



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA
FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

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Introduction

This course, MPA 856 entitled URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING is a two credit unit compulsory course for students studying Public Administration at undergraduates and postgraduates level in the Faculty of Management Sciences.

The course has been conveniently arranged for you in twelve distinct but related units of study activities. In this course guide, you will find out what you need to know about the aims and objectives of the course, components of the course material, arrangement of the study units, assignments, and examinations.

The Course Aim

The course is aimed at acquainting you with what URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING is all about and getting you understand the practical aspects of preparing a plan, designing the needed Urban and Regional planning and implementing them for national development. To ensure that this aim is achieved, some important background information will be provided and discussed, including:

- The Nigerian State
- Demography of Nigeria
- Urbanization Process: The African Experience
- Management of Cities and Municipalities
- Evolution of Urban Centers in Nigeria
- Urbanization and Rural Development
- Local Government and Urban Development
- Rural –Urban Migration
- Concept and Theory of Leadership
- Leadership Styles and Their Implications
- Performance Management
- Emergency Management and Public Policy
- Urbanization and its Problems in Africa
- The Role of Public and other Stakeholders in Disaster Reduction
- Emergency Management Institution in Nigeria: (NEMA).
- Fire Disasters: Prevention Of Mitigation

Learning Outcome

At the end of the course you should be able to know, understand and appreciate the following:

- The Nigerian State
- Demography of Nigeria
- Urbanization Process: The African Experience
- Management of Cities and Municipalities
- Evolution of Urban Centers in Nigeria
- Urbanization and Rural Development
- Local Government and Urban Development
- Rural –Urban Migration
- Concept and Theory of Leadership
- Leadership Styles and Their Implications
- Performance Management
- Emergency Management and Public Policy
- Urbanization and its Problems in Africa
- The Role of Public and other Stakeholders in Disaster Reduction
- Emergency Management Institution in Nigeria: (NEMA).
- Fire Disasters: Prevention Of Mitigation

Course Material

The course material package is composed of:

- The Course Guide
 - The Study Units
 - Self-Assessment Exercises
 - References/Further Readings
 - Possible answers to self-assessment exercise (s) within the content
-

The Study Units

The study units are as listed below:

MODULE 1

Unit1: The Nigerian State

Unit2: Demography of Nigeria

Unit3: Urbanization Process: The African Experience

Unit 4: Management of Cities and Municipalities

Unit 5: Evolution of Urban Centers in Nigeria

MODULE 2

Unit 1: Urbanization and Rural Development

Unit 2: Local Government and Urban Development

Unit 3: Rural –Urban Migration

Unit 4: Concept and Theory of Leadership
Unit 5: Leadership Styles and Their Implications

MODULE 3

Unit 1: Performance Management
Unit 2: Emergency Management and Public Policy
Unit 3: Urbanization and its Problems in Africa
Unit 4: The Role of Public and other Stakeholders in Disaster Reduction

MODULE 4

Unit 1: Emergency Management Institution in Nigeria: (NEMA).
Unit 2: Disasters: Prevention Of Mitigation

Assignments

Each unit of the course has a self-assessment exercise. You will be expected to attempt them as this will enable you understand the content of the unit.

Final Examination and Grading

At the end of the course, you will be expected to participate in the final examinations as scheduled. The final examination constitutes 70 percent of the total score for the course while the assignment, test and attendance constitute 30 percent as the case may be.

Summary

This course, MPA 856 entitled URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING is ideal for Urban and Regional planning implementations of any country. It will enable you understand the whole business involved in planning, project implementation in both the public and the private sectors. Having successfully completed the course, you will be equipped with the latest global knowledge on project implementation decisions. Enjoy the course.

CONTENTSPAGE

MODULE 1

Unit1: The Nigerian State
Unit2: Demography of Nigeria
Unit3: Urbanization Process: The African Experience
Unit 4: Management of Cities and Municipalities
Unit 5: Evolution of Urban Centers in Nigeria

MODULE 2

Unit 1: Urbanization and Rural Development
Unit 2: Local Government and Urban Development
Unit 3: Rural –Urban Migration
Unit 4: Concept and Theory of Leadership

Unit 5: Leadership Styles and Their Implications

MODULE 3

Unit 1: Performance Management

Unit 2: Emergency Management and Public Policy

Unit 3: Urbanization and its Problems in Africa

Unit 4: The Role of Public and other Stakeholders in Disaster Reduction

MODULE 4

Unit 1: Emergency Management Institution in Nigeria: (NEMA).

Unit 2: Disasters: Prevention Of Mitigation

MODULE 1

Unit 1: The Nigerian State

Structure

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- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
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 - 1.3.2 Characteristics of a State
 - 1.3.3 Differences between a Nation and a State
- 1.4 Evolution of the Nigerian State
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 - 1.4.2 The Igbo political system
 - 1.4.3 The Yoruba political system
- 1.5 The British adventurism in Nigeria
 - 1.5.1 Annexion and other activities of the British in Nigeria
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

This Unit presents a background to the entire course by explaining the concepts of State and Nation. It brings to the fore, Nigeria as a Nation State. The Unit equally traces the evolution of Nigeria as a Nation State. In the process, it discusses the role played by the British either positively or negatively in attaining the status of a Nation State by Nigeria. Above all, such other parameters that would aid the understanding of the entire course such as the different nationalities that metamorphosed into a Nation State are identified and explained.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Explain the concepts of State and Nation
- 2. Identify the characteristics of a State
- 3. Differentiate between a State and a Nation
- 4. Trace the Evolution of Nigeria as a Nation State
- 5. Identify and explain the role played by the British either positively or negatively in Nigeria's growth to Nationhood



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 Conceptual analysis

The State is defined by Anifowose (1999:85-87) as the most inclusive organization which has formal institutions for regulating the most significant external relations of men within its scope. It is also the basic political unit, a grouping of individuals who are organized in a defined territory for the pursuit of secular common welfare, the maintenance of law and order and the carrying out of external relations with other groups similarly organized. It has the following features:-

- i. It alone has the right to exercise force to compel obedience to its orders.
- ii. It is an all-inclusive association, that is, all departments of life are, at least potentially under its control while no other association caters for more than a limited department of life.
- iii. It is compulsory for everybody, and not voluntary, like other associations.
- iv. The basis of state is territorial, that is, its jurisdiction includes everybody who was born in a certain stretch of territory and continues to reside there.
- v. It has permanence
- vi. It has complete independence and sovereignty

1.3.2 Characteristics of a State

They are:

- i. Territory
- ii. Population
- iii. Government
- iv. Sovereignty
- v. Independence
- vi. A Sense of Nationalism or national identity

1.3.3 Differences between a Nation and a State

Although both terms share the same characteristics and therefore seem synonymous, the differences can be identified as follows:-

1. A Nation is usually made up of people with a community of identity and consciousness of unity. It is this feeling of belonging to a homogeneous and unified group by a people that is referred to as Nationalism or sense of Nationality.
2. Sovereignty is a characteristic of State and not necessarily of the Nation.
3. Contain features associated with the spirit of Nationalism or nationhood.

These are:-

- i. A common or related blood i.e. the people most of the time
- ii. A common language
- iii. A common historical tradition
- iv. A psychological identification with their National territory and symbols.
- v. Common customs and habits.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Now that you have seen the explanation and analysis of Nation and State, explain the characteristics of a State as well as the differences between State and Nation.
2. How would you justify Nigeria as a national-State?

1.4 Evolution of the Nigerian State

The territory which is today referred to as Nigeria emerged from a conglomeration of pockets of nationalities which existed here and there. Between the 14th and 18th century, were various empires such as the Oyo Empire, the Benin Empire, the Kanem-Borno Empire, the Songhai Empire which were autonomous entities and successfully administered. However, the political development of the entity started taking shape in form of alignment and realignments. Credit for this should essentially be given to Othman Dan Fodio who operated from the Northern part of the territory and through the Jihad fused all the pockets of nationalities in that territory.

While he was operating from the northern part of the territory, the Christian Missionaries and Trading Companies were operating from the Southern part of the territory. Much of whatever beginning and achievements recorded in the country can rightly be attributed to these non-governmental organizations. The outcome of these exploits and activities provided a shaped or re-shaped etc. society thereby gradually metamorphosing to what we referred to as the Tripod stand on which the country eventually became firmly seated. The components of these tripod stands are briefly described hereunder.

1.4.1 The Hausa/Fulani political system

The Othman Dan Fodio-led Jihad conquered the Habe or Hausa State thereby ensuring a Fulani occupation of the territory. This occupation was seen as both religious and political. The Sokoto Caliphate was thereafter established with outstanding centralized political system of government. Changes he brought about among others, includes a new system of selecting and appointing rulers who were described as Emirs who ruled the caliphates.

1.4.2 The Igbo political system

Generally speaking, the Igbo political system presents a direct opposite of the experiences in the Hausa/Fulani system. This is because, there is no form of centralized authority and the exercise of absolute power is absent. There are many institutions that shared political authorities in this system including the Ofo titleholders, the Ozo titleholders, the Age grades, etc.

Structurally, the Igbo political system was based on the village as a political unit. A village is inhabited by a group of related families and each family head held the Ofo title and all of them constituted the council of elders. It is this council that governed the village.

1.4.3 The Yoruba political system

The Yoruba political system could be traced to the Oyo Empire which was one of the nationalities earlier identified in the territory that conglomerated to what is today known as Nigeria. Oyo Empire was therefore the most popular and outstanding of all empires or kingdoms in the Yoruba political system. The empire influenced issues in other areas such as Dahomey (Republic of Benin), Ekiti, Ijebu, Ife, etc.

Structurally, the political head of the empire was the Alafin who was usually chosen by the Oyo Mesi (seven hereditary kingmakers of the Empire). In the administering of the

Empire, the Alafin was assisted by the “Bashorun” who was the Prime Minister as well as the leader of the Oyo Mesi.

1.5 The British adventurism in Nigeria

The Nigerian State of today is a creation of British imperialism. This means that it was carved out in the British capitalist drive for raw materials, markets and investment haven. The justification of British attempt at Nigeria as explained by Afigbi and Uya (2000:35) could be traced to 1849 when the British sought to sanitise the Bights of Benin and Biafra which were notorious ports for slave trade. From here, one thing led to another for the British, especially deeper involvement in the political and economic life of the city-states of the Bights and a rivalry with the French who also began showing imperial ambitions in the area. As recounted by Faseke (1998:1), on the 30th of July 1861, Oba Dosumu ceded Lagos to William McCosky the Acting Consul who was also Commander of Her majesty’s vessel. McCosky immediately assumed the title of Acting Governor. The action was supposedly in support of the British resolve to replace slave trade with “Legitimate Commerce”. A former Governor, Lt. Henry Stanhope Freeman later arrived in November 1861 to take charge of affairs.

1.5.1 Annexion and other activities of the British in Nigeria

The annexion and other activities of the British in Nigeria could be summarized as follows:-

1. In 1867, the British annexed the Lagos Lagoon area and its immediate environs and converted some into crown colony;
2. In 1885, the British converted the coastal consulate and its immediate hinterland into the Oil River Protectorate ;
3. In 1893, the Oil Rivers Protectorate was transformed into the Niger Coast protectorate;
4. In 1888, the British administered political baptism on Govenor Goldie’s National African Company, which had successfully squeezed out rivals, British and non-British from trade in the lower Niger following a trade war of almost unprecedented ferocity. Goldie’s Company as a result, became the “Royal Niger Company”, chartered and Limited. It also acquired political and administrative powers over a narrow belt of territory on both sides of the river from the sea to Lokoja, as well as over a vast area which later came to be known as Northern Nigeria;
5. By 1897, the British influence and power had overflowed the frontiers of Lagos and affected all of Yoruba land which was subsequently attached to Lagos as a protectorate;
6. In 1898, the British Government appointed a Niger committee under the chairmanship of Lord Selborne to look into and advise on how best to manage the three territories of Lagos colony, Lagos Protectorate and Niger Coast protectorate. It recommended the establishment of a Maritime province as an amalgam of the three territories and a Sudan Province made up of territories under the Royal Niger Company;
7. In 1900, major changes took place. First the charter of Royal Niger Company was withdrawn and the territory under its control renamed the protectorate of Northern Nigeria and brought under the Colonial Secretary. Secondly, the Niger Coast Protectorate

which had hitherto been under Foreign Secretary was renamed the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria and brought under the Colonial Secretary. Thirdly, the Niger Coast Protectorate, which had hitherto existed as two was remerged into one, thus bringing the Western and Eastern halves of that divide into one. This finalized the bringing of the three erstwhile separate units under the colonial office for administrative convenience.

8. In 1906, following the proposal of the Niger Committee, the Southern Protectorates were amalgamated to form the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria. This has severally been interpreted to mean the absorption of the Protectorate of southern Nigeria by the Colony and Protectorate of Lagos. Within this period (1900 - 1906), Sir Frederick Lugard, an erstwhile employee of the Royal Niger company, was appointed the first High commissioner of the Protectorate of Northern Nigeria and charged with the responsibility of amalgamating the two protectorates;

9. In 1914, the State of Nigeria was born following the amalgamation of the Northern Protectorate and Colony and protectorate of Southern Nigeria. This date marked a turning point in the history of the Nigerian state. Suffice it to state that some prominent Nigerian politicians in later years described the date and action that took place as a mistake and recognize such action as mere “geographical expression” and not necessarily the birth of a truly nation state. However, the point must be made that the British Ab initio was pursuing its own interests without apologies to anyone. The amalgamation was therefore, for its administrative convenience. It must also be mentioned that Sir Luggard introduced purposeless administrative machinery and could not establish any Secretariat. All he did was to create a body known as the Nigerian Council, which met once a year, to listen to his address on the state of the colony and protectorate of Nigeria. Infact, this body had no legislative powers. Hence, this administration has been described as a one-man rule. The mechanism introduced by Luggard for the administration of the vast territory of Nigeria, again for administrative convenience is referred to as “Indirect Rule”. This concept has therefore, ever since, been very popular in the study of Public Administration in Nigeria. Nigeria could not be described as a nation state since it lacked one of the main characteristics of a nation state. And that is, it was not a sovereign state but a colony. What the amalgamation of Nigeria in 1914 did was merely to give Nigeria its present shape and size as well as its complexity of diversity in culture etc. a phenomenon, which later informed its adoption as a federal structure. To become a sovereign state, Nigeria underwent a few stages of evolution outlined hereunder:

It took the ascension of Sir Hugh Clifford as Governor-general and a successor to Sir Frederick Luggard in 1922 to evolve a more purposely polity in Nigeria. First, was the adoption of the Clifford Constitution of 1922, which introduced elective principles, and the formation of political organizations. Second was the evolution of political parties. The second world war accelerated the decolonization process through the devolution of power to Nigerians.



