HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING IN NIGERIA

INTRODUCTION

Spatial planning in a general sense was part of local indigenous administration in Nigeria, long before the colonial administration. By the middle of 1800s, many indigenous cities though not urbanized in the real sense of 20,000 people had a form of arrangement of land uses in their domain. For instance, the Sokoto Caliphate and much part of Oyo Kingdom seats of governments had one form of deliberate spatial arrangement of land uses around the palaces. Therefore, the Nigeria landscape to some extent had some rudimentary element of planning. However, modern planning as understood in line with Western culture and tradition may be described as a recent phenomenon that emerged in the early 1900s. Since then various legislations and programmes have provided the framework for planning starting from 1904 to 1946 Ordinances and the latest at the national level in 1992 planning law. However, regions and later the states also have some legal framework for guiding physical planning practice and after the promulgation of the Urban and Regional Planning Decree No.88 of 1992 most states in the federation have had their own established planning administration laws. The extent to which these legal framework and other planning approaches affect planning activities is an objective of this chapter.

The Nigerian political and economic scene have had varied experience and consequences on urban and regional planning development in the country. In the first instance, the country experienced almost over 100 years of colonial administration. The country also has a relatively shorter democratically elected post-independent political administration period than the military rule. With specific reference to the period under review (pre-independence to post independence till 1999) the country experienced only 10 years of civilian administration (1960 to 1966 and 1979-1983), while the military administration lasted about 28 years (1966-1979 and 1984-1999). Besides, under the military administration of almost three decades, there were seven regimes some lasting about six months (i.e. Murtala Mohammed regime) while another lasted nine years.

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Based on submissions by

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Undoubtedly therefore the variation in the regimes, policies orientation and objective also affected urban and regional planning development significantly.

A review of history of urban and regional planning in Nigeria, must be well positioned not only within planning legislations and politico-economic scene alone but also in the context of the people been planned for in terms of population growth over time. Urbanization and the process of people living in urban centres in Nigeria, predates the colonial adventure in the country. As at 1921 when the first Nigeria’s population was estimated to be 18.6 million and about 1.5 million were already living in 29 cities whose population was 20,000 and above. When the actual census first took place in the country in 1952, the population was 30.4 million with about 10.6% of the population, i.e. 3.3 million people living in 56 cities across the country. More importantly, there were 329 urban centres with population exceeding 5,000 people as at 1952. By 1963, when the second actual headcount took place the total population of the country was 55.6million and this increased to 88.5million in 1991, indicating that the population almost doubled within a period of about 40 years. The 2006 census put the figure at 150 million which by 2011 must have risen to 180million with about half of the population living in cities and about 130 cities whose population exceed 20,000 Nigerians (Oyesiku, 2010).

The import of the urbanization in Nigeria is that the country has a pattern that is unique in Africa, the rate at which it was intensified during and after colonial period. The factors that accentuate urbanization and which attract the attention of physical planning are those of transportation development, particularly rail and road during and after colonial period, economic development strategies after 1960 till the late 1970s that were based on import substitution strategy, which in turn led to the emergence of economic islands that was favoured by rail and road transportation as well as port and marine transportation development. Further, population growth and urban development were stepped-up through national political decentralization that led to creation of states from the regions in 1967 and subsequent states creation in 1976, 1991, 1992 and 1996. These processes created administrative capitals, rapidly increasing urban population due to both high rates of natural increase in population and rural urban migration. The physical planning and development response to the pattern of development in the country along with a review of various planning legislatures since the colonial time would elucidate on what urban and regional planning development has been in Nigeria till 1999.

This chapter focuses on history of Urban and Regional Planning in Nigeria through pre-colonial, colonial and post independent periods. Well discussed is the legal framework of planning practice in the country till 1999. The challenges of planning during these periods are highlighted.

**PLANNING IN PRE-COLONIAL PERIOD**

Town Planning is a modern phenomenon, a 19th Century term first formally used by the British in 1906 as a contained in Housing, Town Planning, etc Act of 1909. Expectedly the modern planning activity within the corporate Nigeria is traceable to Lagos, being well known point of
early colonial adventure in the country. Therefore, the way planning is perceived in the modern sense was not widely operational in different parts of Nigeria before the colonial period and by the time the nucleus of traditional city ‘Eko’ was established, the city had a distinct urban design pattern that follow traditional styles typical of fishermen village settlers (Aduwo, 1999). The style reflected in the street alignment of the Lagos Island today is a likeness of the socio-economy and political organization of the settlers.

Another trace of planning in Lagos area was in 1886 when Captain Alfred Moloney was appointed Governor of Lagos and established a botanical garden at Ebute-metta. Obviously, means of mobility and circulation before 1895 when the construction of the railways started around Moloney’s Botanical garden was by foot and horse carriages. Expectedly the streets were narrow but wide enough for the horse carriage.

Elsewhere outside Lagos area there were strong local planning of settlements in line with traditional land tenure system that varied from one locality to another, the existing agrarian nature of the economy and foot-path nature of mobility and circulation. Land was mostly vested in the traditional rulers and families and therefore most Nigerian settlements were established around palaces of traditional rulers, which were then the focus of community activities (NITP, 1991). Some of the settlements predating colonial period had the pattern of layout that were as a result of the need for defence or in line with religion as the case of many Northern and South-Western cities. For example, some settlements in the Northern and Western parts are located because of the factors of defense, religion or trade. The Yoruba settlements were noted for their general pattern of having a central area accommodating the king’s palace together with the King’s market and the most important place of worship (Sanni, 2006). The homes of High Chiefs are also located close to the town centre. From the centre, arterial roads that divided the town into wards radiated to the outskirts of the town (Mabogunje, 1968). Similarly, northern settlements like Zaria and Kano have walls around them for the purpose of defense and religion with gates provided in strategic locations to facilitate trade and communication. The city of Kano was a centre of trade and Islamic scholarship and there is a magnificent palace for the Emir who was the religions and political leader of the town. Indeed, as customary laws vary from one locality to another, land use patterns respond accordingly. Sanni (2006) noted that though there were no professional planners as we do at present, physical development and growth even in villages were coordinated and regulated by considering the relationship of any proposed development to the existing structures, and making adequate provision for circulation and other conveniences. In the opinion of Obialo (1999), planning and control of development in the pre-colonial period in Nigeria was effectively done. Interestingly some of the cities (Kano, Zaria, Koton-Karfi, Toro in the North and Abeokuta and Ondo in the South-West) still retain their pre-colonial inner-city settlement structure.

PLANNING IN COLONIAL PERIOD: 1863-1960
In this period of the planning history of Nigeria the colonial administration was much more concerned about unification of all parts of Nigeria and preparation for independence. Modern physical planning was skeletal and indeed restricted to towns and localities where the colonial administrators and European expatriates were residing.

The harbinger of the legislations was the Lagos 1863 Town Improvement Ordinance which introduced the basis for control of development and urban sanitation in Lagos protectorate. For the country at large, it was the Lord Luggard’s Land Proclamation of 1900 (title to land in Northern Nigeria) that provided for indirect rule in respect of land administration and settlement development. The import is that urban settlements in native areas were to be administered by the native rulers (NITP, 1991). There were series of legislations in place after 1900 that guided physical planning across the country five notable ones may be highlighted.

(i) The Cantonment Proclamation of 1904 ushered in the segregation of expatriate officials and Europeans from the native areas. The 1904 Ordinance was passed to tackle the problem of public health such that the European Reservation Areas in few selected urban centres were segregated from where the local and natives were residing.

(ii) Ordinance No. 9 of 1914 enacted for the purpose of Government acquisition of land compulsorily for public use, irrespective of the status of the land method occupied or not.

(iii) Township Ordinance No. 29 of 1917 enacted to classify urban settlement into different grades of cities as well as established broad physical layout of towns. Lagos was made a first class township with a Town Council empowered with ranging sets of functions. The Ordinance provided for improvement schemes to be undertaken in the second class categorised cities that were also given prominence such as Port - Harcourt, Enugu, Jos, Minna and Kaduna (Mabogunje, 1968; see Table 1). The 1917 Township Ordinance further advanced the segregation tendency of major Nigeria cities along ethnics and colour lines; European Reservation Areas for the expatriates and Europeans and native areas further subdivided into indigenes and non indigenes (Oyesiku, 2007).

Table 1: Township Classification of Cities in Nigeria, 1917

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Cities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Class</td>
<td>Lagos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Class</td>
<td>Aba, Abeokuta, Calabar, Enugu, Forcados, Ibadan, Ilorin, Itu, Kaduna, Kano, Lokoja, Minna, Onitsha, Opoko, Port-Harcourt, Sapele, Warri, Zaria.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By 1924 the township improvement schemes were to be undertaken by the Town Council through Town Planning Committee and specifically to initiate planning schemes. In 1926 Apapa was developed in Lagos as a self contained residential community and provided a relief Lagos Island of its original port functions to focus on being the Business District Centre (Aduwo, 1999) which has remained the country’s commercial centre till today. However the Town Planning Committees were dissolved and replaced by Health Boards in 1927.

(iv) Lagos Town Planning Ordinance of 1928 was enacted in response to the fundamental drawback of 1917 Township Ordinance with no provisions extended to native towns and consequently no feasible planning ever took place in the native areas. The physical development problems arising from congestion in the native areas that were planless led to the outbreak of bubonic plaque in the later part of 1920s.

Indeed the 1928 Planning Ordinances for the first time made Town Planning a government activity and ensured that LEDB undertook several assignments including reclamation of swammy areas of Oko-Awo in the early 1930s and the resettlement of the displaced people from the area to south of Yaba estate. During this same period Yaba North estate was also established to provide housing to government officials.

(v) Nigerian Town and Country Planning Ordinance No. 4 of 1946 was perhaps the first comprehensive Urban and Regional Planning legislation that covers the entire country and which provided for planning and implementation of schemes by Town Planning Authorities. This planning legislation was modelled after the British 1936 Town and Country Planning law and drew extensively almost in a similar fashion that of British planning activities.

By 1945 it was obvious to the Colonial administration that urban planning was missing from the country’s constitution and this omission calls for urgent attention. Thus in 1946, the Town and Country Planning Law, Cap. 155 (Ordinance No.4 of 1946) was promulgated. The law was made to "make provision for the re-planning, improvement and development of different parts of Nigeria" by means of planning schemes and planning authorities.

As the first nationwide framework for Urban and Regional Planning in the country under the colonial administration, the Nigerian Town and Country Planning Act of 1946 was widely adopted throughout the country. The 1946 Act was designed to “support political socio-economic mission in Nigeria of producing raw materials for the British industries and bringing back the finished product for distribution” rather than to assist socio economic needs of Nigeria as an emerging nation (Utuama, 1999, p. 183).

The 1946 Planning Act was restricted to the European Reservation Areas to the detriment of those living in native towns and as such it was difficult to see how the Act ever prepared the country for modern planning scheme in all settlements in the country. Most parts of the country,
particularly the urban centres, were unplanned and segregated without access to infrastructure and services, general welfare of the people and organized land use planning (Oyesiku, 2007).

Although, the 1946 Act was designed for the improvement and control of development by means of planning schemes to be prepared by Planning Authorities that were established by the government, the Act was more elaborate on the scope and content of the schemes and emphasis on development control that will ensure that “adequate provisions are made for roads, buildings and other structures amenities, public utility services, transport communications and other uses to which land is put, harmonized interrelationship among these competing land uses through the principle of zoning” (Oyesiku, 1998a, pp. 46-47). An important area of significance of the 1946 Act was essentially the institutionalization of Local Planning Authorities to be responsible for all aspects of planning but through approved planning scheme, and for the administration of existing Town and Country Planning laws.

The 1946 Act, to some extent did not allow for participatory decision making process on planning matters and also unfriendly to the extent that it was difficult for an objection to be raised in respect of planning scheme. In this regard, a new planning law was necessary not only for a new planning order but also to address lingering planning operation and administration challenges carried over from the colonial times. Moreover, the 1946 Act being a nationwide legislation applied to every part of the country also remained in existence for close to fifty years and was only replaced by the 1992 Urban and Regional Planning decree No. 88 of 1992.

Apart from these major legislations during this period before independence there are some notable Federal Government involvements in planning related activities that were of importance to this chapter. This was the National Development Plan (NDP), an important instrument of development in Nigeria, particularly for political economy. The NDP focuses on policies, programmes and projects for achieving development in the country. The first of such NDP was the 1946-56 plan, principally based on colonial administration preparedness for the development and welfare of Nigerians and preparation of Nigerians for independence. There was no substantial item of policy and project that were Urban and Regional Planning oriented but simply prepared with programmes that can accelerate transportation and communications for the promotion of agriculture and evacuations of agric products and minerals from the hinterland to the port cities. However, there were some programmes targeted towards the development of agric and mineral production towns in addition to rail and seaport cities (Olomojeye, 1999).

Before the independence in 1960 there was another National Development Plan: 1955-1963, which spelt out the objectives, policies, programmes and projects that were geared towards agriculture, transportation and communication sectors. This plan was not too different from the 1946-1956 NDP that was designed for the preparation of independence and therefore no direct Urban and Regional Planning effect.
The period of pre-independent Nigeria indeed was not considered properly enough to emphasize local development policy planning in the country by the colonial administration. Of course the plans did not recognize any of the basic requirements of local development planning, even when there was scarcely a town in Nigeria that was not in a serious need of re-planning and proper laying out for future extension. More importantly, the 1946-1956 and 1956 – 1962 emphasized sectoral growth of the economy at the expense of urban and regional planning implication of development projects. There was no spatial integration in the efforts since economic growth would be fruitless if not translated in spatial terms for the benefit of the people in terms of social infrastructure and quality environment.

Other related legislations during the Colonial Era having bearing on Town and Country Planning were Mineral Act (1945) which touched on issues like drainage and pollution (air, water and land), Public Health Laws (1957) to control overcrowding, diseases and general urban squalor, Land Development (Roads) Law (1948) on the ownership, acquisition, sale and disbursement of land and Building Lines Regulation (1948) which became chapter 24 of the Laws of Nigeria, 1948 was designed to provide for the positioning of building and other obstructions with reference to roads.

**PLANNING IN POST- INDEPENDENCE: 1960 TO DATE**

**Urban and Regional Planning Under the Regional Government (Pre-military): 1960-1966**

At the time of independence the focus of development in the country was simply sectoral and economic planning rather than conscious efforts aimed at resolving physical planning challenges. Therefore it was not surprising that the first two major National Development Plans followed the patterns of the two previous plans before the independence. The 1962-68 NDP, the first to be prepared after political independence was based on the regions (West, East and North) and the Federal Capital Territory, Lagos. The main objectives of the first post independent plan were to accelerate economic growth of the country to the detriment of the structural problems witnessed pre-independence era.

With the adoption of the 1946 Town and Country Planning Law by each of the three regions, the Regional governments began to attract trained town planners in their services and establish more town planning units along with their lands and survey departments (Obialo, 1999). The town planning units later became town planning departments in the regional ministries of lands and survey as more trained town planners joined their service. The planning departments became the policy making organs for the urban and rural planning in the regions preparing master plans for specific towns and regional plans for some areas. The Kaduna master plan (1967 - 2017) was one of such master plans prepared by Max Lock and Partners, UK. The chief town planning officers in the regional government became the chief advisers to the regional governments on all urban and rural matters. Due to the capital intensive nature of physical planning, the regional governments could not adequately give urban and regional planning the
priority it demanded in the face of rapid urbanization and attendant problems witnessed after independence. The none-existence of physical planning administration at the national level makes it difficult to initiate planning proposals that cut across regional boundaries.

The progress made in urban and regional planning during this period is not without limitations. At this time, the implementation of the Town and Country Planning Ordinance of 1946 created a situation in which planning and development of an urban area was equated to provision of more physically attractive layout with architecturally well designed housing units. Indeed, planning authorities were not seen to be concerned with all other problems facing the urban centres under their jurisdiction. Another limitation was shortage of manpower as urban and regional planning profession was still very new to the Nigerian society.

**Urban and Regional Planning under Military Administrations: 1966-1979**

The first Military Administration emerged due in part to rising ethnic tension and political instability within the existing four regions. That administration hardly settled before the civil war that started in 1967. Around that time was the first attempt to decentralize the political administration of the country from four regions to twelve states and the emergence of some urban centre as state capitals. In spite of the spatial redistribution of urban populations as a result of the political crisis in the country between 1964 and 1966, the creation of 12 states from the three regions by the Federal Government in 1967 led to a spatial reordering of urban centres in the country. Several retarded towns and rural towns became state capitals and witnessed an upsurge in their populations and urban infrastructure and services. Such new or rejuvenated towns included Maiduguri, Calabar, Ilorin, etc. The 1946 planning Act was perhaps the only legal framework for urban and regional planning activities and the new states adopted it in one form or the other. However the civil war that lasted almost three years was a huge distraction to the states for any meaningful physical planning. It was after the war that the Federal Government went back on track to plan holistically for the country, again starting with the National Development Plan approach.

The second National Development Plan 1970-1974, was formulated as the first after the Nigeria civil war, designed to reconstruct the Eastern parts of the country most affected by the civil war. In line with reconstruction focus, the plan’s major objective was infrastructural development and rehabilitation of agricultural sector but directly had 7% of the total budget to Town and Country Planning, housing, water and sewage. At the end of the plan period not only that economic problems became national issues others that are physical planning related took a centre stage. Olomojeye (1999) noted among others these national problems include: increasing rate of unemployment especially in cities; economic inequalities pronounced between urban and rural areas, which heighten rate of poverty particularly in the cities; increase in crime rate; and most importantly deterioration of physical infrastructure in urban areas. National development that was becoming chaotic, despite under the military rule was beaconing for a change in approach to
national planning and development as the quality of life was degenerating and overall social order in confused state. This was the setting of the third National Development Plan after Independence.

The third National Development Plan after independence added certain objective and goals of physical planning to the usual social services and sectoral planning of the previous plans. The 1975-1980 plan therefore brought a great relief to physical planning activities by including certain policies that relate to environment and rural development, the establishment of Federal Ministry of Housing, Urban Development and Environment. In addition, the plan contained strong social services aspects as the Federal Housing Authority was established as a parastatal of Federal Ministry of Works and Housing and to enhance public service delivery of housing ownership the former Nigerian Building Society was transformed to the Federal Mortgage Bank of Nigeria as part of the policy on direct housing construction programme. Furthermore, the Federal Ministry of Social Development and Cooperatives was established to promote welfare across the country.

Through the third NDP the Military Government in power also intensified the provision of infrastructure particularly rural roads and portable water. The River Basin Development Authorities were established across the country, eleven of them as part of the drive for agricultural development and agro-industrial projects. The Regional planning implication of RBDA was overwhelming and considerable challenge to Town and Regional Planners. This was more so that RBDA was likening the USA approach to regional development, the likes of Tennessee Valley Development Authority. However, the enthusiasm was short lived and the RBDA approach stood alone as agricultural and water development strategy, rather than comprehensive regional planning policy.

The greatest contribution of the Federal Government to Urban and Regional Planning during post-independence period and through the third National Development Plan (1975 – 1980) was institutionalization of the concept of new towns which led to the emergence of Abuja, Onne, Satellite town and Festac town, (the last two in Lagos. Abuja case is discussed later). In addition to this, the World Bank started making in-roads into the states for urban development programmes with site and services projects in Bauchi and Imo states. Besides, the Federal Government initiated studies on twenty major urban centres in Nigeria and promulgated the Land Use Decree in 1978 as a policy to provide easy access to land for its numerous housing and other social services projects. Thus, the third NDP has the most significant and concrete contribution to Urban and Regional Planning by the Federal Government and which subsequently trickled down to State and Local Governments Area.

The previous sections focused on Federal Government intervention in physical planning matters across the country. However, planning activities also took place initially in various regions and later in states of the federation. For lack of space, cross-country historical development may not be captured in this chapter.
Establishment of Federal Capital Territory and Movement to Abuja

A great leap to urban planning practice by any administration in the country was the idea to establish a new federal capital of Nigeria. The establishment of new capital territory and a new capital city of Nigeria came following the acceptance of Justice Akinola Aguda’s panel report by the Federal Military Government in 1976. The report declared that Lagos was unfit and no longer capable of its dual role of being the capital of Nigeria and that of Lagos State. The major reasons for the establishment of the new Federal Capital Territory were the need to have a capital that will help in galvanizing a new sense of national unity and promote national integration and for even and balance development towards opening up apparently under developed parts of the country (Kalgo and Ayileka, 2001).

Succinctly put, apart from the urban planning practice purposes, there were four other major reasons advanced for the relocation of Nigeria’s federal capital, that: Lagos as a nation capital was located at peripheral location in relation to the country size; Lagos was also small in size and therefore lacked room for expansion needed to met the future development of a growing country’s national capital; Lagos was serving as a dual administrate function as capital of Lagos State and the capital of the country since 1914 amalgamation of the Northern and Southern protectorates of Nigeria; and Lagos is identified with one of the major ethnic group in the country whose culture has a primordial right over land and therefore alienated the rights of other Nigerians to land in their federal capital (Mabogunje, 2001; Oyesiku, 1997; 2010). Consequently, by the enactment of the Federal Capital Territory Act No 6 of 1976 established the Federal Capital Development Authority (FCDA) as the agency for design, construction and administration of the territory.

Development activities started in the territory in 1980 on approval of the master plans for the new capital and its territory. The plan estimated total population as 157,550; 484,500; and 1.6 million people by 1985; 1995; and 2000 respectively and an ultimate population size of 3.2 million. The Federal Capital Territory covers an area of about 8,000 Km² located geographically at the centre of Nigeria (Fig. 1). The territory lies between latitude 8°25′ and 9°20′N and longitude 6°45′ and 7°39′E and is bounded by Kogi state in the South, Kaduna State in the North, Niger State in the West and Nassarawa State in the East. The present Federal Capital Territory was carved out of the four (4) states in the central part of the country, consisting then of eight hundred and forty five (845) villages. Niger State contributed about 79% to the territory, the old Plateau state 16% and old Kwara, now Kwara and Kogi States 5%. Similarly, of the 845 villages in the Federal Capital Territory (FCT), about 83% belonged to Niger State (Oyesiku, 2010 p.199).
The major planning instrument for development and growth of Abuja is the master plan designed and prepared by International Planning Associates (IPA) lasting 18 months and presented to the government in February 1979. The total area for the development was estimated at about 25,000 hectares of land as shown in Table 3 and the stages of development and growth expected to reach 1.6 million people as shown in Table 4 and Figure 2 the main planning strategy for the cities development was to be in four phases and to start with the smallest unit considered as a neighbourhood and then progress to the district and the city central levels. The capital city itself is designed to be in five residential districts and central area as shown in Figure 3.

![Figure 1. Abuja: Peripheral location of Lagos and centrality of Abuja within Nigerian context. The diagram further shows that from any corner of Nigeria, Abuja remains the most central city in the country, a justification for the relocation from Lagos.
Source: Oyesiku, 2010, p. 195.]
Figure 2. Six stages of development and sequence of growth of Abuja, expected to cumulate to a population of 1.6 million.

Table 3. FCT Land Use Projections 1998-2000

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land Use</th>
<th>Total (ha)</th>
<th>% Total</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Residential</td>
<td>12,486</td>
<td>48.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial Business Districts</td>
<td>561</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional</td>
<td>891</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Research/Training</td>
<td>920</td>
<td>3.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation</td>
<td>1,705</td>
<td>6.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Government</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports &amp; Recreation</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parks, Open Space</td>
<td>8,435</td>
<td>32.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25,658</td>
<td>100.00</td>
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</table>

Table 4. Development Phases of the City and Projected Populations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases</th>
<th>Projected Target Population</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>230,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>585,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>640,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>1,700,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Figure 3. Abuja: the central area and the 5 residential districts with a projected population of 230,000 as part of Phase I of the city development.
Source: Atlas and Guide of Federal Capital Territory, National Space Research and Development Agency (NASRDA), 2006, Abuja,
Figure 4. Abuja: Layout of Wise in Abuja, one of the four main residential districts, apart from the central area. The residential neighbourhoods in Wuse are known as Zones (1 to 7). Source: NASRDA, 2006, p. 28.

Planning implication of FCT

The establishment of FCT is consistent with the growth pole model with the emphasis on the development of the new capital city expected to generate developmental ripple effect in the entire region. To a considerable extent, the observed result has been that of a mixed fortunes as the major challenges of Lagos, in terms of planlessness of some areas, unbridled politics over planning principles, infrastructural development at variance with population growth and indeed provision of economic base that will cater for the socio-economic welfare of the people seem to be rearing their ugly heads in the new capital city. As Oyesiku (2010) noted, though infrastructural investment in the new capital had been colossal, however, aesthetically pleasing is
apparent (see Figures 5 and 6) but little could be observed in terms of deconcentrated urbanization and industrialization as the hinterland of the new capital neither developed as anticipated nor did the population growth reach expected estimated figure as at 1999.

![Figure 5. Abuja: Good road infrastructure is not limited to Central Area District alone but a feature of other major residential districts within the city, Abuja. Source: Oyesiku, 2010, p. 213.](image)
Figure 6. Abuja: Wuse district driveway. This is one in several well known pedestrian walkways distinctively separated from the vehicular traffics. It is important to note on the left hand side of the diagram the trees that provide shade for the pedestrian walkway, a common feature in the district.


Furthermore, the allocation of land process and housing programmes to accommodate Nigerians of all socio-economic categories ran into the mucky waters of huge expenses of high cost of land, high cost of rent and limited housing units for the residents. By 1995 the city began to wear the look of early stress due in part to un-affordability of housing by most residents and astronomically high cost of living. The resultant effects of these was the eminent growth of informal settlement surprising embarked upon by civil servants and immigrants from various parts of the country and obviously the original in habitants (Oyesiku, 2010). Consequently, illegal settlements and slums started to flourish with operators exploiting the weakness of government regulatory mechanism, the slow and cumbersome process of the acquisition of legal title to land and the high demand for housing and other services. Nevertheless, Abuja remains a successful planning principle experiment, a welcoming city, a well planned Nigerian city and most aesthetically pleasing environment comparable to many capital cities in the world.
Urban and Regional Planning in the Second Republic: 1979-1983

As the Military Government was handing over power to the civilian administration the fourth National Development Plan was already in the pipeline and shared similarity with the third NDP. However, the Plan specified clearly the objective of Urban and Regional Planning by defining the role of physical planning as a tool for achieving national development objectives as well as putting forward some policy measures that were of planning interest (Adebayo, 1999). Specifically was the creation of Infrastructure Development Fund (IDF) project in 1985 for the purpose of financing of urban development projects. This was in addition to agriculture, manufacturing, housing, water supply and environmental sanitation that were the priority areas of the plan. At the State level, the State Housing Corporation and Town Planning Authority came alive and the latter empowered to undertake long-term urban development programmes through the master plan preparation for few cities. Although the fourth NDP did not run its course due to yet another military intervention, however, like ones before it, there was lack of commitment to its detailed implementation and therefore the development of the country. With respect to urban and regional development, the Plan implementation did little to develop Nigeria and Regional development programmes as notable challenges persisted including: environmental decay; inadequate and poor quality of housing; unemployment and under employment; poor basic infrastructure; ineffective legal and institutional framework for planning; and inadequate human capital base for urban planning across the country (Olomojeye, 1999; Adebayo, 1999; Oyesiku, 1998a; 2010).

Many states in the federation have had several legislations that have guided Urban and Regional Planning during the period under review. Using Lagos State as an example, the legislations include the following: Cap 133 Lagos state Laws of Nigeria-Town Planning country planning law; Lagos state Law of Nigeria No. 42 of 1980-Town Planning fees order; Lagos state law of Nigeria No.5 of 1982-Town Planning fees order; Lagos state law of Nigeria No.6 of 1983-Guideline for approval of layouts and Lagos state of Nigeria law No. 14 of 1983 on the same subject. The briefs of these legislations are described in what follows.

Cap 133 of Lagos State law of Nigeria provided for control of Town and Country Planning activities throughout the state and the law put together six previous planning laws as applicable to Lagos state. These other laws include: Western Region Law No.41 of 1959-Town and country planning (Amendment law 1959); Lagos Local government Acts 1959-1964 cap 77 section 126; Lagos Town Planning (Compensation) Act 1964; Lagos Executive Development Board (Powers) Act 1964; Lagos Town Planning (Miscellaneous Provision) Decree 1967; and Town Planning Authorities (Supervisory Powers) Edict 1971.

The Lagos State law of Nigeria No. 42 of 1980 provided for fees paid on all applications, approval for new development or alteration to existing ones. The law had its commencement date as 22nd of April 1980.
Similarly, the Lagos State law of Nigeria No.5 of 1982 was in respect of regulation for processing application on building plan approval with the commencement date of 1st January 1981 and has 48 sections that dealt with the applicant, the planning authority and the developer as well as conditions for approval in respects of setbacks, zoning, height, nature of land and the need for every approved plan to bear the seal of the Ministry.

Another important Urban and Regional Planning legislation that the State Government promulgated was the Lagos State law of Nigeria No.6 of 1983 that was in respect of guidelines for approval of layout. The law took effect from June 1983 with 23 sections and deals with the guidelines for the application of private developers and contents of the scheme, processing of application and minimum standard for the provision of educational community facilities. In addition, colour choice for land uses and provision of infrastructure, preliminary approval final approval and allocation of plots in the schemes were the main features of the law.

The 1979-1983 period in planning history in Nigeria was remarkable at the state level. This was a period of numerous planning legislations and focus on planning as public service activity. The civilian governments had so much to do planning wise but cut short again by another military intervention.

