

Urban Governance: An Overview

Nebo Lilian Chinyere¹ | Oko Onyinyechi Jacinta² | Ngosi Annastecia Anyim³

^{1,2}Department of Public Administration,
Federal College of Agriculture, Ishiagu, Ebonyi State, Nigeria.

nebolilianozoike@gmail.com¹.
onyinyechijacinta50@gmail.com²

History and Strategic Studies,
Alex Ekweme University, Ishiagu, Ikwo, Ebonyi State, Nigeria².

ABSTRACT

The entire developing world is witness to an unprecedented shift of human settlement to the cities. While Nigeria's population remains substantially rural, the numbers of people living in the urban area are steady on the increase. The economic base of the nation through expanding industries, trade, commerce and services has already shifted to urban centres. Urban governance as an issue has assumed critical importance in the context of the ever-growing role of urban centres in the overall economic growth, employment generation and contribution such centers make to the national and state wealth. With urban centers growing rapidly, urban governance becomes crucial especially on the impact it has on the life and liberty of the innumerable urban dwellers. With cities becoming centres for a large investment, specialized services, amenities and their effective and efficient functioning assume added importance. If urban centers have been termed as engines of economic growth, urban governance can rightly be called wheels of such engines. In this study, the expository method has been adopted to understand urban governance with Nigeria as a case study.

Keywords: Urbanization, Governance, Urban Governance, Local Government.

INTRODUCTION

The world is currently witnessing a rapid increase in population and a much faster increase in urban population due to the influx of rural population to the urban. Nigeria is no exception to this process. The proportion of the population living in urban areas has experienced a significant increase, especially during the past few decades. In this changing

scenario, rapid urbanization has brought in its wake several social and economic as well as civic problems. The frustrated and angry citizens, the urban planners, the architects, sociologists and the large crowd, all concerned with the cities in one way or the other have given different epithets to the phenomenon called cities: ‘concrete jungle’, ‘urban nightmare’, ‘urban breakdown’, ‘urban blight’. Call it by any name; most of the cities and towns in Nigeria are teetering on the edge of an abyss with nobody being sure as to how to defuse the ‘urban explosion’. To use the expression, ‘defusing the urban explosion’ might be an understatement, for many of the cities like Lagos and Port-Harcourt have already exploded and the harried citizens are coping with the ugly fallout. They can’t run away from the smoking ‘havens’ that give them the daily bread and a roof of sorts. Millions migrate to the metropolises, megacities and towns for a living and like moths they prefer to be scorched by the blazing fire. Cities and towns might mean total dehumanization and brutalisation and the majority of the urban poor and even the middle class might find themselves as “misfits”; all the same they know that they must accept the hard reality. The cities offer an abundance of opportunities to those prepared to labour hard and the alternative is vegetative existence.

All the same, the inevitable question arises: can’t we make our cities and towns livable? Can’t we bridge the gap between the urban poor and the urban rich? Can’t we make provisions for the burgeoning population of poor in Lagos, Port Harcourt, Kaduna, Ibadan and other cities? Are slums inevitable? Over forty years after Independence we have seen the march of our great cities and towns to steady decay, deterioration and inescapable disaster. It is as if all of us have been sucked into the quagmire and none can escape from it. The litany of scourges is too long: a runaway population, proliferation of slums, pollution of the air, contamination of water sources and rivers, mountains of putrefying solid wastes un-cleared by civic staff, intolerable noise pollution, poor mobility owing to a disorganized and inadequate mass transport system, a creaking road infrastructure unable to cope with the proliferation of four-wheelers, three-wheelers and two-wheelers, pedestrians and cyclists mowed down by speeding vehicles, regular power breakdown making life miserable for households and small enterprises, broken sewers and overflowing sewage, officialdom that moves its fingers only when its palms are greased, mafia and crime syndicates in cities and towns in Nigeria. With urbanisation, conventional methods of governing the city with top-down approaches have proved to be restrictive and inadequate. There has been an increasing demand for avenues for participation, to increase transparency, modernize administration and improve service delivery in these populated cities. The need to adopt new systems and methods of governing the cities that are inclusive and facilitate the active and effective participation of stakeholders is being increasingly released. There is also a realisation that the existing capacity of the urban local bodies is limited and needs to be substantially enhanced. The work is an attempt to describe urban governance and the Nigerian approach towards it.