1.6 Summary

Discussions on the Nigerian State have revealed that Nigeria could be regarded as a Nation– State given the characteristic features of both concepts and the level at which Nigeria met those characteristics. It was not easy really, because, if one considers her chequered history one will appreciate the fact that the nation underwent several stages of metamorphoses. The role of the British in the whole exercise was catalogued in what we referred to as Annexion and other activities. Finally, the political systems of the Hausa/Fulani, Igbo and Yoruba created a tripod stand for Nigeria which, to a large extent, fashioned is political evolution that eventually gave her the status of a Nation-State.

The highpoints of our discussion are that a state entails a political unit, a groupings of individuals who are organized in a defined territory. It therefore has such characteristics as territory, population, government, sovereignty, independence etc. These are some characteristics for a nation except that a nation is not necessarily characterized by sovereignty. Such issues as race or bond of blood, common language etc. is peculiar to a nation. Having examined the evolution of Nigeria and the catalytically roles played by British we posit that Nigeria as we have it today is a nation – State.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Anifowose, R and Enemu, F (1999) Elements of Politics (Lagos: Malthouse Press limited)

Maduabum, C.P (2008): The Mechanics of Public Administration in Nigeria (Lagos: Concept Publications).

Omolayo, S. and Arowolaju, b. (1987) Elements of Government): An Introductory College text on Political Science. (Lagos: Friends foundation Publishers Limited).



1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Now that you have seen the explanation and analysis of Nation and State, explain the characteristics of a State as well as the differences between State and Nation,

Answer

The characteristics of a State

1. Territory
2. Population
3. Government
4. Sovereignty
5. Independence
6. A Sense of Nationalism or national identity

Difference between State and nation are:

- i. A Nation is usually made up of people with community of identity and consciousness of unity hence, the term Nationalism.
- ii. Sovereignty is a characteristic of a State and not of a Nation.
- iii. Nation has peculiar features such as common or related blood i.e. a race, language, historical tradition, national territory and customs and habits.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

How would you justify Nigeria as a national-State?

Answer

The territory which is today referred to as Nigeria emerged from a conglomeration of pockets of nationalities which existed here and there. Between the 14th and 18th century, were various empires such as the Oyo Empire, the Benin Empire, the Kanem-Borno Empire, the Songhai Empire which were autonomous entities and successfully administered. However, the political development of the entity started taking shape in form of alignment and realignments. Credit for this should essentially be given to Othman Dan Fodio who operated from the Northern part of the territory and through the Jihad fused all the pockets of nationalities in that territory.

While he was operating from the northern part of the territory, the Christian Missionaries and Trading Companies were operating from the Southern part of the territory. Much of whatever beginning and achievements recorded in the country can rightly be attributed to these non-governmental organizations. The outcome of these exploits and activities provided a shaped or re-shaped etc. society thereby gradually metamorphosing to what we referred to as the Tripod stand on which the country eventually became firmly seated. The components of these tripod stands are briefly described hereunder.

UNIT 2: Demography of Nigeria

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Main Content
 - 1.3.1 Conceptual analysis
 - 1.3.2 Characteristics of a State
 - 1.3.3 Differences between a Nation and a State
- 1.4 Demography of Nigeria
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

In this Unit, there will be a reflection on the concept of Nigeria, its coinage and location. The unit will also present the countries bordering Nigeria as well as the various states and local government areas in the country.

The importance of this is underscored by the fact that at least every state capital is an urban center and rural areas are predominant in the local government areas. The relationship between the two will thus aid understanding of the course on administration of urban centers.

The demography of the country is equally necessary because, to a large extent, the population in a given area is a main factor in revenue collection from the Federation account to that area.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

1. explain the meaning or concept of Nigeria;
2. identify the location of Nigeria;
3. outline the status and local government areas in Nigeria; and
4. analyze the population of Nigeria by state



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 Location of Nigeria

The name Nigeria meaning, NigerArea was indeed coined by one Miss Shaw who later became the wife of Lord Fredrick Lugard.

Nigeria is located within the Western Coast of Africa and slightly North of the equator. She enjoys the cool influence of the Atlantic Ocean in the south and the fairly harsh influences of the arid zone of the Sahara Desert in the North. It is situated between

latitude 4 degrees North and 14 degrees North and between longitudes 3 degrees East and 15 degrees West. Its geographical area, it must be emphasized, encompasses contrasting landforms, climatic conditions and vegetation belts. The surface area is approximately 923,800 square kilometers while it enjoys the status of the most populous nation in Africa with a staggering population of about 150 million people.

The country is bordered in the North by the Niger Republic, in the East by Republic of Cameroon, in the West by the Republic of Benin and in the South by the Atlantic Coast line, which of course includes the eastern sector of the Gulf of Guinea.

1.3.2 The Geo-Political Zones and States in Nigeria

With diverse ethnic groups numbering about 373, and their attendant diversifies in language and culture, from an initial three regions of North, West and East, Nigeria of today is made up of six (6) geo-political zones and thirty-six (36) states. Table 2.1 below shows a list of the geo-political zones and the number of states in each geopolitical Zone

S/N	GEO-POLITICAL ZONE	STATE	NUMBER
1	North West	Sokoto, Kebbi, Kano, Jigawa, Katsina, Kaduna, Zamfara	7
2	North East	Borno, Yobe, Bauchi, Gombe, Taraba, Adamawa	6
3	North Central	Benue, Plateau, Kogi, Nasarawa, Kwara, Niger	6
4	South West	Oyo, Lagos, Ondo, Ogun, Osun, Ekiti	6
5	South East	Enugu, Ebonyi, Anambra, Imo, Abia	5
6	South South	Rivers, Bayelsa, Cross River, Akwa-Ibom, Edo, Delta	6
		TOTA	36

The Thirty-six (36) States in Nigeria are listed below:-

1. Abia
2. Adamawa
3. Akwa-Ibom
4. Anambra
5. Bauchi
6. Bayelsa
7. Benue
8. Borno
9. Cross River
10. Delta
11. Ebonyi

12. Edo
13. Ekiti
14. Enugu
15. Gombe
16. Imo
17. Jigawa
18. Kaduna
19. Kano
20. Katsina
21. Kebbi
22. Kogi
23. Kwara
24. Lagos
25. Nassarawa
26. Niger
27. Ogun
28. Ondo
29. Osun
30. Oyo
31. Plateau
32. Rivers
33. Sokoto
34. Taraba
35. Yobe
36. Zamfara

The Federal Capital Territory (FCT) of Abuja enjoys Mayoral rather than state status.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- | |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Who coined the name Nigeria and from where? 2. Name the Nigeria's Neighbours or borders |
|---|

1.4 Demography of Nigeria

As a concept, demography refers essentially to the population of a state. You must recall that population is one of the characteristics of a state. As a nation state, Nigeria has a population which is put at nearly 150 million. Population census was carried out periodically mainly within a ten year period. Another reason we examine the population of Nigeria particularly its distribution per state is because it sometimes contributes to the problems of urban centres particularly the large ones like Lagos, Abuja, Kano, Ibadan, Onitsha etc., and the attendant challenges in administering them. Table 2.4 shows the distribution of Nigeria population per state in year 2006 when the last population census was conducted.

The total population of Nigeria, as recorded by the 1991 census, was 88.99 million. The population has since been projected to 113.80 million by 1999. The total population of Nigeria as at 2006 was 140 million. It must still be restated that although a multi-ethnic

state, Nigeria has three dominant tribes, viz: Hausa-Fulani in the north, Yoruba in the west and Igbo in the east. Hence, some writers had argued that Nigeria rests on a tripod based on these three tribes. This is being brought to the fore because of the influence exerted by the three major tribes on Nigeria's political history, the political behaviour of Nigerians and, in particular, also for environmental factors influencing governance in the country in general and the country's public administration system in particular.



1.5 Summary

The Unit again draws our mind to the geography of Nigeria during which we identified its territory which of course includes its neighbours. The vast area of the country exposed the different parts to the different climatic conditions which inform the culture etc., of the people from different parts of the country. The Unit also presents clearly the six geopolitical zones and the 36 states that make up Nigeria and the state capitals which are all urban centers. Abuja as Federal capital territory although not a state presents a model of an urban center.

The Unit also informed us that there are 774 local government areas in Nigeria. It equally informed us about the number of LGAs per state. A list of all the local government areas in Nigeria is contained in pages 125-129 of the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1999).

Finally, you are informed of the demography of Nigeria. Its population and the distribution per state indicate the spread and the attendant challenges in administering the urban centers particularly those of them that have large influx of the population. All these will aid you in the understanding of the entire course.

The major things that were discussed in this unit included the geographical boundary of the territory called Nigeria; its climatic conditions; the six geopolitical zones and the number and list of states in Nigeria. The 774 Local Government Areas and the distribution of the LGAs per state. Finally, the Unit looked at the population of the country and its distribution per state. This is particularly informative in that subsequent discussions on rural-urban migration and the use of population as a major determinant for allocation of funds to States and LGAs from the Federation account will be easy to understand.



1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

Afigbi, A.E; and Uya O.E. (2000) "The Evolution of Nigeria (1849-1960)" in H.I.A. Ajaegbu E.T. (Ed) Nigeria: A People United, A Future Assured, And Vol.1: A Compendium (Abuja: Federal Ministry of Information).

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1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Who coined the name Nigeria and from where?

Answer

The name Nigeria meaning, NigerArea was indeed coined by one Miss Shaw who later became the wife of Lord Fredrick Lugard.

Nigeria is located within the Western Coast of Africa and slightly North of the equator. She enjoys the cool influence of the Atlantic Ocean in the south and the fairly harsh influences of the arid zone of the Sahara Desert in the North. It is situated between latitude 4 degrees North and 14 degrees North and between longitudes 3 degrees East and 15 degrees West. Its geographical area, it must be emphasized, encompasses contrasting landforms, climatic conditions and vegetation belts. The surface area is approximately 923,800 square kilometers while it enjoys the status of the most populous nation in Africa with a staggering population of about 150 million people.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Name the Nigeria's Neighbours or borders

Answer

The country is bordered in the North by the Niger Republic, in the East by Republic of Cameroon, in the West by the Republic of Benin and in the South by the Atlantic Coast line, which of course includes the eastern sector of the Gulf of Guinea.

Unit 3: URBANISATION PROCESS: THE AFRICAN EXPERIENCE

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Title of the main
 - 1.3.1 The problem of definition
 - 1.3.2 History of Urbanization
 - 1.3.3 Causes of urbanization
- 1.4 City life 1800s
- 1.5 Urbanization in MDCs
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- 1.5.3 Global differences in urbanization
- 1.6 Summary
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- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Although Africa is a continent comprising nation of village and towns dwellers, it is only recently that cities are emerging in a way reminiscent of Europe or American sense of city life. However, as much as the modern Africans may delight in urban life with its glamour in terms of social amenities, good life and other attractions which may be present, a majority of city dwellers have heritage in the rural areas. They still boast of village type of family which is characterized by natural rural associations among clans and kins.

The village origin of most African urban centres can be better conceived in terms of the role of traditional religion in creating not only village solidarity but also fostering the mutual bonds and ties that help unite clan groups and upon which villages are established or developed. It may be said, therefore, that towns in Africa have close links with their village cultures. The same applies to the description of the pre-industrial cities located away from the coastal areas, with the exception of the trans-Saharan or Sudanic cities like Timbuktu and Kanu.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

This unit shall provide background knowledge on the conceptual definition of urban and rural; appraise the problem of definition of these concepts, attempt a brief history of urbanisation, causes of urbanisation and global differences in urbanization.



1.3 Title of the main

1.3.1 The problem of definition

There can be no human feeling which has generated such deep feelings and controversial attitudes as the city. Hence the first and immediate problem that arises in the study of towns is that of their definition. What does the term 'town' or 'city' imply as against 'village' or 'hamlet' and what is the nature of the distinction between that which is 'rural'? These are questions to which urban scholars cannot provide universally acceptable answers.

Thus, the criteria laid down for the definition of towns vary from country to country and are based on the varying experiences and circumstances of the respective countries and Africa is no exception. These are equally at variance with the urban classification criteria of the United Nations. Although the definition is experienced worldwide it is more difficult in Africa because of pre-colonial and post-colonial influences on urbanisation. the united nations demographic year book for 1952 which was devoted to the problem of providing adequate data on world urban population concluded that: 'there is no point in the continuum from large agglomerations to small clusters or scattered dwellings where urbanity disappears and rurality begins' (United nations, 1952). In other words, the division between urban and rural population is necessarily arbitrary. As one goes down the scale from the metropolis to the single isolated farm, it is impossible to identify a dividing line which is conceptually meaningful. Instead, it is a continuum of urban rural places.

Estimates of urban populations are adopted as national definition of urban by many countries. The problem of urban status is not easy to resolve anywhere in the world, but it is perhaps especially more difficult in Africa where there are marked contrasts between indigenous towns and European-created towns and between Africa and western concepts of urbanism. As the following list indicates, many African countries have diverse official definitions of urban status (Sule, 2005):

Algeria: 55 most important communities having local self-government

Ethiopia: any settlement, regardless of size, provided it has a post office or a police station or a bar.

Gabon: any settlement of over 1,000 inhabitants

Botswana: Francistown urban area, Gaborone and Lobatsi Towns

Burundi: communities of Bujumbura, Central African Republic, district s and regional centres and rural villages within radius of approximately 5 km

Congo Kinshasa: clusters of 2,000 of more inhabitants where the predominant economic activity is non-agricultural

Kenya: towns of over 2,000 inhabitants

Libya: Total population of Tripoli and Benghazi plus the urban parts of Beida and Derna.

Ghana: centres with 5,000 of more persons serving as the seat of a chief, so that it is the political, administrative and social centre of tribal life. Malawi: all townships and town planning areas and all district centres

Mauritius: Proclaimed townships, according to enlarged limits as of August 1963, and the town of Makebourg.

