C., Duffy, K., Mancho, S., & Mernagh, M. (1994). Contribution of the 'poverty 3' programme to the understanding of poverty, exclusion and integration. *Social Policy Journal of New Zealand*, 14.
- Byrne, D. (1999). *Social exclusion*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Câmara, G., Monteiro, A. M., Ramos, F. R., Sposati, A., & Koga, D. (1990). Mapping social exclusion/inclusion in developing countries: Social dynamics of São Paulo in the 1990s.
- Chant, S.; Chant. (2008). The 'feminisation of poverty' and the 'feminisation' of anti-poverty programmes: Room for revision? *Journal of Development Studies*, 44(2), 165–197.
- Corbett, T. J. (2009). Welfare. Microsoft Encarta.
- De Haan, A. (1999). Social exclusion: Towards a holistic understanding of deprivation. Deutsche Stiftung für internationale Entwicklung (DSE), Villa Borsig Workshop Series. Accessed 12 February 2019, Available at <http://www.dse.de/ef/poverty/dehaan.html>.
- Department for International Development (DFID). (2005). Reducing poverty by tackling social exclusion.

- Estivill, J. (2003). *Concepts and strategies for combating social exclusion: An overview*. Portugal: International Labour Office.
- Fainstein, S. (2010). *The just city*. Cornell: Cornell University Press.
- Forrest, R., & Kearns, A. (1999). *Joined-up places? Social cohesion and neighbourhood regeneration*. New York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Geddes, M., & Urry, J. (2000). Tackling social exclusion in the European union? The limits to the new orthodoxy of local partnership. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 24(4), 782–811.
- Hallerod, B. (1996). Deprivation and poverty: A comparative analysis of Sweden and Great Britain. *Acta Sociologica*, 39(2), 141–168.
- Hill, B., & Paynich, R. (2013). *Fundamentals of crime mapping*. Massachusetts: Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC.
- International Institute for Labour Studies (IILS). (1998). Annexe I: Issues for discussions. In: J. B. Figueiredo & A. De Haan Eds., *Social exclusion: An ILO perspective: International institute for labour studies research series 111*, (pp. 1-7) Geneva: International Labour Organisation.
- Kanbur, R., & Venables, A. (2005). Spatial inequality and development: An overview of UNU-WIDER Project.
- Khan, S. (2012). *Topic Guide on Social Exclusion* (2nd ed.). Birmingham, United Kingdom: Governance and Social Development Resource Centre (GSDRC).
- Lessof, C., & Jowell, R. (2000). Measuring social exclusion (No. 84; Issue January 2000).
- Mathieson, J., Popay, J., Enoch, E., Escorel, S., Hernandez, M., Johnston, H., & Rispel, L. (2008). Social exclusion meaning, measurement and experience and links to health inequalities: A review of literature. Lancaster University. WHO Social Exclusion Knowledge Network Background Paper 1.
- Miliband. (2006). Social exclusion: The next steps forward. LSE an ESRC Research Centre. London: Centre for Analysis of Social Exclusion, London.
- National Bureau of Statistics. (2020). 2019 poverty and inequality in Nigeria: Executive summary (Issue May).
- National Ocean and Atmospheric Administration. (2016). *Ilorin climate normal 1961–1990*. Ilorin, Nigeria. USA: National OceanAtmospheric Administration.
- Nigerian Population Commission (NPC). (2006). Federal Republic of Nigeria 2006 Population Census. In Official Gazette (pp.1-10). www.nigerianstat.gov.ng
- Room, G. (1995). Poverty and social exclusion: The new European agenda for policy and research. In: G. Room (Ed.), *Beyond the threshold: The measurement and analysis of social exclusion*, (pp.1-9). Bristol: Policy Press.
- Saunders, P., Naidoo, Y., & Griffiths, M. (2008). Towards new indicators of disadvantage: Deprivation and social exclusion in Australia. *Journal of Social Policy*, 35(4), 559–584.
- Sen, A. (1999). *Development as freedom*. New York: The New York Times.
- Sen, A. (2000). Social exclusion: Concept, application and scrutiny. In *Office of Environment and Social Development, Asian Development Bank, Social Development Papers* (Vol. 1, Issue June). Asian Development Bank. <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.100.1010&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- Siver, H. (1994). Social exclusion and social solidarity: Three paradigms. *International Labour Review*, 133(5–8), 531–578.
- UK Social Exclusion Unit. (1998). *Bringing Britain together: A national strategy for neighborhood renewal*. London: The Stationery Office.
- UNDP. (2004). *Reducing disaster risk: A challenge for development*. New York, USA: UNDP.
- United Nations. (2014). Participatory slum upgrading programme. <http://www.unhabitat.org/categories.asp?catid=592>
- World Bank. (2020). Inclusive cities. Washington DC. <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/inclusive-cities>
- Yitzhaki, S. (1979). Relative deprivation and the gini coefficient. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 93(2), 321–324.