MEANING AND IMPORTANCE OF URBAN GOVERNANCE

There are various grounds — administrative, military, commercial and industrial which facilitate urbanization. According to Stanley K. Shultz, Professor of the Wisconsin University of the United States, the urban areas can be classified fundamentally into the

following types—(1) Administrative center; (2) Religious center; (3) Market center; (4) Cultural center. Any particular center may fulfill any one of these functions or any combination thereof (Kaczynski 2018). The term ‘Governance’ has wider meaning and implications than those of the term ‘Government’. The government refers to the machinery and institutional arrangements of exercising the sovereign power for serving the internal and external interests of the political community, whereas governance means the process as well as the result of making authoritative decisions for the benefit of the society (Scheme 2019).

The government as the most powerful institutional society is the major element of any system of governance. However in recent times, government position is being narrowed for deriving advantages from the free market, privatization, structural adjustments, deregulation and decentralisation. Non-governmental organisations are being given a wider role in the development process. The corporate sector plays a significant role in ensuring good governance and promoting the well-being of the people. In many countries, the democratic form of government is facing several problems like lack of transparency, misuse of power, embezzlement of funds and corruption. The concept of good urban governance becomes attractive as a remedy against this state of affairs. Governance recognises that power exists inside and outside the formal authority and institutions of government, emphasizing in the process where decisions are made based on complex relationships between many actors with different priorities.

Urban governance is defined as “the sum of the many ways individuals and institutions, public and private, plan and manage the common affairs of the city. It is a continuing process through which conflicting or diverse interests may be accommodated and cooperative action can be taken. It includes formal institutions as well as informal arrangements and the social capital of citizens” (Rao 2004, p. 52). The concept of governance has assumed a lot of significance in public administration all over the world. In all sectors of public interventions and service delivery, it is now agreed that until and unless the state of governance is ‘good’, service or product delivery will not be proper. Governance is defined differently in terms of context. P.S.N. Rao, defines public governance “as the ways in which stakeholders interact with each other in order to influence the outcome of public policies” (Rao 2004, p. 52). The characteristics of good governance are citizens involvement, participation, transparency in all decision making, accountability of actions taken, equity and social inclusions, ethical and honest behaviour, ability to compete in the global environment, the efficiency of service delivery, respect for democratic values, respect for the rule of law, use of appropriate technology and environmental sustainability.

The United Nations HABITAT launched a global campaign on urban governance in the year 1999 in order to support the implementation of the Habitat Agenda goal of ‘sustainable human settlements development in an urbanising world’. The goal of the campaign is to contribute to the eradication of poverty through improved urban governance. The UN-HABITAT has also been propagating the concept of the ‘inclusive city’, a city that promotes growth with equity, a place where everyone, regardless of their economic status, gender, race, ethnicity or religion is enabled and empowered to fully participate in the social, economic and political opportunities that cities have to offer. The

Habitat global campaign defined good urban governance is inextricably linked to the welfare of the citizens. Good urban governance must enable women and men to access the benefits of urban citizenship. Good urban governance based on the principle of urban citizenship, affirms that no man, woman or child can be denied access to the necessities of urban life, including adequate shelter, security, safe water, sanitation, a clean environment, health, education and nutrition, employment, public safety and mobility (Biswas et al., 2019). Through good governance, citizens are provided with a platform which will allow them to use their talents to the full and to improve their social and economic conditions. To implement the good urban governance agenda, the United Nations Habitat has proposed that good urban governance is characterised by certain principles. They include sustainability, subsidiarity, equity, efficiency, transparency and accountability, civic engagement, citizenship and security.