Central African Republic: the existence of an administrative post with villages situated within a radius of five miles from such a post

Morocco: 117 urban centres

Zimbabwe: 9 main towns including suburbs Nigeria: Any compact settlement with at least 5,000 inhabitants according to the 1952 census, but now, the minimum is 20,000.

Sierra Leone: Freetown, the capital South Africa: All areas of 500 or more inhabitants and adjoining suburban area but excluding predominantly rural agricultural settlements

Sudan: 68 towns

Swaziland: Locations proclaimed as urban

Tunisia: Population living in the communes

Arab republic of Egypt: Governorates of Cairo, Alexandria, Port said, Ismaila, frontier Governorates as well as district (marked) capitals.

It will be observed that most definitions use administrative status and/or size, partly because there are generally insufficient data for definition based on functional criteria, such as the proportion of the active population engaged in non-agricultural occupations. Some merely indicate organised recognised urban centres, while others adapt a mixture of population, administrative, social and functional criteria. Thus far, we have seen that the problem of definition is difficult to overcome just because different countries utilize different experiences to define what constitutes an urban place. As the foregoing criteria indicate, inevitably, very different minimum size thresholds have been used, ranging from 500-20,000 inhabitants. This tends to complicate international comparability of population data. Size alone is certainly not good criteria of urban status (Sule, 2005). For instance, Grove and Huszer (1964) argued that in Ghana where 5,000 inhabitants have been taken as a threshold of urban status, many smaller places perform urban functions while some larger places do not. In south west Nigeria, Abiodun (1967) was able to identify five major group of settlements, the first three indisputably urban, the fourth transitional urban-rural urban and the fifth rural.

1.2.1 History of Urbanization

Urbanization is the growth of cities, brought about by a population shift from rural areas and small communities to large ones, and the change from a largely agricultural economy to an industrial one. This results in the development of cities and towns on formerly agricultural or natural lands. Through most of history, the human population has lived a rural lifestyle, dependent on agriculture and hunting for survival.

In 1800, only 3 percent of the world's population lived in urban areas. By 1900, almost 14 percent were urbanites, although only 12 cities had 1 million or more inhabitants. In 1950, 30 percent of the world's population resided in urban centres. The number of cities with over 1 million people had grown to 83. The world has experienced unprecedented urban growth in recent decades.

In May 2007 for the first time in history over 50% of the world's population lived in urban areas. There are 411 cities over 1 million. More developed nations are about 76 percent urban, while 40 percent of residents of less developed countries live in urban

areas. It is expected that 60 percent of the world population will be urban by 2030, and that most urban growth will occur in less developed countries.

1.2.2 Causes of urbanization

A city grows through natural increase-the excess of births over deaths and the immigration of people from rural areas. MDCs and LDCs differ in the way in which urbanization is occurring.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Attempt a conceptual definition of the term urban
2. Differentiate between urbanisation in MDCs and LDCs.

1.3 City life 1800s

To remove household waste and garbage, privies, also known as outhouses, were small wooden sheds that served as a receptacle for human waste. However, privies tended to leak their contents into the rear yards, where the household well was also located, thereby contaminating the water supply. To remedy the problem, Newark employed scavengers who drove their wagons through the city during the middle of the night and removed the contents of the privies. The “night soil” from the privies was carted to farms on the outskirts of the city, but this only worsened the problem as waste spilled onto streets from their uncovered wagons, garbage was dumped in vacant lots and the outlying districts were neglected. Meanwhile, living conditions deteriorated. Pigs roamed the streets in search of garbage, animal carcasses littered the streets, and the waterways that traversed the city carried away household wastes in full view for all to see. The poor and immigrant classes lived in dark, wretched tenements without running water or basic sanitary amenities.

Consequently, Newark, like most north-eastern cities, was periodically plagued by outbreaks of epidemics. Infectious diseases such as cholera, typhoid, yellow fever, dysentery and small pox claimed thousands of lives, mostly the poor. For years, the medical profession believed that these infectious diseases were caused by the inhalation of poisonous gases known as “miasmas-” noxious fumes emanating from rotting animal and vegetable matter

1.4 Urbanization in MDCs

During the 19th and early 20th centuries, urbanization resulted due to industrialization. New job opportunities in the cities encouraged the mass movement of population away from the countryside. At the same time, migrants provided cheap, plentiful labor for the emerging factories. High death rates in the cities slowed urban growth. Cities were unhealthy places because of crowded living conditions, the prevalence of contagious diseases, and the lack of sanitation. Until the mid-1800s, the number of deaths exceeded births in many large European cities. Migration accounted for as much as 90 percent of city growth during this period

1.5.1 Urbanization in LDCs

Urbanization in most less developed countries in the past 50 years contrasts sharply with the experience of the more developed countries. Death rates have fallen faster in urban areas because of greater access to health services. Because birth rates are relatively high

in most less developed countries, the rates of natural increase are also quite high in cities. Migration also fuels urban growth in less developed countries as people leave the countryside in search of better jobs

1.5.2 Global differences in urbanization

New York and London are typical of large cities in more developed countries that arose in the 1800s and early 1900s, reached their current size mid-century, and have since experienced slow growth or decline. Cities in some less developed countries, such as Mexico City, grew very rapidly between 1950 and 1980, and are growing more slowly now. Many Asian and African cities, such as Lagos and Bombay, are experiencing very rapid growth now and are projected to continue at this pace. Much of urban migration is driven by rural populations' desire for the advantages that urban areas offer. Urban advantages include greater opportunities to receive education, health care, and services such as entertainment. The urban poor have less opportunity for education than the urban non-poor, but still they have more chance than rural populations .



1.6 Summary

The African urban centres have grown from colonial town to large population centres of modern metropolis. functionally, some of the centres apart from the national capitals still have characteristics that are reminiscent of rural places there are generally inadequately provided with basic social services in spite of their burgeoning population. This exploding population, owing to rural migration, has produced an index of underdevelopment which manifests itself in the increasing wave of crimes, unemployment and under-employment.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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Grove, D and Huszar, L (1964) The towns of Ghana, Accra: Ghana University

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1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

Attempt a conceptual definition of the term urban

Answer

There can be no human feeling which has generated such deep feelings and controversial attitudes as the city. Hence the first and immediate problem that arises in the study of towns is that of their definition. What does the term 'town' or 'city' imply as against

‘village’ or ‘hamlet’ and what is the nature of the distinction between that which is ‘rural’? These are questions to which urban scholars cannot provide universally acceptable answers.

Thus, the criteria laid down for the definition of towns vary from country to country and are based on the varying experiences and circumstances of the respective countries and Africa is no exception. These are equally at variance with the urban classification criteria of the United Nations. Although the definition is experienced worldwide it is more difficult in Africa because of pre-colonial and post-colonial influences on urbanisation. the united nations demographic year book for 1952 which was devoted to the problem of providing adequate data on world urban population concluded that: ‘there is no point in the continuum from large agglomerations to small clusters or scattered dwellings where urbanity disappears and rurality begins’ (United nations, 1952). In other words, the division between urban and rural population is necessarily arbitrary. As one goes down the scale from the metropolis to the single isolated farm, it is impossible to identify a dividing line which is conceptually meaningful. Instead, it is a continuum of urban rural places.

Estimates of urban populations are adopted as national definition of urban by many countries. The problem of urban status is not easy to resolve anywhere in the world, but it is perhaps especially more difficult in Africa where there are marked contrasts between indigenous towns and European-created towns and between Africa and western concepts of urbanism.

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

Differentiate between urbanisation in MDCs and LDCs

Answer

New York and London are typical of large cities in more developed countries that arose in the 1800s and early 1900s, reached their current size mid-century, and have since experienced slow growth or decline. Cities in some less developed countries, such as Mexico City, grew very rapidly between 1950 and 1980, and are growing more slowly now. Many Asian and African cities, such as Lagos and Bombay, are experiencing very rapid growth now and are projected to continue at this pace. Much of urban migration is driven by rural populations' desire for the advantages that urban areas offer. Urban advantages include greater opportunities to receive education, health care, and services such as entertainment. The urban poor have less opportunity for education than the urban non-poor, but still they have more chance than rural populations

UNIT 4: MANAGEMENT OF CITIES AND MUNICIPALITIES

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Title of the main
 - 1.3.1 Urban and Municipal Management
 - 1.3.2 Municipal and Local Services
- 1.4 Changes in the Urban Life
- 1.5 Evolution of the Role of Management in Municipalities
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

The local and municipal administration aims at the improvement and development of the local community. Actually, it is in a better position than the central authorities to reach out for the local communities and to understand and seek solutions for the various problems. Such capacity occurs through the interaction of the local community that induces effective participation of the citizens in the local activities and thus achieves the national participation in the process of development. Such activities make the process of local administration a successful one.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- 1. explain urban and municipal management
- 2. identify Municipal and Local Services
- 3. identify changes in urban life
- 4. outline the evolution of the Role of Management in Municipalities



1.3 Title of the main

1.3.1 Urban and Municipal Management

Urban areas around the globe constitute human aggregation centers, economic activity, social interaction, mobility, scientific, cultural and technological advancements. The task of administration in cities and municipalities is coordination of the efforts of the human groups and their orientation towards the plans that aim to achieve the defined goals. The importance of administration lies in the tackling of the burdens of the heavy, diverse, ever increasing and developing tasks in urban areas where the work is complicated by nature due to the technological vast advancement, increase in population, additional needs for municipal and local services and the rapid developments in the urban life style itself.

1.3.2 Municipal and Local Services

Regarding the development, increase and numerous services in cities we may indicate the development plans and burdens, development in the industrial areas and requirements of urban planning, masters of preventive measures for health and environmental and air pollution control, problems of waste collection and the most modern methods of waste disposal, combating rodents and insects, waste water treatment and purification, electronic traffic control, swimming pools control, improvement of fire extinguishers, dental programmes, mother and child care clinics, control on residential complexes, sport areas, airports and helicopter landing areas, road construction and street light. We can also mention the role of the administrative organization in the daily system for all services and utilities and coordination among them as well as utilization of modern approaches and work systems such as application of computers, microfilm, calculators, information centers.

1.4 Changes in the Urban Life

Not only did the functions and tasks of municipalities increase, but they also changed in their nature. Modern sciences have added a lot to the provision of services in local communities, particularly the urban community. We recognize now how treated and purified waste water is utilized, how advanced methods of investigation and prevention of crime are applied and how psychological malady which widely spread in the civil communities is better addressed. We also notice the vast advancements in technology and its applications in contrast to the disability, in general, of municipalities. The result was more concentrated on the specialization in services and on the important role of applying scientific administrative methods to address the tasks. This also necessitated prediction for future problems depending on researches and studies and to seek solutions for and seek prevention of future problems. The qualitative and quantitative and varied change in the nature of municipal functions may be related to several factors, some are:

- i. Increase in population in urban areas and the changeover from rural to urban life which affected the social behaviour and basic environment.
- ii. Migration from rural areas to cities especially the capitals and metropolises which result in many problems and burdens.
- iii. Transferring some local minor units into towns and municipalities and construction of townships and neighborhoods which rely on major cities creating more burdens of providing services,
- iv. Utilities and urban facilities.
- v. Moving industry from urban to less populated areas.
- vi. Modern sciences and technologies, easy service facilities for the community, local community demands and the problems that face cities in general and capitals and metropolises in particular.
- vii. Development of municipal administration philosophy from supervision and control over performance to assuming responsibility of performing along with organization and development of municipal revenues, improving methods of administration and organization and conducting researches for community services.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Outline the factors responsible for the changing nature of Municipal functions.
2. Explain the evolution of the role of management in Municipalities

1.5 Evolution of the Role of Management in Municipalities

The varied and increasing functions of municipalities have resolved the distinctive of administrative systems in cities, the tough job of correlating technical and service specializations to facilitate services for the local community, assuming the burdens of the daily (routine) work, addressing the demands of citizens, conducting training programs aiming to upgrade the level of performance and adopting modern methods in implementing the plans for development.

Below are some of the managerial problems and issues to be addressed:

1. Enhancing the methods for organization and procedures to keep pace with the new changes.
2. Conducting studies related to the requirements of the civilization shift and the new style of life pertaining to safety, luxury and prosperity.
3. Improvement of urban planning and housing plans in the city, with special consideration to other elements such as health services, safety and security, local traditions and habits, environmental factors and preservation of the characteristics, heritage and the requirements for development.
4. Importance of focusing on the manpower element and on the projects of its enhancement and providing the administration with its needs for technical and managerial specializations.
5. The issue of reorganization and development of managerial elements.
6. Public opinion on the general policy for the management of the city and on implementation of projects and performance.
7. Coordinating among municipal authorities and the other authorities that provide facilities and services within the city.
8. Observing the bases for cooperation and integration among departments of planning and implementation for achieving the main objectives.



1.6 Summary

We repeat what we said in the very beginning and assure that complexity of the modern government functioning makes the function of public administration more complicated, specifically the local and municipal administration. No doubt that the increasing trend towards decentralization at the national level and the quantity of responsibilities delegated to the municipalities in the field of services, utilities, environment, local and urban development, all participated in the emergence of several problems and issues which require treatment by the administrative leadership, and many experiences proved successful. It is our considered opinion that adequate management of Municipal and

urban centres would assist government improve the life of the citizens. This however cannot be realized unless the factors identified in this unit are effectively addressed. Management of cities and Municipalities exposes our discussion on the nifty gritty of measures aimed at addressing such issues as over population of cities and its attendant impact on the citizens; overstretching available resources etc. This unit therefore explains urban areas as constituting human aggregation centres, economic activity, social interaction etc. It also looked at services rendered by both the municipalities and local centres. The unit addressed the changes in urban life and identified six (6) factors responsible for changing nature of municipal functions. The unit finally addressed the evolution of the role of management of municipalities. In the process, eight (8) managerial problems and issues to be addressed were outlined.



1.7 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Outline the factors responsible for the changing nature of Municipal functions.