**Urban and Regional Planning During the Return of the Military: 1984-1999**

The Military administration somehow continued the drive for fresh legislation in several states and for example the government of Lagos State in 1986 enacted two planning laws: Lagos state Edict No. 1 of 1986- the Town country Planning Edict 1985 Planning Activities, Planning Commission etc; and Lagos State law of Nigeria No. 15 of 1986-Town and country Planning (Building plan) Regulations 1986. An important framework for Urban and Regional Planning activities in Lagos State was Town and Country planning edict of 1985 also known as edict No. 1 of 1986. The edict with commence date of June 1985 has forty-eight sections and six schedules dealt with virtually all aspects of planning activities ranging from the establishment of the state planning commission and its membership, technical committee and its membership, processing, publication, objections to master plans, establishment of town planning authorities, outline of developed plans and functions and matters to be dealt with in planning briefs.

The Lagos State law of Nigeria No.15 of 1986 which is on Town and Country Planning (building plan) regulation with a commencement date of 1st of January 1986 has 43 sections dealing with applications and conditions governing the submission by the developer, setbacks and plot coverage and density, permissible height of building plans and overall conditions for granting building approval. It is important to note that the 1986 law also provided for the establishment of the new towns development authority which also carries out functions related to physical planning activities in the state.
It is pertinent to note that despite these arrays of legislations for physical planning activities in Lagos State the recurrent planning problems remained intractable. Though the legislations were adequate particularly for those periods they were not being fully utilized for the purposes of which they were made (Deinde, 1999).

**Town Planners Registration Council**

By 16th of January 1988 Town Planners Registration Council etc decree of 1988 was promulgated establishing a body to be known as the Town Planners Registration Council. The Decree No.3 of 1988 thus empowered TOPREC with the general duty of: determining who are town planners for the purpose of this decree; determine what standard of knowledge and skill are to be attained by person seeking to become members of the profession of town planning and reviewing those standards from this to fine as circumstance may require; securing and in accordance with this decree the establishment and maintenance of a register of persons entitled to practice the profession and the publication from time to time the lists of those persons; regulating and controlling the practice of the profession in all its aspects and ramification; maintain, in accordance with this decree, the discipline; and performing such other functions which in its opinion are calculated to facilitate the carrying on of its activities under this degree.

**Nigerian Institute of Town Planners**

The historical development of urban planning in Nigeria will not be completed without reference to the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners. The Institute was formed in April 1966 by few practicing Town Planners in the former Western Region under the leadership of Mr. S. O. Tokun. The few Planners in the fold then had a constitution; bye laws and regulations for would be Town Planners. With nine pioneers and about 35 others as members at its inauguration in 1966, the Institute gradually developed in leaps and bounds to have 55 fellows, 710 corporate members and 132 graduate members as at November 1991. By December 1999 the Institute had 167 fellows and 1163 corporate members (NITP, 2008). As earlier noted, this strength of professional planners was far below what was required to support planning activities across the country.

The objectives of the Institute at inception and which review same include among others: dissemination of Town and Country Planning in Nigeria through education, training, research and practice, conferences, seminar and exhibitions and publications; advancement of public awareness of the importance of the living and working environment necessary for its protection; establishment and enforcement of a code of professional practice and conduct for town and country planning practitioners in Nigeria; protection of the practice of the profession and the promotion of the welfare of those practitioners.
Conclusion

This chapter considered historical perspective of the development of Urban and Regional Planning in Nigeria. The focus has not been a detailed analysis of both the legislative framework for the development of planning in the country nor a critical evaluation of various national and State development plans that had planning and related activities. It is purely a review of planning and related activity pre-colonial period till 1999.

Pre-colonial period had little modern perspective of planning, rather traditional settlement approach of location of land uses according to the dictate of the level of development by then. The colonial period was much concerned about health and sanitation and as such many of the colonial administration legislations were towards health improvement. The 1946 act was a watershed in that planning practice through local planning authorities and planning skills were formalized across the country. Then public participation in policy related to planning was not encouraged but more importantly planning was actually dominated by Civil Engineers, Architects and Senior Health Officials (Oyesiku, et. al. 1999).

Post-independent urban and regional planning development initially continued the colonial period approach with the adoption of 1946 Act and enactment of Regional Planning Laws based on it. The major challenges then were absence of base maps and inadequate manpower and domination of planning practice and activities by non-planners. After the civil war and the emergence of oil boom planning activities were gradually accepted as complimentary public service to enhance not only welfare of the people but assist in translating economic growth to spatial gains and benefits. Obviously, sectoral planning and its economic approaches completely failed to achieve national development goals. Therefore, actual physical planning projects of new town development, emerging state capitals improvement and master plan preparation for both the new towns and existing ones followed the post civil war and oil boom period. More importantly, the Federal Capital Territory was established and movement to Abuja became a reality. This particular planning activity ushered in greater participation of planners in real terms in physical planning.

To accomplish the emerging planning practice exposition of planners were the Town Planning Registration Council law which institutionalized professional planning and the first nationwide contemporary planning legal framework, the 1992 Urban and Regional Planning Law.

References


ISSUES AND CHALLENGES OF URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING IN NIGERIA

Cities and settlements are changing and need new insights to meet these challenges. These cities and governments which have not changed have generated added problems in terms of generation of non-inclusive cities and accelerated incubation of factors for the formation of slums and informal settlements. Yet, there are glaring evidences that the old planning paradigms, theories and even practices are abjectly inadequate to meet the planning challenges of contemporary societies. For example, the old planning knowledge and practices would not adequately address the consequences of rapid urbanization, the urbanization of poverty, the proliferation of slums, informal and illegal settlements, climate change, urban crime and violence, post conflict and post disaster situations.

Accordingly, various attempts have been made to revive and rejuvenate urban planning processes and challenges to make it more suitable and effective in solving most of the evolving and challenging 21st century urban problems. Thus, in contrast to the old master planning processes, there are common elements in the new planning processes and these, grouped under seven broad categories include: Strategic spatial planning and its variants; New ways of using of using spatial planning to integrate government; Approaches to land regularization and management; Participatory and partnership processes; Approaches promoted by international agencies and addressing sectoral urban concerns; New forms of master planning; and Planning aimed at producing new spatial forms. There is considerable overlap between these categories; some emphasize planning process and others outcomes, and sometimes these are combined (GRHS, 2009).

Where Are We Now? The State of Nigerian Towns and Cities

The historical development of Nigerian cities and the nation affected the evolvement of the legislation with which to govern the cities and their inhabitants. These have also had disconcerting effects on the pattern of growth and development on these cities and especially on the development of their infrastructure.

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Settlement Patterns in Nigeria

Up till the end of the 18th century, most of the cities in Nigeria grew modestly in population and size. Two factors were to change this leisurely development. One was the Islamic Jihads which swept through the northern part of the country and the other was the coming of the Europeans, first as traders, later as missionaries and finally as conquerors. Understanding the patterns and processes of towns and cities development in the country thus requires some considerations of the colonial experience. Although, urbanization in Nigeria, as posited by Andah (1995), Habitat (1996) and Suleiman (2003) precede colonization, it was largely under colonial rule that the major cities and the urban systems that exist today were defined. Also, it is the institutional structure left by the colonial rule which worked for them but which have proved ineffective in tackling the peculiar growth and development of cities that are still operated today with little or no modification by the independent cities and administrators.

According to Obono (2002) and Agbola (2005), it is this institutional structure which triggered the rural-urban migration. Thus, the colonial administrators were interested in increasing urban population density in line with the mercantilist policy of the home country. Therefore, colonial policy in Nigeria was targeted at promoting rural-urban migration because low population density in the urban environments was equated with scarcity of manpower and an absence of development. In the colonial cities as observed by Agbola and Agbola (1997) are concentrated the best in social, economic, recreational and administrative facilities. However, through political changes and administrative development of the nation, these towns and cities have continued to grow at a rate faster than the capacities of the initially installed facilities. Thus, the dynamics of the Nigerian city growth have been accompanied by enormous deficiencies in modern basic facilities such as potable water, hospitals, roads, electricity, among other municipal and community facilities. These cities and urban agglomerations with their attendant sprawl have risen by a combination of several factors - the state areal in culminating in the present 36 states structure (and a FCT) and perhaps more pervasively, the local government debacle resulting in the evolvement of 774 local government headquarters. All of these, today, are urban centers of varying sizes including their various urban predicaments.

What is ironic and confounding, however, unlike the Nigeria’s situations, is that the urbanization process in the more developed countries took many decades, permitting a gradual emergence of economic, social and political systems to tackle the problems of transformations. But the patterns of urban development in Nigeria are occurring more rapidly
against a background of higher population growth but less developed economic social and political systems (Agbola, 2005).

**Use of Laws and Regulations to Govern Cities in Nigeria**

Urban settlements, as creation of contemporary societies, have evolved over time with a view to providing a more satisfying environment in which urban inhabitants can live, work and pursue other goals that would enhance human dignity and lead to the attainment of a richer and fuller life. Over time, the attainment of these goals creates conflicts over the most appropriate and most efficient use of urban land. One of the processes aimed at achieving urban settlements goals and at resolving the conflicts that accompanied the pursuit of these goals is the evolvement, enactment and careful administration of land use or land development control measures (Agbola and Agbola, 1997).

After independence in 1960, Nigeria experienced rapid urbanization as a result of the urban transformation force of rural-urban migration. This rapid urbanization was accompanied with a plethora of challenges such as unemployment, environmental degradations, deficiencies in urban services, inadequate housing, deterioration of existing infrastructures, lack of access to key resources, armed robbery and violence (Agbola, 2005). The urbanization process and its attendant socio-economic as well as environmental problems in the early 1960s called for proper town and country planning. This awareness, coupled with the zeal and professional commitments of the planning forebears and the need for a body to speak on behalf of the planning profession in government or corporate proposal, resulted in the establishment of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners on the 5th September 1966 and its subsequent inauguration in 1968 (Maduku, 1981). In 1978, the Land Use Act was promulgated and designed to curb land speculation, ease the process of land acquisition by government, coordinate and formulate tenurial modernization. The Act has several negative effects on the practice of Urban and Regional Planning. According to Obateru (1982), the pre-occupation of the Land Use Act was with public ownership of Nigeria’s land and land allocation. There is nowhere in the Act in which provision is made for physical planning of the nationalized land. By and large, the Act appears to be the greatest disaster that has befallen physical planning in Nigeria.

Urban and Regional Planning was institutionalized in Nigeria with the enactment of Act No.3 of 1988, establishing the Town and Planning Registration Council (TOPREC). TOPREC was established to perform the following duties: determining who are town planners,
what standard of knowledge and skill to be attained by persons seeking to become members of the profession of Town Planning and review those standards from time to time as circumstances may require. Another major assignment of TOPREC is the accreditation of Town Planning Educational Programme in tertiary institutions in Nigeria with a view to appraising the available facilities and manpower for planning education. The implication of the accreditations is that graduates of accredited schools are registrable with the NITP and TOPREC during those years they are accredited. Therefore, employers of labour that patronize or employ graduate of planning schools that are not accredited shall be deemed to be guilty of an offence and shall be liable to prosecution with corresponding punishment (NITP, 1991).

In 1992, the Federal Government of Nigeria promulgated the Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Act No.88 (URP Act No. 88) as a major advancement aimed at overhauling the old laws and clearly defining the roles of the three tiers of government in the planning process. Considering the range of plans to be made as stipulated by the URP Act No.88, there is a wide scope of services for professional planners to contribute to the planning of human settlements. However, since governments at all levels in Nigeria are yet to fully implement all the tenets of the Act, the situation has some serious side effects. Thus far, except in Lagos State and the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja, Planning and Plans in the country are yet to be properly organized along the lines of the enabling legislations. As noted by Falade (2003) and Agbola (2006), much has been said and written about URP Law of 1992 as amended by Act 18 of 1999. However, a number of years after the passage of this Law, the many dividends of good planning that are to result from it are yet to be made manifest.

The new millennium ushered into the annals of physical planning in Nigeria a number of developments. These include the creation of an independent Ministry responsible for Housing and Urban Development resulting from the two in one 2002 government policy on Housing and Urban Development. The policy is a lucid exposition of all that is bad and ugly on and about Nigerian cities and urban agglomerations with well thought out strategies on how to make the cities work again.

The Effect of Governance on Towns and Cities Infrastructures

Urbanization and city growth do not automatically bring affluence and prosperity neither do they necessarily create large employment opportunities as the Nigerian towns and cities amply demonstrate. Despite the presence of many large cities, urban development and growth
in the country is proceeding in a different cultural and socio-economic milieu than that experienced by the developed countries. Hartshorn (1992) used the term “false urbanization” to capture the problems associated with urbanization in most developing countries. It is false urbanization in the sense that the process is primarily driven by demographic forces, particularly rural-urban migration, rather than by dynamic economic and industrial forces. As opined by Osuntokun (1997), there is hardly any city in Nigeria where water and electricity are regular where waste is scientifically disposed and where life is not in the Hobbesian parlance “short and brutish”.

Since urbanization is increasing at a greater rate than the capacity and capability of urban managers, city dwellers especially migrants retire to what planners and city managers call slums but which the inhabitants call homes. The areas into which these migrants flock in search of urban livelihoods and housing are marginal and dangerous lands which lack access to portable water. In addition, waste generated in such environment not only remains untreated, it surrounds their daily activities, thereby, leading to poor health.

Linkages exist between deficient infrastructure and the poor health outcomes of urban residents. As noted by Arimah (2002), major implications of the pattern of towns and cities development concern the need to provide adequate infrastructure. The rapid rate and pace of urbanization would presuppose an increase in the provision of infrastructure. This has not been the case as many cities lack the financial resources and institutional capacity to provide even the most basic of most infrastructural facilities. This inadequacy is widely represented in terms of inadequate supply of potable water, sanitation and housing which contribute to ill health, and environment degradation.

These problems are further compounded by lack of city-wide administration in the system of cities governance in Nigeria. For efficient and effective urban governance in the country, towns and cities should be governed by municipal authorities or majorities, the norm in the developed countries urban administration. For example, eleven local governments govern the city of Ibadan, while Lagos and Kano cities have far more. This plurality, leads to polarization, duplication of efforts, wasteful application of resources and gross inefficiencies. City-wide administrations, as implemented in New York City, Johannesburg and a host of world class large cities, on the other hand, will facilitate enhancement of revenues, provision of social and physical infrastructures, job creation and other income generation activities at the same time maintain security (Agbola, 2005).
Planning Administration: Past and Present

In the face of the uncontrolled expansion of Nigerian Towns and Cities since independence, planners, urban managers and other stakeholders have accepted that development policies for urban and rural areas have failed or have not worked as expected. Cities in Nigeria have been observed to have changed in size, spatial organization or morphology, quality and distribution of public services and infrastructure and in their employment base. The crises of urban growth can be attributed to and or have arisen as a result of inability of the city authorities, and urban managers to deal effectively with the aftermath of rapid urbanization process. This ineffectiveness are often manifested in forms of low entrepreneurial, technological and managerial capabilities, inadequate finance, large number of parasitic individual coupled with inability of towns and cities to generate revenues to sustainably finance their selves (Agbola, 2005).

Consequently, the failing of planning administration, planning and planners as observed above is a challenge to the collective intelligence of planning professionals and a general affront to the operations of their professional calling. Despite many efforts aimed at ameliorating the urban problems through the enactment of plethora of planning laws and regulations, the administration and implementation of these laws and regulation have been problematic. The challenges to most planners could be attributed to lack of political will to act according to the dictates of the profession which is not too far from the truth. However, the contemporary question begging for immediate answer is, why have these problems remained intractable in the face of many physical planning tools? Much more importantly, what are we to do as planners to ensure that cities in Nigeria are sustainable economically, liveable socially and aesthetically pleasing to the eyes in its morphology?

Globally, policies and programmes for city development require strong sub-national government institutions working in partnership with all interested parties (stakeholders). Such institutions are still weak in Nigeria and their effectiveness is threatened by increasing problems of political, turf protection and sectoral approach to human settlement planning.

URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING IN NIGERIA TODAY (1999 TO DATE)

Practice of Town Planning

To a large extent, the public sector plays a dominant role in urban and regional planning in Nigeria, in terms of implementation roles and the employment of all grades of urban and
regional planners. Unfortunately, the number of planners in private practice is still very small and they seldom enjoy sufficient patronage to keep their firms alive.

So far, planning at the national and local government levels in Nigeria, in line with the 1992 Planning Law, is not very encouraging enough. While the problem at the grassroots or local government level has to do with the dearth of qualified urban and regional planners and setting up LPAs, the problem at the federal level has to do more with the unwillingness or the lack of political will to set up the necessary bodies that will facilitate the preparation of the development plans enumerated in the 1992 Planning Law.

Besides, interagency coordination still remains a big problem in the implementation of planning proposals and physical development at all levels of government. Each agency, especially those whose activities impact considerably on the environment (that is, those involved in water supply, transport, works etc), continues to carry out its activity with little or no collaboration with planning authorities in most States.

Planning Regulatory Bodies and Interest Groups/Associations

In any profession, the need for qualifications for practice as well as the availability of sufficiently qualified number of professionals cannot be overemphasized. Within the urban and regional planning profession, there are several bodies that have been established to assist practitioners (and prospective practitioners) in attaining relevant qualification for planning practice, in protecting their rights as well as in setting standards for professional practice and conduct among other things. In addition, there are related interest groups, at educational/studying and professional levels, that protect members’ interests and other causes. They include the NITP, TOPREC, NUC and so on.

Nigerian Institute of Town Planners

Within the context of urban and regional planning in Nigeria, the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITP) plays a very crucial role in raising the quality and currency of knowledge available to professional urban and regional planners. It also plays a major role in improving the practice of urban and regional planning through practitioners, improving the body of knowledge of the profession as well as in liaising with government and other private sector organizations in ensuring orderly development of the cities and rural settlements (Ajayi, 1999:1)

Before the establishment of the NITP in 1966, the bulk of those engaged in physical planning comprised of architects, surveyors, engineers and a few professional town planners (Oyesiku, 1998). However, the need for those who trained in town planning to come together under one
umbrella, for the purpose of advancing the profession, gave birth to the NITP in April 1966 (Garnvwa, 1994).

The formal inauguration of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITP) took place on the 5th September 1966, in Lagos, at a meeting held by 30 pioneer Town Planners (www.nitpng.com). It was initially called the Nigerian Town Planning Institute and its name changed to current one (NITP) at the General Meeting that was held on 20th July, 1968 (Aluko, 2004). Furthermore, it was not until 1988 that the Federal Government of Nigeria formally gave the much desired recognition to the profession of urban and regional planning in Nigeria through the promulgation of the Town Planners (Registration etc) Decree No. 3 of 1988. The membership of the Institute has grown from 30 at the time of inauguration to well over 2,280 members, comprising 142 fellows, 1,814 full/chartered members and over 325 graduate members. The student members of the Institute currently are more than 2,000.

The Constitution of the NITP, which was produced in 1966 and amended in 1994 and 2010, spells out the aims and objectives of the Institute, the different classes of membership and conditions of election, financial matters, officers of the Institute and their duties, various committees, rules guiding general meetings and conference as well as establishment of State Chapters. The Institute has a Code of Professional Practice which seeks to promote high ethical standard and discipline among urban and regional planners, especially in order to project good professional image of practitioners in the interest of the public.

The specific objectives of the NITP are as follows:

- Create awareness of the significance and the relationship of town and country.
- Advance town and country planning education, training and research in Nigeria
- Hold conferences, seminars, meetings and exhibitions, for the purpose of exposing and disseminating planning information and knowledge
- Publish the journal of the Institute as its official organ and the issuance of newsletter etc.
- Protect the practice of the profession and the promotion of the welfare of those practicing it.
- Establish an Education Board, charged with the responsibilities of devising and imposing the means for testing the qualifications of candidates for election as Corporate, Graduate or Students members.
- Acquire and dispose of land and property in the interest of the Institute and raising of loans if necessary for the purpose of carrying out the objectives of the Institute
Acceptance of any gift, endowments or bequests made to or for the Institute and the carrying on of any trust attached to such gifts, endowments or bequest and

Doing of all such other lawful things as may be associated with or may be incidental or conducive to the furtherance of the foregoing objectives.

In the area of cross-professional relationship, that is interaction between the three units in the town planning profession and other professions, the NITP has given so much via its activities. The NITP is an active member of the Association of Professional Bodies in Nigeria (APBN), the umbrella organization for professional bodies in Nigeria. Indeed, a past president of NITP Tpl Bunmi Ajayi has also served as President of APBN (2006-2008). In addition, the NITP is a leading member of the Commonwealth Association of Planners (CAP). The body has town planning associations in the member countries of Commonwealth. In Africa, NITP was instrumental to the formation of African Planners Association, which comprises of Planning Institutes/Bodies in Africa.

The relationship between the NITP, ATOPCON and the Architects Registration Council of Nigeria (ARCON) became strengthened in 2008 when NITP and ATOPCON protest the award of the Lekki Master Plan Project to a foreign owned organization by Lagos State Government. The two bodies (NITP and ATOPCON) believed this action is against the law of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. They therefore, described it as illegal and also an affront. Members of NITP and ATOPCON were directed not to participate in the project in any form. The directive exempts only town planners who are employees of the State Government. Newspaper publications were made in this regard as a way of reaching out to members. ARCON as a regulatory body described the stand of NITP and ATOPCON as apt and thus supported it by also publishing newspaper advertisement to commend the action. ARCON also directed architects not to be involved in the project. This could be described as a very strong co-operation between these key bodies in the sector.

**Town Planners Registration Council (TOPREC)**

Another very important regulatory body in the field of urban and regional planning in Nigeria is the one which certifies those who are professionally qualified to practice urban and regional planning, either in the private or public sector. This body, established by the Federal Government, is called the Town Planners Registration Council (TOPREC). It was created by Town Planners (Registration etc.) Decree No.3 of 16th January, 1988, as a body corporate
with perpetual succession and a common seal. TOPREC was formally inaugurated in November, 1988.

TOPREC conducts the registration of Town Planners and carries the accreditation and certification of relevant training institutions in the country. In other words, the TOPREC decree institutionalizes urban and regional planning practice by preparing and maintaining a register of members. It is noteworthy that urban and regional planning training is in two parts (that is, educational and professional). It is for professional standardization aspect that TOPREC is responsible. It determines what standards of knowledge and skill are to be attained by persons seeking to become urban and regional planners and reviews those standards regularly, as and when due.

The TOPREC Council ensures that the objectives and quality of planning education are maintained through regular visitation to training institutions, for accreditation. Its mission is ‘to ensure that only thorough-bred professionals are accredited, registered and eligible to practice, and provide the best services in the built environment commensurate with international set standards and human aspirations’. The TOPREC Decree (or Act) also makes provision for the establishment of the disciplinary tribunal and investigating panel. The entitlement to practice and so on is spelt out in the TOPREC decree.

In Nigeria, selected tertiary institutions, particularly the polytechnics and universities, offer diploma and degree programmes respectively in urban and regional planning; they are the ones that provide educational training of prospective urban and regional planners. Besides, some polytechnics offer professional diploma programmes in Town Planning for those with Higher National Diploma. Planning education, through on-the-job training, is also being provided through the professional examination jointly conducted by NITP and TOPREC.

**Students’ Associations**

Lately, the need for the students of urban and regional planning across the country to collaborate with themselves within their individual institutions, with colleagues outside their individual institutions as well as their tutors and other stakeholders, in advancing their causes for educational improvement in particular, has given birth to Urban and Regional Planning Students’ Associations in several tertiary institutions.

Using the University of Ibadan, as an example, the Department of Urban and Regional Planning runs two programmes, namely: Urban and Regional Planning as well as Housing. Two students’ associations have emerged around the aforementioned programmes. These are
the Association of Postgraduate Students of Urban and Regional Planning (APSURP) and the Association of Housing Development and Management (AHODEM). The APSURP has carried out several projects in the Department including the landscaping of the surroundings of the Department and the repainting of the Departmental Building.

More specifically, the objectives of APSURP are:

- Promoting the spirit of oneness among its members, by fostering co-operation and mutual Understanding.
- Improving and modernizing the existing social security systems, institutions, organizations or bodies with a view to facilitating a better living standards and sustainable environment.
- Fostering the social and economic interest of members by encouraging seminars, workshops, public lectures and excursion visits as may be considered suitable and appropriate.
- Promoting cordial relationships between the staff (academic/non-academic) and the entire students of the Department through healthy interactions, and
- Engaging in such other activities as may be considered ancillary, incidental or conducive to the promotion and attainment of the aforementioned objectives

Planning Education and Regulators

The need to impart relevant and up-to-date planning knowledge is very critical to the success of urban and regional planning (Adeleye, 2008 and Jiriko, 2010). Those that are being trained should be academically strong and those in practice should be professionally qualified, in terms of learning and knowledge acquisition. It is in realization of the significance of planning education that there are a growing number of tertiary institutions that are offering urban and regional planning courses. Several Polytechnics and universities currently offer professional diploma, post-graduate diploma as well as bachelors, masters and doctorate degrees. Nevertheless, planning education itself needs to be properly monitored.

As already discussed NITP and TOPREC both play vital roles in ensuring that the quality and the delivery of planning education knowledge are excellent in tertiary institutions (in terms of teaching facilities, quality of the learning environment, curricula, number and quality of teaching staff and so on). Beyond what NITP and TOPREC jointly do in accrediting the teaching and learning of urban and regional planning; other bodies that are vital to this process include the National Universities Commission (NUC) and National Board for
Technical Education, that accredit courses (including urban and regional planning) in the universities and polytechnics respectively.

THE ASSOCIATION OF TOWN PLANNING CONSULTANTS (*ATOPCON*)

Another very important professional association is the Association of Town Planning Consultants of Nigeria (*ATOPCON*), which seeks to promote and protect the interests of urban and regional planning consultants in the country.

**Its Growth**

Ogunleye (2010) observed that one of the best things that have happened to the profession of urban and regional planning in Nigeria is the formation of the Association of Town Planning Consultants of Nigeria (*ATOPCON*). The conception of the Association was in the early nineties when some elders of the profession in private practice in Lagos came together to form what was later referred to as *ATOPCON*. It is worthy to note that this group of practitioners had a clear view of what they wanted at the inception. Their mission was to strengthen the practice of urban and regional planning profession by building a virile team of practitioners that will be capable of delivering services that are comparable with those of urban planners anywhere in the world. The Association is made up of firms that offer town planning consultancies.

Two decades after, the Association has grown steadily. From membership strength of less than 15 members’ pre – 2000, the Association membership has increased to 73 in 2011. Table 5 below shows the trend in the growth of *ATOPCON* between 1995 and 2011.

**Table 1:** Membership Growth of *ATOPCON* (1995 – 2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Member</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: *ATOPCON Secretariat, 2011

One of the ways the Association has been carrying out its activities is through the establishment of State Chapters. In this regards, Delta, Oyo and Lagos State Chapters have been constituted. Like that of TOPREC, the majority of member firms of *ATOPCON* are in the Lagos axis, with Lagos and Oyo States having over 65% of its members. See Table 6.

**Table 2:** Location of *ATOPCON* Member Firms
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oyo</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delta</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>73</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** ATOPCON Secretariat 2011


**Contribution to the Growth of Practice**

By its activities and programmes, the Association has been able to advance the course of the town planning profession in Nigeria. In fact, it can be described as the third leg of the tripod with the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITP) and the Town Planners Registration Council of Nigeria being other parts.

For example, the Association has promoted the practice of the profession by ensuring that private practice practitioners have a common forum to advance the growth of consultancy in the profession. Thus, the body has become a rallying point in that regard. The NITP and TOPREC have since been able to tap into this opportunity as ATOPCON is contacted by both organizations whenever matters of professional practice arise. It is not an overstatement to say that ATOPCON has been able to elevate the practice of the profession substantially, through the promotion of the Code of Practice and Conduct.

In the area of human capital development, the Association since 2005 has been organizing on annual bases, a training programme known as Professional Development Workshop. The programme is usually attended by not only practitioners in ATOPCON registered firms but by town planners in government agencies as well as non-town planners in government and private sector organizations.

The themes of the workshop have generally been very relevant to practice and the profession generally. For instance, the programme has examined topics like “quality Assurance in Service Delivery, Total Quality Management, Professional Practice in a Globalized Economy, as well as New Horizon in Campus Planning. Others areas: Consultancy Service in the International/Development Agencies and Funding Infrastructure Development.
The Association has also secured the co-operation of Federal and State Governments through their MDAs in the process of prequalification and bidding for professional service. ATOPCON efforts at checkmating attempts by unqualified organizations to infiltrate the practice of the profession by securing town planning job have also been rewarding. Thus, many MDAs have made membership of ATOPCON by organizations applying for consultancy service with them a mandatory requirement. Some of the Federal agencies that have adopted this include the Federal Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development, the Niger Delta Development Commission and the Urban Development Bank (UDBN). States like Lagos, Ogun, Ondo have also made membership of ATOPCON as a prequalification requirement for consultancy services.

The network of relationship which ATOPCON has built with similar professional organizations like the Association of Consulting Engineers of Nigeria (ACEN) and the Association Consulting Architects (ACA) has continue to project the image of the profession. It is worthy to note that such relationship building strategy have been extended to other stakeholders in the economy.

**RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT: NITP, TOPREC, ATOPCON AND OTHERS**

As noted earlier, the relationship between the three bodies – NITP, TOPREC and ATOPCON has continuously been strengthened. For example, the three organizations have collaborated in many regards. The most feasible area of co-operation has been in the conduct of qualifying examinations for candidates that intend to become town planners. The examination is known as NITP – TOPREC Examination. It is the equivalence of Diploma or Degree depending on the stage passed by candidate.