URBAN GOVERNANCE: CONCEPT AND THEORIES

Apart from a historical perspective, there is a need to examine the conceptual and theoretical framework of urban governance. Some studies throw light on various phases of history and different types of civilizations. Mention may be made of Arnold Toynber, Lewis Mumford, Gibson, Max Weber and others who consider the city as the base for the growth of civilization. From the viewpoint of economic growth, development is looked in terms of generation, distribution of income and its consumption. Scholarly works of Adam Smith Ricardo, Keynes, Karl Marx, Schumpeter and others belong to this category. In recent times poverty, hunger and development in developing countries has gained the attention of thinkers like Sunnan Myrdal, Amartya Sen, Jean Dreze and Arthur Lewis. Urban growth and expansion of cities in developing and less developed countries is gaining increasing attention. Theories and concepts have been put forth to explain the trends in their growth.

Local Governance: Concept and Theories

The local government jurisdiction is limited to a specific area and its functions relates to the provision of civic amenities to the population within the provision of statute, which has created it. It is subordinate to the state or provincial government which exercises control on it. Local government has been undertaking new activities, which either regulate the conduct of the citizens or are in the nature of services. In fact local government is much more important in the daily life of a citizen than the state or central government.

Local government has been defined as “an authority to determine and execute measures within restricted area inside and smaller than the whole state” (Contestabile 2014). Robson defines local government as a “territorial non-sovereign community possessing the legal rights and necessary organisation to regulate its own affairs” (Lundqvist 2014, p. 214). According to Byrne, “Local government is marked out as a distinctive form of public administration by five features. It is elected, multi-purpose operates on a local scale, has a clearly defined structure and is subordinate to Parliament” (Lundqvist 2014, p. 217). Mackenzie argues that local government is far from being a launching pad for democracy. He perceived local government primarily as a means of providing certain services although it may also offer the citizens the benefit of serving the

community. To Mackenzie, therefore it is for government to regard its purpose as the propagation of democracy at the local level and others also think on the same pattern (). The conventional view of local democracy was highlighted by the writings of J.S. Mill. Mill considered the local government to be “the prime element in democracy”. Other scholars pointed out that Mill’s arguments are somewhat misplaced with regard to the purpose of local government. They argue that as a secondary form of government, instead of the primary form of government, it is erroneous to regard local government as the basis of democracy.

The famous exchange writings between Langrod and Moulin on one side (anti-Mill’s) and Panter-Brick (pro-Mill’s) represent the debate about whether or not the purpose of local government is a representative democracy. Langrod and Moulin disapproved the notion that local government is the basis of democracy. Synthesising what maybe regarded as the continental view (both scholars being from the continent of Europe), they argue that local government is subordinate to democracy; and that any reference to a reciprocal relationship between it and democracy is a mirage. As Langrod said, “democracy does not come into being where local government appears, nor does it cease with the disappearance of the latter”. On the other hand Panter-Brick revell in the Mill’s tradition arguing that local government assesses the appreciation of individual interests. The position of Sellers & Lidström (2007) is that local government cannot be justified within the concepts of local representative democracy as said by Mill and his followers.

Mill’s assertion that local government is a training ground for citizens who may venture into national politics presumes that local interests aggregate into national interest. This cannot be applied universally. This position can be sustained in a policy characterised by a high level of homogeneity both in terms of socio-cultural and ideological manifestations, but it may not be so in a heterogeneous, diverse polity. Infact, a variant to this point is used by modern pragmatists to counter Mill. The influence exerted by local government on national politics, they argue, is determined by the “convention and traditional political framework” existing within a particular political system rather than by any universal principle of local participatory democracy.