Answer

Factors responsible for the changing nature of Municipal functions are:

1. Increase in population in urban areas and the changeover from rural to urban life which affected the social behaviour and basic environment.
2. Migration from rural areas to cities especially the capitals and metropolises which result in many problems and burdens.
3. Transferring some local minor units into towns and municipalities and construction of townships and neighborhoods which rely on major cities creating more burdens of providing services,
4. Utilities and urban facilities.
5. Moving industry from urban to less populated areas.
6. Modern sciences and technologies, easy service facilities for the community, local community demands and the problems that face cities in general and capitals and metropolises in particular.
7. Development of municipal administration philosophy from supervision and control over performance to assuming responsibility of performing along with organization

and development of municipal revenues, improving methods of administration and organization and conducting researches for community services.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Explain the evolution of the role of management in Municipalities

Evolution of the Role of Management in Municipalities

The varied and increasing functions of municipalities have resolved the distinctive of administrative systems in cities, the tough job of correlating technical and service specializations to facilitate services for the local community, assuming the burdens of the daily (routine) work, addressing the demands of citizens, conducting training programs aiming to upgrade the level of performance and adopting modern methods in implementing the plans for development.

Below are some of the managerial problems and issues to be addressed:

- a. Enhancing the methods for organization and procedures to keep pace with the new changes.
- b. Conducting studies related to the requirements of the civilization shift and the new style of life pertaining to safety, luxury and prosperity.
- c. Improvement of urban planning and housing plans in the city, with special consideration to other elements such as health services, safety and security, local traditions and habits, environmental factors and preservation of the characteristics, heritage and the requirements for development.
- d. Importance of focusing on the manpower element and on the projects of its enhancement and providing the administration with its needs for technical and managerial specializations.
- e. The issue of reorganization and development of managerial elements.

UNIT 5: EVOLUTION OF URBAN CENTERS IN NIGERIA

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Title of the main
 - 1.3.1 in the beginning
 - 1.3.2 Historical Development
- 1.4 The Situation today
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Resources
- 1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Although, urbanization and urban cities existed before the colonial period, it was at a very low key such as centres of barter trade etc. However, the advent of colonialism gave prominence to this phenomenon. This is because colonialism came with it certain infrastructures and facilities made essentially for the comfort of the colonial masters. Some of the infrastructures are pipe-borne water, electricity, tarred roads etc. Soon the comfort provided by such modern infrastructural facilities started attracting rural dwellers particularly those that brought their farm products for sale to the Europeans as well as Africans that served them. The upsurge of population of urban centres is mainly due to such comforts.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit you should be able to:

- 1. Explain the antecedents that led to existence of urban centres
- 2. Trace the historical development of urban centres
- 3. Analyze what the situation is today.



1.3 Title of the main

1.3.1 in the beginning

Nigerian urbanism, as in other parts of the world, is a function primarily of trade and politics. In the north, the great urban centers of Kano, Katsina, Zaria, Sokoto, the early Borno capitals (Gazargamo and Kuka) and other cities served as entrepôts to the Saharan and trans-Saharan trade, and as central citadels and political capitals for expanding states of the northern savanna. They attracted large numbers of traders and migrants from their own hinterlands and generally also included “stranger quarters” for migrants of other regions and nations. In the south, the rise of the Yoruba expansionist city-states and of Benin and others was stimulated by the trade to the coast, and by competition among these growing urban centres for the control of their hinterlands and of the trade from the

interior to the Atlantic (including the slave trade). The activities of European traders also attracted people to such coastal cities as Lagos, Badagry, Brass, and Bonny, and later Calabar and Port Harcourt. Overlying the original features of the earlier cities were those generated by colonial and post-colonial rule, which created new urban centers while also drastically altering the older ones. All these cities and peri-urban areas generally tended to have high population densities.

1.3.2 Historical Development

The northern savanna cities grew within city walls, at the center of which were the main market, government buildings, and the central mosque. Around them clustered the houses of the rich and powerful. Smaller markets and denser housing were found away from this core along with little markets at the gates and some cleared land within the gates that was needed especially for siege agriculture. Groups of specialized craft manufacturers (cloth dyers, weavers, potters, and the like) were organized into special quarters, the enterprises often being family-based and inherited. Roads from the gates ran into the central market and the administrative headquarters. Cemeteries were outside the city gates.

The concentration of wealth, prestige, political power, and religious learning in the cities attracted large numbers of migrants, both from the neighboring countryside and from distant regions. This influx occasioned the building of additional sections of the city to accommodate these strangers. In many of the northern cities, these areas were separated between sections for the distant, often non-Muslim migrants not subject to the religious and other prohibitions of the emir, and for those designated the “SabonGari,” or new town (which in southern cities, such as Ibadan, has often been shortened to “Sabo”), while the latter was often known as the “Tudun Wada,” an area often quite wealthy and elaborately laid out. To the pre-colonial sections of the town was often added a government area for expatriate administrators. The result was that many of the northern cities have grown from a single centralized core to being poly-nucleated cities, with areas whose distinctive character reflected their origins, and the roles and position of their inhabitants.

Surrounding many of the large, older northern cities, including Kano, Sokoto, and Katsina, there developed regions of relatively dense rural settlement where increasingly intense agriculture was practiced to supply food and other products to the urban population. These areas have come to be known as close settled zones, and they were of major importance to the agricultural economies of the north. By 1990 the inner close settled zone around Kano, and the largest of its kind, extended to a radius of about thirty kilometers, essentially the limit of a trip to the city on foot or by donkey. Within this inner zone, there has long been a tradition of intensive interaction between the rural and urban populations, involving not just food but also wood for fuel, manure, and a range of trade goods. There has also been much land investment and speculation in this zone. The full range of Kano’s outer close settled zone in 1990 was considered to extend sixty-five to ninety-five kilometers from the city, and rural-urban interactions had extended in distance and increased in intensity because of the great improvements in roads and in the availability of motorized transport. Within this zone, the great majority of usable land

was under annual rainy season or continuous irrigated cultivation, making it one of the most intensively cultivated regions in sub-Saharan Africa.

In the south, there were some similarities of origin and design in the forest and southern savanna cities of Yorubaland, but culture, landscape, and history generated a very difficult character for most of those cities. As in the north, the earlier Yoruba towns often centered around the palace of a ruler, or *afin*, which was surrounded by a larger open space and a market. This arrangement was still evident in older cities such as Ife. However, many of the most important contemporary Yoruba cities, including the largest, Ibadan were founded during the period of the Yoruba wars in the first half of the nineteenth Century. Reflecting their origins as war camps, they usually contained multiple center of power without a single central palace. Instead, the main market often assumed the central position in the original town, and there were several separated areas of important compounds established by the major original factions. Abeokuta, for example, had three main chiefly families from Egba clan who had broken away from and become important rivals of Ibadan. Besides these divisions were many of the Hausa migrants resided; the sections added during the colonial era, often as government reserve areas (GRAs) in the south and 'Cantonments' in the north; and the numerous areas of postcolonial expansion, generally having little or no planning.

In high population densities typically found in Yoruba cities... and even in rural villages in Yorubaland-were among the striking features of the region. This culturally based pattern was probably reinforced during the period of intense intercity warfare, but it persisted in most areas through the colonial and independence periods. The distinctive Yoruba pattern of densification involved filling in compounds with additional rooms, then adding a second, third, or sometimes even a fourth story. Eventually, hundreds of people might live in a space that had been occupied by only one extended family two or three generations earlier. Fueling this process of densification were the close connections between rural and urban dwellers, and the tendency for any Yoruba who could afford it to maintain both urban and rural residences.

The colonial government, in addition to adding sections to existing cities, also crafted important new urban centers in areas where there previously had been none. Among the most important were Kaduna, the colonial capital of the Protectorate of Northern Nigeria, and Jos in the central highlands, which was the center of the tin mining industry on the plateau and a recreational town for expatriates and the Nigerian elite. These new cities lacked walls but had centrally located administrative buildings and major road and rail transport routes, along which the main markets developed. These routes became one of the main forces for the cities' growth. The result was usually a basically linear city, rather than the circular pattern largely based on defensive needs, which characterized the earlier indigenous urban centers.

The other ubiquitous colonial addition was the segregated GRA, consisting of Europeanstyle housing, a hospital or nursing station, and educational, recreational, and religious facilities for the British colonials and the more prominent European trading community. The whole formed an expatriate enclave, which was deliberately separated from the indigenous Nigerian areas, ostensibly to control sanitation and limit the spread

of diseases such as malaria. After independence, these areas generally became upper income suburbs, which sometimes spread outward into surrounding farmlands as well as inward to fill in the space that formerly separated the GRA from the rest of the city. New institutions, such as university campuses, government office complexes, hospitals, and hotels were often located outside or on the fringes of the city in the 1980s. the space that originally separated them from the denser areas was then filled in as further growth occurred.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Identify the early features of urban development in both Northern and Southern Nigeria
2. Identify and explain the features of urban centres in Nigeria drawing examples from such cities as Lagos, Abuja, Kano

1.4 The Situation today

In Nigeria as in most other countries the central districts of major cities now boast of numerous skyscrapers of cement, glass and steel. But far into the distance spread of Nigeria's real urban conglomerations: unplanned, chaotic settlements built of wood, corrugated metal sheeting, mud bricks and whatever other materials may be at hand. They have only dirty roads and open sewer ditches. They lack piped water, refuse collections, electricity and most other basic municipal services.

The slums of cities such as in Lagos where we have Ajegunle, Mushin, Agege etc are homes to tens of millions and they are growing rapidly. Sub-sahara Africa where Nigeria belongs is the only region in the world where urbanization is associated with negative economic growth, according to Nelson Mandela. This adds to the enormity of the problems of urbanization in a region that is exactly most in need of growth and development to end and reverse its marginalization on the world stage.

Some cities like Abuja gave rise to satellite towns. For instance, Abuja gave rise to towns like Nyanya, Kubwa, Gwagwalada etc. And these are rapidly growing into cities though lacking in upgraded infrastructural facilities as could be found in city centres. Similar situations are found in Kano, Kaduna, Ibadan, Onitsha, Aba, Port Harcourt, etc.

Again it must be stated that in most urban centres we have the rich and the poor living side by side hence the concepts of 'Urban Rich' and 'Urban Poor'. For instance, before the destruction of Maroko in Lagos, almost adjacent to Maroko was Ikoyi and Victoria Island. Whereas Maroko was an excellent example of slum where many people lived in dehumanized condition, Ikoyi overlooking Maroko houses the few rich people where all good things of life exist as a matter of routine. It is equally in such urban centres like Lagos that we have people who dwell under the bridges and muddy waters of the Lagoon. A similar situation was gradually developing in Abuja until the erstwhile Honorable Minister of the Federal Capital city Mallam El Rufai applied force to dislodge the shanty settlers.

Beyond this however, urban cities, present some positive aspects especially with regards to economic activities which to a large extent sustains the local governments in which they are situated. In such centres however, only those who can afford it enjoy some good

things of life. But we must hasten to add that the ever increasing population of such centres has overstretched the infrastructural facilities in such cities with the result that electricity is a luxury that can only be enjoyed regularly with the purchase of a Generator. Similarly, most houses are constructed with boreholes as public pipe-borne water is virtually non-existent.



1.5 Summary

The growth of urban centres in Nigeria signifies what we earlier postulated as attractions that stimulate migration from less developed villages and towns. For instance, every state capital of the thirty six states of the federation has developed into an urban centre. And this is often identified as one of the advantages of states creation. But as is easily observable most migrants often live below poverty level – even a level below what it was in the villages and towns from where they migrated but prefer such a condition than going back to the villages. A good example is the inhabitants of ‘under-the bridge’ in Lagos. These inhabitants have homes in their native towns and villages but prefer to live under a dehumanized condition as long as it is in an urban centre.

The Urban centres in Nigeria had overtime undergone stages of evolution prior to the arrival of the colonialists, through their administration period to this day. This unit therefore examined what the situation was at the onset when some of the cities in the north such as Kano, Katsina, Sokoto etc served as entrepôts to the Sahara and Trans-sahara trade. Similarly the activities of the European traders attracted people to such coastal cities in the South like Lagos, Badagry, Brass and Bonny.

The unit equally addressed the historical development that eventually culminated in our having at least one urban centre in each of the thirty-six states in Nigeria. The situation today although showcases boom in economic activities in the urban centres but presented a gloomy picture of the urban poor who are in the majority but live in abject poverty.



1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Resources

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1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content Self-Assessment Exercise 1

Identify the early features of urban development in both Northern and Southern Nigeria
Answer

The features are:

1. Entrepots to the Saharan and trans-saharan trades
2. Central citadels and political capitals for the expanding states of the northern savannah.
3. Activities of European trade and the coastal cities etc.

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

Identify and explain the features of urban centres in Nigeria drawing examples from such cities as Lagos, Abuja, Kano

Answer

Nigerian urbanism, as in other parts of the world, is a function primarily of trade and politics. In the north, the great urban centers of Kano, Katsina, Zaria, Sokoto, the early Borno capitals (Gazargamo and Kuka) and other cities served as entrepots to the Saharan and trans-Saharan trade, and as central citadels and political capitals for expanding states of the northern savanna. They attracted large numbers of traders and migrants from their own hinterlands and generally also included “stranger quarters” for migrants of other regions and nations. In the south, the rise of the Yoruba expansionist city-states and of Benin and others was stimulated by the trade to the coast, and by competition among these growing urban centres for the control of their hinterlands and of the trade from the interior to the Atlantic (including the slave trade). The activities of European traders also attracted people to such coastal cities as Lagos, Badagry, Brass, and Bonny, and later Calabar and Port Harcourt. Overlying the original features of the earlier cities were those generated by colonial and post-colonial rule, which created new urban centers while also drastically altering the older ones. All these cities and peri-urban areas generally tended to have high population densities.

MODULE 2

UNIT 1: URBANIZATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

- 1.1 Introduction
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- 1.3 Main Content
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 - 1.3.3 Economic Linkages
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 - 1.5 Building Development Centres: Location of Urban Services and Facilities.
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1.1 Introduction

In this unit, we shall discuss the Urban-Rural linkages that would aid development. The integration of urban and rural development, an essential dimension of equitable growth planning, can only be attained in countries with resource scarcities if they use and build on existing spatial structures, organizational arrangements, behavioural patterns, economic and social institutions, and culturally embedded methods and practices, transforming them into more productive instruments of growth and change. This unit attempts to delineate one approach to transformational development: It outlines a conceptual framework for integrated spatial development planning, identifies major urban services and facilities needed at various levels of an articulated hierarchy of human settlements. This describes the linkages that result from or promote interaction among communities and that generate transformation towards a cohesive and productive spatial system. Finally, it describes the policy and programme implications of the transformational approach to development, an approach that seeks to identify and use existing, culturally embedded resources, institutions, and human capabilities, combining

them with appropriate modern technologies and organizational arrangements to bring about planned change in pursuit of development goals.