Besides, as part of a retraining programme for registered town planners, the two bodies established an annual programme known as Mandatory Continuous Development Programme (MCPDP) in 2000. The training programme, as the name connotes, is mandatory for members of the NITP who are expected to attend at least once in three years. Eleventh edition of the programme have been held in different parts of the country. It is worthy to note the programme has played a significant role at improving the skills of town planners. However, there is need to enhance participation of members in the programme by wielding the stick for those who have not participated in it within the stipulated time limit. This will make practitioners to attach more importance to the programme in terms of attendance.
The relationship between the three bodies of NITP, TOPREC and ATOPCON has also been extended to representation in the Council of the various bodies. For instance, the membership of National Council of NITP includes the President and Registrar of TOPREC, as well as the President and Secretary-General of ATOPCON. Similarly, the Council of TOPREC also has as member, the President of NITP. These provisions have facilitated in great deal, the building of greater co-operation and mutual understanding among and between the three parties.

**Monitoring and Evaluation in Planning Practice**

Monitoring and evaluation in planning, as noted by the UNDP (2009), enhance the establishment of clear links between past, present and future initiatives and development results. Benefits of using information from monitoring and evaluation are multiple. However, the value of benefits accruing from monitoring and evaluation exercise is determined by the degree to which the information generated is used. Thus, if knowledge gained from monitoring and evaluation is accepted and internalized, it strengthens the basis for managing results, foster learning and knowledge generation in an organization as well as the broader development, community support and public accountability of the profession.

Monitoring can be defined as on-going activities to track project progress against planned tasks through which stakeholders obtain feedback on the progress being made towards achieving their goals and objectives. Evaluation on the other hand is a rigorous and independent assessment of either completed or ongoing activities to determine the extent to which they are achieving stated objectives and contributing to decision making. Monitoring and evaluation are two different management tools that are closely related, interactive and mutually supportive. Therefore, while monitoring provides real-time information required by management, evaluation provides more in-depth assessment. The monitoring process can generate questions to be answered by evaluation. Also, evaluation draws heavily on data generated through monitoring during the programme and project cycle, including, for example, baseline data, information on the programme or project implementation process and measurements of results (Palestinian Academic Society for the Study of International Affairs (PASSIA) 2002 and UNDP 2009).

Monitoring and evaluation of development projects are increasingly recognized both in public and private sector as indispensable management functions. However, in Nigeria for many years, monitoring and evaluation, especially in the public sector, have been given little
attention. This neglect is attributed to the following: weak interest and commitment to the evaluation function; weak culture of carrying out, sharing, discussing and using the results of monitoring and evaluation activities; relative shortage of professional evaluation experts; insufficient technical resources; limited allocation of monitoring and evaluation work; limited training opportunities in evaluation and shortage of trained staff. Effective monitoring and evaluation need adequate planning, baseline data, performance indicators, results and practical implementation mechanisms that include actions such as field visits, stakeholder meetings, documentation of project activities, regular reporting and other feedback mechanisms.

In Nigeria, most town planners and urban managers do not have the manpower and resources required to carry out the ideal monitoring and evaluation. Therefore, it will be wise and preferred if external consultants are engaged to lead the monitoring and evaluation process as being done in the developed countries. This, in the long run, will increase the objectivity of evaluation because project strengths and weaknesses might not be interpreted fairly when data and results are analyzed by project staff members that are responsible for ensuring that the programme is successful (PASSIA 2002 and United Nations Population Fund (UNPFA) 2004).

Rewards and Punishments in Planning Practice

TOPREC was established in 1988, to among other things, perform the following general duties; determining who are town planners, determining what standards of knowledge and skill are to be attained by persons seeking to become members of the profession of town planning and reviewing those standards from time to time as circumstances may require; securing the establishment and maintenance of a register of persons entitled to practice the profession and the publication from time to time lists of those persons, regulating and controlling the practice of the profession in all its aspects and ramifications; maintaining in accordance with the establishment Act discipline; and performing of such other functions which in its opinion are calculated to facilitate the carrying on of its activities. The establishment Act of the planning profession has stipulated what is expected from a planner but how well are the Nigerian planners fulfilling the professional bargain? How well are planners committed to the practice of the profession and how well are planners policing the conduct of professional members for the general elevation of the status of the planners and for strengthening the image of the profession before the public?
Laws, regulations and ethics are established for the good conduct of citizens and those who cross the path of the law are punished. However, what are the disciplinary consequences of the various flagrant abuse of the very soul of planning by the planners? Humans, including those in the noble planning profession, give highest priority to favoritism and partiality in disbursing punishments to those who err. Accordingly, planners routinely display professional rascality especially at the local planning authority levels without serious if any, reprimand. Money and or wealth are one of such valuable recognition symbol in the Nigerian society. Humans generally seek it so long as the risk of loss of occupational status is not too great as inherent in the Nigeria’s professional parlance. The policy makers and the general public vilify planners for various offences but is the profession policing the conduct of its members? If so, with what consequences? It is no news that there is a Disciplinary Committee of NITP and TOPREC but how many cases have been brought before them? How were the cases adjudicated and with what consequences on the morale and spirit of the professionals? Today, it seems that whatever disciplinary laws the profession have are just paper tigers meant for the books and not action. Thus, many planners behave larger than life and commit what amount to environmental crime without much ado about the possible consequences of his or her action.

The Public
Urban and regional planning can be viewed from the perspective of public service that requires and which should seriously promote public participation in its activities. Increasingly, advocacy groups and Non-Governmental organizations for the protection of the environment in Nigeria are emerging in Nigeria and are educating Nigerian about their rights. As argued by Fakolade and Coblentz (1981), more Nigerians have been protesting against poor state of facilities in their neighborhoods and need to be carried along in any planning process.

Legality of Public Participation in Nigeria
From the legal point of view, Section 13 of the 1992 URP Decree in the statement of preparation of physical development plans made provision for public involvement in which it stated that the Commission shall during the preparation of the National Development Plan call for the submission from all relevant government organization, NGOs and interested members of the public whose contributions will serve as part of the input towards the preparation of the draft plan.
Section 15 also allows any member of the public, government agencies, NGOs and professional bodies during the exhibition of the draft plan to submit to the Commission, written statement of their objections and suggest alteration and amendment to be made to remove the objection. The Commission is mandated by Section 15(2) of the decree to acknowledge receipt of any objection in writing.

All this shows the beginning of planning and the extent of citizen participation in efforts in the planning process in Nigeria. The place of public participation is further enhanced in the Nigeria Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) Decree 86 of 1992, Section 7 which states that before EIA agency (i.e. Federal Environmental Protection Agency or her State equivalent) takes a decision on an activity to which an EIA has been produced, the Agency shall give opportunity to government agencies, members of the public, representations of any relevant discipline and interest groups to make comments on EIA of the activity. This suffices to say that there are legal efforts supporting the participation of the Nigerian public in enhancing the URP planning process. However, what is presently lacking is the public awareness of the existence of these provisions and the will to follow them up.

**Public Participation in Planning Process in Nigeria**

Public participation in the planning process has been in Nigeria before the Independence of 1960. A good case in view was the “Ajowa Village Regrouping Scheme” of 1955. The above was executed by the involvement of the inhabitants of “Ajowa Group of Villages” in the conception, planning and execution of “Ajowa Village Regrouping Scheme”, a scheme purposely conceived to achieve rural development in the then Western Region of Nigeria in 1955 (Olujimi, 1991; Olujimi and Egunjobi, 1991). Though the people never made any financial contribution during the plan period, they contributed in form of communal-labour, execution of some self-help projects (which included the construction of Ajowa Community Hall in 1956, construction of two blocks of classrooms in the Secondary Modern School site in 1958 and the clearing of Ajowa market site among other things), and non-demand for compensation on their immovable properties at the original sites.

At times, public involvement comes in the in the form of Community-Based Organizations (CBOs) getting involved in the implementation of planning or environmental projects.

Most of the Residential Layouts in most Nigerian cities are private estates owned by the families. This has been helpful in securing access to plots of land by many people within the country though it does not go without its ills. Some of such ills would be mentioned later. Some of these families develop layouts and get approval for them though they may not really
comply with the exact components of the approved layout. This has made the LAU which gives land ownership fully to the government redundant though the Act has been criticized greatly on certain grounds too.

**Public Negative Involvement**

**Illegal Development and Conversion**

The term “Development” as defined in the Nigerian URP Decree 88 of 1992 is “the carrying out of any building, engineering, mining and other operation in, or, over or under land or the making of any environmentally significant change in the use of any land or demolition of building, including the falling of trees and the placing of free standing erections used for the display of advertisement on the land”. Whenever a particular operation or change of use falls within the definition of development, it should require planning permission.

Any development that therefore does not have the planning permission of the relevant Town Planning Agency(ies) is classified as “illegal development”. The indiscriminate sitting of temporary structures – used for residential purpose or for commercial purposes (kiosks) and the more recently metal containers all constitute illegal development. These illegal developments pose serious problems to the environment in form of pollution, blockage of drains, and congestion to mention a few.

Findings indicated that the most violated aspects of building regulations are plot coverage, setback stipulations, room size, provision of utilities, as well as a change of use from a wholly residential use to the incorporation of home-based enterprises. Both the public and Government are guilty of indiscriminate change of use. Residents in Lagos Metropolis are presently being suffocated by extensive illegal development and contravention. Recently, in May 2011, the Commissioner for Physical Planning and Urban Development lamented on the huge number of illegal structures that have sprung up in the last four years in Lagos State while also indicating the relatively small percentage that had been demolished. In the same vein, he raised alarm over the rate at which branches of Commercial Banks in the city had developed without obtaining building approval before erecting their structures. He specifically indicated that 128 branches were found to be culprits in this respect (Ugbodaga, 2011).

In a similar situation, it was reported in March, 2011 (according to a district officer) that 50% of buildings in the Gwagwalada District Area Council of the FCT were illegal (Isah, 2011).
This he attributed to the refusal of the residents to seek approval before erecting structures even though they had been duly informed about the need to submit their approval to avert demolition.

According to Oduwaye (2006), despite the legal provision made to enhance involvement of the public in URP matters, there is still much of illegal development going on. The fact that some are not aware of the Planning Authorities within the country is a problem on its own but those that are aware do not have proper knowledge of their functions while some have just decided to refuse giving recognition to such authorities. Aribigbola (2008) found that only about 19.2% of respondents interviewed in a survey on awareness about the existence of the Akure Master Plan respondent positively. This implies that the people are not aware of the Plan which was meant to guide development around them. In Ondo State, most of the existing residential estates are owned and controlled by families as Private Estates. This simply reveals a situation whereby many layouts exist without approval or conformity with planning standards. Hence, necessary facilities and ideal road networks which should appear on an approved layout are not properly provided in several estates.

Just as many do not obtain approval for their developmental activities, there is equally so much of illegal conversion going on. Ogundele et al (2009) in their work on Festac Town, Lagos discovered that 48% of conversion of buildings to other uses such as commercial use did not have approval from the relevant Planning Authority. Some of these illegal developments have encroached on setbacks and airspaces around structures within the environment.

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State of Planning Report

[Chapter 3]

THE NIGERIAN INSTITUTE OF TOWN PLANNERS

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ASSESSMENT OF PLANNING TOOLS AND INSTRUMENTS

Introduction
The period under review is significant for at least two key reasons. First, it coincides with the period which can be considered as the most enduring democratic dispensation in the annals of political development in Nigeria. The expectation, therefore, would be that planning (urban, regional, etc) affairs will be conducted democratically. Two, this period is essentially the 21st Century: an era of great changes and dynamism, great challenges and problems as well as opportunities. These include unprecedented rates of urbanization monstrous environmental disasters inflecting unimaginable casualties and property destructions, rising poverty and informality, climate change, the economic challenges of uncertain growth and fundamental doubts about market-led approaches that the current global financial crisis has engendered, the increasing socio-spatial challenges of social and spatial inequalities, urban sprawl, and unplanned peri-urbanization, etc (UN-HABITAT, 2009), coupled with moribund and unviable urban planning modes (Jiriko, 2008). Yet, all these challenges and problems put together do not, in any way, undermine the place of urbanization or role of cities in national and regional development and prosperity. In fact, these factors include those enumerated by UN-HABITAT (2009) as shaping 21st Century Cities that future urban planning must address. The Local Agenda 21, the Habitat Agenda, and the MDGs issues are on-going and, thus, relevant and form integral components of the matters in question in the period under review.

1 Based on submissions by
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Jiriko K.G, Department of Urban and Regional Planning. Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna
PLANS AND PROGRAMMES OF NIGERIA FROM 1999-TO-DATE

From 1999 to date Nigeria has made efforts and adopted a number of strategies for national development and management. The National Rolling Plans strategy was dropped in favor of National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS1) (2003-2007) in 2003. State and Local Government versions – State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS) and Local Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (LEEDS) – were adopted in 2005 and 2007, respectively.

In 2007 the democratic administration came up with the Seven-Point Agenda, embracing Critical Infrastructure, Food Security, Education, Land Reform, Housing, National Security and Niger Delta, and Wealth Creation. This Regime also adopted the Nigerian Vision 20:2020-a long term development plan that is to usher the country into the club of 20 top developed economies by the year 2020.

It must be pointed out that Vision 2010 had been packaged for Nigeria before the foregoing strategies. It is, indeed, the first attempt at articulating a national development vision. The Vision 2010 Report acknowledges Nigeria’s fast rate of urbanization while pointing out the crucial role and contribution of urban and rural settlements (or areas) to national economy. It affirms the need to address the imbalances in infrastructure provisions and developmental activities between the two areas. Environmental problems, urban decay and squatter settlements, and capacity building constraints to realizing sustainable environmental development are identified and appropriate solutions proffered.

PLANNING TOOLS AND INSTRUMENTS SPECIFIED TO BE ASSESSED.

The specific planning tools and instruments evaluated are as follows:

i. Master / Structure Planning;
ii. Regional Planning;
iii. Strategic Planning; and
iv. Guided Land Development.

It should however be noted that master planning and structure planning are not and do not mean exactly one and same thing. For this reason they will be treated separately. In addition since there
are a few other government instruments (policies / laws) which specifically directed at some of the above tools - or indeed provide legitimate bases for their operation, they will be highlighted and equally commented upon. Still a few others that may only be indirectly relevant will be equally treated. These latter – directly and indirectly relevant polices and laws, etc – will be treated alongside the given tools and instruments.

NATIONAL URBAN DEVELOPMENT POLICY (NUDP)

Within the period being reported, the National Urban Development Policy has been reviewed twice so far, in 2001 and in 2009. The goal of the NUDP (2009) is to develop a dynamic system of urban settlements which will foster sustainable economic growth, promote efficient urban and regional development and ensure improved standard of living and wellbeing of all Nigerians.

A. Some of the Objectives include to –

(i) Promote efficient urban development and management;

(ii) Clearly define responsibilities and functions of each level of Government with a view to ensuring effective plan implementation and accountability;

(iii) Provide appropriate financial mechanism among the three levels of government and Non-governmental Agencies for the implementation of urban development projects such as slum upgrading, renewal, implementation of master plans, subject plans, Local plans etc

(iv) Facilitate the revision and implementation of Housing, Environment, Land use, Population, Employment, and other related policies and programmes with a view to making them more responsive to the challenges of land use planning in Nigeria.

B. Some of the strategies to be adopted include:

(i) Establishment of an appropriate institutional framework for ensuring orderly development and efficient management of Nigerian urban settlements
(ii) Restructuring all existing public institutions involved in urban management at the three
tiers of Government and where necessary create new ones with a view to ensuring
effective responses to the challenges of urbanization in Nigeria

(iii) Prepared regional, master plans, and development plans for all designated urban
centers and growth centers within the context of National Physical Development Plan

(iv) Integrate the urban development policy into the national economic policies of
government.

The NUDB (2009) makes provisions on, urban governance, infrastructure, environment, finance,
social welfare, information management, urban renewal and slum upgrading, transportation,
communication, traffic, urban economy, poverty and employment issues and access to land.
Human resources development, urban security, institutionalization framework (with clear
allocation of responsibilities, functional jurisdictions as well as coordination, monitoring and
performance evaluation strategy as well as resettlement, climate change, disaster management,
and mega cities, are specified (the last three being additions resulting from the 2009 review)

MASTER PLANNING.

Urban master planning emerged at the beginning of the twentieth century in many countries as
an improved planning approach towards an effective urban planning and management with a
view to solving the emerging urban problems gaining prominence after the second world war as
a means of developing both old and new cities (Oyesiku, 1998). A master plan is considered as
the official document which sets forth major policies concerning desirable future physical
development of the community. It is a document adopted by a local government as a policy
guide to decisions about the physical development of the community generally indicating how
the community is to develop within 20 to 30 years (Onokerhoraye and Omuta 1986). The plan
attempts to clarify the relationship between physical development policies, on the one hand and
social and economic goals of the community or region concerned on the other. The master
planning approach is still very much in vogue in Nigeria and other developing countries. This
approach is a positive, long range land-use development planning dealing with housing,
circulation, provision of utilities, facilities and services, open spaces and general urban design of
the city.
WHY MASTER PLANS ARE PRODUCED:

Although urbanization is a global phenomenon and problem, Nigeria is experiencing one of the most unprecedented rates of urbanization world–wide. The national average urban growth rate is about 11% with the minimum of over 5.3% per annum (Sada and Oguntoyinbo, 1981, Jiriko, 2004). Some individual cities have higher urban growth rates than the national average. Kaduna, for example, is growing at 11.5%; Port Harcourt, 10.5% while Lagos has an estimated growth rate of between 10% and 15% yearly (Fed. Rep. of Nigeria, 1997).

Several factors are responsible but the most potent ones include rural–urban migration, which is consequent upon the stack neglect of rural planning and development, urban bias in government resources allocation and development policies and, State / Local Government creation exercise (Jiriko, 2008).

The problems of such fast urban growth include unemployment / poverty, housing, shortage, urban management and governance, urban services and facilities deficiencies, industrialization, and environmental problems (Business Times, 2004; Jiriko2004; 2008).

Conventional traditional urban master plans were, therefore, adopted and have been applied with the object of providing solutions to the environmental problems that are mainly physical in character. These are exemplified in the land use maps, zoning, density controls, building regulations and planning standards. The master plan is, thus, said to attempt to direct activities affecting the physical environment (Ratcliffe, 1974). Suleiman (1986) lists the advantages of the master plan concept, which he says lie in its physical components to include land – use, circulation,, housing, provision of facilities, services and utilities, open spaces and urban design. Its purpose, according to him, is to restore human dignity and order to the city and to ensure planned present and future growth of the city. The objectives of the master plan are said to include the creation of the total physical environment which is functional, efficient, healthful, and aesthetically pleasant for human activities.

An evaluation of the use of the master plan as a physical planning tool in Nigeria reveals that the master planning approach is widely used particularly in cities within the Northern part of the country as a policy framework for the creation of a functional environment for the satisfaction of various human activities through the controlling of physical development of the communities. As
revealed in Appendix I, apart from those states where information is unavailable, the state capitals in the three geopolitical zones in the north as well as a number of settlements designated as urban centers have master plans to guide their development. However, most of them are outdated with physical development having gone beyond the spatial scope of the plans. For example, the master plans for Sokoto, Kano, Birnin Kebbi, Dutse, Minna, and Bauchi are outdated while the plans for Kaduna, Katsina, Zaria, Gusau, Burnin Kebbi, Lafiya are currently being reviewed.

Moreover, new urban master plans are being prepared currently. These include Master Plan for Badagry and Ikorodu, and Infrastructure Master Plan for Lekki (NITP, Lagos State Chapter, 2011).

In Kaduna, the Millennium City Master Plan preparation is also ongoing. In Nasarawa state, consultants have been commissioned to prepare master plans for Akwanga and Nasarawa towns. Although in professional and academic discourses, the need for the adoption of master plans for the effective control and development of Nigerian cities is prominently emphasized, yet this tool has not been widely adopted in the other geopolitical zone of the country. Appendix I further reveals that in the South East geopolitical Zone Owerri had a master plan which became outdated by 1997 even before the return of civilian administration of 1999 and structure plans were commissioned by UN-HABITAT for Awka and Onitsha in Anambra State. It is not clear whether any attempt is being made to review the Owerri plan.

In the south west geopolitical zone of the country, an unusual trend is observed whereby only Lagos state has operational master plans. No settlement in Oyo, Ondo, Osun, Ekiti, and Ogun states has an operational master plan. The different states in this geo-political zone have resorted to the use of adoptive bye-laws to loosely control development by granting planning permit to developers based on piecemeal private layouts and government schemes through charting and co-ordination of such layouts. This is an aberration because the application of bye-laws should be based on a plan in the first instance. For example, prior to 1999 and up to 2003 in Ogun State, instead of putting in place appropriate comprehensive development plans at regional, district and local levels to guide physical development and provide a vehicle for development control, piece-meal and disjointed incrementalist approach called “land-use clearance” system based on intuition was the norm (Ogun State Urban and Regional Planning Board, 2011). This encouraged the inadvertent proliferation of illegal development. However with a new administration in 2003,
the Ogun State Urban and Regional Planning Board was established and some sketchy land use proposals termed “outline plans” were put in place to guide and control development in the state’s major and medium sized urban centers. These were used along with the Building Plan Regulations that had been put in place by the same administration to guide development in the affected settlements.

In Lagos State, a combination of master and district plans are currently in use as planning tools. According to Odumeru (2010), the Lagos State Regional Plan (1980 – 2000) recommended the preparation of master and district plans to make physical planning and development of the State more meaningful. According to the author, the inauguration of civilian rule in the country in May, 1999 marked the birth of the district plans whereby the state was delineated into 35 districts. Available information from the Regional and Master Planning Department (RMD) of the Lagos State Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development (LSMPPUD), indicates that Badagry and Lekki have master plans while model city plans were prepared or being prepared for (a) Ikoyi – Victoria Island, (b) Mainland/Central Lagos, (c) Ikeja and (d) Alimosho respectively. By 2006, model city plans had been designed by the Lagos state government and the capacity for their implementation displayed with the deployment of workers in the various districts to control the growth and development of the district (Odumeru, 2010).

With the ever increasing population of Ikoyi – Victoria Island districts and associated breakdown of physical and social infrastructure leading to shortages of housing, traffic congestion, deplorable road condition, inadequate water supply, indiscriminate changes in the use of buildings from residential to commercial use and the reduction in the quality of life of the residents, the Lagos State Government through the MPPUD embarked on a conscious effort at the re-planning of these districts by review of the Ikoyi – Victoria Island Model city plan this year (2011) where facilities and services are to be properly planned and provided. With respect to the master plans, the plans for Lekki and Badagry were prepared by Daral-handasah, Consultant Planners to span from 2010 through to 2030 and these are currently in use.

In areas covered by one plan or the other in Lagos state, physical development is controlled by monitoring on-going development activities to ensure that they conform to the plans. Where no plan is in force, physical inspection of such sites is done to ensure accessibility to them and
ensure that such structures are not put up on government acquired sites and to avoid conflicting land uses.

Information available on the South-South geopolitical zone indicate that Uyo (Reviewed 2008-2018) in Akwa- Ibom State, Calabar (2010-2030) in Cross Rivers State and Port Harcourt have current and operational master plans. These plans had to be reviewed as a result of the increasing human and vehicular population in these capitals attracted by the petroleum industry.

The master plan for Abuja and the Federal Capital Territory was developed by International Planning Associates (IPA), a consortium of three American firms: Planning Research Corporation; Wallace, McHarg & Roberts Todd; and Archisystems, a division of the Hughes organization in 1979 (Elleh, nodate). The population to be reached by the city then was put at 3.1 million and a targeted population of 1.7 million inhabitants by 2000. The city was planned to be developed in phases, with physical development of the city commencing in 1980. The new capital became a symbol of Nigeria’s aspiration for unity and greatness and to show case orderly urban development and management as exemplified in the new city plan. Abuja was planned with a vision of becoming one of Africa’s great capitals and one of the world’s great new cities.

However, Abuja and the Federal Capital Territory have both experienced huge population growth and it was estimated (World Bank, 2000) that Abuja was growing at between 20% and 30% per year. This rapid population growth led to the development of squatter settlements and towns within and outside the city limits. A lot of efforts are being put up by the FCDA to ensure that developers adhere to the master plan.

The evaluation of the use of the master plans has revealed a more prominent use of this tool in the northern states than in the southern states. This may not be unconnected with the colonial legacy of the North and perchance the use of foreign consultants in the preparation of the plans. Beyond this, however, a close interaction with the Northern cities especially the state capitals reveal a comparably more organized and better planned cities with well laid out circulation patterns and better organized activity areas than cities of the south west where the use of master plans is not popular at all.
Of importance to this discourse is that master plans do not just emerge, they have their basis in several government policies and legal enactments which give their preparation legitimacy. One of these is the National Urban Development Policy (2009). Sections 3. 3. 1 (iii) and 3. 4.1 (ix), among others, provide for preparation and/or implementation of master plans. The Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Act, 1992, also provides for making of urban/master plans, e.g. Section 25 – (1). There is also the National Policy on the Environment (Nnobe, 2009) which provides for Ecological Master Plans (Sections.4.10), Comprehensive Industrial Master Plans (4.12), and National Energy Utilization Master Plan (S.4.13). Also the National Housing Policy for Nigeria states that “---- Federal, State and Local Governments shall ensure the preparation of master/structure plans for all cities and major settlements” (S.4.9, in Nnobe, 2009) as well as prepare National Housing and Urban Development Plans (National Housing Policy, 2006, S.3.2.2 (xiv). The National Policy on Population for Sustainable Development (NPPSD, 2004) makes provisions that can be incorporated into all the planning tools at all the planning scales—national, regional, urban, and local. It is designed to influence population-related policies, strategies, and programmes that contribute to the sustainable development of the country.

REGIONAL PLANNING.
The concept of planning region was derived from formal and/or functional regions or a combination of both. “Planning regions are geographical regions suitable for the designing and implementing of development plans for dealing with the regional problems” (Glasson 1978). The most important thing to note is that a region tries to relate and emphasizes the functional relationship and interdependence of all component (parts) in a given physical environment.

Three types of regions are recognized in the literature. These are homogeneous regions, functional regions and programming regions. The homogeneous region also called formal or uniform region, is one whose sub-areas share some attributes or characteristics in common. In other words, it is a region ‘in which the whole of the area is homogeneous with regard to the phenomenon or phenomena under review’ (Johnson, 1991). The phenomena could be unemployment, industrial output, in fact mortality or any other indicator of regional performance. Functional regions, on the other hand, are also called nodal or polarized regions. A
functional region is one ‘… in which the unity is imparted by organization around a common node which may be the core area of a state or a town at the centre of a trade area’.

In fact, a functional region is defined by interactions and flows between a centre (e.g. a city) and the surrounding area (towns, villages, etc.) with which it is symbiotically linked. Good examples of functional regions are the catchment areas or spheres of influence of cities. The third type of regions programming regions, are virtually synonymous with administrative areas especially within sovereign states. Gore (1984), defines programming regions as those whose sub-areas fall under the jurisdiction of a planning or administrative authority. In Nigeria, River Basin Authorities are examples of programming regions. There is also a sense in which state and local government areas (LGs) are programming regions. After all, the sub-areas of states and LGs are usually under the jurisdictions of their respective governments. In fact, states are officially regarded as planning regions in Nigeria.

Regional Planning concern, in the main is to correct the lopsided development in the country and promoting national development through the identification, analysis, planning and allocation of the resources within and among the sub-national planning regions in the country (Jelili et al (2008).

(ii) Regional Growth or Regional Aggregate Efficiency Goals: Here regional planning becomes the planned development of resources of a unit area in order to maximize returns on investment and to improve the living standards/conditions of the inhabitants of the area concerned (Okpala, 1987).

(iii) Equity Goals and objectives: These address issues of depressed or backward areas and the pattern of regional distribution of income and unemployment. Some people consider this as the most important objective in regional planning.

According to the third National Development plan, the Federal Government is to promote balanced regional development. It would appear therefore, that the creation of states and, indeed, of local government areas (LGAs) is the cornerstone of Nigeria’s regional development policy. Ayeni (1981) observes that the creation of states and LGAs has had the effect of creating a tier of growth centers (state capitals and LGA headquarters) which are supposed to promote
development in their respective jurisdictions. Thus, states and LGAs are important instrument for attracting Federal funds to different part of the country for development and other purposes.

Some states have taken regional planning seriously whereby attempts are made by the affected states to ensure development of the entire state by eliminating disparities between the various communities in the state. The Lagos State Regional Development Plan (1980-2000) is a typical example.

LAGOS STATE REGIONAL PLAN (1980-2000)

Rapid population growth rate in excess of 9% with Lagos Metropolitan area taking nearly 90% of the total for the State, inability of essential urban services of water supply, storm drainage, good roads, dependable electricity, efficient telephone services, and area-wide solid waste collection and disposal to keep pace with the rapid expansion, together with the neglect of other urban areas and rural districts as resources were allocated largely to solve problems of metropolitan Lagos. Solutions to these problems were needed and it was realized that to achieve this, proper planning of the whole territory of Lagos State and other adjacent States was a must. In order to provide a rational basis for urban development in the State, the Lagos State Government commissioned Master Plans at various levels – regional, metropolitan, local, and rural levels (Lagos State Regional Plan, 1980-2000: Foreword).

Doxiadis Associates (International) consultants were commissioned to prepare the regional plan. The Final Regional Plan (1980-2000) was to serve as a comprehensive guide for future physical developments; in other words, to provide the basic foundation for all urban and local area plans in the State and attempt to unify the formulation of policies and utilization of land resources (Doxiadis, 1980:2, 4).