URBAN GOVERNANCE IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Cities in Europe suffer from a multitude of related problems, such as unemployment, high rising crime rates, a loss of feeling of safety, neighbourhood decay and ethnic conflicts. Local and national governments respond to these challenges by adopting urban development programmes. All kinds of European, national, regional and local funds are used to generate and implement social, economic and physical measures in order to increase employment, security, the quality of life, access to basic utilities, housing conditions and services.

For a country like Sweden, where people take pride in their effective labour market policy, well developed and generous social welfare programme, well-planned cities and neighbourhoods and an ambitious housing policy, the developments of the 1990s were in many ways traumatic (Pettersson et al., 2017). Apart from the economic problems, and the policy changes that were implemented in an effort to combat them, Sweden

received close to half a million new immigrants between 1985 and 1996, and in 1995 the country joined European Union (EU). The economic crisis, the EU membership and the high level of immigration had an effect on policy and planning practices in many fields. This led to the emergence of new policy fields. One such field is the Metropolitan Development Initiative (MDI) launched in 1999 with the two-fold aim of promoting economic growth and ethnic integration. It is a partnership between the central and local government, where the former has all control (Brink 2004). Local government in Sweden has a strong constitutional foundation backed by a set of laws regulating local government relations to central government and to the citizens. It has its own fiscal rights, its political organisation is based on direct and proportional elections, and there is a huge staff of administrators and field workers to fulfill all the functions adopted by local government (Brink 2004). The local government also contains a number of partnership-like networks at the municipal level, including workers belonging to local government as well as to local civil society. Their main aim is to implement the general goals set by the framework agreement between central and local government (Pettersson et al., 2017).

There are quite considerable differences in the autonomy and performance of local governments in European countries. Nevertheless, what is striking is that even the most centralised politics of Western Europe have effected major decentralization during the post-war period. The reason for the decentralization was because of the economic development and the consequent demand for local public goods which resulted in pressure on politicians in electoral system to decentralise. This appears to have been the case with both the French Reforms, the British Reforms of 1830s as well as the Spanish and Italian Reforms. Nevertheless, these reforms have occurred at different times and in varied ways depending on the path of political change in various countries. In the southern European countries, vested interests of central state politicians prevented decentralisation for a long time. Political developments in the sphere of local government may not succeed until economic growth has first taken place. On the other hand, there is no doubt that there has been a demonstration effect in Western Europe, with the citizens and politicians of the more centralised politics learning from their decentralised neighbours.

EVOLUTION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN NIGERIA

The Local government creation is a response to the problem of urbanization by the Nigerian government. Nigeria was formally birthed in 1914 after the amalgamation by the British government who ruled during the colonial era which ended in 1960. However, prior contact with Europeans dates back to the fifteenth century (Idu, 2013). The local government system in Nigeria also came into existence during the colonial period, although, there were different forms of traditional local ruler-ships before then. Britain took the first step to establish colonial administration in 1861 (Idu, 2013). The colonial administration that was established was based on Indirect Rule. The Nigerian local government administration has experienced change in name, structure and composition over many years. In the 1930s and 1940s, for instance, local government was known as chief-in-council and chief-and-council, where traditional rulers were given the pride of place in the scheme of things. In the 1950s, election was introduced according to the British model in the western and eastern parts of the country with some measure of

autonomy in personnel, financial and general administration (Nwabueze, 1982, p. 20). These changes brought about progress, growth and development in the local governments. The pace of this development was more noticeable in the South than in the North. During that period, heterogeneity was the symbol of local government as there was no uniformity in the system and the level of development was also remarkably different (Ajayi, 2000). With the passing of colonialism in 1960, a post-colonial phase in the evolution of local government emerged. This phase was characterised by a multi-tier local government structure in the Eastern and Western regions where both elected and traditional elements were accommodated (Ukiwo, 2006; Agagu, 2004). According to Gboyega (1987), a national reform of local governments in the country was abjured by the short-lived military regime of Gen. T. Aguiyi Ironsi, perhaps due to the uproar and dissent that the decision to introduce a unitary system of government generated.