1.2 Learning Outcome

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

1. Explain the reason for integrating urban and rural functions into a national spatial system.
2. Identify and analyze the various Linkages
3. Explain the adoption of Political and Administrative Linkages in formal governmental structural relationships
4. Outline strategies for building development centers



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 Spatial Linkages and Transformation

Integrating communities and their productive activities into a national economy is a major objective of transformation strategy. Neither the goals of increased productivity and income expansion nor those of greater equity in income distribution can be attained without increasing interaction among villages, market towns, intermediate cities, and metropolitan areas in developing nations without integrating urban and rural functions into a national spatial system. Integration promotes transformation at every level of the spatial hierarchy and at every stage of a nation's development.

Transformation of communities and productive activities –the evolution of subsistence into commercial farming, of simple handicrafts into more specialized processing and manufacturing, of scattered and isolated economic activities into concentrated nodes of production integrated into a national system of exchange – requires a well-articulated spatial structure. Settlement of various sizes, specializing in different economic and social functions, must be linked to each other through a network of physical, economic, technological, social, and administrative interaction. The linkages-patterns of transaction among groups and organizations located in spatially dispersed communities with sufficient threshold sizes of population to support their own specialized activities-are the primary means of expanding the system of exchange and transforming underdeveloped societies.

Even a cursory examination of developing nations where element of such a spatial system have emerged provides insights into the types of linkages essential for transformation and patterns of change they set in motion. The fundamental observations seem valid for all developing countries with elements of spatial articulation. First, increase in the number and diversity of linkages and the growth or transformation of development centers- from villages to market towns, market town to small cities, small cities to intermediate urban areas- are inextricably related. In some cases, new linkages - extension of road networks, river transport, or all connections-promote growth and diversification in existing settlements or generate new central places, whereas in others the appearance of new

productive activities promotes increased linkages between individual settlement and the rest of the spatial system. That is, some linkages promote accelerated growth of villages, market towns, and intermediate cities, and others result from nodal growth. To distinguish particular cause and effect relationships, however, is often extremely difficult because nodal and linkage growth may take place simultaneously or because a complex set of changes may occur in rapid succession.

Second, the variety of linkages that integrate urban and rural areas into an articulated spatial system are themselves inextricably linked. Creation of one new linkage may produce a “cascade effect” making other activities and linkages possible, and promoting the growth of existing or new central places. Once a new set of linkages is introduced into a rural market system, it can trigger a set of “circular and cumulative changes” towards further growth and changes. Simply, improving transportation between villages leads to reorganization and expansion of existing periodic markets. Displacement of weak or unsuccessful markets and redistribution of commerce can create entirely new markets and increase the demands on the transport system. New urban-rural physical linkages can change the flow of economic resources, the spatial pattern of social and economic interaction and the movement of people. Closer interaction among villages, market towns, intermediate cities, and major metropolitan areas makes it less expensive and more convenient to integrate technology at each level of the spatial hierarchy and to distribute more widely services that fundamentally transform organization and political relationships.

A complex set of linkages transforms and integrates urban and rural areas in developing nations. Physical, economic, technological, and social linkages and population movement, service delivery, and political, administrative, and organizational patterns play potentially important roles in the transformation of poorly articulated spatial systems.

1.3.2 Physical Linkages

The spatial integration of communities results mainly from physical linkages—resource interdependences and man-made transportation networks. Human ecological relationships in most peasant societies provide basic opportunities for social interaction and economic exchange. Biophysical links—ecological relationships among land forms, soils, minerals, water, vegetation, and wildlife – limit possible and feasible developmental changes and create opportunities for new productive activities within a region and determine the comparative physical advantages of each community.

Transportation networks- roads, rivers, water channels, and rail systems – are among the most important linkages for integrating spatial systems. They reduce travel time, lower shipping costs, widen marketing, commuting , migration opportunities, allow greater access to non-agricultural employment, improve communications, and extend areas of service delivery. Nations investing heavily in road networks have achieved substantial gains in agricultural production and capacity.

1.3.3 Economic Linkages

A related set of economic linkages is also needed to promote spatial integration. Most important are market networks, commodity, raw material, and intermediate goods flows among central places, capital and income flows, consumption and shopping patterns, and forward, backward, and lateral production links among commercial and manufacturing activities within urban centers and among them. Broadening market linkages is a primary force in commercializing agriculture, diversifying production, and expanding the spatial system of exchange.

The combination of transport and market linkages encourages the growth of nested and integrated markets, expanding patterns of exchange for basic commodities and ensuring broader geographical access to goods and services. The emergence of an intermediate city relatively well connected to a system of rural market centers and to a large metropolitan area generates a marketing pattern.

The flow of commodities and manufactured goods is strongly influenced by the degree of spatial articulation within developing countries. Intermediate cities in particular serve as redistribution centers. In well-articulated spatial systems, moreover, strong linkages develop between inward and outward flows of goods and commodities, through organizations responsible for both export and import functions. Yet, in most developing nations, the lack of spatial articulation obstructs the evolution of such linkages, which are unlikely to emerge spontaneously without central places large enough to support organizations capable of managing multiple functions

1.3.4 Population Movement Linkages

Short-term and permanent migration is an ubiquitous characteristics of development and an important form of urban-rural linkage. Temporary migration and journey-to-work, more strongly than other forms of spatial integration, depend on transportation and communication linkages between urban-rural areas, and on the location of industrial activities in intermediate cities and smaller towns. More permanent migration depends on a wider range of economic and social determinants, including the availability of jobs in towns and cities; wage, public service, and educational opportunity differentials between cities and villages; and the distance, cost, and convenience of moving. Rural people, given potential job opportunity and convenient means of travel, are more likely to migrate to a city where they have friends or kin.

Studies of tropical Africa indicate that where they exist, province towns and intermediate cities attract migrants who either move to them instead of going to the primate city or use them as temporary way stations before moving to the metropolis. Although much of the migration in Africa is “rural-urban” with frequent return trips to the village, the emergence of small towns or intermediate cities can drastically alter movements if they provide work, education, or increased access to public services and amenities. In Africa, population movements are less a function of distance than of spatial articulation, with smaller towns having “quite restricted ranges, while the larger urban places exert their influence over much wider areas”.

Although little is yet known about the effects of decentralized urbanization on population movements in developing countries, scattered evidence suggests that the creation of market towns and intermediate cities can have a significant influence on both migration

and journey-to-work. Where villages are widely scattered and central places have not emerged, journey-to-work patterns tend to lack nodality; people move short distances from their homes to fields or from their homes to small shops and processing plants. Some commute to special facilities and activities such as military reservations, larger plantations, or commercial farms and to nearby cities. The concentration of economic activities in market towns and small cities, however, generates a greater volume of journey-to-work traffic and significantly increases nodality.

Emergence of diversified market towns and small cities can also alter the flow of migration from rural areas to major metropolises and create a pattern of step-wise migration.

1.4 Technological Linkages

Developing nations need a variety of technologies, appropriate to different social, economic, technical, and administrative capacities of communities of different sizes and stages of development. Technology, equipment, procedures, and methods of production – must also be integrated spatially and functionally, since no single technological innovation will promote social and economic transformation in developing nations unless it is appropriate to local needs and conditions and linked to both higher and lower levels of technology and related inputs.

The Green Revolution demonstrated that a spatially linked network of technologies is needed to make the introduction of new high-yield seed varieties successful, with technical inputs coming from both urban centers and rural areas. The components, equipment and skilled manpower needed to test new seeds, construct irrigation systems, and operate new equipment are likely to be drawn, in most countries, from urban areas. Fertilizer, needed in large amounts to achieve desired results with Green

Revolution hybrids must be manufactured using chemicals and petroleum products imported through large cities; its distribution to farmers depends on the existence of transportation networks between urban and rural areas and within rural regions and on the extension of urban services and facilities to fertilizer production sites.

Many urban workshops are established by progressive village artisans or rural blacksmiths who migrate there to become apprentices, later going into business for themselves. Large urban manufacturers depend on both the small town urban workshops and the village artisans to service their equipment, make new parts, and repair components, since the firms cannot establish their own repair services in each village and be competitive with local artisans. Because of the high level of investment required for large firms to produce standardized parts, the major manufacturers of farm equipment must subcontract the work to urban workshops, which make interchangeable components to the specifications of the contracting companies.

1.4.1 Social Linkages

Market towns and intermediate cities do more than generate physical and economic activities. They are the focal points for a wide variety of social linkages among development centers and between those centers and their rural hinterlands. Market centers perform many social roles in rural areas. Indeed, in many African countries, economic exchange functions grew out of traditional social gatherings and rituals. The

types and frequency of economic activities were closely linked to social events. Traditional African markets provided an important locus of social interaction. The marketplace would be used for games and dances, and the market itself was certainly not viewed by the people as simply an economic event". In Africa, market remains meeting places for sports and competitions; in Asia and Latin America they contain a variety of social facilities – restaurants, bars, baths, churches, temples, and cinemas- attracting people from the villages not only to exchange goods and services but also to engage in recreation and to meet friends, acquaintances, and kin.

The growth of market towns in China, as in other Asian countries, had a profound effect on rural social interaction. Skinner (year?) observes that they provided a spatial focus for social interaction within a diffuse trading area. Because people made regular visits to the market throughout their lifetime, even the poorest farmers came to know almost every other adult in the marketing area; marriage arrangements were most often made from within the trading boundaries; credit and lending decisions were based on people's reputations formed through frequent market transactions; and the acceptance of common criteria of exchange, such as standard weights and measures, evolved from the need to maintain social harmony among disperse villages and groups within a trading area. With the market expansion and increasing commercialization of agriculture, periodic markets evolve into permanent places of exchange, daily markets displace smaller, infrequent exchange points, and diffusing social linkages promote increasing social and spatial integration. Widening market areas extend the spatial range of social interaction, of even such traditional linkages as marriage arrangements, steadily integrating smaller clans, communities, and villages, promoting new kinship ties and visiting patterns, and transforming social group and organizational relations.

1.4.2 Service Delivery Linkages

Increasing the physical, economic, and technological linkages among central places is critical to expanding service delivery networks in developing nations. Urban centres and rural areas must be closely linked in order to distribute social and commercial services more widely and to increase the access of rural populations to urban amenities. Nearly all services require the support of a minimum number of people concentrated in a limited geographical area, a "threshold population" of sufficient size and density to attract enough customers to earn profits for suppliers of commercial and professional services and to allow public services to reach the largest number of people at the lowest cost. Threshold levels for services vary widely; and because each service has a specific threshold, the types, degree of specialization, and delivery range of services found in any given community depend on the size and density of its population, its occupational profile, income distribution, transportation access, and economic diversification. All other things being equal, the "hierarchy" of services in a region is closely correlated to the hierarchy of central places. Larger population size and higher density create economics of scale that allows services to be offered at lower cost.

Services also have different "ranges of influence," the distance over which they can be extended or that people will travel to purchase or use them. The larger the area of influence and the more densely concentrated the users within that area, the more

efficiently services can be provided, especially those requiring physical facilities or infrastructure for delivery such as water, sanitation, energy, and health. The World Bank points out that per capital costs of supplying water and sanitation services increases substantially with smaller communities: “sector characteristics change markedly as one progresses from large urban centers, through medium sized cities, small towns and villages, to the dispersed population. The administrative structure becomes more diffuse, income levels decline, and per capital costs for equivalent levels of service tend to increase. In areas with widely scattered populations and small central places, there exists less institutional, financial, and technological capacity to deliver services efficiently.

1.5 Political, Administrative and Organizational Linkages

Finally, spatial systems are integrated and transformed through a set of political and administrative linkages reflected in formal government structural relationships, flow of public budget resources, administrative authority, supervision and approval patterns, transactions among government jurisdictions, informal political influence and decision chains, and interdependences among spatially dispersed specialized organizations.

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. List the linkages that transform and integrate urban and rural areas in developing nations such as Nigeria
2. Explain how spatial linkages could be used to ensure development at both urban centre and rural areas

1.5.1 Building Development Centres: Location of Urban Services and Facilities.

The failure of developing countries to achieve growth with equity, it has been argued, can be attributed largely to their poorly articulated spatial systems. Development is handicapped both by the lack of market towns and intermediate cities and by a spatial distribution of existing centers that is not conducive to creating an integrated system of production and exchange. Service centers are the smallest places in developing nations at which urban services and facilities can be located for efficient and effective delivery to rural areas. Villages, hamlets, and farmsteads do not provide large enough markets for most services and facilities.

Market towns and small cities are the most critical settlements in a well-articulated spatial system for linking rural and urban functions. Market towns perform functions essential to the commercialization of agriculture and to the dispersion of urban services and facilities. Where they have been fully developed, they provide institutions for the collection, exchange, and distribution of agricultural products and contain storage, basic processing, and transportation facilities to ship products to larger urban markets. They are the locations of basic financial and brokerage functions, of specialized craftsmen who require a threshold population larger than that of a single village, of non-agricultural work opportunities for surplus rural labour, and of basic non-formal and formal education and apprenticeship training. They facilitate social, cultural, and administrative interaction among groups and villages within their areas of influence and with larger cities and the metropolis. The performance of such basic functions and the provision of these services

is essential to the promotion of development in economically lagging rural regions. Without a strong set of market towns, integrated urban-rural development simply will not occur.

Finally, metropolitan areas have indisputable contributions to the development of “Third World nations. As major investment, social, educational, administrative, and cultural centers, they are the “engines of development” in most countries. But to distribute more equitably the benefits of urban development, regional equivalents of the primate city – intermediate cities and regional centers – are needed throughout a country, especially in remote rural region.

1.5.2 The Village Service Centre

Villages that already have some basic combination of services and facilities often attract larger populations and begin to provide functions for other villages. New government investments should be located in those communities that already have some capacity to service rural hinterlands. These points, village service centers, should be easily accessible from surrounding rural areas and located where they can extend critical services and technical, political, and administrative inputs to agricultural programmes.