The Regional Plan states that “the present development pattern of Lagos State, reveals that there are thirteen development areas which could form the basis for formulating policies on a Statewide scale aimed at correcting population and economic imbalances” (p. 8). These 13 development areas are; Agbowa, Ikorodu, Lagos (Southern Sector), Badagry, Lekki, Ikeja, Shomolu and Ajegunle, Mushin/Egbe/Igando, Ojo, Southern Sector, Eredo, and Ibereko. The Regional Plan proposed land uses are Residential (15.23%); Industrial (2.88%); Transport
facilities (7.43%); Institutional and Special Uses; Agriculture (37.24%); Conservation/Preservation (8.45%); Forest/Water Supply Reserves (1.735); Recreation and Tourism (5.38%); Regional Parks (0.71%); and Water (17.00%).

Environmental resources exploitation and problem issues, development of two major urban centers outside of Lagos Metropolis and sub-centers, small urban centers in rural areas to promote rural agriculture, land reclamation, a new local airport, a new sea port, and creation of development corridors are also among other issues considered in the Regional Plan.

The Lagos State Regional Plan expired in 2000. It is reported to have been reviewed in 2005, though an in-house review is also said to have taken place in 1999 (Kadiri, 2010). John Asiyanbi Associates were commissioned “to review the 1980-2000 regional plans and evaluate its areas of successes and failures as a basis of understanding future regional plans” (Kadiri, 2010). The review report contains the Regional Plan (1980-2000) proposals, the post 2000 situation, and recommendations for short term action, e. g. recommendations for short term future planning for the development of Lagos State without specifying the time limits of the proposals. Rather, the report further recommended that the next Lagos State Regional Plan (2007-2020) as well as the Lagos Metropolitan Plan (2001-2020 should be embarked upon. Given this state of things, one can reasonably conclude that Lagos State currently does not have a regional plan to guide its regional development efforts.

**Niger State Regional Plan**

Niger State was created in 1976 from the old North – Western State which had its capital in Sokoto. Max Look Group Nigeria Limited were commissioned in January 1979 by the state government to prepare a Regional Plan for the state up to year 2000. The Terms of Reference (TOR) called for the preparation of a Regional Concept Plan of the entire Niger State for the period 1979 – 2000 (MLG 1980). It was supposed to define the following physical components associated with the plan:

- Land use;
- Transportation and circulation;
- utilities essential for regional development;
- Green belts and conservation areas; and
• Regional settlement structure.

There had not been any review of the Regional Plan ten years after the end of plan period. This is despite two significant changes that had occurred in the State since the plan was prepared. These are the addition of Borgu Local Government in Kwara which is the largest (land area) LGA in the country and the emergence of Suleja and its suburb including Sabon Wuse and Zuba as dormitory towns for Abuja City.

**Regional Development Plan for the FCT**

The Federal Capital Development Authority commissioned Doxiadis Associates Nigeria Ltd on 10 June 1981 to prepare a Regional Development Plan for the Federal Capital Territory. The report was submitted in January 1983. The Regional Plan strived to see the position of the FCT within the national context. An intensive analysis of man-made and non-man made characteristics was the basis of the proposals.

The proposals of the regional plan, according to the report, “describe a form of desirable, possible and feasible distribution of land uses in space”, the plan was also expected to “promote integration of the FCT and its components in the mainstream of economics, social and political life of Nigeria” (Doxiadis 1983; 895). While the plan had five planning areas the FCT is now made up of six area councils. The planning area as envisaged in the Regional Plan does not coincide with the areas designated for local government with all its implications. The regional plan had also been affected by the Federal government decision that resettlement should take place within the FCT instead of outside of it. This had resulted in the emergence of informal settlements on the outskirts of the new city (Oyesiku, 2010; 232) instead of the proper development of the centers identified in the regional plan. The Federal Capital City had taken more investment, political interest and attention to the detriment of the other settlements in spite of the influx of unskilled and low-income earners into the territory from different parts of the country. It is worthy of note that attempts at review of the Regional Plan in 1993 and 2010.
Ogun State Regional Plan
And Ogun State Plan (2005-2025) are two of such states. While the Ogun state regional plan divides the state into 5 contiguous sub-regions for implementation, its major focus is on population, land use, physical, social, economic infrastructure and human capital development. According to the Ogun State Urban and Regional Planning Board (2011), the regional plan had been a veritable window for discovering the prospects and the challenges which the state has to contend with and the options available to overcome the challenges. One significant finding in the study for the plan is that “the spatial distribution of the population of the State, the location of settlements and the concentration of people in the State were not even. The distribution shows that people were concentrated in the west-central and east-central parts of the State” (Oyesiku, 2010, 265). Ogun State was divided into five sub-regions and the development pressure area in the Regional Plan. Three main concepts of development were applied: a) Growth Pole/Centre Concept to consciously spread development maximize the exploitation of resources the different parts of the state are endowed, b) Dispersed Concentrated Development to spread but not duplicating development across the state; and c) Green Belt Concept in which certain areas around major cities/urban centers are designated as areas where no urban development is permitted so as to control the direction of development and expansion (Oyesiku, 2010). The Regional Planning exercise is reported to have enjoyed a high level of public input through the involvement of different segments of the State society-village square meetings, civil servants, legislators and the State Executive Council (Kadiri, 2010).
It is however worthy of note that since the report had been submitted no effort had been made to localize its proposals through master plans and other local plans. It is also hoped that the executive support being enjoyed by the plan will be sustained by future administrations.

Plateau State Regional Plan

a. Main Regional Problems/Concerns: The Report points out that two main issues are facing Plateau State Government. One, rural poverty - resulting both from limited opportunities and the inability of many to be properly productive. Two, the lack and poor distribution of facilities and services especially in rural areas where many of the basic necessities of modern life are missing,
for example, a decent water supply, proper health care, adequate roads and transport, and a reliable power supply leading to rural-urban migration. It was in the light of the above that the need for a comprehensive development strategy for the State arose. One of the arguments for the strategy is that population and employment opportunities in the State are not well matched and immigration and resettlement can be encouraged and assisted to achieve a healthier balance. That the long-term strategy became needful in order to recast the balance between the budgetary sectors and divert a greater share of finance, administrative capacity and technical skill away from the towns to the countryside.

The main purpose of the Regional Strategy is to outline broad economic, social, and land-use policies to guide development. This was to provide the State Government with a comprehensive framework for decisions affecting all sectors of public investment; private investment subject to government influence; and detailed planning and project identification.

**Niger Delta Regional Development Master Plan (NDRDMP)**

The Niger Delta region covers Delta, Rivers, Bayelsa, Cross River, Akwa Ibom, Edo, Ondo, Abia and Imo States. The Master Plan was finalized in 2005. The region typifies the paradox of “poverty in the midst of plenty”.

The problems range from poverty to environmental, infrastructure facilities/utilities and services, inadequate accessible land for development, transportation and telecommunication, inadequacy of capacity for governance, insecurity and civil unrest. The Vision of the Regional Master Plan “is to bring sustainable and even development, to establish a region that is economically prosperous, socially stable, ecologically regenerative and politically peaceful”.

Scenario building strategy was adopted in generating the plan which is tagged an integrated strategy for the region for 15 years (2005-2020). The scenarios include:

- “Environment First” Scenario;
- “Business as Usual/Do Nothing Approach” Scenario;
- “Service Based” Scenario;
- “Rural Emphasis” Scenario;
- “Urban and Industrial Enterprises” Scenario; and
Balanced and Integrated” Scenario;

A number of quick impact projects were identified to address development gaps and to lay a firm foundation for development activities.

The regional master planning process was recognized as ongoing and that work on the plan does not stop with the production of a written report (or Master plan as a final product). In terms of participation in the planning process, all the Governors of the nine States were involved in making the plan an all embracing one, the primary stakeholders, the communities of the region through traditional leaders, youth’s leaders and other representatives, the civil society organizations in the Niger – Delta region, international agencies- the UNDP, World Bank, and the European Union (Alaibe, 2005; Kadiri, 2010).

The NDRMP keys into the NEEDS and LEEDS programmes of the Federal and stake-holder State Governments in the region. The Nigerian’s Vision 20:2020 Plan for the Niger Delta region has the overall objective to promote sustainable poverty reduction by strengthening local governance and participatory planning, ensure sustainable use of renewable natural resources and the construction of critical social infrastructure. Priority will also be given to the provision of basic education and health facilities in the region (NV20: 2020, p. 86).

Other regional plans included the Integrated Regional Plan for Nigeria which was prepared between 1988 and 1990 with a ten-year plan period. It examined problems, gaps and deficiencies in the planning and management of urban and regional development in Nigeria. The goals set for the plan included enhancement of over-all national development through the maximization of regional growth potentials and reduction of regional urban-rural and other territorial disparities with respect to economic development. The plan’s existence is not known beyond the federal ministry that commissioned it and had not been revised over a decade beyond its target date. River Basin Development Authorities charged with the responsibility for agricultural development, infrastructure development as well as rural development, flood and erosion control as well as pollution also constitute another category of regions. It is doubtful whether these authorities have been able to effectively carry out these responsibilities.
Critics have come to the conclusion that the RRDAs have not been of much help in rural and therefore regional development in the country. Some of the reasons for the seeming failure had been attributed to the extraordinarily wide range of functions laid down for the Authorities, competition between the River Basin Authorities and the various state authorities. As pointed out by Akanmu et al (2007) “the interface was not managed properly, the roles, functions and coordinating mechanisms not defined clearly, quite obviously far too much was attempted”. Other reasons for the failure of the efforts of the RBRDAs apart from policy inconsistency included financial mismanagement, political antagonism between state and federal governments manifested in such practices as the denial of approval of land to some authorities by some state governments (Akindele and Adebo, 2004).

It can be concluded just as Okafor (2004) observed that Nigeria’s post–1975 development policies provide a good framework for addressing the problem of uneven development and if based on normative goal – oriented planning, it has the potential for addressing the fundamental causes of uneven development.

**STRATEGIC PLANNING**

The concept of strategic planning emerged in the United State of America in the 1960s to facilitate long term decision making in the private sector. It evolved into the broader concept of strategic management in the following decade addressing the need to integrate planning with implementation. Strategic urban planning over past decades have witnessed the metamorphosis of the role of the urban planner in the planning process (Forester, 1987)

While strategic planning is a systematic, formally documented process for decision making over a specified period of time with specified goals to be achieved, the strategic plan is a set of statements describing the purpose and conduct of an organization together with the specific strategies designed to achieve the targets set for each of these. The strategic plan generates a set of definite, short and medium term goals with defined outcomes and the modality for periodic evaluation of how far such goal have been achieved in pursuit of Ambitious Statement.

An effective strategic planning Approach has to have the following:

(i) Setting objectives for long term performance of the organization.
(ii) Analyzing the factors internal to the organization and in the environment of the organization that give rise to the most important issues for any strategic plan to address.

(iii) Generating strategic options for addressing the most important issue.

(iv) Deciding among the options.

(v) Monitoring the results of implementing the strategies.

One important strategic plan for Nigeria is the USAID/Nigeria Country Strategic Plan 2004 – 2009. The document lays out USAID/Nigeria’s vision for its support to Nigeria’s political, social and economic development for the years 2004 to 2009. Nigeria’s development needs are enormous and the Country Strategic Plan (CSP) is grounded in USAID’s comparative advantage and areas of engagement that provide the best opportunities for maximum results. The democratic government came into office in 1999 on a platform that promised macroeconomic policy reform, poverty alleviation, improved service delivery, universal basic education, accountable government and reduced corruption. But the legacy of military rule was not so readily overcome and most of these promises have not yet been realized.

USAID/Nigeria’s planning process for the 2004 – 2009 Country Strategic Plan is distinguished by the comprehensive stakeholder consultation process that informed strategy development. Well over one thousand individuals, representing more than 400 organization, participated, and endorsed USAID/Nigeria’s program goal.

USAID/Nigeria is committed to working in all six geopolitical zones of Nigeria, with the provision that not all programs can be implemented in all zones. The sheer immensity of the country and the reduced resource levels for the CSP have necessitated geographic targeting if results and impact are to be achieved. The Mission accordingly developed a set of criteria for the prioritization of target state. Criteria for the selection of target states include: criteria need, build on transition programme, size of population, potential to achieve results and impact, USAID comparative advantage, opportunity for scaling up and sustainability, other donor presence, synergy with other USAID/USG programmes and public-private partnership. The application of these criteria identified the target states in table 1.
Table 1: Target States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>SO11</th>
<th>SO12</th>
<th>SO13</th>
<th>SO14</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abia</td>
<td>SE</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anambra</td>
<td>SE</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bauchi</td>
<td>NE</td>
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<td>Cross River</td>
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<tr>
<td>Delta</td>
<td>SS</td>
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<tr>
<td>FCT Abuja</td>
<td>NC</td>
<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kano</td>
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<td>SW</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nasarawa</td>
<td>NC</td>
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<tr>
<td>Plateau</td>
<td>NC</td>
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<tr>
<td>River</td>
<td>SS</td>
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The Strategic objectives of the Country Strategic Plan 2004 – 2009 set for achievement are:
SO12: Strengthened Foundations for Democratic Governance
SO13: Improved Livelihoods in selected Areas
SO14: Reduced Impact of HIV/AIDS in selected states.

Locally strategic planning is carried out in Lagos state with the strategic plans of the government for Lekki Free Trade Zone (2010 – 2030) and Badagry Tourism Plan (2010 -2030). The wide consultative approach involved the Lagos state government and private investors.

Development experience in the country has been characterized by increasing imbalance in regional development as well as between urban and rural areas. The need to increase the levels of distribution of basic necessities of life had been the justification for the preparation of Strategic Regional Development Plans for the six Geo-political Zones of the country.

The aim of the plans was to generate programmes and projects that would ensure an efficient utilization of the nation’s physical, social and economic resources as well as enhance orderly and balanced development in the country. As listed in the Strategic Plan for the North-East, the plan for the zone had the following aims:
i. To promote the creation of new growth poles/centers for economic rejuvenation and generation of employment opportunities;

ii. To stem population drift of the existing major urban centers (rural-urban migration);

iii. To promote sustainable regional development with a view to eradicate poverty; and

iv. To correct regional imbalance in order to enhance social and economic growth and development.

The strategic plans went on to identify regional development problems peculiar to each geopolitical zone. These problems included those related to the environment, ecology, drought, desertification/deforestation, soil erosion, water resources loss, transport and social infrastructure including health care and water supply, population and settlements and economics.

The process of the strategic regional plan started in November 2004 with award of contract to various consultants. The consultants visited the various states to collect necessary data and documents. The project was not concluded until about January 2007. The delay was attributed to many reasons including change of Minister. Reports were submitted and presented in stages including a stakeholders’ forum before the final report was presented.

**National Physical Development Plan**

The recommendations made included the need to prepare the National Physical Plan that will integrate the six Strategic Regional Development Plans into a single implementable document. This recommendation seems to have been adopted by the Federal Ministry of Works, Housing and Urban Development that had been reported to have commissioned a firm of consultants that will harmonize all the six strategic plans.

The Nigerian Urban and Regional Planning Law, 1992, provides for the establishment of the National Urban and Regional Planning Commission which, among other functions, is to initiate and implement a National Physical Development Plan (NPDP). Almost 20 years since the enactment of the law, neither the Commission nor a finalized NPDP is on ground.

A key essence of the NPDP is to provide the national context for the preparation of regional and sub-regional plans by both the Federal and State Governments in the country. Currently efforts are on-going to prepare a 20-year (2010-2030) NPDP for the country. Its broad goal is to achieve balanced and sustainable development in Nigeria through effective integration of national social,
economic, and physical development plans as well as providing an overall strategic planning framework to guide development and capital infrastructure investment decisions at all levels in the country.

The NPDP’s justification is said to lie in the fact that a Federal Structure of governance like ours where exclusive and concurrent issues cross-carpet political boundaries requires a template for harmonization of local and regional needs and interests into the national scheme. Also, that the Seven-Point Agenda, NEEDS, and Vision 20: 2020 require a vehicle to drive them, and that NPDP is that vehicle. Two of the objectives of NPDP read:

i. To rationalize national spatial planning for economic efficiency and global competitiveness;

ii. And to secure spatial and environmental quality and diversity for a high quality of life.

**Development Action Plan for Niger State**

This is referred to as “Strategic Plan 2007-2011” (DAP, P.16). The document “is a veritable framework for the effective management of the State economy. It provides a platform for the implementation of programmes and projects that will facilitate the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). We are resolute in making Niger State a prosperous place for our people to live in happiness and security…” (DAP, P.5). The DAP states further that “Niger State will prosper economically, socially and culturally”. DAP took a holistic approach to the development of Niger State. “This careful planning exercise followed by sectoral implementation of the identified strategies should provide succor for rural and urban Nigerlities” (DAP P.6).

In terms of development challenges, Niger State is said to be dominated by two visible activities: agriculture and government (public) service. The absence of a virile private sector and low level of investment are reported to have made the State one of the least development States in the country. The overall development strategy of the State, therefore, is to use the agricultural endowments through private-public partnership to develop, industrialize and modernize the State’s economy for the improvement of the welfare of the people.
The Vision of DAP is “to transform Niger State into one of the top three economies in Nigeria by the year 2020 by being a model and leader in agro-based industrialization where there is employment and wealth creation opportunities for all in an atmosphere of peace (DAP, P.8).

The State’s major policy thrust and reform agenda are to revitalize the economy of the State and maximize the exploitation of the various potentials of the State to create wealth, empower the private sector and improve the welfare of the populace.

The Niger State Strategic Plan can be said to be a model of sectoral planning per excellence. Sectoral strategies, action, and implementation plans have been worked out for the following sectors of the economy:

a. Agriculture;
b. Education;
c. Health and social welfare;
d. Housing and environment; and
e. Infrastructure (for sustainable development in urban and rural settings), Commerce, industry, and tourism.

The action plan for each of the sectoral strategies have been worked out into detail together with their implementation schedule and presented under the following subheadings:

TARGET; STRATEGY; RESOURCES NEEDED; RESPONSIBILITY; TIME FRAME; COST; INTERVENTION STRATEGIES; PERFORMANCE INDICATORS; NOTES.

Scorecard of Niger State MDGs Office: In 2008, Niger State Government applied for the Conditional Grant Scheme and was able to access N504, 000,000.00 and provided a counterpart fund of almost the same amount to finance pro-poor projects across the 25 Local Government areas of the State. In less than a year later, the achievements included 200 Basic Health Centers (BHCs) constructed/renovated; 200 BHCs supplied with drugs and equipment; 200 Boreholes constructed and 900 reactivated; 11 Incubators/Accessories supplied; 40,000 insecticide treated mosquito nets supplied; 50 Tricycle Rural
Ambulances supplied; 10 Women Development Centers renovated/equipped; and Works Training School renovated and equipped (MDGs in Niger State, undated).

**Participation in the preparation of DAP:**
The plan document acknowledges with gratitude contributions/representations/submissions by members of the transition committee, policy and programmes committee, ministries, extra-ministerial departments and agencies, the civil societies, and development partners individuals and groups which were harvested and integrated in the document (DAP, p. 6 & 7).

**NIGER DELTA REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT MASTER PLAN (NDRDMP)**
The Niger Delta region covers Delta, Rivers, Bayelsa, Cross River, Akwa Ibom, Edo, Ondo, Abia and Imo States. The Master Plan was finalized in 2005. The region typifies the paradox of “poverty in the midst of plenty”.
The problems range from poverty to environmental, infrastructure facilities/utilities and services, inadequate accessible land for development, transportation and telecommunication, inadequacy of capacity for governance, insecurity and civil unrest. The Vision of the Regional Master Plan “is to bring sustainable and even development, to establish a region that is economically prosperous, socially stable, ecologically regenerative and politically peaceful”.

Scenario building strategy was adopted in generating the plan which is tagged an integrated strategy for the region for 15 years (2005-2020). The scenarios include:

- “Environment First” Scenario;
- “Business as Usual/Do Nothing Approach” Scenario;
- “Service Based” Scenario;
- “Rural Emphasis” Scenario;
- “Urban and Industrial Enterprises” Scenario; and
- Balanced and Integrated” Scenario;

A number of quick impact projects were identified to address development gaps and to lay a firm foundation for development activities.

The regional master planning process was recognized as ongoing and that work on the plan does not stop with the production of a written report (or Master plan as a final product). In terms of participation in the planning process, all the Governors of the nine States were involved in
making the plan an all embracing one, the primary stakeholders, the communities of the region through traditional leaders, youth’s leaders and other representatives, the civil society organizations in the Niger – Delta region, international agencies- the UNDP, World Bank, and the European Union (Alaibe, 2005; Kadiri, 2010).

The NDRMP keys into the NEEDS and LEEDS programmes of the Federal and stakeholder State Governments in the region. The Nigerian’s Vision 20:2020 Plan for the Niger Delta region has the overall objective to promote sustainable poverty reduction by strengthening local governance and participatory planning, ensure sustainable use of renewable natural resources and the construction of critical social infrastructure. Priority will also be given to the provision of basic education and health facilities in the region (NV20: 2020, p. 86).

**Comprehensive Infrastructure Master Plan for Lekki Sub-Region Lagos**

According to the Consultants that prepared this report, its objective “is to provide the conceptual designs for the roads and utilities and primary infrastructure for Lekki Peninsula” (dar al-handasah, 2008). The plan was based on an updated land use plan for “Lekki New City”. The land use plan was a product of an inclusive process involving the consultants, the state and Local governments and other stakeholders.

The project area, covered by the Lekki New City land use plan, is about 60,000 hectares in size within a naturally formed peninsula situated on “the Atlantic Ocean of Lagos Lagoon. It is about 80km long”. Lekki Peninsula in recent times had become attractive to up-scale property development and is undergoing tremendous expansion and development. The development of the peninsula had however been driven in an uncoordinated manner, hence it was suffering from what has been described as “a lack or uncoordinated services and development objectives and severe environmental degradation (dar al-handasah, 2008).

The report covered several sectors including “planning Parameters, environmental constraints, roads and transport studies, water supply, waste water collection and disposal, storm water management and solid waste management as well as power and telecommunication provision”. The report went on to determine the overall cost estimates of the provision of the infrastructure to be 19,775 million USD.
BORDER REGIONS DEVELOPMENT AND REGIONAL PLANNING:
Nigeria is bounded in the South – West by Benin Republic, North and North – East by Niger and Chad, and in the East by Cameroon. There are, in existence, therefore, Nigeria – Cameroon Border, Nigeria – Chad Border, Nigeria - Niger Border, and Nigeria – Benin Border areas/zones/regions.

Series of studies have confirmed ordinary intelligent observations regarding the nation’s border areas/regions, that is, localities and communities along and in close proximity to our international boundaries, as the most depressed socially and economically (and I add, environmentally): the most neglected of the proverbial “Neglected Rural Majority” (Asiwaju, 1993). Indicators of this include the fact that modern communication and transportation network peter out as one approaches the nation’s Frontier Zones in most localities, no provision of basic human needs of water, clothing, food and shelter beyond the people’s own self effort; no standard health and medical facilities including standard educational institutions; no electricity; no planned housing schemes; and no industries.

In the place of the above, border region communities get, most of the time, the rough side of the State, namely, operation of coercion apparatus, especially, the paramilitary border enforcement agencies whose conduct tends to generate negative attitude to government. The overall effect of this is the alienation rather than integration of these peripheries to their national and regional centers (FMA & RD, 2001). At the inter-country level, the Nigeria border regions and their communities are even more critically disadvantaged in their relation to the adjacent border regions of proximate foreign jurisdictions – each far less resourced than Nigeria is. A two-fold effect of this is bad advertisement of the nation to its immediate external world and the fact that the Nigerian border citizens get attracted more to the other side of the international boundaries by the “goodies” on those sides of the borders. Most critical, perhaps, is the fact that Federal Government must recognize the linkage between National Security and development of the border regions.

What is apparent, currently, is the fact that we are yet to see efforts by either individual or groups of States which are boundary - States undertaking formal regional planning of their border regions. Available literature point to piecemeal individual State efforts (Asiwaju, 1993) which have not yielded any eye-brow raising results because they are not coordinated or integrative.
The problem of gathering adequate and reliable data for planning and decision – making purposes is still biting us hard on the face in Nigeria. Planning without reliable statistics has been likened to trying to run through the forest in the dark without a torch-light (ILo, 1981, in Asiwaju (1993). Required data for planning of border regions should include:

(a) Mapped information on the boundary of border region including precise definition of the boundary;
(b) Number and location of all the communities (towns /villages) within the border region;
(c) Detailed land use data (i.e. inventory of productive activities);
(d) Natural resources inventory – including renewable and non-renewable resources);
(e) Inventory of infrastructure facilities such as rural education, health, communication / transportation, banking, markets, cottage industries etc; and
(f) Population growth rate and pattern of human migration.

A National planning Conference on the Development of Nigerian Border Regions was held in Lagos in 1989. Recommendations emanating from the communiqué at the end of the conference took care of most of the diverse issues, but a few need to be stressed. One, that there is a need to ensure the international boundaries are properly demarcated, surveyed and mapped to remove any obstacles in the way of development of the border regions. Two, there is the need to evolve ways and means of collecting data on which to base planning. Three, the necessity to promote trans-border cooperation in tackling problems of the usage of shared resources and solving ecological problems (desertification, pollution, erosion etc). Four, to evolve trans-border strategies for mutual defense and border security services. Five, consideration of the need to create model settlements for the purpose of providing infrastructure and other social amenities. Six, that an institutional framework should be established to evolve plans and oversee the development of border regions. The National Boundary Commission is considered to be responsible. It is to be noted that a border – region planning and development policy does not exist. The Bakassi Peninsula issue which ended in its seizure to Cameroon by the International Court of Justice and the inter- boundary development efforts by Nigeria and Cameroon is equally acknowledged. However, much more needs to be done in the area of all-round formal regional planning of all border regions in Nigeria.
GUIDED LAND DEVELOPMENT

Guided land development uses the provision of infrastructure as a mechanism to guide urban development. It is done in partnership with landowners who pay for the cost of servicing their land through donation of land for public infrastructure and payment of a betterment levy (UN–ESCAP, 1998). Guided land subdivision while being enticing on paper is often fraught with difficulties on the ground for two reasons namely:

(i) As the scheme depends on the content of the landowners it cannot be applied in areas with fragmented landowners. Too many landowners mean that greater time and effort is needed in building consensus. It is very likely that those landowners who have access to road will refuse to participate voluntarily. Landowners may want to continue the rural use of land.

(ii) Collection of betterment levies, particularly on an annual basis may not be acceptable to landowners. Or even if it is acceptable, they may for various reasons, default on the payments. The option of holding a land parcel as collateral against default of payment may not be feasible. Judicial proceedings in civil cases in most developing countries take several years to complete. This would mean that the particular parcel of land will be out of the market until the civil case is settled. Moreover, it may be politically undesirable to repossess lands of small landowners who are most to default.

GUIDED LAND DEVELOPMENT (GLD)

Despite these shortcomings GLD is a proactive planning tool for land development and is more efficient than regulatory planning or regularization. It is undertaken in situations where planning capacities as well as resources are inadequate to ensure sufficient land is supplied for expansion and the development of such land is guided in advance. A pre-requisite for the use of this tool is an outline strategic plan that identifies the main areas for phased urban expansion. Another important merit of “guided land development” lies in its protection of the areas of greatest environmental significance (UN-HABITAT, 2009, p.51). Its application is usually linked to programmes of major infrastructure investments.

The National “Sites and Services Programme” (NSSP) of the Federal Government (Ministry of Housing, Environment and Urban Development) of Nigeria is a Nigerian model of “guided land
development” planning tool. However, the NSSP- geared towards providing a viable alternative to outright construction of houses by government, - has the main goal of ensuring every adult Nigerian owns or has access to decent housing at affordable cost. Its objective is to provide serviced plots for sale in well laid out estates / through sale of land to members of the public, particularly the medium and low- income groups. It is on record that by 2001, more than 25,000 plots spreading across 24 States of the Federation had been allocated in various States (Federal Ministry of Housing and Urban Development, 2003 p.23). This achievement may be considered modest but the spirit and purpose of NSSP is laudable and should be sustained, promoted and extended to other major land uses such as industrial. Infrastructure planning and investments form major components of land use planning and zoning and can or should be used to guide urban growth away from informal developments and to attract developments to preferred locations. The attraction of secondary centers within extended city – regions so as to reduce congestion in the city through promotion of links between them, is a good example. This instrument can therefore be used to promote development in planned direction and to generate revenue for public investment.

It is important to point out that the GLD as a planning tool could also be applied in situations where partnerships with private formal and informal or low income land owners or groups in order to consolidate parcels of land for service provision and subdivision by way of mutually beneficial agreements is essential. Unrealistic standards and cumbersome planning procedures should be reviewed to allow flexible attitudes to standards and participatory approaches adopted. Working with those who provide large quantities of affordable land and housing, through advice and advocacy should be stressed rather than stringent regulation. Phased development should be ensured. This approach, known as “land readjustment” is particularly relevant where public authorities find it challenging to assemble sufficient land and finance for infrastructure and investment and acquisition of sites for major public facilities due to the fact that they may no longer possess extensive land areas and need to work with private owners and developers.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION
The administrative and legal structure put in place recently in Nigeria by the various levels of government leaves no one in doubt as to its awareness of the need to plan. Attempts have been made by the governments at all levels to tackle the problem created by the past and present
growth and development process within various communities. Town planning departments were created within the relevant federal and state government ministries, while local planning authorities were also established at the local government level by the state governments. In addition, several ad hoc planning related bodies are set up by federal and state governments. These agencies have the responsibility to effectively plan the towns, regions, and indeed, the entire entity known as Nigeria, yet physical planning and socio-economic developmental activities in the cities have remained uncoordinated, further exacerbating cumulative urbanization problems presently being experienced.