Things changed after the military regime of General Murtala/Obasanjo introduced the local government reforms in 1976 which fostered uniformity in the administrative structure of the local government system. The reforms introduced a constitutionally recognised multi-purpose single-tier local government system (Gboyega, 1983). The reforms also made population a criterion under which a local government could be created. According to Gboyega (1983), this innovation meant that a population of within 150,000 to 800,000 was considered reasonable for a local government area in Nigeria. The aim of this was to create local councils that were statistically representative of the people. The reforms also introduced local government elections for the office of the chairman as the executive head, with councilors supervising the affairs of the councils and constituting the local cabinet. The local government councils also had professional staff who aided the implementation of policies. Other reforms were introduced after 1976 and some of the features included the increase in the number of local government from 301 in 1976 to 453 in 1989 and 589 in 1991 by the Babangida administration as well as the introduction of the legislative arm into the local government system (Ajayi, 2000). The Abacha regime also increased the number to 774 local councils that exist today. (Akinsanya, 2004). It can be noted from the Nigerian political history that the local governments as public institutions have been subjected to various reforms as almost every successive administration introduced one administrative change or the other. Apart from the notable 1976 reforms, state government officials have also influenced these institutions in one way or the other. These changes did not occur without effects as some of them met with social strife. The relocation of some local government headquarters in 1997 led to large scale destruction of lives and property in Ondo, Osun, Delta, Rivers and Cross-River States (Osaghae, 2005, p.105). In Ondo State, the relocation of the then newly created Akoko South East local government headquarters from Oba Akoko to IsuaAkoko led to the destruction of lives and property. In 1998, the Abubakar administration introduced “sole administrator” system at the grassroots level before elections were conducted in December 1998 for the posts of chairmen and councilors (Akinsanya, 2004).

NIGERIAN URBAN GOVERNANCE SYSTEM

Urban governance in Nigeria is a function of the legal framework set by the Federal Government of Nigeria. This framework established a connection between the city and

broader regional and national context in Nigeria. As such, urban governance system in Nigeria can be expressed based on the legal provisions used to determine the classification and extent of cities. The legislation that has an influence on governance in Nigeria include the operative 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1976 Guidelines for Local Government Reform, the 1992 Urban and Regional Planning Act.

1999 Constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria

A constitution comprises the basic law or laws of a nation or a state which set(s) out how it will be organized by deciding the powers and authorities of government between different political units, and by stating the basic law-making and structural principles of society. As a sovereign state, Nigeria has had a series of constitutions. The operative 1999 Constitution of Nigeria provides for federalism, a type of political system in which legislative power is divided between a central or federal government and a number of regional, state, provincial or local government. In Nigerian political system, governmental powers are fundamentally shared between the federal and the component state governments and then, by extension, local governments. The roles of these tiers of government are defined by the constitution of the federation by the classification of the duties or functions of the central and the components governments. As a result, there are traditionally three forms of legislative lists which spell out the functions that are expected for the tiers of government and the matters that they are capable of legislating on, under the constitution.

The first is the exclusive legislative list which contains functions that are assigned solely to the federal tier because of their nationwide character. The second is the concurrent list which gives the functions or powers which both the federal and state governments can perform or exercise with provision that a federal legislation shall supersede a state law in case of any conflict of interest. The last is the residual list which contains functions or powers left for the state tier of government to perform and legislate on. Under this arrangement, the local governments are put under the state governments who are responsible for their creation and also empowered to delegate to them functions or powers to perform or exercise for the people while the federal government can only legally create or exercise authority over local governments in its territories.