Village service centers should (1) be small central places providing isolated farms, small hamlets, and villages with basic services and facilities as well as household and agricultural goods, (2) contain facilities that provide services needed to stimulate nonagricultural small-scale industries and increase agricultural productivity, (3) provide basic social service facilities and amenities that raise the quality of life within surrounding rural areas, (4) contain cooperative organizations required to expand popular participation in development programs through a mixture of “bottom up” and “up down” planning, and (5) provide a small node of physical, social, and economic activities that link rural areas and villages to market towns and small cities.

The following types of services and facilities should be located in village service centers: Facilities: small-scale storage; a community center; a cooperative supply outlet; a maternity-health clinic, a primary school/vocational education facility; a police post; farm-market roads; irrigation canals and ditches; potable water pumps, well and storage tanks; rural electrification; a primary processing, grading, weighing and packing facility; agricultural demonstration plots; a village-hamlet government office; a periodic market facility; an all-weather access route; a government supply dumps; and a local transportation stop; and services: extension services; a welfare and home economy service; a government credit office; a paramedical health service; maintenance of roads and physical facilities; municipal administrative services; a postal and telegraph services; and a local bus and truck transportation service.

Such services and facilities can improve communications between rural areas and the village center, provide a daily market for surplus primary produce, an outlet for commodity required farm inputs and storage facilities for agricultural products, improve agricultural productivity, and upgrade rural administrative capacity.

1.5.3 The Market Town: Small City

Market towns are crucial for transforming economically lagging rural regions because rural economies can only be stimulated by the increasing commercialization of

agriculture, which in turn requires that every farm has “access to markets where farm produce can be sold for cash without the danger of monopolistic exploitation and where there are enough sellers of farm supplies to prevent monopoly..... What is essential, therefore, is a unified market town where appropriate facilities are congregated.

“Historically, in most of the developed world, rural investments have clustered around markets. But if markets are to serve as growth points in developing nations, they must perform a wide range of functions and offer a variety of services and commodities. They should be permanent and regulated, so that both farmers and traders can escape the abuses of traditional village monopolists. Markets can be created by stimulating clusters of investment that are related to rural and agricultural needs. A diversified set of enterprises must be encouraged so that the benefits from association and proximity can provide economies of scale that allow them to thrive and to attract related investments. As the number of trading, manufacturing, and service industries grow in one center, there is a strong probability both that total demand for all services and products will grow and that the market’s service area will expand.

A critical problem in stimulating market town development is to identify entrepreneurs who can take advantage of the potential for growth and rapidly establish key enterprises. Several types of entrepreneurs have emerged where such centers have been established. Intervention at the market town small city level should aim to expand and facilitate marketing and to increase agricultural productivity in the hinterlands. Physical facilities must be constructed for a permanent market place, supported by storage, grading, and processing facilities, as well as the necessary financial, commercial, and business services. The market center should be made a district transportation hub to link it with village service centers and intermediate cities and metropolitan areas

1.6 Intermediate City: Regional Centre

Although remarkably little is known about intermediate cities in developing nations, middle-size cities perform critical roles in the transformation and development of regional economies and spatial structures. Intermediate cities are socially and economically heterogeneous, mixing traditional and modern behaviour, institutions, and practices and accommodating both modern and bazaar economies. Usually, situated at the hub of regional transportation routes, intermediate cities are often way stations or absorption points for rural-to-urban migrants. Although, they lack social homogeneity, the middlesize cities have “a degree of ‘openness’ as well as mechanisms for the assimilation of outsiders into economic structure of the city, and their very heterogeneity serves to integrate a variety of social groups, clans, and tribes as well as village and town services with metropolitan activities and national functions. Indeed, many intermediate cities manifest both rural and urban physical characteristics. Taegu, the Korean middle city of more than a million people, with a diversity of industry and a growing economy, can still be described by visitors in terms of its rural atmosphere, “a city big in population only”.It lacks most of the modern facilities that Seoul and Pusan enjoy’ “writes one observer. “Its small downtown shopping area is clustered with small stores. There are no

large tourist hotels, no big office buildings, and beyond the core areas of the city, Taegu still looks rural, and this strong rural atmosphere pervades the whole city.

To build middle-size cities and regional centers, facilities and services must capitalize on the openness and heterogeneity of these places, creating a mixed urban-rural economy that can promote higher levels of rural productivity, coordinate national, regional, and local administrative functions, diversify commercial and industrial activities, and absorb any of the functions concentrated in a primate city. Intermediate cities can be built into raw material and agricultural commodity processing and distribution centers, urban industrial areas that perform wide range of financial, service, commercial, educational, and administrative functions. This type of change may be facilitated by developing within them industrial estates, specialized trade schools, energy and power stations, communication services, warehousing and storage facilities.

1.6.1 Transformational Development: An Approach to Spatial Integration Strategy.

To make integrated urban-rural development strategy work will require the concerted efforts of both developing nations and international assistance agencies and, within developing nations, a wide variety of public and private organizations, to build the comparative advantages and productive capacity of economically lagging regions. Integrated urban-rural development, in most countries, requires regional planning, since central governments cannot adequately plan, supervise, and coordinate development. But unlike development strategies that attempt to substitute modern organizations, technologies, methods of production, attitudes, and social relationships for “traditional” institutions and practices, transformational development seeks to increase incrementally the productivity of indigenous institutions and practices, reinforcing and building on those appropriate to local conditions and needs and adaptive to changing circumstances, gradually displacing those that are not. The concept of development as transformation involves eight basic principles:

1. building on existing culturally embedded resources, institutions, and practices;
2. involving local people, who will be affected by transformation and changes, in the processes of development planning and implementation;
3. adapting modern technologies, services, and facilities to local conditions;
4. promoting specialization in production and exchange activities based on existing spatial comparative advantages;
5. using appropriate, low-cost, culturally acceptable methods of change to generate “demonstration effects” that lead to widespread adoption of those methods that prove successful;
6. planning for displacement of unproductive and un-adaptable traditional institutions and practices as change occurs;
7. establishing, through planning based on “strategic intervention”, the preconditions for transformation and change in social, technical, political, economic, and administrative structures and processes and in elements of the spatial structure; and
8. Creating a planning process that is flexible, incremental, and adaptive and that provides for experimentation and adjustment as transformation takes place.

1.6.2 Building on Existing Resources

Development planning rarely begins with a clean slate. In every developing nation, existing problems and circumstances, which often evolved over centuries, establish the environment for change. Although it is almost a cliché to argue that development planning should be based on a thorough understanding of existing conditions and emerging needs. This basic principle is often lost in the urgency to activate development plans and policies.

One of the recurrent lessons of development experiences, however, is that the most pervasive changes can be attained by transforming existing resources. Indigenous social and economic systems survive because they perform useful or necessity functions. They are usually adaptive mechanisms that are suited to cultural peculiarities and that satisfy the needs of those who maintain them. Understanding their operations is crucial to designing plans and programs for promoting change. The use of existing resources and culturally embedded traditions, moreover, can be more effective and less costly than attempting wholesale substitution of “modern” but alien institutions and practices.

The transformation of shifting cultivation as an agricultural system provides an appropriate illustration. Those schooled in the Western tradition of resources use have been, in the past, almost unanimous in their apriori condemnation of traditional agricultural technologies especially of shifting cultivation in tropical highlands – as primitive, wasteful, destructive, and unproductive. But, under normal conditions, traditional agricultural systems are not axiomatically ruinous. But to be made more productive, shifting cultivation must be transformed into a culturally acceptable system that both satisfies family nutritional requirements and generates marketable surplus to meet the growing food needs of urban and rural markets.

1.6.3 Local Participation

Building on existing resources, institutions, and practices requires involving local people, who will be affected by transformation and change in development planning and implementation. The traditional wisdom, experience, and insights of local people are essential in identifying the scope and dimensions of local needs, the most effective channels of change, and the types of change that they will support. Only by incorporating local people in the process of planning and implementation can decisions be tailored to specific needs and can latent talents and skills be developed.

***Students can read more on Friedmann’s (1969) ‘transactive planning’ or participative urban planning



1.7 Summary

The essence of development is expansion of participation in economic activities through the creation of social and economic systems that draw larger numbers of people into processes of production, exchange, and consumption, that involve greater numbers in entrepreneurship and employment, that increase levels of income for the poorest groups and reduce disparities between rich and poor so that a larger majority of people can obtain basic goods, save and invest, and gain access to services necessary to enrich the quality

of their lives. Development is a process of expanding the productive capacity of public and private organizations, large and small firms, rural and urban regions of a country at a steady pace. It involves stimulating the use of potentially productive resources, adapting appropriate technologies and institutions to traditional as well as modern communities, transforming subsistence agricultural and rural sectors into employment and income generating elements of the national economy, and providing adequate social services and facilities that allow people not only to satisfy basic human needs but also to develop their productivity capacity and human potential.

The growing realization that expansion of economic participation is essential to sustained development has brought about a dramatic shift in development policy. National governments and international assistance agencies that once sought rapid growth in GNP through large-scale, capital-intensive, export-oriented, urban-based industrialization, guided and controlled through centrally formulated macroeconomic models, now seek to build more balanced and stable internal economies, with greater social equity. Achievement of such goals, it was discovered, depends on the expansion of labourintensive, small scale, and more widely distributed agricultural and manufacturing industries. It requires investment in social as well as physical infrastructure, promotion of rural development and decentralized planning and administration, and increased access for marginal groups to economic resources and opportunities.

A dimension of the new directions in development policy that has been generally overlooked, however, but that is fundamental to any attempt to expand productive capacity in developing nations, is spatial planning. The spatial structures of Third World countries have been crucial constraints on the spread of growth, and changes in those structures toward creating more balanced and integrated systems of human settlements can provide enormous opportunities for increasing participation in economic activities.

The relationship between Urban Centre and Rural Area particular in Nigeria continues to facilitate development particular in urban centres. This is because, commodities such as agricultural products are moved from the rural to urban centres although the rural dwellers equally benefit from the influence of urban centres particularly modernization.

This unit thus, explained the concept of Spatial Linkages and transformation. It identified seven linkages factors that facilitate development in both urban centres and rural areas. The Unit further analyzed building of development centres. Three of such centres were identified and analyzed.

Finally, the concept of transformational development as an approach to spatial integration strategy was addressed. By so doing, this unit exposed you to various forms of strategies for ensuring development in both urban centres and rural areas.



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1.9 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

List the linkages that transform and integrate urban and rural areas in developing nations such as Nigeria.

Answer

The linkages are:

1. Physical linkages
2. Economic linkages
3. Population linkages
4. Technological linkages
5. Social linkages
6. Service linkages
7. Political, Administrative Organizational linkages

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

Explain how spatial linkages could be used to ensure development at both urban centre and rural areas

Answer

How spatial linkages could be used to ensure development at both urban centre and rural areas:

Integrating communities and their productive activities into a national economy is a major objective of transformation strategy. Neither the goals of increased productivity and income expansion nor those of greater equity in income distribution can be attained without increasing interaction among villages, market towns, intermediate cities, and metropolitan areas in developing nations without integrating urban and rural functions into a national spatial system. Integration promotes transformation at every level of the spatial hierarchy and at every stage of a nation's development.

Transformation of communities and productive activities –the evolution of subsistence into commercial farming, of simple handicrafts into more specialized processing and manufacturing, of scattered and isolated economic activities into concentrated nodes of production integrated into a national system of exchange – requires a well-articulated spatial structure. Settlement of various sizes, specializing in different economic and social functions, must be linked to each other through a network of physical, economic, technological, social, and administrative interaction. The linkages-patterns of transaction

among groups and organizations located in spatially dispersed communities with sufficient threshold sizes of population to support their own specialized activities-are the primary means of expanding the system of exchange and transforming underdeveloped societies.

Even a cursory examination of developing nations where element of such a spatial system have emerged provides insights into the types of linkages essential for transformation and patterns of change they set in motion. The fundamental observations seem valid for all developing countries with elements of spatial articulation. First, increase in the number and diversity of linkages and the growth or transformation of development centers- from villages to market towns, market town to small cities, small cities to intermediate urban areas- are inextricably related. In some cases, new linkages - extension of road networks, river transport, or all connections-promote growth and diversification in existing settlements or generate new central places, whereas in others the appearance of new productive activities promotes increased linkages between individual settlement and the rest of the spatial system. That is, some linkages promote accelerated growth of villages, market towns, and intermediate cities, and others result from nodal growth. To distinguish particular cause and effect relationships, however, is often extremely difficult because nodal and linkage growth may take place simultaneously or because a complex set of changes may occur in rapid succession.

Second, the variety of linkages that integrate urban and rural areas into an articulated spatial system are themselves inextricably linked. Creation of one new linkage may produce a “cascade effect” making other activities and linkages possible, and promoting the growth of existing or new central places. Once a new set of linkages is introduced into a rural market system, it can trigger a set of “circular and cumulative changes” towards further growth and changes. Simply, improving transportation between villages leads to reorganization and expansion of existing periodic markets. Displacement of weak or unsuccessful markets and redistribution of commerce can create entirely new markets and increase the demands on the transport system. New urban-rural physical linkages can change the flow of economic resources, the spatial pattern of social and economic interaction and the movement of people. Closer interaction among villages, market towns, intermediate cities, and major metropolitan areas makes it less expensive and more convenient to integrate technology at each level of the spatial hierarchy and to distribute more widely services that fundamentally transform organization and political relationships.

A complex set of linkages transforms and integrates urban and rural areas in developing nations. Physical, economic, technological, and social linkages and population movement, service delivery, and political, administrative, and organizational patterns play potentially important roles in the transformation of poorly articulated spatial systems.

Unit 2: LOCAL GOVERNEMENT AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcome
- 1.3 Main Content
 - 1.3.1 The Concept of Local Government
 - 1.3.2 Functions of Local Government
 - 1.3.3 Role of Local Government in Urban Development
- 1.4 Problems of Government of Local Government in Nigeria
 - 1.4.1 Prescriptions for ameliorating the situation
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 References/Further Readings
- 1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

As a country, Nigeria operates three tiers of government viz: Federal, State and Local Governments. Whereas the Federal Government is at centre, there are thirty six states plus the Federal Capital Territory and seven hundred and seventy four (774) Local Government Areas.