This may not be surprising because physical environment has always been a reflection of political ideology and social philosophy of any given society. A situation where one cannot pinpoint any political ideology or any social philosophical orientation for Nigeria, it stands to reason that physical, like all other things, cannot but be a muddling through affair.

The political climate of Nigeria since independence has been very cloudy with the military group at the helm of affairs for a better period of the fifty years of Nigeria as an independent nation. Unfortunately, the military class was very barren of any social philosophy as most of the older generation in the military (who were the leaders) had no sound intellectual/educational background before their training in the force. One can say categorically without any fear of contradiction just as Agbola and Olodoja (2004) that planning during the pre-colonial and colonial period in Nigeria had sound ideological and philosophical bases than what obtained at present.

However, individual planners have been contributing in their various small ways by the development of both the theories and practice of planning. The impact of their contributions have not been sufficiently felt in the physical environment with the haphazard way the physical planning tools have been applied in the country.

It has been revealed that the use of the master plan as an old and common tool for physical planning today (since 1999) is not uniform throughout the federation. It is more commonly used in northern Nigeria than in the other geopolitical zones of the country.

A number of reasons may be adduced for its unpopularity in certain parts of the country. The most obvious reason is that the preparation of a master plan is expensive in terms of resources and time that will be invested to justify its preparation. A civilian government would rather
invest such huge resources into putting in place physical infrastructures such as roach, housing and water supply which will be visible to the electorate as evidence of democracy dividends forgetting that the provision of these infrastructures can only be effectively provided within the context of an overall physical development plan such as the master plan. Secondly, successive administrations at all the levels of government have no appreciation for physical planning as a separate sector of the economy requiring attention.

The result of the ineffective use of existing planning instruments to guide the development of our cities and regions is that developers disregard development control and regulations put in place by planning agencies. The contravention of planning regulations include developing without planning approval, inadequate space provision, none conformity with approved plans and change of use. Others include building in stream setbacks, lack of access rounds and inadequate road setbacks. The resulting poor and unplanned structure and form of the cities with attendant insanitary condition uncontrolled physical growth and development, non-functioning infrastructural facilities is a call to all tiers of government to wake up to their responsibilities.

In order to effectively apply existing planning tools to improve the physical environment and quality of life of Nigerians, there should be adequate and proper coordination and cooperation between the various tiers of government with regards to physical planning matters. For instance, in dealing with system-oriented issues, the national spatial development plans should cover the entire nation, state/regional plans should be made to fit into national; sub-regional plans prepared to fit into the regional; urban plans to fit into sub-regional/regional plans while rural plans made taking into consideration urban and sub-regional plans.

This scenario provides a linked sequence/hierarchy of plans and brings the three levels of government through their respective spatial planning institutions into an interdependent working relationship which in turn, must be seen to have planning ideologies and philosophies to drive physical planning. The implication is that political appointees (ministers, commissioners, advisers), public office holders in government ministries and parastatals and consultants who belong to the physical planning profession must be the “driving force” of government otherwise
their appointments would be a waste and the much desired environment that satisfies the need and welfare of Nigerians will be a mirage.

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State of Planning Report

[Chapter 4]

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CONTEMPORARY ISSUES FOR URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING IN NIGERIA

Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to review some contemporary issues that are germane to the theory and practice of the Urban and Regional Planning profession in Nigeria. The issues covered are: Urban and Peri-Urban Agriculture; Climate Change Impacts on the Millennium Development Goals; Climate Change and Cities; Sustainable Cities Programme; Water and Sanitation; and Physical Planning and Achievement of the Nigeria Vision 20: 2020; Governance and Cities infrastructure; Planning, Planners and Plans, and Planning practice. Consequently, the chapter is divided into major sections in that order. Relevant lessons are drawn for further examination and mainstreaming into the country’s physical planning process.

1.0 URBAN AND PERI-URBAN AGRICULTURE IN NIGERIA

1.1 Introduction

Attention to urban and peri-urban agriculture has increased markedly in the last couple of decades. Urban and peri-urban agriculture can be defined as the growing of plants and raising of animals for food and other uses as well as related activities such as production and delivery of inputs, processing and marketing of products within and around cities and towns. Globally, the number of activities to promote urban agriculture has grown, but urban farmers in many cities in the developing world still struggle to get their main survival strategy recognized by the government and city authorities. The United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) introduced the acronym UPA, that is, Urban and Peri-urban Agriculture in reference to agriculture that takes place within the built-up city and peri-urban agriculture referring to agriculture in the areas surrounding the cities (Nugent 2000). Urban agriculture is located within or on the fringe of a city. It comprises of a variety of production systems, ranging from subsistence production and processing at household level to fully commercialized agriculture. It is generally characterized by closeness to markets, high competition for land, limited space, and use of urban resources such as organic solid wastes and wastewater, low degree of farmer organization, mainly perishable products, as well as high degree of specialization.

1.2 Role of Urban and Peri-Urban Agriculture in Food Security and Poverty Reduction

UPA plays an important role in enhancing urban food security since the costs of supplying and distributing food to urban areas. Due to insufficient domestic production Nigeria commits a substantial amount of money on food imports. In 2004,
N279, 979 million was spent on food imports rising to N1, 009,059 million in 2006. Between 2004 and 2008 N2,742,307 million\(^1\) was spent on food imports with processed food accounting for 50.65% while primary or unprocessed represented 49.4% National Bureau of Statistics (2009). A cursory examination of the consumer price index listed in Table 1 during the same reporting period, indicates that, the food price index is one of those that experienced the highest appreciation from 126.1 in 2004 to 206.1 in 2008. A recent report on Global Food Prices by the Food and Agriculture Organization (2011) predicts that Nigeria could spend up to N802 billion on food imports in 2011. This further reinforces the imperative of UPA since rural agriculture does not satisfy the demand for food, especially for the poor in the country\(^2\).

To a large extent, UPA complements rural agriculture and increases efficiency of national food systems through increased supply of perishable products such as vegetables, fresh milk and poultry products. Thus, UPA could help in conserving foreign exchange earnings that might have been used on food importation and such savings could be used in meeting other needs. More importantly, since the productive capacity of human resources is a function of how well fed they are, UPA provide ready source of diversified variety of food commodities especially vitamin rich fresh vegetables which are important sources of nourishment for the body and thereby contributing to healthy living.

### Table 1.1: Urban Nigeria Consumer Price Index as at December: 2004 – 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commodity</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>126.50</td>
<td>162.90</td>
<td>166.40</td>
<td>181.40</td>
<td>206.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; Non-Alcoholic Beverages</td>
<td>126.30</td>
<td>162.40</td>
<td>166.00</td>
<td>181.20</td>
<td>205.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcoholic Beverages, tobacco and kola</td>
<td>115.50</td>
<td>133.50</td>
<td>162.50</td>
<td>178.80</td>
<td>172.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing and footwear</td>
<td>113.00</td>
<td>120.70</td>
<td>151.50</td>
<td>157.60</td>
<td>165.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels</td>
<td>159.10</td>
<td>155.40</td>
<td>198.50</td>
<td>234.30</td>
<td>262.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furnishing and household equipment maintenance</td>
<td>115.50</td>
<td>132.30</td>
<td>151.20</td>
<td>172.70</td>
<td>184.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>112.60</td>
<td>141.00</td>
<td>159.00</td>
<td>162.50</td>
<td>170.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>115.00</td>
<td>129.70</td>
<td>159.30</td>
<td>184.60</td>
<td>175.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications</td>
<td>245.50</td>
<td>241.80</td>
<td>238.80</td>
<td>247.50</td>
<td>242.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation and Culture</td>
<td>120.70</td>
<td>124.70</td>
<td>153.20</td>
<td>151.80</td>
<td>152.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>162.80</td>
<td>182.50</td>
<td>205.70</td>
<td>255.90</td>
<td>270.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants and hotels</td>
<td>132.70</td>
<td>124.30</td>
<td>195.70</td>
<td>230.70</td>
<td>260.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous, goods and services</td>
<td>141.10</td>
<td>156.00</td>
<td>164.00</td>
<td>179.80</td>
<td>192.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All items less farm produce and energy</td>
<td>122.40</td>
<td>133.40</td>
<td>163.20</td>
<td>188.70</td>
<td>205.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All items less farm produce</td>
<td>137.80</td>
<td>142.70</td>
<td>176.00</td>
<td>201.30</td>
<td>217.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All items</td>
<td>131.30</td>
<td>155.50</td>
<td>171.60</td>
<td>191.40</td>
<td>213.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The base year of 2003 is May, 2003 = 100

\(^1\)This is definitely a conservative estimate due to smuggling and under reporting of food imports.
\(^2\)The National Bureau of Statistics does not have disaggregated data on UPA at this point in time, hence it is impossible to depict and or assess the contribution of this activity in terms of employment and contribution to the national GDP and local economy.
In addition to enhanced food security and nutrition of the urban producers themselves, UPA produces large amount of food for other categories of the population. It was estimated that 200 million urban residents produce food for the urban market providing 15 to 20 percent of the world’s food (Margaret Armar-Klemeasu, 2000). Improved access to fresh food from urban agriculture directly relates to improved health. UPA therefore, plays an effective role of bringing food commodities to urban consumers in their fresh forms and thus enhances acceptability of food by the consumers. Besides, the fact that UPA provides opportunities for the unemployed and the non-rich implies its critical importance for socio-economic development of a nation in addition to reducing insecurity and vulnerability while enhancing political stability.

Also, urban agriculture contributes to local economic development and poverty alleviation by lifting hundreds of millions of people out of extreme poverty. It contributes to social inclusion of the urban poor and women in particular, as well as to the greening of the city and the productive reuse of urban wastes. According to The Observer, May 26, 1996, an estimated 800 million of the world's city-dwellers grow food or keep livestock in cities for consumption or as a source of income thereby providing a complementary strategy to reduce urban poverty and food insecurity and enhance urban environmental management.

Furthermore, urban agriculture provides other services such as animal health services, bookkeeping, and transportation. It also brings about social inclusion and gender consideration as well as incorporation of disadvantaged groups such as immigrants, disabled people, female-headed households, elderly people without pension, as well as the unemployed youths by integrating them more strongly into the urban network, providing them with a decent livelihood and preventing social problems. UPA creates opportunity for production of necessary agricultural inputs such as compost. The landscape and biodiversity of cities are by UPA as well.

From the gender perspective, around 65 percent of the world’s urban farmers are women. Promotion of urban agriculture with due attention to gender aspects may lead to an increase in women participation in agriculture. The disposal of waste has become a serious problem in many cities hence urban agriculture can contribute to solving this problem by turning urban wastes into a productive resource through compost production, and irrigation with wastewater. In the next section, an overview of selected UPA case studies in Nigeria is presented.

### 1.3 An Overview of Some UPA Case Studies in Nigeria

Gbadegeasin (1991) in a case study of urban agriculture in Ibadan found that inability of rural farmers to cope with the food demands of the urban population, generated interest in promoting the development of UPA practices. He asserted that economic needs and knowledge of UPA contributed to the transformation of the land left over by urbanization into gardens, which are dominated by short cycle crops and annual cycle crops. These gardens were developed to satisfy the desire to generate household income, improve family nutrition and improve the aesthetics of the surroundings. Thus, UPA contributes to the livelihoods and well being of urban populations. He further stated that despite the contribution of UPA to household food security,
employment generation, and poverty reduction in Ibadan, UPA has not received adequate recognition and policy support.

Still another study carried out in Ibadan on UPA by RUAF in 2007 found that more than 5,000 farmers were engaged in this primary economic activity in just three LGAs. About 26% of this number was involved in livestock, while 73% concentrated on crop production. Most of the farmers practiced farming throughout the year, contributing to the availability of fresh produce throughout the year in the city. The majority of the UPA farms for the production of livestock and crops respectively in Ibadan were located at the backyards and vacant land. Land used for UPA was either inherited leased or bought. The land locations and types of holdings vary widely while the land use system was described as being precarious and unsustainable. About 50% of the farmers had full access and control over land compared with just 27% and 22% with full access and control over credit/fund respectively.

In addition, another study was carried out on the resource use efficiency among urban vegetable farmers in Akwa Ibom state, Nigeria by Okon, et al (2009). The study revealed that urban agriculture is profitable. However, lack of access to credit facilities, scarcity of land, poor visits by the extension agents, high cost of planting materials, problem of pest and diseases were found to be the constraints.

Furthermore, a study of producer perceptions and practices in urban aquaculture was conducted in Lagos metropolis by Adeogun and others in 2007. They concluded that, opportunities exist for the government to improve aquaculture productivity through the promotion of appropriate production and extension technologies that are environmentally friendly.

1.4 Challenges and Constraints to Urban and Peri-Urban Agriculture in Nigeria

In spite of the economic importance of UPA, governments at national and sub-national levels in Nigeria have either underrated or overlooked this economic activity. It is an irony that in the country, urban managers sometimes even try to outlaw UPA by ejecting farmers from land they are using productively, whereas city authorities ought to initiate programmes aimed at developing the sub-sector and creating job opportunities. Although an insight into the potential health risks of UPA is growing, detailed information on its actual health impacts is still scanty. The fear of contaminated food and other health risks associated with UPA should not be exaggerated but such risks need to be compared to those of rural agriculture. Nonetheless, the health risks associated with UPA such as exposure to germs from organic manure and untreated wastewater for crop irrigation as well as contamination of produce by vehicle emissions should be taken seriously.

As the population of the urban poor practicing agriculture increases, there is an increased competition for the available urban land. For instance; urbanization leads to an increasing demand for land by estate developers for housing, and commercial facilities which thus reduces access to lands for farming activities. This could increase the risk of UPA as urban structures could come without notice and midway into a planting season thereby destroying the crops planted. In addition, there is also the risk
of low investment and hence low productivity of this type of agriculture because of under capitalization of the poor who are engaged in it. The achievement of food security and adopting appropriate nutrition by the urban population, particularly the poorest households where rural food production and rural-urban food flows is limited, is a major concern to city authorities. Urban households need to also have access to and be able to afford adequate food and nutrition in order to enjoy healthy living. Other challenges to the practice of UPA include the following:

- Crop losses caused by pest and diseases infestation, partly due to high costs of pesticide and pesticide application to control troublesome pests and diseases.
- Agricultural inputs such as improved seeds and fertilizers are expensive, especially for small-scale resource poor farmers who are unable to afford the high cost of inputs. However, the use of affordable organic fertilizer is desirable in the context of low input agriculture and environmental sustainability.
- Financial assistance from banks and financial institutions is difficult to obtain due to insufficient collateral and the long term nature of agriculture, especially livestock rearing.
- Poultry and livestock products sourced from outside Nigeria dispose of their commodities at low prices thus undermining the efforts of local urban and peri-urban farmers.
- Farmers practicing in urban and peri-urban areas are more dispersed and have a strong variation in social background, this probably account for their poor organization.
- Lack of an appropriate irrigation system and basic irrigation tools such as watering cans are equally a challenge.
- Finally, urban planning especially zoning ordinance do not specifically take into account and provide for urban and peri-urban agriculture.

1.5 Recommendations

- Government should accept the fact that UPA is one strategy to alleviate urban poverty and enhance food security, hence it should be sustained. It should facilitate urban farmers’ access to agricultural inputs. Organic fertilizers should also be encouraged as part of the national sustainable development strategies.
- Financial institutions including micro-credit institutions should devise ways of providing assistance to urban and peri-urban farmers.
- With a view to taking advantage of inputs and assistance from government and other interested stakeholders, farmers practicing in urban and peri-urban areas should organize themselves in form of cooperatives and register with relevant authorities.
- Contemporary urban planning regulations in the country, especially zoning ordinance should recognize UPA and therefore make adequate provision for it.
- In order to reduce the possibility of health risks regulatory agencies such as NAFDAC and state ministries of health and local departments of health should embark on health impact assessment as well as adequate public education and awareness campaigns.
2.0 CLIMATE CHANGE AND MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

2.1 Introduction

The Millennium Declaration is a global compact adopted by Member States of the United Nations Organisation (UN) in September 2000. It contains eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), ranging from eradicating extreme poverty to combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases. The MDGs detail out 18 specific development targets, each of which has a target figure, a time frame, and indicators designed to monitor the extent to which the target has been achieved. Whilst it is increasingly recognised that meeting the MDGs poses enormous challenges, and in many cases looks unlikely, few have factored in the additional challenges that climate change will pose in this context. According to Reid and Alam (2005), whilst meeting the MDGs poses enormous challenges, climate change will make the task even more difficult.

Climate change presents significant threats to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals especially those related to eliminating poverty and hunger and promoting environmental sustainability. According to endpoverty2015.org, addressing climate change presents unique opportunities to:

- advance sustainable development;
- encourage a more inclusive approach to economic growth;
- invent cleaner technologies to reduce greenhouse gas emissions while promoting growth;
- counter the worst environmental catastrophe;
- This requires shared understanding of long-term goals, effective leadership and an ability to build and facilitate concerted action among all players and at every level.

Fankhauser and Schmidt-Traub (2010) posited that when the MDGs were conceived more than a decade ago, little attention was paid to climate change. At the time several governments resisted the inclusion of climate change and its consequences on development into the Millennium Declaration (UN 2000) from which the MDGs were extracted in 2001. Whether intended or not, the discussion around the MDGs has largely assumed that Africa and other developing regions would experience stable climatic conditions. As a result, existing estimates of the cost of achieving the MDGs (e.g., UN Millennium Project 2005, Bourgignon et al. 2008, Ban et al. 2008) do not include the additional requirement for adaptation or provisions for a more hostile climate. Similarly, sectoral analyses of the cost of achieving individual MDG objectives generally do not include the additional cost of adapting to a changing climate (e.g., Jones et al. 2003).

2.2 Climate Change Impacts on the MDGs

An overview of the various ways by which climate change might impact all the eight MDGs is presented in this sub-section before focusing on the performance of Nigeria on the MDGs. This review borrows from the comprehensive work by Reid and Alam (2005).
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger (Goal 1)

Poverty and the environment exhibits a recursive relationship, hence poor people are generally the most vulnerable to climate change. This is because they live in areas more prone to flooding, cyclones, droughts, etc., and because they have little capacity to adapt to such shocks. They are also more dependent on ecosystem services and products for their livelihoods.

Climate change means that many semi-arid regions will become hotter and drier, with less predictable rainfall. Climate-induced changes to crop yields, ecosystem boundaries and species’ ranges will dramatically affect many poor people’s livelihoods. Food security is expected to worsen in Nigeria (NISER, 2010, BNRCC, 2009, Gworgwor, 2008).

Poor people are particularly vulnerable to extreme weather events, which are increasing. During 2001, 170 million people internationally were affected by disasters, 97% of which were climate-related. The African continent experienced one of the worst seasonal floods in 2009. The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) reports that heavy flooding displaced more than 25,000 people and killed dozens in West Africa before November, 2009. Nigeria also experienced flooding in Lagos, Ogun, Sokoto and Rivers states amongst others during the same period.

Achieve universal primary education (Goal 2)

Loss of employment and other assets may reduce opportunities for education in several ways. Natural disasters and drought may require children to help more with household tasks, leaving less time for schooling. Malnourishment and disease also impair learning. Weather-related disasters threaten school buildings in many poor countries. For example, in recent times, flooding, windstorms and rainstorms have destroyed school buildings in Osun, Sokoto, Ogun and Ekiti states.

Education becomes a low priority following the loss of a home or the need to migrate following a flood, storm or drought. More frequent and more severe weather-related disasters will increase the numbers of environmental refugees. Climate change-related disasters already displace more people than war and persecution, and according to Norman Myers of Oxford University, by 2050 up to 150 million people may be displaced by the impacts of global warming.

Promote gender equality and empower women (Goal 3)

Climate change is expected to exacerbate current gender inequalities. Women are usually responsible for fetching water, fodder, firewood and sometimes food in poor households. They therefore bear disproportionate hardship when provision of these vital necessities becomes difficult. In times of extreme stress, men often migrate leaving women and girls behind to cope with increased domestic and work burdens. With more work and more chores to undertake, additional stresses are placed on women’s health, and time available to participate in decision-making processes and other income-generating activities is reduced (Olokesusi, 2011, Akanji et al, 2009).
Health-related issues (Goals 4, 5 & 6)

Direct climate change effects include increases in mortality and illness associated with heat waves, particularly amongst the elderly and the urban poor. In some states in the country, heat stress may be balanced by fewer cold-related deaths in the hamattan season in the northern states. Extreme weather events will also cause more death and injury. Over 96% of disaster-related deaths in recent years have taken place in developing countries including Nigeria. Women and children are particularly vulnerable to extreme weather events. For example, when the 2010/2011 flooding occurred in Lagos and Ogun states, a very significant proportion of the victims were women and children.

Vulnerability to water, food, or person-to-person borne diseases (such as cholera and dysentery) is also likely to increase. Children and pregnant women are particularly susceptible to vector- and water-borne diseases. For example, anaemia (resulting from malaria) is responsible for a quarter of maternal mortality (NISER, 2010).

Climate change will probably cause a decline in the quantity and quality of drinking water, which is a prerequisite for good health. Malnutrition, an important source of ill health among children, could also be exacerbated due to declining natural resource productivity and food insecurity, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa.

Ensure environmental sustainability (Goal 7)

Global warming is likely to shift ecosystem boundaries. This may mean that some protected areas no longer protect species they were designed to conserve. The extinction rates of plant and animal species may increase, and for many species, climate change poses a greater survival threat than the destruction of their natural habitat. Shifts in reproductive cycles and growing seasons could also occur.

Degradation of biodiversity will reduce the availability of many traditional medicines which have now become increasingly relied upon by the poor and non-poor in all parts of the world. This will affect both groups but the poor and rural people would be most hit since they depend more on natural resources for income and food. Traditional healers and producers of herbal medicine such as Yet-Kem etc. would be affected.

Water supplies are expected to drastically decrease in many arid and semi-arid regions. In West and Central Africa, 20 million people in six countries including Nigeria rely on Lake Chad for water, but the lake has shrunk by 95% in the last 38 years.

Urban vulnerability is exacerbated by structurally weak buildings, poor drainage and development in derelict areas in Lokoja, Lagos, Onitsha, Maiduguri, Port-Harcourt and Katsina. It was found that overall; slum dwellers will be particularly vulnerable to climate change (NISER, 2010). This study found also that Communicable diseases and malaria incidence were claimed to be on the increase in some Nigerian cities due to climate change.
Global partnerships (Goal 8)

Climate change-related disasters could be costing the world US$300,000 billion within a few decades. The benefits of investment in development could be entirely absorbed by dealing with the costs of weather-related disasters. Some states in Nigeria such as Lagos and Bauchi as well as Abuja, depend to some extent on tourism, but climate change could destroy the plants and animal habitats, beaches, coastal and urban infrastructure on which this depends. Climate change will also severely impact the agricultural sector as found in the NISER (2010) study. All these factors could affect the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), level of indebtedness, state of public finances, and investment in development in Nigeria.

Beyond the traditionally held categorization of climate change as an environmental issue, it is clearly also a development issue: poverty reduction, food security, economic, health, human rights, governance and equality. It is an MDG issue! Climate change and global poverty have attracted a lot of attention in recent years as key global justice challenges of our times. Both are serious challenges to the future health and prosperity of the earth as explicitly exhibited in Table 1.1

### Table 1.1: Impacts of Climate Change on Poverty and the Millennium Development Goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Changes in mean climate, variability, extreme events and sea level rise</th>
<th>Impact on poverty</th>
<th>Impacts on the eight Millennium Development Goals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increase temperature and changes in precipitation, reduce agricultural and natural resources</td>
<td>Lowered industrial output and labour productivity, high inequality, impacts on treads and fiscal and macro-economic burdens lead to reduced economic growth, and poverty-reducing effects</td>
<td>1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in precipitation, run-off and variability leads to greater water-stress.</td>
<td>Reduced productivity and security of poor people’s livelihood assets, and reduced access for the poor to their livelihood assets</td>
<td>2. Achieve universal primary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased incidence or intensity of climate-related disasters leads to damage to assets and infrastructure</td>
<td>Less effective coping strategies among the poor, and increased vulnerability of poor people.</td>
<td>3. Promote gender equality and empower women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temperature, water and vegetation changes contribute to increased prevalence of disease</td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Reduce child mortality children more vulnerable to malaria and other diseases, which are spread more widely by climate change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5. Improve maternal health women particularly susceptible to malaria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other disease</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Increased prevalence of mosquito-borne diseases.

7. Ensure environmental sustainability
Climate change is an indication of unsustainable practices. More towards more energy efficient models of consumption.

8. Promote global partnership
Wider forums must acknowledge the role of climate change in impacting MDGs.


3. Climate Change and the MDGs in Nigeria

Although Nigeria like most African countries contribute very little climate change, it is particularly vulnerable to the effects, including reduced agricultural production, worsening food security, the increased incidence of both flooding and drought, spreading disease and an increased risk of conflict over scarce land and water resources. As enunciated by African Partnership Forum (2007), Africa is highly vulnerable to climate change with the areas of particular concern being water resources, agriculture, health, ecosystems and biodiversity, forestry and coastal zones. The longer-term impacts will include: changing rainfall patterns affecting agriculture and reducing food security, worsening water security and economic growth prospects; shifting temperature affecting vector diseases; and more challenging hurdles in reaching the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). According to the recent IPCC report, the cost of adaptation in Africa could be as high as 5 to 10% of the continent’s GDP.

Economic development and adaptation to climate change are closely linked, nowhere more so than in Africa. Nigeria therefore faces the biggest development challenges like other countries on the continent (Sachs et al. 2004, Commission for Africa 2005). It is also one of the most vulnerable places to climate change anywhere in the world, even though it has contributed a negligible share of global greenhouse gas emissions even in spite of gas flaring in the Niger Delta. Among the most prominent impacts that may affect Nigeria are (e.g. NISER, 2010, Olokosesi, 2010, NEST, Boko et al. 2007, Collier et al. 2008, Müller 2009, Stern 2007, UNCCD et al. 2009, FRN 2003):
- a drop in agricultural yields;
- an increase in the number of people at risk of water stress;
- an increase in the exposure to malaria;
- rising sea levels that may severely affect mangrove forests as well as coastal fisheries, and lead to increased severe flooding in places like Lagos and Port-Harcourt;
- An increase in urban vulnerability;
- An increase in the vulnerability of physical infrastructure;
- Extreme difficulty in meeting the MDGs.
The performance of Nigeria on the MDGs is a mixed bag as depicted by Table 1.2. Without any doubt Goal 1 which is to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger is far from being realised. There is in fact more hunger today than in 2000. Poverty has not declined in spite of the various programmes on poverty alleviation embarked upon by federal and state governments in the country. Under Goal 3, the 2009 data of 63% on total primary school enrolment is not encouraging just as is the maternal mortality ratio of 840 per 100,000 births which is one of the highest in the world. With respect to Goal 7 the results are far from satisfactory especially access to improved sanitation and safe water as well as proportion of land area under forests. There are however, bright areas such as access to cell phones and Internet plus gross national income per capita.

As a matter of fact a 2005 evaluation of Nigeria, along side other 23 countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa projected that meeting of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), particularly with respect to child and maternal health, will elude the country because of climate change and other multiple stresses (UNDP, 2005).

Table 1.2: Nigeria’s Performance on the MDGs 2000 and 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employment to population ratio, 15+, total (%)</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment to population ratio, ages 15-24, total (%)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income share held by lowest 20%</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malnutrition prevalence, weight for age (% of children under 5)</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty gap at $1.25 a day (PPP) (%)</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty headcount ratio at $1.25 a day (PPP) (% of population)</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of undernourishment (% of population)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vulnerable employment, total (% of total employment)</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate, youth female (% of females ages 15-24)</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate, youth male (% of males ages 15-24)</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistence to last grade of primary, total (% of cohort)</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary completion rate, total (% of relevant age group)</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total enrolment, primary (% net)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of female to male primary enrolment (%)</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of female to male secondary enrolment (%)</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of female to male tertiary enrolment (%)</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of women employed in the non-agricultural sector (% of total non-agricultural employment)</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Goal 4: Reduce child mortality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal 4: Reduce child mortality</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immunization, measles (% of children ages 12-23 months)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mortality rate, infant (per 1,000 live births)</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mortality rate, under-5 (per 1,000)</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Goal 5: Improve maternal health

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal 5: Improve maternal health</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15-19)</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Births attended by skilled health staff (% of total)</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contraceptive prevalence (% of women ages 15-49)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal mortality ratio (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births)</td>
<td>980</td>
<td>840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pregnant women receiving prenatal care (%)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unmet need for contraception (% of married women ages 15-49)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children with fever receiving anti-malarial drugs (% of children under age 5 with fever)</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condom use, population ages 15-24, female (% of females ages 15-24)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condom use, population ages 15-24, male (% of males ages 15-24)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidence of tuberculosis (per 100,000 people)</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of HIV, female (% ages 15-24)</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of HIV, male (% ages 15-24)</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of HIV, total (% of population ages 15-49)</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuberculosis case detection rate (%, all forms)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO2 emissions (kg per PPP $ of GDP)</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO2 emissions (metric tons per capita)</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest area (% of land area)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved sanitation facilities (% of population with access)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved water source (% of population with access)</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marine protected areas (% of total surface area)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The increased incidence of extreme weather events means that disaster management and social protection measures like access to emergency cash move up the priority list for development spending (e.g. Global Humanitarian Forum 2009). A good example of such a measure is the Productive Safety Net Programme in Ethiopia, an employment-based transfer programme for families affected by food insecurity (UNDP 2007). These activities are recorded as “additional development interventions”, reflecting the fact that they are primarily developmental in nature even...
though they were not included in the assessment by the MDG Africa Steering Group. However, Nigeria is yet to put in place any such programme.