1976 GUIDELINES FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT REFORM

Nigeria is a federation consisting of 36 states and a Federal Capital territory. Also, the country is divided into 774 local governments. However, the division in to local governments is with no consideration to municipal boundaries. The problems with local government are not new in Nigeria. Before and years after independence, several local government structures existed in Nigeria because local governments had become regional or state subjects under the 1951 Nigerian constitution (Kazah-Toure 2005). Thus, they did not exercise appreciable degree of autonomy and they operated under a structure that did not enhance the development of local initiative (Esoimeme 2009) with inadequate staffing and funding (Esoimeme 2009). A notable effort to address these problems led to the 1976 Local Government Reform. Consequent upon the reform, the Federal Government of Nigeria gave recognition to the local government as the third tier government below the

state government (Kazah-Toure 2005). With the reform, local government began to have financial capacities, staffing and institutional framework to initiate and provide relevant services to their communities. Moreover, they were to have adequate resources to stimulate development at the grassroots (Osabuohien & Egwakhe 2009). Other objectives of the reform include enhancement of public participation at the local level, as well as, improvement of basic services and infrastructure at the local and community levels (Osabuohien & Egwakhe 2009).

In 1976, the Federal Government initiated a key action to promote a more functional and purposeful Local Governments by issuing Guidelines for Local Government Reform and subsequent several reviews. The document states that Local Governments are the creations of the State Governments with the purpose of providing essential services and mobilizing communities for grassroots development through participation by providing a link between community and government (Kazah-Toure 2005). Specifically relevant to this context is paragraph 10 of the 1976 National Guidelines for a Reform of Local Government which states thus: Regardless of population, no town or city should be split between two Primary Local Governments. The whole planning area surrounding a town should be in the same Primary Local Government. This should apply not only to places which have been formally constituted as Planning Areas now, but those which are likely to be so constituted within the next ten years. Where two or more towns, whether they are actually contiguous or not, are nevertheless close to each other as to make up a conurbation, the whole should, with the planning peripheries, be in the same Local Government Area (Wraith 1969). Sequel to this was the review of the activities of the Local Governments in the country in 1985. The review established some criteria on the composition and roles of Local Governments which include: reform of local government every ten years; a minimum population of between 100,000 and 150,000; minimum tax paying population of 20,000; geographical contiguity; traditional association; wishes of the community and financial viability. These criteria negate the one advanced in the Guidelines for 1976 local Government Reform, which accorded recognition for respect of city boundaries and their population size in creating urban Local Governments. The lack of consistency in criteria in guidelines on the creations of Local Governments formed the genesis of the abuse of the creation of urban areas into multiple Local Governments in the country. Two or more urban Local Governments were created out of large cities, while rural Local Governments contain multiples of towns and smaller settlements.

1992 Urban and regional planning act

One of the laws in Nigeria with environmental implication is Urban and Regional Planning Act of 1992. The main objective of the Act is the promotion of land use planning and development control functions to the three-tier government structure in the country. In achieving this aim, among others, it provides for the setting up of the Commission at the federal level for dealing with federal matters, Board to be set up at the State government level to deal with all state matters, with Local Planning Authority to be set up in each Local Government and area council in the country. By implication, there should be at least a Commission, 36 Boards and 774 Local Planning Authorities in the country (Orland 1992).

THE CHALLENGES OF URBAN GOVERNANCE IN NIGERIA

Information provided so far in this write-up leaves no space to overemphasise the importance of urbanization and growth of cities in contemporary societies. However, as African cities continue to urbanise, there is proliferation of urban centres through uncontrollable rural-urban drift, metropolis and megapolis have developed. With increasing urban population, there is expansion in government activities showcased through enhanced public policies and programmes, innovative practices and improved strategies among socially and culturally different urban dwellers; including some levels of interaction engineered by international agencies, as well as actors from private sectors, voluntary and other nongovernmental actors. All these notwithstanding, urban areas are confronted with myriad of problem issues some of which are highlighted below:

Inadequate Infrastructure and Malfunctioning of Urban Services

One of the major challenges of urban governance is how to make available adequate infrastructure and to ensure that the available ones are functional. As urban population increases, urban areas expand and the social infrastructural needs of the dwellers increase. There is need for more and sustainable road network, residential houses, electricity, potable water, market, recreation, motor park etc. Besides that, the existing infrastructure easily wear out and come under deplorable state arising from continuous pressure mounted on them by the ever increasing utilisation. City administrations are worried about how to increase the level of infrastructure to take care of the teeming urban population as well as maintain existing ones.