Local government is the closest tier of government to the people in Nigeria. Yet, the resident population appears not to realize full benefits of its existence. The failure of local government in the area of service delivery has made the citizens to loose thrust I government as an institution. In some areas, council officials are better known for the harassment of citizens that of rendering useful services. Sometimes we find that Nigerians need a change in the local government system as presently constituted in order to bring it in conformity with present day realities to make it live up to the expectations of the people who have been yearning for grassroots development.



1.2 Learning Outcome

At the end of discussions in this unit, you should be able to:-

- 1. explain the concept of local government and its functions
- 2. analyze the role of local government in urban development
- 3. identify the problems of Governance of local government in Nigeria
- 4. prescribe measures for improvement



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 The Concept of Local Government

The concept of local government as continued to generate excitement among the learned. These excitements are not unconnected with the increasing importance of local government as one of the paraphernalia of federalism. Various definitions of local government identified the indispensability of local government to grassroots democracy vis-à-vis its provisions of governmental opportunities for self-development.

In general, nearly all the existing works on local government have shown this level of governments increasing propensity for the enhancement of home lie syndrome. The Oxford Concise Dictionary of Politics (2003:314136) defines local government as a governing institution which has authority over a sub-local governments authority sparing from the elected basis and that this behaviouris both between and within countries.

Local government as explained by Ogunna (1987:369-386) “is a form of devolution of power of the state”. He argues that “it is the government of the grassroots which is designed to serve as instrument of and community (emphasis mine) transformation” He further submits that from ideological perspective local government fosters the principles of democracy as local government is designed to give effect on mass participation of the people in the process of government. Thus local government is designed to achieve multidimensional goals of economic social and political development. He cautions that for local government to achieve its goals, it should be appropriately structured adequately funded and sufficiently staffed with well qualified and continuously trained and motivated competent and dedicated personnel. He further stated that it should also possess appropriate organizational setting, effective leadership high level of participation of the local inhabitants and adequate freedom to operate as a government.

In affect Ogunna is of the view that the institution of local government is through a nation’s government setting criteria as outlined above are of utmost importance to this effectiveness. Truly it is one thing to have an institution of local government in place and another to be impactful on the community where it is found.

Bello Imam (1996:2) points out that local government constitutes the most critical level of government at which the momentum to sustain national development can be created. The institution of local government he posits is a means through which local human and material resources could be harnessed for national development in a country. He however observed that this is known as “development from below”. According to him “effective local institutions represent an aspect of the development strategy of development from below”. Hence he submits for the institution of local government to be effective that certain criteria must be attained.

1. Promotion of economic development from below
2. Provision of services;
3. Provision of local freedom/autonomy; and
4. Enhancement of grassroot democracy.

Whether or not local government councils in Nigeria generally meet these criteria for them to be actually recognized as developmental institutions is debatable Administrative structure of an organization determines the relationship between the various organs and also balances the apparently opposing purpose thereby preserving its

inherent character and strength (BelloImam 1987). It also has the potential for increasing or decreasing the effectiveness of those who operate it and can make the getting and retaining of able men more or less likely. As the argument goes it is at the local government level that the people's aspiration and tropes are discernible in their most relevant and specified form and it is also at this level that their will and creative energy can be most effectively organized and committed to the solution of their own particular community problems and overall national development. Therefore the quality of administration at this level is itself one useful measure of what development is being achieved. It is one of the main factors which determine the capacity of the system to achieve further democratic development as it is a test of how far-reaching the opportunity is for continuous mass participation in the formulation and in implementation of development policy.

It should be noted, however, that there is no best known administrative structure for local government councils. Every local government council adopts administrative system which best suits its environment for the effective and efficient distributive justice in its community. Local government administrative systems therefore vary in different countries and places.

Structure in Europe is generally multi-tier. In Federal Republic of Germany below state level are two tiers of local government: the upper-tier *Kreise* and the lower-tier municipalities. Regionalized states such as Italy, Spain, Portugal, Belgium and France echo such arrangements of having three levels of local government reflected in the fact that even its lowest-tier authorities may have bigger populations than some other countries. country/province level authorities (McLean and McMillan 2003:314-316). Nigeria is a federation of 36 states plus a federal capital territory (FCT) Abuja and 774 local government areas. It therefore operates a three tier-system of government with the Federal Government at the top. Some people have argued that the system of local government in a country like Nigeria is not only superfluous but also redundant and it tends to duplicate responsibilities and over-stretch the limited resources.

These people justify their argument against too much levels of government by saying that it is costlier to administer contiguous societies as different units of local governments than to rule them from far with a central government applying uniform solutions to their similar problems. In Nigeria where well trained and experienced local government personnel are hard to come by and where the secondment of crack civil servants to man these local governments had been bedeviled by the problem of allegiance to central (state) government, it is difficult to develop the communities. Specialist personnel for instance like local irrigation engineers local planners and architects; quantity surveyors dental surgeons etc., can better be employed paid and posted to the local areas by the wealthier central/state governments than by the local government. Finally the opponents of the local government system in Nigeria hold that time were not in favour of Nigeria. To them Nigeria is vast sprawling in-accessible and unmanageable variety of nations each with its peculiar hostile culture and traditions. Moreover they argued that a local government system that took account of the multitude of "mini states" was justifiable. But time has changed and Nigeria has come a long way towards one nationhood having

waded through the travails and triumphs of colonialism, civil war, oil boom and biting economic recession. In addition the argument concludes that recent advances in science and technology have so tended to bring Nigerians closer together that there is “cultured diffusion” and what is needed today is global rather than local government (Ozor 1987: 215)

1.3.2 Functions of Local Government

The functions of an organ are better articulated to its structure hence recourse to the structure of Local Government is desirable In Nigeria Local Government Councils are hierarchically structured with the Chairman at the ape of the pyramid assisted by his Councilors responsible for policy formulation. The Secretary and other principal officers (career civil servants) of the council are charged with the execution of such policies /programmes. An organogram of a typical local government in Nigeria is indicated in the figure overleaf.

As provided in the fourth (4th) Schedule to the 1999 Constitution these functions are-

- a. The constitution and the making of recommendations to the State Commission on economic planning or a similar body on
- b. the economic development of the state particularly in so far as the areas of authority of the council and of the State are affected; and
- c. proposals made by the said commission and body;
- d. Collection of rates and issuance of Television licenses
- e. Establishment and maintenance of cemeteries burial grounds and homes for the destitute and infirm;
- f. Licensing of bicycles, trucks (other than mechanically propelled trucks) canoe, wheel-barrows and carts;
- g. Establishment, maintenance and relocation of slaughter houses, slaughter slabs, markets, motor parks and public conveniences
- h. Construction and maintenance of roads street lighting drains parks gardens open spaces or such public facilities as may be prescribed from time –to –time by the House of Assembly of a State;
 1. Naming of roads and streets and numbering of houses;
 2. Provision and maintenance of public conveniences, sewage and refuse disposals;
 3. Registration of births, deaths and marriages;

Assessment of privately-owned houses or tenements for the purpose of levying such rates as may be prescribed by the House of Assembly of a State;

1. Control and Regulation of:
 2. Out-door advertisement and boarding;
 3. Movement and keeping of pets of all descriptions;
 4. Shops and kiosk
 5. Restaurants bakeries and other places for sale of food to the public; and
 6. Laundries.

The functions of a local government council shall include participation of such councils in the government of the state with respect to the following matters

- i. The provision and maintenance of Primary Education;

- ii. The Development of Agriculture and Natural Resources other than the exploration of minerals;
- iii. The Provision and maintenance of Health Services; and
- iv. Such other functions as may be conferred on the local government council by the House of Assembly of the State.

It is important to note that these functions are both executive and Legislative in nature they are executive or administrative in the sense that these are the areas over which the Chairman must concentrate and exercise his administrative control in the day-to-day administration of the Council. These functions are also legislative in that council is restricted to these specific areas in its making of bylaws. Thus if the Council goes outside these area such a by-law could be declared null and void (Oon and Esema 1999).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE I

1. What are the functions of local government as provided by the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria?
2. Identify the problems of local government administration in Nigeria and proffer solutions for resolving them.

1.3.3 Role of Local Government in Urban Development

Following the 1978 Local Government Reforms the Federal Government of Nigeria evolved its own definition of Local Government as:

“Government at the level exercised through representative councils established by law to exercise specific powers within defined areas. These powers should give the council substantial control over local affairs as well as the staff and institutional and financial power to initiate and direct the provision of services and to determine and implement projects so as to complement the activities of the State and Federal Government in their areas and to ensure through active participation of the people and their traditional institutions that Local initiatives and responses to local needs and conditions are maximized.”

From the above definitions we can deduce that the Local Government System has the following characteristics

- (a) It is a sub-division of the nation;
- (b) It can impose taxes and incur expenses;
- (c) It exists within a defined territory and populations;
- (d) It has its autonomous existence and legal identity;
- (e) It comprises elected members who run it;

We could state that the reason for the establishment of local government councils in Nigeria is to provide services to the citizen using locally collected taxes and government grants. An effective local government system delivers basic services to the citizen at affordable costs thereby enhancing the standard of living of the people. Provision of basic needs such as portable water sanitation, basic health-care through functional dispensaries clinics and quality primary education makes local government councils major instruments for fulfilling the obligations of government to cater for the welfare of the citizens. Being closer to the people local government councils are intended to be more effective in alleviating poverty and caring for members of the society. Local Government councils

are to build bridges that link higher levels of Government with ordinary citizens especially where the majority live outside the Federal and State capitals thereby facilitating government penetration of the society. In the process they also communicate traditional values and demands for consideration and proper response. A properly functioning Local Government system decongests demands on higher levels of Government thereby leaving them to concentrate on major developmental issues.

As a tier of government its leadership definitely informs the quality of services it will render to the people. Ordinarily a leader is said to be that person in authority who is capable of harnessing the available resources using various techniques and skills at various times and levels in achieving results more effectively, efficiently and economically. At the level of governance we are concerned with political leadership. And the hallmarks of this type of leadership are Accountability and Transparency. Accountability is concerned with stewardship which implies that an individual or group to whom resources are entrusted is/are expected from time to time to render accounts on how these resources have been managed. It is a test of the managerial and entrepreneurial skills of the individual or group to whom resources or responsibility has been delegated. At the political plane we talk of public accountability which is the complete and satisfactory account of the stewardship of a public officer in respect of the acquisition and application of the resources entrusted to him/her in the process of executing public policy and accomplishing planned objectives in accordance with current rules and regulations. It involves clear specification of outputs and inputs as well as analysis, synthesis, explanation and satisfactory justification of the utilization of allocated resources. Thus public accountability has to do with holding public officers accountable for resources entrusted to them and ensuring that the officers give accurate and up-to-date account of what they have done with public resources. One sure way of ensuring this type of accountability is through Transparency. This concept simply means openness in the conduct of business of the government and hence allow access to information which therefore reinforces accountability.

1.4 Problems of Government of Local Government in Nigeria

The fundamental question to ask here is leadership of local governments adverse to reforms or do they lack the capacity to comprehend and implement reform measures? Adequate answers to these questions manifested during the EtsuNupe Committee's tour of land consultations with stakeholders across the country. The findings from the exercise led to a plausible conclusion that Government's supervisory bodies do not apply and enforce the in-built mechanisms for accountability in the Local Government Councils. The lack of meaningful supervision and monitoring agency charged with this responsibility further call to question the status of local government leadership in local government development. Other identifiable problems include stability which failed to take root in the local government system. Often state governments resorted to appointment of Sole Administrators or Caretaker Committee rather than holding elections for local councils. As a result there has been "uncertainty surrounding the legitimacy and organization of local governments which may adversely affect the capacity to serve as an agent of National Development" (King 1988:100). Instability among local governments

is also caused by constant redrawing of the boundaries between them and the additional creation of more local governments which has been regarded as “one of the most provocative issues of Nigerian Politics” (King 1988 *ibid*). Local boundary disputes precipitated crisis and violence. Such changes in the number of local governments and agitation for more changes created tensions and disrupted continuity. The capacity of local governments is further undermined by their dependence on external resources for revenue. The history of the Federal and State statutory allocation to the local governments has resulted in less effort to source revenue locally (Gboyega 1987: 172). The dependence on subventions equally reduces the autonomy of the local government. Ideally the tax and revenue bases of local government in Nigeria have been inadequate for implementing the tasks assigned to the Councils (Orewa and Adewunmi 1983: 269). In spite of this low revenue base both the Federal and State Governments assign the Local Government responsibilities for unbudgeted expenses such as that involving Independence National Electoral Commission (INEC) at that level etc. Management of funds in local governments is widespread. One often reads in the national dailies confessions of Local Government officials in misappropriating funds meant for development purposes.

The 1976 Reforms provides for the appointment of Local Government Secretaries. The relationship between the Local Government Secretaries and their Chairmen has been “a source of conflict in the local governments areas” (King 1988:99). There has been the tendency for elected council officials not to build a political career in which they need to be sensitive to their reputation over time. As a result Councilors do not expect to serve long and this affects continuity and capacity of the Local Government Areas.

1.4.1 Prescriptions for ameliorating the situation

The purpose of good governance is to better the lives of the people. Consequently leadership of Local Governments must face the following challenges squarely:

1. They must have the political will to address the problems identified for the success of the councils;
2. They must have the ability to carry out their functions conscientiously;
3. They must be ready and willing to bring erring council members and officials before the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC) and Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) etc;
4. They must imbibe the fear of God and also be accountable to the people;
5. Accountability and transparency should form the cardinal objectives of administering the people; and
6. They must try and be proactive in their management style and should remember that they are in the era of globalization.