4 Conclusion
With a view to mitigating the most severe development-related impacts of climate change, Nigeria should explore and adapt new approaches in the following areas. Vigorous adaptation to improve resilience of vulnerable communities during the current national medium term development plan and beyond – implementation of adaptation actions on the basis of:

• Robust climate scenarios and socio-economic impact assessments;
• Financial needs assessments;
• Capacity building and risk management strategies;
• Integration of adaptation actions into sectoral and national development planning inclusive of physical planning;
• The development of risk management and risk reduction strategies; including insurance, and disaster reduction strategies;
• support the design of policies that are appropriate for a world of uncertainty, change and surprise.

As recognised by Nigeria’s Vision 20:2020, there is the need to mainstream climate change adaptation and mitigation through greater focus on local adaptive capacity, community engagement and participation. Additional areas for intervention include the following:

• ensuring rights to land, forests, water, energy and livelihoods for their poorest people;
• Integration of accelerated programmes to prevent forest loss into national MDG-based sustainable development plans as part of their contribution to global mitigation;
• Prioritisation of renewable energy resources such as wind, hydro and solar;
• enhance transparency and accountability to their citizens, particularly the poor, in planning and implementing climate risk reduction measures and utilizing the domestic and external finances at their command;
• increasing greatly the resilience of people especially the poor affected by climate change through a variety of locally defined solutions; and
• implement the climate and disaster risk reduction strategies in the MDGs-sensitive Nigeria’s Vision 20: 2020.

CLIMATE CHANGE AND CITIES: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR NIGERIA

3.1 Introduction
Climate Change and Cities

Recently, the National Emergency Management Agency claimed that in 2010, twenty-three states in the country were affected by devastating flood disasters (Tribune 13, June 2011: 46). NIMET (2011) has predicted excessive rainfall to be followed by flooding this year. This portends danger for some residents in the country’s urban settlements especially where residential buildings have been built either near surface water bodies or on flood plans. In Port-Harcourt for instance, 33.9% of the 200
buildings sampled fell into this category while it was 29.2% in Maiduguri (NISER, 2010).

3.2 Challenges Posed to Cities by Climate Change

Climate change related risks pose daunting challenges. At the global level, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Working Group I identified four major aspects of climate change relevant to cities in its synthesis report (IPCC, 2007). First, heat waves are very likely to increase in frequency over most land areas, this is a concern in Nigeria’s arid and semi-arid zone such as Borno, Sokoto, Katsina, Kano, Jigawa, Zamfara and Yobe states (Gworgwor 2008). Second, heavy precipitation events are very likely to increase in frequency over most areas; third, the area affected by drought is likely to increase. There is high confidence that many semi arid areas will suffer a decrease in water resources due to climate change. The acute decline in the Lake Chad is a good confirmation of this scenario UNEP, 2006, Gwary, 2008). Fourth, it is likely that intense tropical cyclone activity will increase. It is also likely that there will be increased incidence of extreme high sea level. Nigeria is presently experiencing these unwholesome changes and hazards (Gwary, 2008).

Specifically, the third thematic area focus of IPCC is on human settlements owing to their importance. The IPCC Third Assessment Report (IPCC, 2001) concludes that settlements are among the human systems that are the most sensitive to climate variability and change. For example, projected changes in climate extremes could have devastating consequences for human settlements that are vulnerable to droughts and wildfires, floods and storm surge, heat waves, land slides and windstorms.

3.3 Urban Vulnerability to Climate Change

The impacts and vulnerability of settlements to climate change are most visible in the urban areas. The condition of the world’s cities has often been described in terms of ‘urban crises’, implying complex problems, frequent breakdowns in services and a general lack of policy, programmes or funding. Indeed cities can be seen as crucibles of hazards that, without good management, generate extreme situations of vulnerability and risk for very large populations. In developing nations such as Nigeria, problems are commonly associated with rapid growth, social inequalities, and volatile flows of corporate investment, demographic change and environmental
neglect. Natural disasters simply exacerbate the existing social, physical and economic problems (Bull-Kamanga et al, 2003, NISER 2010).

Henderson (2004) revealed that the level of risk and vulnerability in urban areas of developing countries is most likely due to socio-economic stress, aging and inadequate physical infrastructure. Indeed, according to Satterthwaite et. al. (2007), hundreds of millions of urban dwellers have no all-weather roads, no piped water supplies, no drains and no electricity supplies; they live in poor-quality homes on illegally occupied or sub-divided land, which inhibits any investment in more resilient buildings and often prevents infrastructure and service provision. A high proportion of this are tenants, with very limited capacities to pay for housing – and their landlords have no incentive to invest in better-quality buildings. Most low-income urban dwellers face serious constraints in any possibility of moving to less dangerous sites, because of their need to be close to income-earning opportunities and because of the lack of alternative, well-located, safer sites. Climate change provides an additional threat that adds to, interacts with, and can reinforce existing risks, placing additional strains on the livelihoods and coping strategies of the urban poor (IPCC, 2001).

3.4 Urban Vulnerabilities to Climate Change in Nigeria

Human settlements in Nigeria will be affected by climate change in a variety of ways. Urban and rural population concentrations will be disrupted, particularly along the coastline due to sea-level rise and related phenomena. Some settlements are known to have already relocated farther inland from their original sites in response to sea incursion over some decades. Population displacement and migration from, and to, various human settlements will arise from either or both of drought incidence in the Northern states of the country and accelerated sea level rise in the coastal regions. Rises in sea-level will also threaten urban infrastructure facilities in low lying coastal regions such as Lagos, Ogun, Delta, Bayelsa, Rivers and A Ibom states.

Indeed, NIMET recently warned of increased rainfall, from between 300 to 1100mm in the North to between 1200 and 2700mm in the South. This is expected to lead to more floods with grave potential impact on public safety, agriculture, and transportation. In order to ensure safety, the Lagos State Government has advised residents of very flood prone areas such as Owode-Onirin, Agiliti, Ikosi-Ketu and
Isheri North Scheme to relocate from their homes for higher grounds during the period between June and January, next year.

Results of a study of urban vulnerability to climate change in Nigeria show that, these cities are quite vulnerable indeed. The cities studied in 2009 by NISER (2010) namely Lagos, Maiduguri, Onitsha, Port-Harcourt, Katsina and Lokoja exhibited signs of urban decay with a very significant proportion of the buildings requiring repairs of one type or the other. Most respondents in the cities claimed to experience temporal increase in extreme weather conditions and events. Flooding and wind storms are rampant in all of them with Lagos and Maiduguri most prone to flooding. Homes in Lagos and Lokoja require repairs than those in the other four cities while, open drains are very prominent in Maiduguri and Onitsha (See Table 3.2). The unwholesome development pattern and slum conditions in the country’s cities have been discussed by several authors and commentators such as Olokesusi and Adebayo, 2000, Onibokun et al 1989, Mabogunje 2005 amongst others.

Table 3.2: Type of Disasters that has Affected Buildings in the Sample Cities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Persistent Fire</th>
<th>Flooding</th>
<th>Thundersstorm</th>
<th>Heavy Wind/Winds Storm</th>
<th>Building Collapse</th>
<th>Collapsed pit latrine/Septic tank</th>
<th>Erosion</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Onitsha</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maiduguri</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katsina</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lokoja</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Harcourt</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All cities</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NISER (2010).

3.5 An Overview of Programmes and Initiatives on Climate Change in Nigeria

The federal government with support from some multilateral agencies have planned and executed a number of programmes and initiatives to adapt to climate change. In
the forefront of these development partners is UNDP. Some of such programmes and initiatives are:

1. The Nigerian Meteorological Agency (NIMET) is responsible for the provision of accurate and timely weather/climatic data used for airline operations maritime navigation, farming, urban development and research etc. The agency now generates current information for meteorological Early Warning System (EWS) which are based on models that utilize ground-based rain-gauge data and sea surface temperatures SST Kamuscu standardized precipitation index (SPI) inclusive. Because these methods are often limited by such factors as network density of stations, limited communication infrastructure and human inefficiency NIMET has embarked on the development of a new Satellite Agro-meteorological Information System (SAMIS – Nigeria) for famine and drought early warning. SAMIS combines satellite data with rain-gauge data to provide the range of forecast. In August 24, 2009 the government commissioned the NIMET Automated Data Transfer and Achieving System otherwise known as e-Met in Lagos. The agency has also completed the installation of thunder storms dictators to guarantee clear weather for flight operations. Besides, it is expected that by October, 2009 the Doppler Weather Radar System would be commissioned (Daily Trust August 24, 2009 p. 10).

2. Since 2000 the National Space Research and Development Agency (NASRDA) has been implementing the National Space Policy Programme which serves as a roadmap to the attainment of self-reliance, especially capacity building and training of space engineers and scientists and utilisation of space-derived data and information for national development and enhancement of social of well-being. The overarching thrust of the national space policy and programme is to integrate space research and development (R & D) activities with national planning policies and programmes for sustainable development. NASRDA in 2003 successfully launched an earth observation satellite known as NigeriaSat-1. The satellite which has medium resolution of 32 meters remains the first African Earth Observation Satellite and belongs to a consortium of micro satellite known as Disaster Monitoring Constellation. The data and information provided by NigeriaSat-1 have several applications salient among which are land cover and land use monitoring,
deforestation assessment and desertification monitoring, as well as ecosystem management.

The first satellite imagery of hurricane Katrina in the United States of America was provided by NigeriaSat-1; also it made available adequate satellite images during tsunamis in South-East Asia and forest fire in Australia, California and Algeria (Punch, 28 July 2009 p. 14). NASRDA recently concluded a study titled “Integrated Surface-Groundwater Management on Lake Chad Basin Using Satellite Images, Climate Data and Hydrological Modelling”. Some of the findings include the accelerated shrinking of Lake Chad, environmental degradation and potential loss of livelihoods by as much as 25 million people.

3. The National Centre for Remote Sensing (NCRS) located in Jos is a member of the National Space Research and Development Agency (NASRDA) group of centres. NCRS is mandated to undertake research, development and application of remote sensing, Geographic Information System (GIS) and related technologies toward the goal of using space technology for national development. The information obtained through this process is used for the assessment and management of natural resources as well as the environment.

4. Apart from the above, some civil society groups have also undertaken specific initiatives. A notable example is the Building Nigeria’s Response to Climate Change (BNRCC), an initiative of the Nigerian Environmental Study/Action Team (NEST) of Ibadan, Nigeria and Global Change Strategies International Ottawa, Canada and funded the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). It aims at helping build informed responses to climate change in Nigeria by enhancing capacity at the community state and national levels to implement effective adaptation strategies, policies and actions.

3.6 Urban Planning Implications for Climate Change

Vulnerabilities of lives and livelihood to climate-related environmental processes are primarily the result of inadequate and unsustainable urban planning practices associated with complex natural settings and societal structures. Vulnerability to
climate change varies considerably from settlement to settlement and even within settlements. The location, urban structure, dominant building type, socio-economic characteristics and institutional capacity are key factors that affect vulnerability and adaptive capacity of a settlement in the urban areas (NISER, 2010, Storch et al, 2009).

Historically in Nigeria, local town planning authorities and urban development boards conceived of physical planning in a parochial and environmentally neutral way. Therefore, emphasis is not on urban growth management with sensitivity to environmental issues, but on the physical layout of human settlements and often an indiscriminate issuance of development permits without a strong legal basis. The problems of urban floods in many Nigerian cities, for example, Lagos, Abeokuta, Ibadan, Ilorin, Maiduguri, Ibadan, Port-Harcourt and Benin, are partly attributable to poor development control practices and environmental insensitivity. Since physical planning is often perceived by local town planners in terms of ad hoc physical solutions to human settlement problems, it has tended to accentuate the problem it is supposed to ameliorate and or mitigate. As a result of the above situation, the Nigerian urban areas exhibit many of the characteristics associated with urban decay which makes them some of the most vulnerable cities in the world as evidenced by the frequent negative impacts of environmental emergencies and extreme weather events (NISER, 2010, Olorunfemi and Raheem, 2007, Izeogu, 1986).

The main task in downscaling climate change assessments on urban level is that every region has its own urban development issues and possible adaptation options. In general, there is a methodological gap between the regional climate change model and urban development scenarios, which limit effective impact assessment. Knowing future temperature, precipitation and flooding trends without knowing the general urban development path, limits the assessment of vulnerabilities of the future urban structures in relation to the future climate conditions in a regional context. For regional climate change projections, extreme events are more important than average events (Huq et al, 2005). It will be difficult to predict simultaneous increases in magnitude and frequency of events. For urban development scenarios a higher degree of flexibility is required but a rigorous approach is essential to produce spatially explicit and comparable results. on
3.7 Conclusion

Three initial lessons which were summarized by Mehrotra et al’s (2009) study which included Lagos are very relevant to Nigerian cities. First, a multidimensional approach to risk assessment is a prerequisite to effective urban development programmes that incorporate climate change responses. Second, mismatches between needs and responses are occurring in regard to who should mitigate, how much to adapt, and why. Cities need climate change risk assessment so that physical planners and city managers could decide the right mix between mitigation and adaptation. Third, the vertically and horizontally fragmented structure of urban governance in Nigeria is as much an opportunity as an obstacle to introducing responses to climate change.

The rationale for integrating climate change adaptation into development strategies and practices into urban management in Nigeria is buttressed by the fact that many interventions required to increase resilience to climatic change generally benefit development objectives. Adaptation requires the development of human capital, strengthening of institutions, and robust management of public finances and natural resources and local technological capability development. Such processes would build the resilience of Nigerian communities and households to all potential and probable shocks and stresses, including climate variability and change.

For the urban poor, it is only when adaptations reduce the vulnerabilities of their communities that we can describe the initiatives as successful, while also building in the potential to anticipate and react to further changes in climate in the future. Adaptation to climate change requires local knowledge, competence and capacity within local governments. It requires also, healthy households and community organizations with the knowledge and capacity to act as and when due and at short notice. It also requires a willingness among all local governments and key stakeholders to work with the non-rich in particular.

Although, it is not clear how much is invested by the Nigerian government yearly on urban climate change research, voluntary programmes, public education and awareness, and financial incentives to advance low-GHG-emitting technologies, there is no doubt that a paltry amount have been spent from time to time on combating the
obvious effects of climate change. For example, the problematic flooding of the Lagos coastal areas has recently attracted the financial attention of both the Lagos state and Federal Government of Nigeria. However, setting clear and realistic objectives for research and programmes remain a major and urgent challenge for the federal and state governments in the country. Of particular interest may be questions about the rate at which science (also integrated with the social sciences) can reduce uncertainties about the magnitude, rate, geographic distribution, and other characteristics of climate change, and the degree to which changes may be predictable, hence facilitating effective and timely adaptation. These questions are quite germane to the trade-off between acting sooner with imperfect information versus delaying action in expectation of reducing uncertainties.

Strategies to reduce urban vulnerability should be rooted in vulnerability assessment and greater understanding of both household-level (micro) and macro (national) response options that are available to decrease the people’s exposure to climate risk. Increasing the response-capability of Nigeria will require information on seasonal forecast to enable the preparedness to climate variability as well as longer term climate prediction data to ensure that strategies to reduce vulnerability also reflect the underlying longer-term climate trends.
SECTION FOUR
THE SUSTAINABLE CITIES PROGRAMME

4.1 Introduction

The growth of cities which is closely associated with the process of economic development and change has brought rewards to people all over the world in form of: higher incomes and material welfare; lower sickness and death rates; greater knowledge and freedom. But these are achieved at a great cost as heavy price has been paid in form of pollution, environmental degradation and destruction of resources. In addition, many people, particularly in the poorer and developing countries do not enjoy the benefits of development but are made to unduly suffer the costs. Growing awareness of these problems and fear of irreversible damage to the sustaining qualities of the Earth has brought the World’s attention to be focused on the need for Sustainable Development.

According to the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development, Sustainable development is defined as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs”. This view emphasizes on how decisions and actions today can affect the future, especially in relation to natural resource availability, environmental health and destruction of local and global ecosystems.

To help cities make the vital transition to sustainable development, the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat) now known as United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT) in August 1990 launched its worldwide Sustainable Cities Programme (SCP). The programme’s immediate background was collaboration between UNCHS (Habitat) and UNEP (United Nations Environment Programme) which resulted in the 1989 publication of the 3-Volume Environmental Guidelines for Settlements Planning and Management.

The 1992 Rio Conference organized by the United Nations on Environment and Development emphasized the importance of dealing directly with urban environmental problems and issues. Governments were also committed to take action on a broad range of human settlement topics and cited the Sustainable Cities Programme as a prime vehicle for the implementing Chapter 7 of the famous Agenda 21 agreed to at the Rio Conference. The SCP at the time of its launch was officially designated as the operational arm of the Urban Management Programme (UMP), a joint initiative of the World Bank, the UNDP and UNCHS (Habitat) which aims to improve Urban Management Capabilities around the world. The SCP is also the designated focus for joint activities and operational collaboration between UNCHS (Habitat) and UNEP.

The principal goal of SCP is to provide municipal and community sectors with improved environmental planning and management capability. By the time the programme commenced in the 1990s, twelve (12) Cities in the World were selected as demonstration Cities. Ibadan in Nigeria, Accra in Ghana and Dares-Salam in Tanzania are the three (3) demonstration Cities selected from Sub-Saharan Africa. The key to the SCP Approach is that it does not prescribe solutions; it, however, puts
in place the Environmental Planning and Management (EPM) process which ensures that development issues are debated by all concerned (Stakeholders) and that a consensus is reached on how to deal with them.

Furthermore, the EPM process is built as a new paradigm with powerful tool for information sharing among all the stakeholders for a better understanding and convincing strategies formulated for improved environment. The process can be described in two parts:

- An Analytical framework which helps to examine more rigorously the actual processes of urban and environmental development which especially helps to systematically compare a wide variety of individual case study experiences and refine the knowledge gained from them;
- A set of prescriptive guidelines for decision making and action, logically connected groups of perceptions and understandings, which suggest how to improve the process of urban environmental planning as it actually takes place.

The first phase of SCP concluded in 2001, and the second phase ran from 2002 - 2007. Currently the SCP and its sister programme Localizing Agenda 21 (LA21) operate in over 30 countries worldwide, including Nigeria. Based on the purpose of the program, the SCP focuses on packaging urban Environmental Planning and Management (EPM) approaches, technologies and know-how for cities and on building the necessary institutional and human resource capacity to effectively utilize this approach. Recognizing that the process of building human resources, institutional structures and inter-agency linkages to efficiently and effectively address EPM in a sustainable manner is a difficult and time consuming task; the Programme adopted a long term perspective to realize its objectives through four distinct but inter-linked implementation phases (Fig. 1). These include:

- Phase one: Start up of SCP implementation process
- Phase two: Strategy development and action plan
- Phase three: Implementation and demonstration
- Phase four: Institutionalization, consolidation and replication.

Another important supporting tool in the SCP process is Inter-Agency Coordination.

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3 Agenda 21 is an action plan of the United Nations (UN) related to sustainable development. In recent times, the onus of implementing the key objective of this agenda, that of sustainable development has been placed clearly on local governments and its constituent communities.
### 4.2 The Sustainable Cities Programme Demonstration Projects in Nigeria

#### 4.2.1 The Genesis and Evolution of SCP in Nigeria

The process for the participation of Ibadan City in the Sustainable Cities Programme of UNCHS (Habitat) started in 1991 through the request of the Oyo State Government to UNCHS (Habitat) facilitated by an NGO - Centre for African Settlement Studies and Development (CASSAD). This led to the inclusion of Ibadan City in the initial twelve Cities selected all over the world for the demonstration of the EPM process. The Project Document was signed in April 1994, followed by the preparation of Environmental Profile of the City by CASSAD, while the City Consultation took place in 1995.

Impressed by the moderate achievements of Sustainable Ibadan Project and the relevance of the concepts and principles of SCP, the programme was extended to Kano and Enugu Cities in the Northern and Eastern parts of Nigeria respectively through UNDP assistance. The Sustainable Kano and Enugu Projects started in 1996 and 1999 respectively. The City Consultations for the two Cities were organized and conducted in 2003.

A city development strategy project was started in Karu, Nassarawa state in 2001. The programme was funded through the Cities Alliance Initiative and the technical support of the World Bank and the UN-HABITAT. The preparation of the Karu Development Strategy (KDS) process adopted the Sustainable Cities Project SCP/EPM...
approach as the tool with which to establish priority issues, identify, sensitize and mobilize all stakeholders as well as improve their capacity to address the issues and develop strategies for managing rapid urban growth. A list of SCP demonstration projects in the four cities is attached as appendix.

All the cities participating in the global Sustainable Cities Programme share a common approach, which reflects the characteristics of the Sustainable Cities Programme. These are:

- Central focus on development-environment interaction;
- Broad-based participation by public, private and community group sector;
- Concern for inter-sectoral and inter-organizational aspects;
- Reliance on bottom-up and demand-led responses;
- Focus on process: problem-solving and getting things done;
- Emphasis on local capacity building

### 4.2.2 Implementation of Sustainable Cities Programme in Nigeria

The implementation of SCP in the Cities involved is anchored in the Technical Support Units. These units, which are attached to existing institutions, carry out the actual implementation of the Sustainable Cities Programme process. All the Sustainable Cities Programme cities with the exemption of Karu have more than one local government area. Ibadan, Kano and Enugu have 11, 15 and 3 Local Government Areas respectively.

The implementation of the Sustainable Cities Programme in Nigerian cities was supposed to assist the local authorities in preparing strategic plans for their areas. In Ibadan, the Technical Support Unit Office of SIP is located in the Secretariat of Ibadan South-West Local Government, a Unit under the then Oyo State Urban and Regional Planning Board which was overseen then by the State Ministry of Environment and Water Resources but from June 2011 overseen by the new Oyo state Ministry of Physical Planning and Urban Development. In Kano and Enugu, the Technical Support Unit is supervised by the Ministries of Environment and of Lands and Housing respectively. In Karu, the role and function of the Technical Support Unit was performed by Consultants. The Technical Support Units played crucial roles in the preparation and implementation of all city projects. (UN-HABITAT & UNEP, 2008).

At the National Level, the Federal Ministry of Environment, Housing and Urban Development has the statutory mandate of coordinating urban development activities throughout the country. It had a Sustainable Cities Programme Coordinating Unit to assist the cities in implementing the Sustainable Cities Programme projects. In addition, the Urban Development Bank of Nigeria and National Planning Commission also played important roles in the implementation of SCP in Nigeria. At the International Level the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT) provided technical support and United Nations Development Programme Nigeria provided financial support for the replication of the Sustainable Cities Programme.
In each of the Cities, sensitization of the different groups in the use of the Environmental Planning and Management tools began as soon as the Sustainable Cities Programme took off. In Ibadan for example, briefing sessions were held for the Trade and Transport Unions as well as the traditional, health, business and education sectors. Also, senior Officials of Town Planning Authorities, Secretaries of Local Governments and lead Agencies in Ibadan were sensitized.

In Kano, a meeting of the National Environmental Planning and Management Advisor and respective Project Managers of Sustainable Cities Programme in Nigeria identified the need to train the Technical Support Unit, Community Based Organization members, decision makers, and key civil servants at the State and Local Government levels. In Karu, sensitization and mobilization of Stakeholders assisted the community in buying into the Project. (UN-HABITAT & UNEP, 2008).

4.2.3 Distinct Phases of SCP Implementation in Nigerian Cities

4.2.3.1 Assessment and Start-up Phase
This is the preliminary stage where urban environmental issues are identified, key actors are drawn in, political commitment is achieved and priorities are set through urban environmental and a broad based consultative process. The phase is expected to last about six to nine months.

(i) Preparation of City Environmental Profiles
Under the Assessment and Start-up Phase the objectives of Sustainable Cities Programme is to assist Cities to organise the available information on the state of their environment, urban development and institutional situation into a City Environmental Profile. The Environmental Profile presents a database of information needed for the planning and management of the city. All the SCP cities in Nigeria had City Environmental Profiles prepared. The Ibadan City Environmental Profile was prepared in 1994 by an NGO - Centre for African Settlement Studies and Development (CASSAD). The preparation of the profile was expert dominated with very little input from the stakeholders. This shortcoming, of not involving key actors and stakeholders, was corrected in the Terms of Reference for the preparation of Environmental Profiles in Kano and Enugu.

The Kano State Government commissioned a private consulting firm to prepare the Kano Metropolitan Area Environmental Profile on March 28, 1996. The draft copy was received in April 1997 and was examined and checked by a Technical Committee and key stakeholders and the final copy was received in December 1997. This Profile was reviewed and updated in 2002, with funding from UN-HABITAT. The revised Environmental Profile not only served as an input for the City Consultation, but was the basis of the production of a television documentary which galvanized substantial public interest and further facilitated public participation in the City Consultation exercise. A summary report of the Environmental Profile was produced in Hausa, the local language, in order to make it a more effective tool.

In Enugu, a Consultant prepared the City Environmental Profile in 2002. Although the Environmental Profile was not widely circulated and its use was restricted to the few
technical officials in the Sustainable Enugu Programme, it was used as a basis for the preparation of proposition papers delivered at the City Consultation.

In Karu, a team of local Consultants prepared the Profile in 2001. The data collection for the preparation of the Profile was fully participatory, involving all key stakeholders in both the public and private sector. The Profile focused on thematic issues, namely – economy and employment, land development, urban services management, governance and management institutions. The information collected was discussed with the communities and neighbourhood leaders at neighbourhood (mini) consultations, in order to build a common understanding and consensus on the priority issues in Karu. (UN-HABITAT & UNEP, 2008).

(ii) Organising and Conducting City Consultations
In all Nigerian Cities involved in SCP, the City Consultation created a platform for discussions on the general issues of concern, prioritization of issues and the general framework for introducing interventions that had city wide impacts. All the city consultations were attended by representatives of a broad spectrum of key stakeholders from various spheres of life ranging from Federal, State and Local Governments to Traditional Authorities, Political and Religious Leaders, Academia, Private Sector Operators, Community Groups and Individual Residents. For example, in Ibadan the city consultation was attended by representatives of the various Federal, State and Local Government Agencies, United Nations Development Programme, UN-HABITAT, United Nations Children Fund, World Health Organisation, Non Governmental Organizations, Community Based Organizations, Industrialists, Banks, Academic and Research Institutions including Trade Guilds and Traditional Community Leaders. The City Consultations were instrumental in bringing the various groups together to share information, agree on issues and priorities and forge a common understanding to work together.

| Table 4.1: Priority Issues Emerging from City Consultations |
|---------------------------------|----------------|-------------|-------------|
| Ibadan                          | Kano           | Enugu       | Karu        |
| Waste Management                | Water Supply   | Water       | Water/Sanitation |
| Water Supply                    | Waste and Sanitation | Waste/Sanitation | Solid Waste |
| Institutionalizing EPM          | Housing/Slum upgrading | Unplanned development | Land use management |
|                                | Informal       |             | Economic development |
|                                | Urban Mobility and air pollution |             |             |


The duration of the City Consultation varied between the Cities. While the City Consultation in Ibadan was a week-long activity held from 23rd-27th October 1995, the event lasted only two days in Kano, Enugu and Karu respectively. The priority issues discussed and agreed on at the City Consultations varied slightly among the Cities. The priority issues adopted at the City Consultation in Ibadan were waste management, water supply and institutionalization of the Environmental Planning and
Management Process in Ibadan. The first two of the prioritized environmental issues were thoroughly discussed at the City Consultation. The third priority issue seems to be supply driven, and cannot really be categorized as an environmental issue but rather as a supporting tool to tackle the other two issues. In Kano, the five key priority issues agreed were Water Supply, Solid and Liquid Waste, Urban Mobility and Air Pollution, Urban Housing and Slum Upgrading and Informal Sector. In addition, the Consultation raised three other issues as requiring attention – Flooding and Drainage, Revenue Generation and Institutional Issues. A summary of priority issues agreed in all the Cities as contained in the various Consultation Declarations is given in Table 1. (UN-HABITAT & UNEP, 2008).

(iii) Establishing and Operationalising Working Groups
After City Consultations and prioritization of issues, Working Groups were formed and inaugurated as a pivot of the Environmental Planning and Management process in tackling all the prioritized issues. The number and composition of the Working Groups varied slightly between the Cities. However, in all cases, Working Groups were formed around the priority issues identified at the City Consultation. In addition, Ibadan, Kano and Enugu all had a Working Group on Mapping and Environmental Management Information System.

The Sustainable Ibadan Project was most aggressive especially at the beginning of the project, when Working Groups were very active. Most of the Demonstration Projects emerged from the Working Groups, which were also involved in the implementation. The Working Groups also developed strategies on waste and water, which were (partly) implemented but are yet to be accepted as common strategies.

In Kano, five Working Groups were formed in July 2004. The Working Groups formed were expected to develop Strategies and Action Plans for tackling key problems in Water Supply, Solid and Liquid Waste, Urban Mobility and Air Pollution, Housing and Slum Upgrading and the activities of Informal Sector. Working groups were yet to be formed for Revenue Generation, and Institutional issues.

To facilitate the work of the Working Groups, the Oyo State Government allocated Quarter 704 in Iyaganku GRA to Sustainable Ibadan Project and it was refurbished by the 11 Local Governments in Ibadan and upgraded into a Resource Centre. Similarly, the Kano State government refurbished and equipped meeting rooms at the Sustainable Kano Project Office for the Working Groups; an indication of the high expectations of the Government. It is noted however, that the Working Groups did not meet regularly in Kano as expected.