Environmental and Social Impact of the Economic Activities of the Informal Sector.

The environmental and social impacts of the economic dynamisms of the non formal actors have become a serious source of concern for urban governance. Apart from the challenge of providing appropriate site for garbage dump, government is also concerned about how to enforce waste management regulations especially getting urban dwellers to use the approved dump sites. It has not been easy tracking individual households, artisans, street traders even industries who dispose their waste indiscriminately against government regulations. Besides that, carbon dioxide emitted from automobiles together with the indiscriminate waste disposal, smell from poultry farms, noise from entertainment stall, heavily degrade the environment with different levels of pollution, constituting health hazards as well as reducing the quality of life of urban dwellers. Besides that, the indiscriminate erection of buildings, both permanent and make shift accommodation has given rise to the growth of slumps in many parts on urban areas. Thus, control of arbitrary location of industries, illegal oil bunkering, street trading, hawking and other indiscriminate economic activities constitute challenge to city governance.

Persistent Unemployment

Once a place becomes urban, it becomes a centre of attraction for many persons in search for greener pastures. Thus, countless number of people especially young school

leavers migrate from different rural communities to the urban centres in search of jobs. At the initial stage of urbanisation, employment opportunities do exist from government, industries and the organised private sector including non formal sector. However, with the increasing influx of people over time, cities get saturated and employment opportunities drastically reduce. This situation leaves many persons unemployed; and because it is difficult for government to control population drift to urban centres, a situation of acute unemployment may arise. It becomes a challenge for the urban administration to either open up employment opportunities to absorb the population as state workers, or create an enabling environment for private or informal sector to engage them. Where young people remain unemployed over a long period of time, they may be tempted to earn a living by engaging in different levels of anti-social behaviours that may constitute another dimension of social problems government may find difficult to cope with.

CONCLUSION

The urbanization process is irreversible in Nigeria and must therefore be turned into opportunities for growth. By the year 2050 and beyond, there will be more people in urban than rural Nigeria. To ensure that the magnitude and pace of urbanization does not drag on the country's overall development, Nigeria will continue to implement integrated sustainable development strategies in order that our cities become generators of development, not only for themselves but also for the rural hinterlands. Future priorities would emphasize the following imperatives of sustainable development:

- (i) Implement fully the MDGs and other sustainable development initiatives;
- (ii) Ensure effective, efficient and transparent public sector and public administration;
- (iii) Commit to sound economic policies and management; (iv) Sustain democratic governance that allows broad-based participatory decision-making and management;
- (iv) Improve local implementation capacity for all actors to empower them to play an effective role in sustainable urbanization;
- (v) Develop efficient and effective governance systems in -African cities and other human settlements.
- (vi) Strengthen national and local institutional capacities in the areas of sustainable urbanization;
- (vii) Promote city-to-city cooperation to encourage exchange of best practices of sustainable urban development at all levels;
- (viii) Mobilize external resources and more coordinated and concerted support for sustainable development. The international community, on its part will need to support these initiatives by ensuring that they are adequately financed, technology is transferred, institutions strengthened and capacities built.