In Enugu five Working Groups were formed in July 2003. The Working Groups were on Water, Waste Management, Unplanned/Informal Settlements and Institutionalization of Environmental Planning and Management. Majority of the members of the Working Groups established for the demonstration projects had very technical orientations, coming from public service Agencies and Universities and the beneficiary communities did not have any significant role in these Technical Committees.
Karu made very good use of the Consultation Organizing Committee that was made up of representatives of stakeholder groups in the public, private and popular sectors. The “formal establishment” of Working Groups as experienced in other SCP Cities did not take place in Karu. However, a Working Group named the Business and Economic Development Committee consisting of representatives of the various economic activities in Karu was established with the assistance of the Project Implementation Unit of the Karu World Bank Assisted Community Based Urban Upgrading Project. In addition, a local Non Governmental Organization (Academic Associates for Peace Works) facilitated the establishment of two Working Groups on Conflict Management and Water Provision in the Ado community. It comprised Traditional Leaders, Religious Organisations and Community Associations, representatives of Karu Local Government and Leaders of the Ethnic Groups. Its objectives were to promote peaceful coexistence among the various ethnic nationalities. To date, twelve Peace and Development Committees have been formed throughout Karu.

One major motivation observed by the Working Group members in all participating Cities has been the absence of direct political interference in the identification and selection of members. Many Working Group members believe that there was no political interference because Sustainable Cities Nigeria Programme was not designed to deliver basic services. The general opinion is that there would have been direct political interference had the project design been permitted or promoted the delivery or development of infrastructure. While most Government Officials consider this a weakness, it has been, clearly, a stimulating factor for many Working Group members. (UN-HABITAT & UNEP, 2008)

4.2.3.2 Strategy Building and Action Planning Phase

This is the longest phase of the SCP process expected to last some twelve to eighteen months. Under this phase the established Working Groups negotiate issues specific environmental management strategies and one of the outputs of the working groups is the Issues Strategy. When issues strategies are put together, an overall Environmental Strategy for the city is produced. Key outputs expected from this Phase include:

- Detail information to clarify environmental problems and options for their resolution;
- Issue-specific strategies agreed among all those whose cooperation for their implementation is required, coordinated into a rolling overall urban environmental management strategy;
- Coordinated actor specific action plans involving mutually supportive interventions at operational, institutional and political levels; and
- Outlines of technical cooperation and capital investment projects requiring funding.

(i) Strategy Development

Among all the SCP Projects in Nigeria, only the Ibadan Project actually carried out major activities on strategy development. The Sustainable Ibadan Project prepared Strategies on Waste Management in Ibadan; Water Supply in Ibadan; and Environmental Improvement of Bodija Market in Ibadan. The ultimate aim of SIP is
to evolve a form of revolving “Urban Strategic Environmental Development Plan for Ibadan” through the Strategies and Action Plans developed.

The first priority issue that emerged from the City Consultation is Water. While the Oyo State Water Corporation has traditionally focused mainly on piped water supply through dams, Sustainable Ibadan Project was able to introduce a new approach to water supply by harnessing and developing hygienically sound natural springs and by constructing boreholes. Although Sustainable Ibadan Project has changed the overall water supply approach in Ibadan, it has not resulted in an overall city wide accepted water strategy that clearly shows the gaps and constraints of the present system.

Sustainable Ibadan Project through its Working Groups developed a waste management strategy for Ibadan (Waste Management being the second priority issue) and implemented demonstration projects in the field of composting and sorting solid waste. The Pace Setter Organic Fertilizer Plant in Bodija was a recipient of the Dubai 2001 Best Practice Awards and had been replicated in Ayeye Community and Aperin Waste Transfer Station in Ibadan, where waste is sorted, re-cycled and used as fertilizer. Again the strategy developed by Sustainable Ibadan Project has not been totally institutionalized as it has not been officially accepted by the Oyo state Waste Management Authority, though several elements included in the strategy have been adopted and put to use.

(ii) Demonstration Projects
The purpose of demonstration projects is to highlight the feasibility of some of the strategies and action plans developed in respect of key environmental issues identified during the City Consultation. All the Cities involved in SCP in Nigeria managed to form various Working Groups, which created a platform where more sustainable ways of urban planning could be demonstrated.

Table 4.2 highlights key projects implemented by the Sustainable Ibadan Project along the lines of the priority areas of Waste Management and Water Supply identified and agreed upon at the City Consultation.

Table 4.2: Demonstration Projects Undertaken by Sustainable Ibadan Project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environmental Issues</th>
<th>Projects Executed</th>
<th>Dates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Development of Akeu (now Osun) spring</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Development of Agbadagbadu spring</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moga natural spring project</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Odo-ona/Gada borehole project</td>
<td>1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deep wells at Oke-Ado and Oja-Oba</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bodija market borehole project</td>
<td>1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seni Village borehole project</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adegbayi natural spring project</td>
<td>2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Onipasan natural spring project</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sango/Isopako natural spring project</td>
<td>2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ayekale rain harvester project</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Over 40 boreholes in different Communities</td>
<td>2004-2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waste Management and Sanitation</td>
<td>Organic fertilizer plant in Bodija</td>
<td>1998</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In other Cities involved in SCP in Nigeria (Kano, Enugu and Karu), not much work was done in comparison with the Ibadan Project. The implementation of Sustainable Kano Project from the onset was slow and did not follow the traditional sequence in terms of phases involved in Sustainable Cities Programme Process. However, the project was able to prepare Environmental Profile for the City of Kano, carry out several briefing sessions, sensitizations, workshops and City Consultation, as well as execute several demonstration projects on priority issue of drainage and flood control. Table 4.3 highlight key projects implemented jointly by the Kano State Government and Community Based Organizations under the Sustainable Kano Project.

Table 4.3: Sustainable Kano Projects (executed in partnership with CBOs)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>CBO</th>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Cost-USD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Yakasai/Zumuta</td>
<td>600m open drain</td>
<td>32,553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Safinatu/Khair</td>
<td>Open drainage</td>
<td>26,123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Masalaha</td>
<td>Culvert rehabilitation</td>
<td>27,037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Alkabawa Alheri</td>
<td>Open drainage 650m</td>
<td>75,663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Yalwa Kul-Kul</td>
<td>Open drainage 1500m</td>
<td>69,593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Rugurguzau</td>
<td>Drainage and cover slabs 891m</td>
<td>112,950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Self-help groups</td>
<td>Open drainage clearance 13.6km</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Kura DA</td>
<td>Open drainage 550m</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Dam Hassan</td>
<td>Drainage and Slabs 101</td>
<td>9,405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Rugurguzau</td>
<td>Project extended</td>
<td>29,257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Sustainable Kano project quoted in UN-Habitat/UNEP (2008)

The success of the Demonstration Projects resulted in a number of key institutional changes within the Kano State Government. The Environmental Planning and Management (EPM) Process, by its emphasis on participation and partnerships, demonstrated the capacity to bring governance closer to the people and the visibility drew more support from the Government such that the acceptance of the EPM Process within the State machinery led to the creation of two portfolios within the Governor’s Office:

- The Office of the Special Adviser of the Governor on Community Based Organisations and Non Governmental Organisations created in 2003 after the Community Demonstration Projects listed in Table 4.3 illustrated the tremendous capacity of Community Groups within the Community; and
- The Office of the Special Adviser, Coordination, Harmonisation, Collaboration and Networking for Effective Joint Inter-Ministerial Ventures and Initiatives created to overcome the obstructions often
posed by the bureaucracy within the Government administration. (UN-HABITAT & UNEP 2008).

The implementation of Sustainable Enugu Project also experienced few setbacks and suffer similar fate like the Sustainable Kano Project as the sequence of phases for SCP process was not rigidly followed. At the early stages, the project was able to quickly carry out demonstration projects in the field of erosion and drainage control and environmental improvement. Notable projects carried out include Ugbeke Abakpa Erosion Control Demonstration Project (2002) and Awkunanaw Old Market Environmental Improvement Demonstration Project (2002). It also successfully conducted the City Consultation and raised the awareness of the people such that they were willing to come together to address environmental problems affecting them without waiting for Government.

Major outputs of the Karu Project include the preparation of Environmental Profile for the City, organization of the City Consultation and completion of Ado Water Demonstration Project that improved water supply in the Ado Community.

4.2.3.3 Follow-up and Consolidation Phase

This is the final phase of the EPM Process and is open ended. However, it is programmed to start with three to six months of active support through the SCP Project. Under this phase, agreed programmes and projects were initiated, policy reforms and institutional improvements were solidified, and the overall process is made routine through the Institutionalization of the Environmental Planning and Management (EPM) Process. Depending on the nature of the action plans and on local conditions, follow-up will typically take the form of a multi-year programme of policy reforms, institutional strengthening and system wide capacity building, supported by a succession of staged investments for the short, medium and long term.

The ability to have a coordinated follow-up and consolidate the gains of the Sustainable Cities Programme Process especially in the Nigerian Cities where the Programme is being implemented is hinged on the efforts of the Technical Support Unit (TSU) to improve the capacity of the Stakeholders to actively participate in the Environmental Planning and Management (EPM) Process as well as sustaining their interest in it. These were achieved through awareness building, training and capacity building as well as effective implementation of priority projects and disseminating such success stories.

(i) Capacity Building Activities Undertaken By the Projects.

The Sustainable Ibadan Project since inception has organised more than 60 Seminars and Workshops for all categories of Stakeholders. Table 4 below listed those undertaken between November 1996 and December 1999. In addition, it executed the following:

- Commissioned POLYCONSULT in 1996 to provide institutional support to all SIP Working Groups;
- Commissioned, in 1996, a 3-man Study Team on Institutionalization of Environmental Planning and Management (EPM) Process in Ibadan; and
• Commissioned the Regional Centre for Training in Aerospace Survey (RECTAS) in 1996 to produce maps for Ibadan.

Furthermore, Local Government training and capacity building are vital components of the process of EPM. It is on record that both Ibadan and Kano have been implementing various types of training programmes for Local Government officials. The effort of SIP dates back to inception of the project. Other efforts of SIP include mini consultations held in 1997, 2002 and 2003 for Ibadan North-West, Ibadan North and Ibadan North-East Local Governments; and a series of Seminars and Workshops. There is no doubt that in one form or the other the training received by the Local Government officials have improved their performance through the development of requisite skills and they have routinely applied them in decision making on issues of environment, urban management and planning.

However, it must be noted that outputs of the Projects, especially the SIP, in the form of Strategies and Action Plans on Water Supply; Environmental Profile of each of the 11 Local Governments in Ibadan; establishment of SIP Coordinating Working Group, with representation from all the 11 Local Governments to assist the WGs and act as their Think Tank; and for Waste Management are clear indications of attempts to consolidate the gains of the WGs successes in these areas. The same is true of the establishment of SIP committee in each of the eleven Local Governments. Perhaps, if a National mechanism exists to provide technical and financial support, follow-up and consolidation process would have been given the desired boost in Ibadan, which would have, in turn, serve as a catalyst to the replication of SCP in Nigeria (CHSUD, FUT Minna, 2005).

4.3 Institutionalization

4.3.1 Institutionalizing Environmental Planning and Management

Nigerian Cities have been using traditional planning approach in addressing urban environmental and management issues of concern. However, with the introduction of the SCP in Ibadan, Kano, Enugu and Karu, things have begun to change. Environmental Planning and Management (EPM) Process is focused on change. It focuses on changes in the way people think about urban development, the environment, development management and institutional support.

In Sustainable Cities Nigeria Programme, many innovations were introduced which changed the way things were done. Decision making, for example, became more participatory and bottom-up through Stakeholder and City Consultations where all persons whose cooperation was required in the implementation of the plans were consulted and fully engaged. The planning process was also made more participatory and result oriented. The Stakeholders were assisted in looking critically at relevant issues, in considering the information available and take decisions through strategy formulation, drawing up of action plans and finally, implementation. In addition, the Environmental Planning and Management introduced a method of bringing together different city institutions, through the working groups, to jointly address and solve priority urban issues.
4.3.1.1 Ibadan Experience

In Ibadan for example, the EPM process has come to be accepted by the key stakeholders, the State and Local Governments. The 11 Local Governments have demonstrated their willingness and acceptance of the EPM process as well as its institutionalization by establishing an SIP Committee (also called Local Government Development Committee) in each respective Local Government Area. The SIP Committees were responsible for making the EPM process a routine practice in the Local Governments. The objective of each SIP Committee was to initiate, implement and coordinate environmental development activities in the Local Government. The Local Governments have also been providing funds to the TSU to carry out its routine activities. A typical LG SIP Committee is composed of the following:

- **Chairman**
  Chairman of the Local Government.

- **Secretary**
  Director of Personnel Management of the Local Government Area.

- **Facilitator/Contact Person**
  Director in charge of Community Development in the Local Government Area

  o **Membership**
  All Heads of Departments in the Local Government Area, Secretary of Local Planning Authority, Chairman of Community Development Council Community Leaders, Representatives of NGOs and the Private Sector.

The Oyo State Government, since the Year 2002, approved the replication of the SIP experience in other major Cities of the State. To commence this initiative, the State Government started appropriating funds for the replication exercise in its yearly budgetary provision from the year 2003. A subcommittee known as ‘Technical Committee’ under the auspices of the SIP Steering Committee to work out the modalities for replication exercise was also set up. The Technical Committee met and fashioned out modalities for the replication of the SIP experience in four (4) cities namely Oyo, Ogbomoso, Saki, and Eruwa. Many reasons including the unstable political climate experienced in the State between 2003 and 2007 delayed the replication initiative. In the Year 2010, the replication exercise started with Sensitization Workshops on SCP in Oyo and Ogbomoso respectively.
4.3.1.3 National Level Experience

At the National Level, in Nigeria, the replication of the SCP/EPM Process started, informally, in 1995 following the Ibadan City Consultation meeting. The Federal Ministry of Works and Housing and the Urban Development Bank of Nigeria (UDBN) were well represented at the City Consultation and had useful discussions with officials of UN-HABITAT and the Project Team at Ibadan. The involvement of the Federal Ministry of Works and Housing arose out of the fact that the Ministry has statutory responsibility for coordinating and monitoring urban development activities nationwide. On its part, UDBN got into the programme in a bid to strategically position itself for the delivery of services to the cities and in particular to the Local Governments.

To coordinate the Sustainable Cities Programme at the National Level, the Federal Ministry of Works and Housing (FMW&H) established a SCP Coordinating Unit in 1997. The Unit achieved considerable progress in setting the strategies for the replication process. Notable among these are:

- Negotiating the SCP/EPM Process replication with the National Planning Commission (NPC) and UNDP and ensuring its acceptance into the 5th Country Cooperation Framework (CCFI);
- Assisting in the preparation of Project Documents for the extension of the Ibadan Project and Start-up of Kano and Enugu Projects;
- Promoting the replication of the SCP/EPM Process in five (5) additional cities, which will be funded under the CCFI; and
- Providing technical support to the EPM Process replication at the Federal level.

To strengthen the SCP Coordinating Unit at FMW&H, the former Project Manager of the Sustainable Ibadan Project, Mr. Soji Taiwo was contracted in the year 2000 by UNDP to support the Unit as EPM Adviser. This was in view of his wide experience in the EPM process and the need to beef up the technical capacity of the Unit. However, in spite of the institutional arrangement at the National Level, very little achievement has been recorded on ground in Enugu and Karu. Out of the seven cities identified by the SCP Coordination Unit as likely cities to join the programme (Abuja, Lagos, Onitsha, Port-Harcourt, Kaduna, Maiduguri and Sokoto) since the year 2000, none has, so far, joined.

The shortcomings could be attributed to lack of a coherent National Policy and Strategy of Replicating SCP in Nigeria which to some extent slowed down the implementation of SCP in the participating Cities, especially in Kano, Enugu and Karu as indicated in Table 4.5.
Table 4.5: Phases of the EPM Process and Time Frame of Implementation in Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Phase I</th>
<th>Phase II</th>
<th>Phase III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EPM PROCESS</td>
<td>Assessment and Start-up</td>
<td>Strategy and Action Planning</td>
<td>Follow-up and Consolidation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-21 Months</td>
<td>15-21 Months</td>
<td>4-8 Months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1994)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kano</td>
<td>72 Months (1997-2004)</td>
<td>Started in 2004</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enugu</td>
<td>54 Months July 1999-2003</td>
<td>Started in 2004</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CHS&UD, Federal University of Technology, Minna (2005)

4.4. Inter-Agency Coordination

The current effort of Sustainable Ibadan Project to use key Agencies of the Oyo State Government as anchoring institutions in its effort to institutionalize EPM process, has the added advantage of facilitating the institutionalization of Inter-Agency Coordination. Agencies listed below and several others have featured prominently in the implementation of SIP such that there are collaborative efforts at addressing priority environmental issues of concern (Water Supply and Waste Management) in Ibadan:

- Water Corporation of Oyo State;
- Ibadan (now Oyo State) Waste Management Authority;
- Office of the Surveyor General formerly Department of Survey in the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Survey; and
- Oyo State Urban and Regional Planning Board formerly Department of Town Planning in the Ministry of Environment and Water Resources are examples of such agencies that extend variety of assistance to SIP.

The use of these Agencies as anchoring institutions has helped in institutionalizing the EPM process in Ibadan in diverse ways. For instance, the WGs on Water Supply and Waste Management were provided meeting venues within these Agencies (Water Corporation and Waste Management Authority) at one time or the other and the Strategies and Action Plans on Water Supply and Waste Management in Ibadan evolved by these Working Groups have avail the two Agencies with useful tools to assist them in their operations.

The fourth Agency of Government used as an anchoring institution is the Oyo State Urban and Regional Planning Board. The Board is the Supervising Agency of the State Government for the Project. This simply means that the Project is under the direct supervision of the Oyo State Urban and Regional Planning Board. By this placement, the Project has an added advantage of receiving prompt and direct attention and support from the Oyo State Government. Because of this arrangement the project has been receiving monthly running cost for the SIP office for over 17 years.
In addition to the anchoring institutions, the Project’s Institutional set up, especially the Steering and Technical Committees/ Working Groups, which are made of officials from the States and Local Governments as well as representations from the Academia, Community and Private Sectors has helped in establishing and consolidating inter-agency cooperation and collaboration through information sharing and consensus decision making. (CHS&UD, FUT Minna, 2005)

3.0 IMPACT OF SUSTAINABLE CITIES PROGRAMME IN NIGERIA

For over sixteen years now four (4) Cities in Nigeria have been involved in the implementation of the Sustainable Cities Programme. Assessments have shown a mixed result. While significant progress was recorded in Ibadan and appreciable progress in Kano and Karu, the City of Enugu made little progress in the application of the Environmental Planning and Management process. Overall however, the four Sustainable Cities Programme Cities were able to achieve some results mainly at community level, and in the general attitude towards urban environmental management. It is worth noting the following: that;

- Almost all Cities managed to change public attitudes towards planning (especially among Government Officials) and the perception of Residents towards the Government;
- Coordination and participation has improved, but is limited to small scale projects only and is not part of the regular modus operandi;
- The Working Groups were able to formulate Strategies and Action Plans, but none of these became a policy of appropriate Agencies; and
- Sustainable Cities Nigeria Programme has helped to bridge a gap between the Government and the Community.

Compared to Kano and Enugu, Ibadan can be said to be the most successful City, in terms of the extent and level of progress achieved in the implementation of most aspects of the SCP Process, in the country. The physical outputs of the Sustainable Ibadan Project were the Demonstration Projects that have actually shown the feasibility of some of the Strategies and Action Plans developed. There has been a continuous process of identifying, selecting, sensitising and mobilising the Stakeholders. The Project has helped to some reasonable extent in bridging the gap between the Government and the Community.

In addition, the SIP activities have positively influenced the curricular of Higher Institutions offering Urban and Regional Planning as a course in Nigeria with the inclusion of Sustainable Human Settlement as a subject, covering key elements such as Sustainable Development, Environmental Planning and Management, Sustainable Cities Concept, Participatory Methods and Case-Studies on Cities involved in SCP such as Ibadan among others. The Departments of Urban and Regional Planning of The Polytechnic, Ibadan and University of Ibadan respectively have featured this subject since the year 1999.

This modest achievements recorded by Ibadan can obviously be attributed to the fact that it was one of the first 10 global cities where the implementation of SCP was pioneered. To that extent, the City received tremendous financial and technical support, direct from UN-HABITAT; a Chief Technical Adviser and other Consultants
were appointed for the Project to ensure the capacity building of the Technical Support Unit and the general success of the programme in Ibadan. It was therefore easy for Ibadan to build a considerable capacity and expertise; such that its first Project Manager became a National SCP Adviser, to all other cities. Other cities are yet to enjoy the same level of attention, of technical and financial support from either UN-HABITAT or from the National Level.

In the case of Kano, although the EPM Process has not been fully implemented, it appears some important measures have resulted in meaningful outcomes. These include:

- Community participation in decision-making and consensus building was reinforced by the City Consultation;
- The City Consultation provided the forum for discussions on the constraints of implementing city-wide interventions;
- The introduction of Geological Information System by the Sustainable Kano Project office spurred interest in a lot of State Departments/Agencies;
- The Demonstration Projects have stimulated engagement between the Community, Local Governments and the State;
- The implementation of the Environmental Planning and Management Process resulted in the creation of special portfolios in the Government Administration; and
- Through drainage improvements, there was marked improvement in flood control in some parts of the city.

The use of Demonstration Projects in Enugu, which in itself was not identified appropriately, is a skewed attempt at satisfying two opposing forces, namely, the State Governor and the United Nations Development Programme. It is significant to note that both the Department for International Development and United Nations Children Fund Managers indicated their ignorance of the activities of the Sustainable Enugu Project. In fact, the United Nations Development Programme negotiated a new programme with the Enugu Government without considering the scaling up of the existing Sustainable Enugu Project.

In Karu, the City fostered significant improvements in participatory decision making through consensus building. The effect was that where desired goals converged, partnerships occurred much more easily and various parties practiced networking effectively.

In general, the following issues have been identified as major constraints in the implementation of SCP in Nigeria:

- The projects experienced a rapid turnover of labor;
- The availability of financial resources and prospects for future continuation were unclear;
- The institutionalization of the Environmental Planning and Management process has not yet fully taken place; and
- The support from the United Nations system was not sufficient, as no provisions were made for follow-up activities.
In the year 2006, with the assistance of UN-HABITAT, Sustainable Ibadan Project (through the Oyo State Ministry of Environment and Water Resources) applied and was selected for InWEnt Capacity Building International of Germany’s Programme on Municipal Solid Waste Management for selected Cities in Asia and Africa. Sustainable Kano Project equally applied for the same Programme and was included. The Programme took place from 2007 to 2009 and those that participated from the public, private and the popular sectors as well as the academia received Certificate of Competence in all the Trainings, Study Visits and Demonstration Projects using ‘Theory of Constraints’ (TOC) Application.

In the course of implementing the Programme, InWEnt Capacity Building International, Germany entered into a 2-year Cooperation Agreement with Oyo and Kano State Governments for the purpose of building the capacity of various Stakeholders in waste management in the Cities of Ibadan and Kano. The Stakeholders include the Policy Makers and Officials of the Ministries of Environment in the two States, Ibadan and Kano Waste Management Authorities, Local Governments in the two Cities, Private Refuse Contractors, Community Based Organizations, and Academia.

Between August 2007 and November, 2009, series of Workshops and Study Visits had been organized by InWEnt in Ibadan, Kano, Abuja, Lagos and several Cities in Germany for the aforementioned Stakeholders. The knowledge shared in the Workshops and Visits have led to tremendous improvements in the management of waste in the two Cities especially, Ibadan. Specifically, some of the improvements include:

- Effective and optimal utilization of the available resources (especially trucks and personnel) for waste collection and disposal to cover more parts of the City;
- Proper documentation and analysis of waste collected by the Oyo (formerly Ibadan) State Waste Management Authority on daily basis and also by the Private Refuse Contractors on monthly basis;
- Restructuring and rehabilitation of Ayeye Organic Fertilizer Plant and the establishment of community/market waste collection system in Ayeye Market at token amount;
- Proposed Waste Billing System in Ibadan to be designed after the Lagos model,
- Pilot Waste Characterization Survey in low, medium, and high income residential areas of the City and a rural community to determine types, volume, and mix of waste for use in planning for improved waste management in Ibadan Metropolis; and
- Initiation of Ibadan Waste Management Stakeholders Forum (IWMSF) aimed at facilitating regular discussion and analysis of waste management problems and the required solutions. The Forum is headed by the His Excellency, the Deputy Governor of the State with the following membership: Members of the State House Committee on Environmental Services and Ecology;
Commissioners and Permanent Secretaries and relevant Directors in the Ministries of Environment and Water Resources, Local Government and Chieftaincy Matters, and Finance; Chairman and Permanent Secretary in the Local Government Service Commission; Chairman and Executive Secretary Oyo State Urban and Regional Planning Board; Chairman, General manager and key Officers of the Oyo State (formerly Ibadan) Waste Management Authority; Chairmen and Directors Environmental Health and Sanitation of the 11 Local Government Areas in Ibadan; Representatives of Community Development Councils (CDCs), and members of the Steering Committee of InWEnt-Ibadan Waste Management Programme.

In line with the InWEnt’s Ibadan/Kano 2009 Activity Agreement and in response to the agreement reached among the various Policy Makers (the Honourable Members of the Oyo State House of Assembly, Local Government Chairmen in Ibadan, etc) that attended the Policy Makers’ Workshop held in Abuja in May, 2009, the July, 2009 Workshop held in Lagos had been organized to allow for exchange of ideas among the Waste Management Stakeholders especially the Policy Makers from Ibadan, Kano and Lagos through discussions and site visits. (Wahab, 2009).

4.0 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The implementation of the Sustainable Cities Nigeria Programme has instigated new thinking that hopefully will influence a paradigm shift in Environmental Planning and Management in Nigeria. The lessons of the Sustainable Cities Nigeria Programme exercise are indicative of how community partnerships foster goodwill for delivering services to citizens while at the same time engendering acceptance in cost sharing for public infrastructure financing. A key lesson of the SCP experience in Nigeria is the fact that the levers for change in Environmental Planning Management are able to emanate from sources other than the Public Sector, as is traditionally known. The Communities, through their proactive participation, have spurred on Government initiatives in resolving knotty management issues such as the payment of compensation for public goods.

The Demonstration Projects proved to be fundamental although they were never really up-scaled to the next level. The projects were nevertheless able to break through the standoff between the Government and the Communities and actually managed to jointly plan and implement projects together. Although Sustainable Ibadan Project is often criticised for its lack of (big) capital investment projects, this seems at the same time to be one of its major advantages in reaching the Community.

For the implementation of the Sustainable Cities Programme to continue more effectively in Nigeria, it will require further support, both financially and technically. It is, however, essential to identify what support is necessary. The first action is to strengthen the weak links that have emerged in the implementation of the Sustainable Cities Nigeria Programme. These weak links include the discontinuance of strategy development; capacity building involving training, sensitisation and skills development; the need for diversification of local resource mobilisation; translation of the commitment of international partners into actual investment that are also timely; and lastly, staff retention. The Working Groups also have to be revived to ensure that
the Environmental Planning and Management Process do not lose the benefits it has accrued to date.

It can be concluded that the Environmental Planning and Management is now an accepted way of planning and managing the urban environment. It is, however, still far from being institutionalized into Government systems. To achieve this, two critical things need to happen in Nigeria if the country is to obtain the full benefits of SCP and to, effectively, institutionalize EPM process at State and Local Government Levels. First of all, an Institutional Framework has to be established at the Federal Level for the implementation of SCP. The Federal Government should establish a Division of Urban Environmental Management, within the Federal Ministry of Housing and Urban Development, to be charged with the responsibility of Policy Formulation and setting Standards for the States and Local Governments. It will also establish National Criteria to guide all Cities interested in joining the SCP and replicating the experience of SIP. It will develop a capacity building Programme for the States and Local Governments, based on the use of the Implementation Instruments and Tools; and funding mechanism to support all preparatory processes including financing Demonstration Projects.

A more extensive and effective use of the Implementation Instruments and Tools will achieve the following objectives which are critical to the sustainability and institutionalization of the SCP and EPM Process:

- Selection of States and Local Governments to participate in SCP;
- Identification of Stakeholders in participating Local Governments;
- Increasing awareness of participants about the SCP Process and Concepts;
- Develop Environmental Profile that all Stakeholders will identify themselves with and will attract requisite funding for its implementation and political support from all tiers of Government (Federal, State and Local); and

5.0 WATER AND SANITATION IN NIGERIA’S URBAN SETTLEMENTS

5.1 Introduction

Water and sanitation play crucial roles in the socio-economic development of nations. There are strong linkages between water, sanitation and key sectors of any nation including health, education, agriculture and environment. Indeed, the combination of safe drinking water, adequate sanitation and hygienic practices like hand washing is recognized as a precondition for human health and for overall reductions in morbidity and mortality rates, especially among children (UNDP, 2004). Thus, water and sanitation are seen as essential elements required for overall improvement of quality
of life. Indeed, good access to reliable and safe water and improved sanitation are much more superior social indicators than the number of hospital beds (Olokesusi 1988). Furthermore, as an integral component of the ecosystem, a finite natural resource, and a social as well as an economic good, issues of its availability, access and quality are very paramount to the development process, poverty reduction and environmental sustainability. Furthermore, water is conceived as a key catalyst for the realization of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of related sectors such as health and social development (See Figure 5.1).

It is no wonder then that, successively governments in Nigeria have demonstrated the desire to improve access of its citizenry to safe water and sanitation facilities. In this light, the Federal Government in 1976 got involved in water supply with the creation of Federal Ministry of Water Resources and the establishment of eleven River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs) to manage water resources of the country and to provide bulk water, primarily for irrigation and water supply. The Federal Ministry of Water Resources also undertakes basic hydrological data collection and storage for national planning purposes. Other agencies involved in public water supply, as aid and loan programmes, are the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), United Nation Development Programme (UNDP), and a number of other bilateral, multilateral and External Support Agencies (Federal Republic Nigeria, 2000).
**MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS**

Goal 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
Goal 2. Achieve universal Primary education
Goal 3. Promote gender equality and empower Women.
Goal 4. Reduce child mortality
Goal 5. Improve maternal health
Goal 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other disease
Goal 7. Ensure environmental sustainability
Goal 8. Development a global partnership for development

**WATER+ SANITATION TARGETS**

Targets 9: Integrate the principle of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources.

Target 10: Have by 2015 the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation

Target 11: By 2020 to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers
Currently, all the 36 States of the Federation and Abuja the Federal Capital Territory, have Water Boards/Corporations or Public Utilities Boards managing their public water supply undertakings. Their efforts are supplemented in many cases by Local Governments who supply water to small villages in their areas of jurisdiction. Nigeria is also one of the signatories to the United Nations International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade whose objective was to supply water to all citizens of the country between 1981 and 1990 (Federal Republic Nigeria, 2000) and recently, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). In addition, the recent Nigerian Vision 20:2020 identified and recognized the fundamental importance of water and sanitation for guaranteeing the wellbeing and productivity of its people (National Planning commission 2009).

5.2 Some Salient Conceptual Issues

A brief discussion of the basic concepts provides a useful background against which to explore water and sanitation in Nigeria’s human settlements. These are the concepts of safe water and improved sanitation. The most frequently used definition of safe water is that of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), which states that those with access comprise: “The proportion of the population using any piped water, public tap, borehole with a pump, protected well, and springs or rainwater (UNDP, 2002)”. The World Bank also provides various definitions dependent on the type of residential area being assessed. “In urban areas such a source [of safe water] may be a public fountain or standpoint located not more than 200 meters away and in rural areas access implies that members of the household do not have to spend a disproportionate part of the day fetching water (World Bank, 1997). In Nigeria, safe water are water from the following sources including piped source within the dwelling, or plot, public tap, tube well or borehole, and protected well or spring (NDHS, 2008). Improved sanitation on the other hand implies sanitation that effectively prevents human, animal and insect contact with excreta.

According to the National Water Resources Management Policy (NWRMP) 2007, sanitation refers to the principles and practices relating to the collection, removal or disposal of human excreta, household waste water and refuse as they impact upon
people and the environment. Sanitation has also been described as facilities for the disposal of excreta and wastewater for the purposes of hygiene and a healthy living environment. Improved sanitation facilities are facilities that prevent human excreta from polluting food or water sources (Amnesty International, 2010). In the definition of safe sanitation, the WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation 2006 classified a household as having an improved sanitation facility if it is used by members of one household (WHO/UNICEF, 2006). Water is a major factor in sanitation in both urban and rural areas. As shown in Box 5.1, water has the capability of contributing to five of the eight MDGs.

### Box 5.1 Potential Contributions of the Water Sector to Attaining the Millennium Development Goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Relation to water</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger</td>
<td>Water is a factor in many production activities (agriculture, animal husbandry, cottage industries).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Promote gender equity and manpower women</td>
<td>More gender-sensitive water management programs can reduce time wasted and health burdens through improved water service, leading to more time for income earning and more-balanced gender roles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Reduce child mortality</td>
<td>Improved access to more and other quality drinking water and improved sanitation can reduce the main factors contributing to illness and health among young children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases</td>
<td>Improved access to water and sanitation support HIV/AIDS-affected households and may improve the impact of health care programs. Better water management reduces mosquito habitats and the risk of malaria transmission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ensure environmental sustainability</td>
<td>Improved water management reduces water consumption and allows recycling of nutrients and organics. Action could ensure improved water supply and sanitation services for poor communities, and reduced wastewater discharge and improved environmental health in slum areas.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: World Bank (2010) *World Development Indicators*
5.3 Access of Nigerians to Drinking Water and Sanitation Facilities

Nigeria has a total surface area of 923,768 km², with a land area 910,770 km² and a water area of 13,000 km² (M Ince et al., 2010). Nigeria is endowed with about 267 billion cubic metres of surface water and about 52 billion cubic metres of groundwater annually (M Ince et al., 2010). In the southern part of the country, rainfall is high, surface water and springs are often the most appropriate source of water while in the North, rainfall is low and aquifers are shallow. It is obvious from the above that the country is generously blessed with abundant surface and ground water. In spite of this level of endowment, national sector data indicates poor access of Nigerians to water and basic sanitation.

Table 5.1 shows percentages of households with access to improved and non-improved source of drinking water in Nigeria. The table shows that only 56 percent of the households have access to improved sources of water. Households in urban areas are more likely to have access to improved sources of water than those in the rural areas (75% compared with 45%). The table also indicates that about two-fifths of households draw their water from an unimproved source. Only about 30 percent of urban settlements in Nigeria have water on their premises compared with 21.5 percent in rural settlements. The table also shows that about 26.8% of rural settlements in Nigeria spend about 30 minutes or longer in search of water compared with 14.6% in urban settlements.

Table 5.1 also shows percentages of households with access to improved and non-improved source of drinking water in Nigeria. It shows that 27.0 percent of households in Nigeria use improved toilet facility disaggregated into 31 percent urban and 25 percent in rural areas while the majority (73%) of households in Nigeria use non-improved facilities disaggregated into 69 percent in urban areas and 75 percent in rural areas. Also, the table indicates that households with improved toilet facilities, flush toilets are mainly found in the urban areas and are used by 18 percent of households in urban areas and 4 percent in rural areas (NDHS, 2008).
Table 5.1: Proportion of Nigerian Households with Access to Improved and Non-Improved Source of Drinking Water and Sanitation Facilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Households (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Source of Drinking Improved Water:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piped water into dwelling/yard pot</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public tap/stand Pipe</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tube Well or Bore Hole</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protected Dug Well</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protected Spring</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rainwater</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Non-Improved Water Source:</strong></td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>53.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unprotected Dug Well</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unprotected spring</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanker truck/cart with small tank</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>surface water</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottled water, improved source for cooking/Washing</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bottled Water, non-improved source for cooking/washing</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other sources</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. Percentage Using any Improved Source of Drinking water</strong></td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Time to Obtain Drinking Water</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water on premises</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 30 minutes</td>
<td>52.9</td>
<td>50.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 minutes or longer</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Know</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>D. Type of Toilet/Latrine Facility</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved, not shared facility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flush/pour flush to piped sewer system</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flush/pour to septic tank</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flush/pour to pit latrine</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ventilated Improved pit Latrine</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pit latrine with slab</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composting toilet</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-improved facility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68.6</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any facility shared with other households</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flush/pour flush not to sewer/septic tank/pit latrine</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pit latrine without slab/open pit</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bucket</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hanging toilet/hanging latrine</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No facility/bush/field</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The water and sanitation situation for six cities in the country is shown on Tables 5.2 and 5.3. From the table 5.3 on sanitation, majority of the buildings have water closet (64.1%) while pit latrine is available in 34.1% of the buildings. However, the availability of unimproved sanitation facilities is worrisome in Lokoja where the incidence is as high as 43%. From the above discussion, it is obvious that despite the abundance of both underground and surface water in Nigeria, access to safe water and basic sanitation is highly limited to urban dwellers.

### Table 5.2: Main Sources of Drinking Water in Selected Cities in Nigeria: 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Urban Centre</th>
<th>Borehole</th>
<th>Well</th>
<th>Stream</th>
<th>Public tap</th>
<th>In-house tap connection</th>
<th>Water vendor</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Onitsha</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maiduguri</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katsina</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lokoja</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Harcourt</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All cities</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NISER (2010)

### Table 5.3: Availability and Type of Toilets in Selected Cities in Nigeria: 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Urban Centre</th>
<th>Pit Latrine</th>
<th>Water Closet</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Onitsha</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>94.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maiduguri</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katsina</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lokoja</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Harcourt</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>80.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All cities</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>64.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NISER 2010

An attempt to make international comparison of access to safe water and improved sanitation brings to the fore an unenviable situation in Nigeria relative to others. A cursory examination of Table 5.4 indicates that, out of the 22 selected countries for
which there are data on access to safe water in urban areas, Nigeria ranked 20th while it ranked last out of the countries with data on access to improved sanitation. Furthermore, whereas Nigeria is a major financier of the ECOWAS, yet its performance is quite an embarrassment, as many less endowed countries such as Mali and Liberia, perform better on these two critical indicators (Table 5.5).

Table 5.4: Urban Population and Access to Safe Water and Improved Sanitation in Selected Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Urban Population</th>
<th>Access to improved sanitation facilities</th>
<th>Access to improved water source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>164.3</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>570.9</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cote d’Ivoire</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt, Arab Rep.</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>336.7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>117.0</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran, Islamic Rep.</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>84.9</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea, Rep.</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nigeria</strong></td>
<td><strong>73.1</strong></td>
<td><strong>48</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trinidad and Tobago</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>248.4</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.5: Access to Safe Water and Improved Sanitation in ECOWAS Member States in 2006

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% Urban</td>
<td>% Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Verde</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cote d’Ivoire</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea Bissau</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The available data for different years confirm that more people in Nigeria die from communicable and parasitic diseases annually than any other category of disease. The following are some of the major infectious diseases, caused initially by poor water supply, which are all prevalent in many urban areas: cholera, typhoid, skin ulcer, skin fungus, schistosomiasis, guinea worm, malaria and onchocerciasis (NBS, 2009, UNICEF, 2006, 1989). The high mortality and morbidity resulting from the above communicable and parasitic diseases have a grave psychological impact on victims and their relations. Monetary losses for health care, transportation and the strains and stress of administering to the sick (or before death) are often significant. Furthermore, productivity at macro- and micro-levels is reduced due to absenteeism at school and work places. Insufficient water has also been the cause of many industrial projects.
which have either failed or have had to be executed at the provision of reliable, safe and convenient sources of potable water will not only reduce mortality, but will also release those now engaged in collecting water for more useful tasks (Olokesusi, 2009, 1988)

5.4 Key Challenges Confronting Nigeria in Its Quest to Provide Safe Water and Improved Sanitation

Some of the major challenges facing Nigeria in its quest to provide safe water and basic sanitation are highlighted below:

- Inadequate financial investment in water and improved sanitation is a major challenge. Despite some major investments in water systems in the urban and rural areas during the past years, financed in most cases by loans from the World Bank and the African Development Bank, the capacity of urban water supply system has been out pace with the rapid growth of urban population in Nigeria (UNICEF 2000).

- The poor and erratic power supply in Nigeria is another major challenge. Consequently, many motorized water schemes are not functioning, and at times the pumping equipments are destroyed due to power disruption. In addition, there is poor maintenance of water facilities. Many water systems are plagued by inadequate maintenance due to failure to generate adequate revenue to cover operations and maintenance. Most of the pipes in the distribution systems are more than 40 years old and due for rehabilitation or replacement, but there is no planned programme for this in most cities in Nigeria (Abdumumin, 2000).

- Furthermore, attitudinal problem of the people also contribute to poor access to water in Nigeria. In terms of sanitation, most rural people regard sanitation as a much lower order priority than water supply. Many households do not allow their children to use latrine for fear of messing it up or falling into the pit (UNICEF 2000).

- Institutional and organizational issues also affect access to water and basic sanitation in Nigeria. Under the Nigerian constitution, water is on the “concurrent list” of responsibilities shared by all three tiers of government. At Federal level, the Federal Ministry of Water Resources is responsible for providing the overall policy and regulatory framework for the development of the sector, for data
collection, co-ordination, monitoring and evaluation, unfortunately this ministry has suffered some institutional instability, as it has been merged and separated from other ministries four times since its creation in 1976 (UNICEF, 2000). In order to meet the challenges in the two sectors, several states in the country have tried a number of organizational arrangements and laws as depicted in Tables 5.6 and 5.7 yet, their impacts have been minimal at best.

Table 5.6: Example of Temporal Changes in the Organisation of Waste Management in Some Nigerian Cities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Management Agency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ibadan</td>
<td>Prior to 1972</td>
<td>Ibadan Municipal Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1973-1978</td>
<td>Ibadan Waste Disposal and Ibadan Municipal Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1978-1983</td>
<td>Ibadan Municipal Government, Ministry of Housing and Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1988-1989</td>
<td>Environmental Sanitation Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1989-1991</td>
<td>The Local Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991-present</td>
<td>Ibadan Urban Sanitation Committee (comprising 5 local governments)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>Before 1970</td>
<td>Lagos Municipal council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1977</td>
<td>Lagos State Refuse Disposal Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Lagos State Waste Management Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaduna</td>
<td>1940-1967</td>
<td>Kaduna Native Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1967-1971</td>
<td>Kaduna Local Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1972-1985</td>
<td>Kaduna Capital urban Development Board (later Kaduna State Urban Planning and Development Board)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1986-1991</td>
<td>Kaduna Local Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1991-1994</td>
<td>Kaduna State Urban Planning and Environmental Protection Agency (KASUPEPA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Kaduna State Environmental Sanitation Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(KASEPA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KANO</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>KANO Urban development Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1976</td>
<td>Kano Municipal Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Ministry of Housing and Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1983</td>
<td>Kano Municipal Authority Task Force, State Ministry of Health; Urban Development Board</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*4 In recent times there have been some changes in details contained in Tables 5.6 and 5.7.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>Provision for Environmental Protection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Anambra State Environmental Protection Agency Edict No. 4, 1995</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2 Enugu State Environmental Protection Agency Edict, No. 3, 1996 | Agency specifically empowered to:  
- Monitor, survey and control all forms of waste including solid wastes discharged (s. 10(n))  
- Establish necessary standards for efficient waste discharge which are higher than FEPA standards  
- Assess building plans of new industrial layouts to ensure provision of adequate waste management facilities  
- Control with co-operation of Local Government Councils sitting and management of waste dumps  
- Monitor and regulate installation of waste disposal systems  
- Lawful organization, collection and disposal of solid wastes including night soil, food disposal, vagrants |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Katsina State Environmental Protection Agency Edict No. 4, 1994</strong></th>
<th>None; only for hazardous substances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 4 | **Kano State Refuse Disposal Agency Edict, 1994** | - Refuse collection and disposal in urban areas  
- Regulation and general control of activities of licensed and voluntary refuse collection organisations  
- Designation and maintenance of refuse dumps and tipping points for easy management of refuse |
| 5(a) | **Lagos State Environmental Protection Agency (LASEPA) Edict No. 9 of November, 1996** | - Basic standard requirements for nature conservation and waste management options  
- Edict prohibits waste discharge into the environment without permit from the agency; and the discharge of untreated waste into the environment by any manufacturing operation; the burning, dumping or burial of any waste without a written permission form the agency |
| 5(b) | **Lagos State Waste Management Authority Edict of 1991** | - Private Waste Collector must obtain license from the authority and fees to be determined from time to time by the authority  
- Every owner/occupier must provide dust-bin for depositing waste  
- No obnoxious or poisonous waste shall be deposited in the dust-bin  
- No person shall dump waste of any description in any place other than a waste disposal site designated by the authority  
- Vehicles for transporting waste must be covered to avoid littering of highway. |
| 5(c) | **Lagos State Environmental Protection Edict No. 13 of 1989** | - Specifically enacted to address the prevention of improper waste management in Lagos State  
- Examination and recommendation of Waste Management through recycling for industrial ad public sectors  
- Provides for treatment of wastes according to State standards  
- Certification of waste disposal operations is depending on compliance with approved standards |
| 6 | **Ondo State Environmental Protection Agency Law No. 14 of July, 1993** | None; only hazardous substances |

* These are samples, out of Nigeria’s Constituent 36 States and the Federal Capital Territory. Some of these Edicts might have been revised.
The current scarcity of water is most likely to be exacerbated by climate change and the UNEP has predicted that Nigeria would be water stressed by 2025 (See Table 5.8).

Table 5.8: Examples of African Countries Predicted to Experience Water Stress or Scarcity by 2025

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Water Crisis</th>
<th>Sample Countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Water stress (annual per capita availability of between 1000-1700 m3)</td>
<td>Ghana, Togo, Burkina Faso, Chad, Nigeria, Eritrea, Uganda, Tanzania, Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water scarcity (annual per capita availability less than 1000 m3)</td>
<td>Western Sahara, Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Libya, Egypt, Ethiopia, Somalia, Kenya, Malawi, South Africa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is also the challenge of weak community participation. The policy states that these services should be managed at the lowest appropriate level, so that local conditions and demand are taken into account in the planning, financing, development and operation of water supply and sanitation systems. This is intended to provide ownership, so that communities are willing to share in the costs of services thereby improving their sustainability. In this regard rural water supply and environmental sanitation agencies are to be set up. In practice, this is yet to be met in most communities.

Until recently, most governments, development partners and water resources consortia were preoccupied with the ‘think big’ syndrome (large water reservoirs) which has affected the psyche and performance of the most water-supply projects in the region.
Unrealistic assumptions continue to be made in some places by both suppliers and beneficiaries about the availability of serving and repair systems which are almost always grossly inadequate in member states, particularly the rural areas. Generally, the policies instruments are not explicit enough about the S&T policy implications of, perhaps if this was not the case and there had been better coordination among governments, development partners, the local beneficiaries and local knowledge centres, some of these failures could have been averted.

There is a glaring case of the stakeholders not learning from experience. For example, the use of motorized boreholes and community tubes and improved ventilated toilets have embraced yet, most of the equipment and spare parts are still imported while efforts are not geared towards domestication of these technologies. The same goes for water treatment technology (Olokesusi 2009b).

Inadequate private sector participation: The policy envisages extending participation in the sector to new actors including the private sector as well as communities and NGOs. This is with a view to mobilizing additional resources for development of the sector. In practice, this is still at the starting point, as the enabling environment for private operator is still much on contemplation – legal framework and laws to regulate the activities of private operators, so as to provide adequate protection to consumers are yet to be entrenched.

Inadequate Infrastructure: One requirement of this policy is the establishment of four regional laboratories and two national reference laboratories to monitor water quality. However, their actual existence and functional impact are yet to be felt.

Conclusion

Water is critical to all facets of sustainable development. To achieve all development benchmarks in Nigeria, there is the urgent need to address the poor access to water and basic sanitation in both the urban and rural areas in Nigeria. In this light, this chapter advocates increase in the financial investment in water and sanitation facilities to keep pace with the rapid population growth in Nigeria. The erratic power supply
situation in Nigeria will undoubtedly improve the provision of water if the situation is improved. There is also the urgent need to involve all stakeholders in the march towards improving access to water and basic sanitation. Reforms in the organizational structure of water management in Nigeria at the federal, state and local levels is important and frequent merger and re-merger should be address at once. It is also imperative that the S&T policy issues around water and sanitation be made more explicit especially the development of local technological capacity, adaptation and innovation. For instance, government and other stakeholders should initiate advocacy programmes to popularize technologies such as EcoSan with capability of meeting the needs for greater access to safe water and improved sanitation while at the same time contributing to agricultural production and environmental sustainability.

Finally, because the guiding principles in the policy instruments have not impacted positively on performance in both sectors, it is important to introduce a paradigm shift from sectoral management to governance. This does not mean that these principles should be jettisoned rather, it implies emphasizing a more holistic approach. Governance of natural resources such as water means the range of political, social, economic and administrative systems that are in place to develop and manage natural resources, and use the resources at different levels of society. This paradigm shift implies inclusiveness, transparency and accountability. With particular reference to the water sector for instance, governance processes determine decision making about water allocation, water storage, regulation of extraction from aquifers and discharge (World Bank 2006).

6.0 PHYSICAL PLANNING AND THE ACHIEVEMENT OF VISION 20:2020

The Nigerian Vision 20:2020 is an outcome of a research by the American Investment Bank which predicted that Nigeria will be in the league of 20 top economies based on the assessment of the abundant natural and human resources in the country with the assumption that these resources will be effectively managed (Abdulhamid, 2008). Vision 20:2020 is an articulation of the long-term intent to launch Nigeria onto a path of sustained social and economic progress and accelerate the emergence of a truly
prosperous and united Nigeria. Recognising the enormous human and natural endowments of the nation, the blueprint is an expression of Nigeria’s intent to improve the living standards of her citizens and place the country among the Top 20 economies in the world with a minimum GDP of $900 billion and a per capita income of no less than $4000 per annum (NV20:2020).

These aspirations are defined across four dimensions:

- **Social Dimension**: A peaceful, equitable, harmonious and just society, where every citizen has a strong sense of national identity and citizens are supported by an educational and healthcare system that caters for all, and sustains a life expectancy of not less than 70 years.

- **Economic Dimension**: A globally competitive economy that is resilient and diversified with a globally competitive manufacturing sector that is tightly integrated and contributes no less than 25% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

- **Institutional Dimension**: A stable and functional democracy where the rights of the citizens to determine their leaders are guaranteed and adequate infrastructure exists to support a market-friendly and globally competitive business environment.

- **Environmental Dimension**: A level of environmental consciousness that enables and supports sustainable management of the nation’s God-given natural endowments to ensure their preservation for the benefit of present and future generations (NPC, 2009).

Recognizing Nigeria’s limited success with the implementation of previous medium term development plans, this paper assesses the role of physical planning in the achievement of the Nigerian Vision 20:2020. Following this introduction, the chapter is subdivided into four main sections. The first section examines some conceptual issues in physical planning while the second section examines the place of physical planning in NV 20:2020. The following section highlights the role of physical planning in the attainment of vision 20:2020, while the fifth section concludes the chapter.
6.1 Some Conceptual Issues

Physical Planning is a multi-faceted discipline and consequently has been conceived in different perspective among scholars. Olayemi (2000) perceives physical planning as the preparation and construction of plans in accordance with which growth and extension of a town, is to be regulated so as to make the most of the natural advantages of the site, and to secure the most advantageous conditions of housing and traffic. Physical planning has also been defined as being concerned with the design, growth and management of the physical environment in accordance with a predestined guide and policies. Its goal is to make provision for the coordination of all forms of development activities at the national, regional and local level (Alabi and Akinbode, 2010). It has also been defined as the process of programming the coordination of the direction, structure and pattern of the development, growth and management of urban settlements with the goal of ensuring that all necessary land-use needs (including economic, social, environmental, institutional, cultural, recreational and leisure needs), for all the socio-economic population groups in the society, are provided for in compatible and symbiotic locational relationships and densities (Okpala, 2008).

Human settlements with large concentration of people in form of cities offer enormous contributions to national development. Cities are known as engines of economic growth, socio-cultural and spiritual nourishment. In addition, cities are centres of science, technology and innovation. Well planned, safe and healthy cities attract more people, commercial and industrial developments. Urban issues offer special opportunities to translate scientific research into concrete policies. They involve an array of stakeholders, at national, city, community and household levels, including governments, the private and civil society sector (UN-Habitat, 2009, Olokesusi 2008). Hence, explicit emphasis on physical planning in the implementation of NV: 20:2020 is meant to contribute immensely towards realisation of the plan’s objectives. Viewed from the above perspectives, it implies that planning has major roles to play in the development of any nation. It is in this context that the next section explores the place of physical planning in Nigeria’s Vision 20:2020 plan.
6.2 The Place of Physical Planning in Vision 20:2020

The NV 20:200 has a total investment size of N32 trillion, with the federal and state governments expected to contribute N10.0 trillion and N9.0 trillion respectively, while it is anticipated that the private sector, both local and international, would contribute N13 trillion during the plan period (National Planning Commission, 2009). With a view to transforming the Vision into reality, three medium term development plans are to be produced. In March 2011, the First National Implementation Plan (First NIP): 2010-2013 was launched by the National Planning Commission. The First NIP is anchored on two specific targets expected to be realised in 2013-GDP of not less than US$440 billion and per capita income of not less than US$2,008.

Of particular relevance here is that a Technical Working Group (TWG) on Urban and Regional Planning was one of the 28 TWGs constituted to draft the NV 20:2020. Referring to physical planning, the Vision document states that “…One of the objectives of the NV20:2020 plan is the achievement of equitable and spatial socio-economic development across the various geo-political regions in Nigeria, driven by a comprehensive regional strategy. The plan went further to propose regional development plans for each of the geo-political zones while also treating the geographical Niger Delta as a region in its own right. However, in the document it was not quite explicit how the planning and management of such growth centres and other human settlements in the country would be achieved.

6.3 Potential Contributions of Physical Planning to the Attainment of Nigeria’s Vision 20:2020

The United Nations Human Settlement Programme [UNHSP] (2009) observed that the major new challenges of the 21st century including rapid urbanization, climate change, and resource shortages and costs have significant implications for development and express the important roles of planning in addressing these challenges. Rapid urbanization posses a major challenge to achieving the Nigerian Vision 20:2020. In Nigeria, it had been estimated that by 2010 more than half of the country’s population were urban based. This is from a low urbanization level of 13 percent in 1960 which rose to 16.4 percent in 1970 and 20.4 percent in 1980 (Adepoju, 1989). By 2000 the level had reached 43.3 percent (FMHUD, 2003).
Significant land and infrastructure development will have to take place to accommodate this growing population. At the public event to celebrate this year’s world Population Day, the Chairman of the National Population Commission claimed that with the population annual growth rate of 3.6%, the country’s population will be 166 million by October, 2011 (Daily Trust 11 July, 2011: 10). This is where mainstreaming physical planning into the new Nigerian Vision 20:2020 becomes very germane because of limited land and the imperative of harmonious and prosperous human settlements.

In reality, the Nigerian Vision 20:2020 launched in 2009, is anchored on balanced spatially sensitive socio-economic development. But there is the need to properly emphasise the role of physical planning and how its understanding could facilitate a balanced and sustainable national development. Generally, following roles of physical planning, if intelligently tapped, could impact positively on NV 20:202.

i. Translating socio-economic and other policies into spatial and three dimensional forms. To attain this strategy, all socio economic policies have to be evaluated on their spatial and physical implication;

ii. Preparation and implementation of a National Physical Development Plan for the country as a means of realising the above role;

iii. Emphasizing on the aspect of environmental quality and inclusiveness in the NV20:2020 implementation process by mainstreaming it into the diverse physical plans that are supposed to be prepared by the planners and managers of the country’s cities and towns as contained in the 1992 Urban and Regional Planning Legislation;

iv. Providing facilities to ensure an equitable and higher standard of living for all; and

v. Articulating human settlement management policies that also take into consideration the latest development in science and technology, which in turn, can help achieve a higher quality of living (Mohd Sukuran bin Taib and Ho Chin Siong, 2008).

vi. Physical planners including NITP, ATOPCON and TOPREC should confer with and offer advice to government and other stakeholders on urban, regional, environmental and resource management issues. Such issues include
measures to address land-use, environmental, community, transport, housing and infrastructure amongst others.

vii. Establishing appropriate institutional framework for monitoring and evaluation of physical planning outputs and outcomes, so that if it becomes necessary, desirable modifications could be made.

viii. Given the challenge posed to the country by the climate change phenomenon as well as human made and natural hazards, physical planning could help in identifying hazard-prone areas and limiting their use through land-use zoning, tax incentives and the relocation of residents from hazard-prone areas. Furthermore, physical planning can help mainstream climate change considerations into human settlement development processes. It could also help in locating settlement away from flood-prone coastal areas and those subject to mudslides; protecting forest, agricultural and wilderness areas and promoting new ones; and developing and enforcing local climate protection measures.

ix. UN-Habitat (2007) noted that numerous social and economic factors give rise to crime and violence in cities, but poor planning, design and management are also contributing causes. At the design level of any settlement, it is important to promote human surveillance of public spaces and the design of parks and public spaces so that they are well lit and well integrated with other activity-generating uses. Physical planning can also play a crucial role in post-conflict situations. Post-conflict societies are characterized by weak institutional capacity to plan; absence of a strong rule of law, which results in chaotic and inefficient development; dysfunctional land management and land administration systems; invasion of land by the poor, homeless, internally displaced persons, returnees and refugees; conflicting claims over the same plot of land or house; large-scale destruction of buildings and infrastructure that might have to be reconstructed outside formal channels; and large-scale ambiguity and gaps in the regulatory framework (Augustinus and Barry, 2004).

x. For physical planners to meet the challenge of NV 20:2020 implementation, it is imperative that they acquire some knowledge of economic development planning.
6.4 Conclusion
It is clear from the foregoing that, physical planning has critical roles to play in addressing major issues of the NV 20:2020. Rapid urbanization, urban poverty, growth of slums, climate change, urban crime, conflicts, as well as natural and human-made disasters are some of the major challenges facing the attainment of the goals of Nigeria’s Vision 20:2020. Although some of these challenges were highlighted in the vision statement, the contribution of physical planning was not very well articulated in the implementation plan of the vision.

Nigeria as a country has not lagged behind in policy formulation, especially the formulation of development plans and visions. Successive administrations in Nigeria have developed one or implemented different plans and visions. However, achieving the goals of such visions and plans has been very poor. This justifies why all hands must be on deck to ensure the full realization of the new dream of Nigeria Vision. One major step towards realising this is the integration of physical planning principles in the implementation of the plan of the vision. Physical planning principles provide opportunity for equitable and spatial allocation of resources that takes cognisance of the social, economic, institutional and environmental dimension which are anchor points of the Nigerian Vision.
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