REFERENCES

- Agagu, A. (2004). "Continuity and Change in Local Government Administration and the Politics of Underdevelopment." In Agagu, A. & Ola, R. (eds). *Development Agenda of Nigeria State*. Ibadan: Fiag Publishers.
- Ajayi, K. (2000). "Justification and Theories of Local Government." In Ajayi, K. (ed). *Theory and Practice of Local Government*. Ado-Ekiti: Ekiti State University Press.
- Akinsanya, A. (2004). "Nigeria's Intergovernmental Relations Under the 1999 Constitution." In Akinsanya, A. A. & John, A. A. (eds). *Readings in Nigerian Government and Politics*. Ijebu-Ode: Gratia Associates International.
- Biswas, R., Jana, A., Arya, K., & Ramamritham, K. (2019). A good-governance framework for urban management. *Journal of Urban Management*, 8(2), 225–236. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jum.2018.12.009>
- Contestabile, M. (2014). Local governance. *Nature Climate Change*, 4(3), 171–171. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate2164>
- Esoimeme, E. E. (2019). A critical analysis of the anti-corruption policy of the federal executive council of Nigeria. *Journal of Money Laundering Control*, 22(2), 176–187. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMLC-06-2017-0021>
- Essien, E. (2005). Tourism and Nigerian Traditional Festivals. *The Parnassus*, 2(5).
- Essien, E. (2017). Video Film Piracy in Nigeria: Interfacing to Integrate the Pirate. *Lwati: A Journal of Contemporary Research*, 14(1), 157-166.
- Gboyega, A. (1983). "Local Government Reform in Nigeria." In Mawhood, P. (ed), *Local Government in the Third World*. London: John Wileysons.
- Idu, .A. (2013). "Local Government and Social Service Delivery in Nigeria: A Content Analysis." *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*. 2(2).
- Kaczynski, R., Jenerowicz, A., Siok, K., & Schismak, A. (2018). *Data fusion for high accuracy classification of urban areas*. 45. <https://doi.org/10.1117/12.2325809>
- Kazah-Toure, T. (2005). A Discourse on the Citizenship Question in Nigeria. *Democracy & Development: Journal of West African Affairs*, 4(1). <https://doi.org/10.4314/dad.v4i1.34002>
- Lundqvist, L. J. (2004). Integrating Swedish water resource management: A multi-level governance trilemma. *Local Environment*, 9(5), 413–424. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1354983042000255324>
- Nwabueze, B. (1982). *Federalism in Nigeria under Presidential Constitution*. London: Hurst and Co.
- Orland, B. (1992). Evaluating regional changes on the basis of local expectations: a visualization dilemma. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 21(4), 257–259. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-2046\(92\)90035-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-2046(92)90035-X)
- Osabuohien, E. S. C., & Egwakhe, A. J. (2009). External Reserve and the Nigerian Economy: The Dual Folded Debate. *African Journal of Business and Economic Research*, 3(2), 28–41. <https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/JMLC-06-2017-0021/full/html>
- Osaghae, E. (2005). *Federal Character and Federalism in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Heinemann Educational Book.

- Pettersson, M., Stjernström, O., & Keskitalo, E. C. H. (2017). The role of participation in the planning process: examples from Sweden. In *Local Environment* (Vol. 22, Issue 8, pp. 986–997). <https://doi.org/10.1080/13549839.2017.1319805>
- Rao, P. S. N. (2004). Good Urban Governance in India The Road Ahead. *Nagarlok*, XXXVI(2).
- Scheme, C. (2019). Detailed Urban Land Use Land Cover Classification at. *Sensors*, 19, 3120;
- Sellers, J. M., & Lidström, A. (2007). Decentralization, local government, and the welfare state. *Governance*, 20(4), 609–632. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0491.2007.00374.x>
- Ukiwo, U. (2006). Creation of Local Government Areas and Ethnic Conflicts in Nigeria: The Case of Warri, Delta State. Retrieved from www.crise.ox.ac.uk/copy/decentralization%20conference/ukiwo.pdf on 5/11/2013.
- Wraith, R. (1968). Local Government Finance in Nigeria. *African Affairs*, 67(267), 171–172. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.afraf.a095737>