In more specific terms the following measures have been severally canvassed:

- a. Local Government leadership should resuscitate and institutionalize the allocation of matching grants to community self-help projects. This will create in the people a sense of pride ownership and participation in local governance;

- b. In order to monitor implementation of reform programmes which are directives of MDGs State officials should compile comprehensive data on the operations of local Government Councils on annual basis;
 - c. The key functionaries should be advocate for the abolition of the State Local Government Joint Account. Funding should be direct. It is their responsibility to institute adequate check and balance measures to guard against mismanagement of funds.
 - d. The Local Government Service Commission and the Office of the Auditor-General for Local Government should enjoy some constitutional being to guarantee their independence and enable them enforce the proper operational procedures.
 - e. Regular training to develop the management skills of Local Government staff should be instituted and accorded top priority. Local Government officials in States and Federal Ministry of Inter-Governmental Affairs should mandate the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) and other designated Universities to carry out this training. Such training should emphasize development in personnel and financial management, budget and planning.
 - f. The Local Government Service Commission's role in ensuring efficiency in the Local Government Councils by way of close supervision and monitoring of staff performance must not be overload.
 - g. Stakeholders must try to create awareness at the Local Government level through effective communication machinery between the Local Government Community leaders, non-governmental organization etc in order to assess and monitor performance of Local Government Councils.
 - h. Stakeholders should borrow a leaf from Federal Government by encouraging partnership with private sector agencies for the purpose of executing capital projects.
- In this regard as major shareholders in the Urban Development Ban Local Government Councils should be advised to take advantage of the Ban's services to considerably enhance performance and service delivery.
- i. In view of the epileptic performance of Local Government Councils and the lukewarm attitude of State monitoring organs the Federal Ministry of Inter-Governmental Affairs and Special Duties should provide uniform performance indicators evaluate and publish annually a comprehensive report on all Local Councils.
 - j. During the EtsuNupe/LimanCiroma Committee's tour for consultation with stakeholders in Local Government Administration there was a general consensus that the presidential system of government at the Local Government level is too expensive.

Consequently the parliamentary terms would reduce the personnel cost of 774 Local Government Council yearly by about N3 million. The argument therefore was that such huge amount if saved would go a long way in developing the Local Government Councils. It is therefore up to the stakeholders to critically examine this position to the advantage of their councils (Auwal 2004: 13-14).

At the Council of State's meeting held on 19th January 2004 it was resolved in line with EtsuNupe/LimanCiroma Committee's that:

- a. Only the existing 774 Local Government Councils as contained in the 1999 Constitution will be recognized.
- b. States should continue to pay Local Government 10% of their total revenue;
- c. Federal and State governments should fund all agencies under them;
- d. Local Government Councils must ensure that not more than 45% of their budget is expended on personnel and overhead cost;
- e. States should fully release to Local Government Councils their statutory allocation; and
- f. Local Government Councils will not have to submit their budgets to the House of Assembly for approval. An inspectorate unit will be establishing to enforce compliance with the approved budget.



1.5. Summary

For any meaningful development to take place at the grassroots, the local people must be involved in the decision making process of their affairs and competent hands must be enjoyed by the council in the area of professionalism and technological knowhow. Most of these problems, however, can be traced to the operation in Nigeria and how the constitution is implemented and recognized.

Local Government developments in Nigeria have been a major concern to the government practitioners and other various stakeholders at the local level because local participation in development at the grassroots is essential to the country's national development. It is the desire of every citizen to see development at the grassroots level because it should encourage active participation in government performance and policies. It is very clear, at least from Nigeria's experience that urban centres are located within the local government areas. So, the administration of local government aids the development of the urban centres. With this at the back of one's mind, we set out in this unit to conceptualize local government which we eventually agreed is governance at the grassroot level which of course includes community. We thereafter looked at the structure and functions of local government. Here we identified from the constitution that even such infrastructure at the urban centres such as motor parks, Abattoir setc are within the preview of local government. Leadership of local government was equally examined. We then identified problems of governance of local government in Nigeria. The findings of the EtsuNupe Committee in this direction was not only informative but educative, measures for ameliorating this situation were put forward.



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1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What are the functions of local government as provided by the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria?

Answer

- (a) The constitution and the making of recommendations to the State Commission on economic planning or any similar body on
 - 1. the economic development of the state particularly in so far as the areas of authority of the council and of the State are affected and
 - 2. proposals made by the said commission and body
- (b) Collection of rates and issuance of Television licenses;
- (c) Establishment and maintenance of cemeteries burial grounds and homes for the destitute and infirm;
- (d) Licensing of bicycles, trucks (other than mechanically propelled trucks) canoe, wheel-barrows and carts;
- (e) Establishment, maintenance and relocation of slaughter houses, slaughter slabs, market, motor parks and public conveniences;
- (f) Construction and maintenance of roads, street lighting, drains, parks gardens, open spaces or such public facilities as may be prescribed from time –to –time by the House of Assembly of a State;
- (g) Naming of roads and streets and numbering of houses;
- (h) Provision and maintenance of public conveniences sewage and refuse disposals
- (i) Registration of births, deaths and marriages
- (j) Assessment of privately-owned houses or tenements for the purpose of levying such rates as may be prescribed by the House of Assembly of a State
- (k) Control and Regulation of
 - (l) Out-door advertisement and boarding
- (m) Movement and keeping of pets of all descriptions;
- (n) Shops and Loss
- (o) Restaurants bakeries and other places for sale of food to the public; and
- (p) Laundries

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Identify the problems of local government administration in Nigeria and proffer solutions for resolving them.

Answer

Problems of Government of Local Government in Nigeria:

The fundamental question to ask here is leadership of local governments adverse to reforms or do they lack the capacity to comprehend and implement reform measures? Adequate answers to these questions manifested during the EtsuNupe Committee's tour of land consultations with stakeholders across the country. The findings from the exercise led to a plausible conclusion that Government's supervisory bodies do not apply and enforce the in-built mechanisms for accountability in the Local Government Councils. The lack of meaningful supervision and monitoring agency charged with this responsibility further call to question the status of local government leadership in local government development. Other identifiable problems include stability which failed to take root in the local government system. Often state governments resorted to appointment of Sole Administrators or Caretaker Committee rather than holding elections for local councils. As a result there has been "uncertainty surrounding the legitimacy and organization of local governments which may adversely affect the capacity to serve as an agent of National Development" (King 1988:100). Instability among local governments is also caused by constant redrawing of the boundaries between them and the additional creation of more local governments which has been regarded as "one of the most provocative issues of Nigerian Politics" (King 1988 *ibid*). Local boundary disputes precipitated crisis and violence. Such changes in the number of local governments and agitation for more changes created tensions and disrupted continuity. The capacity of local governments is further undermined by their dependence on external resources for revenue. The history of the Federal and State statutory allocation to the local governments has resulted in less effort to source revenue locally (Gboyega 1987: 172). The dependence on subventions equally reduces the autonomy of the local government. Ideally the tax and revenue bases of local government in Nigeria have been inadequate for implementing the tasks assigned to the Councils (Orewa and Adewunmi 1983: 269). In spite of this low revenue base both the Federal and State Governments assign the Local Government responsibilities for unbudgeted expenses such as that involving Independence National Electoral Commission (INEC) at that level etc. Management of funds in local governments is widespread. One often reads in the national dailies confessions of Local Government officials in misappropriating funds meant for development purposes.

The 1976 Reforms provides for the appointment of Local Government Secretaries. The relationship between the Local Government Secretaries and their Chairmen has been "a source of conflict in the local governments areas" (King 1988:99). There has been the tendency for elected council officials not to build a political career in which they need to be sensitive to their reputation over time. As a result Councilors do not expect to serve long and this affects continuity and capacity of the Local Government Areas.

Prescriptions for ameliorating the situation

The purpose of good governance is to better the lives of the people. Consequently leadership of Local Governments must face the following challenges squarely:

- a. They must have the political will to address the problems identified for the success of the councils;

- b. They must have the ability to carry out their functions conscientiously;
- c. They must be ready and willing to bring erring council members and officials before the Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC) and Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) etc;
- d. They must imbibe the fear of God and also be accountable to the people;
- e. Accountability and transparency should form the cardinal objectives of administering the people; among others

Unit 3: RURAL –URBAN MIGRATION

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcome
- 1.3 Main Content
 - 1.3.1 Concept of Rural-Urban Migration
 - 1.3.2 Problems of Rural – Urban Migration
 - 1.3.3 Benefits of Rural – Urban Migration
- 1.4 Effects of Rural – Urban Migration
 - 1.4.1 Advantages of Rural – Urban Migration to the Rural Areas
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 References/Further Readings
- 1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Migration is the movement of people from one place to another to settle there for some time for one reason or the other. It is different from the mere movement of people from place to place on a very temporary basis.

Migration has two dimensions – Immigration and emigration. Immigration refers to inward migration, that is, movement of people into a place.

Emigration refers to outward migration, that is, the movement of people out of a place.

Migration in Nigeria has some discernible patterns.

1. Rural – Urban Migration: This is the migration of people from rural areas to the urban centre. In Nigeria, many people desert the villages and go to the towns and cities to live. This mass movement of people from the rural areas to the towns and cities is referred to as the rural-urban drift population
2. Rural – rural Migration: Some farmers migrate from the congested parts of the country to other areas where there is abundant land for agriculture. Also, people migrate from rural areas which are not productive to other areas. Rural – rural migration is on a smaller scale than Urban-urban migration.



1.2 Learning Outcome

At the end of this Unit you should be able to:

1. Explain the concept of rural-urban migration
2. Outline the problems of Rural-Urban Migration
3. Identify the benefits of rural-Urban Migration
4. State the effects of Rural-Urban Migration
5. Explain the advantages of Rural-Urban Migration to the Rural Areas.



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 Concept of Rural-Urban Migration

The quest for employment, that is, white collar jobs which is non-existent and higher levels of income had made people to migrate from rural to urban areas. The rural drift is caused by search for economic opportunities or the desire to stay in an area with more improved economic and social infrastructural facilities like electricity, hospitals, telephone, pipe-borne water and schools, the desire for a more suitable climate and the desire to have one's standard of living improved.

The quest for knowledge and skills, problems of natural disasters such as flood, boundary clash, and religious fanaticism are some other factors that provide reason for it.

Migration may be blessing to some areas while it may be debilitating to another.

The immigrants enlarge and enrich the labour force for productivity and economic growth and development. This is evident in the last population census data that Lagos State had more population than most state of the federation.

This however made the government then to call for more allocation of federal revenue based on the population figures. Areas with higher population figures attract a greater share of government revenue.

Rural-urban migration causes over-population in the urban area and under population in the rural areas. The movement of people from rural area that is Sokoto, Ilorin, Enugu, Abia to Badagry partly caused by crop failures and partly by the general poverty in farming communities. This movement has resulted in the overcrowding of the towns and cities in the Thirty-six states of the Federation and because industrial and commercial activities have not expanded to meet this increase in urban population, unemployment in many urban centers is high because these centers contain more people than there are jobs available for them. With the emigration greater than immigration, under-population or decrease in population result in which most of the 774 Local Government area in Nigeria may partly be due to poor Medical facilities, increase in death rate, decrease in birth rate, war and famine, natural disasters and epidemic,

According to C.E Andy (2006) factors that determine movement (inflow or outflow) in population are:

1. Economic Prosperity: It is natural that people would like to move to areas where they would be able to make a living out of life without so much stress.
2. Education: sometimes people would go to other places to study and acquire skill.
3. Political Instability: An area that is characterized by political instability cannot attract inflow of people into such place rather it will witness massive outflow.
4. Natural Disaster: An area that is prone to frequent occurrence of natural disasters will witness massive exit of people from that area and stoppage of inflow.
5. Adventurism: People may be attracted to a particular area due to the availability of some tourist attractions and holiday resorts.
6. Religious Purpose: Some clergies have moved from their area to other areas to evangelize.

Studies by Okpan (1993) revealed that migrants from rural to urban areas are always many compared to those from urban to rural areas. The movement from rural to urban areas makes negative impact on the quality of rural life especially when such migrants carry away their needed consumption into the city. Migration of young adults from the

rural areas also place greater burden on the farmers, for farmers to cover the same area of land as when he had extra assistance, he must work much longer hours thus depriving him of some time for leisure or participation in various social activities.

On the other hand, studies by Ijere (1994) revealed that rural-urban migration has a positive impact on urban growth and social development, which makes generation of employment opportunities and provision of educational facilities and transportation for the migrants. Today, urban-rural migration is one of the most important modes of migration which exist in the society. Until recently, researchers have not paid much attention to the rural-urban drift.

Study by Williams (1970) revealed that some factors could send one off a place, which might be liable to crisis, old age, transfer, retirement, and invasion of pests and diseases. Also, some social factors may evolve to make people migrate to rural areas.

Study by Jibowo (1992) showed that factors influencing people to migrate to rural areas might be as a result of city congestion, traffic jams, sanitation problems, increasing urban unemployment, increase in crime and housing problems. These problems are so great in many developing countries that rural development has been a cardinal programme of political campaigns by many politicians.

Urbanization is also defined by the United Nations as movement of people from rural to urban areas with population growth equating to urban migration. The United Nations projected that half of the world's population would live in urban areas at the end of 2008.

This study concludes that people migrate based on the prevailing conditions and the reason for it varies from one person to another depending on the situation that brought about the decision. Migration is a selective process affecting individuals or families with certain economic, social, educational and demographic characteristics.

Migration occurs as a response to economic development as well as social, cultural, environmental and political factors and effects on areas of origin as well as destination. People tend to move away from a place due to need to escape violence, political instability, drought, congestion in various dimensions and suspected or real persecution. Also, adverse physical conditions such as flood, landslide (erosion and earthquake), insects and pests, soil infertility contribute largely to the reasons people leave one environment for another.

1.3.2 Problems of Rural – Urban Migration

One of the major forms of migration that tends to create problems in all developing countries is that of rural-urban migration. The number of immigrants has increased relative to the number of emigrants.

When people migrate from rural to urban areas, the problems that arise are:-

1. Congestion on land and pressure on other resources including social services.
2. There will be a fall in per capital income.
3. The demand for goods and services will be relatively higher than what is available.
4. There will be increased imports and greater balance of payment problems.
5. There will be a high-level of unemployment and underemployment.
6. Producers may use more labour intensive forms of production.

7. There may be an excess supply of labour which will lead to a fall in wages and weaken the bargaining power of the trade unions.
8. There will be a high dependency ratio
9. There will be a high level of government spending.
10. Social problem will tend to mount.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. State ten problems that arise when people migrate from rural to urban areas
2. Explain the advantages and disadvantages of Rural-urban migration in Nigeria.

1.3.3 Benefits of Rural – Urban Migration

The rapid rural-urban migration in Nigeria has some benefits in the economy of the nation. They are:

1. There will be high supply of labour: The immigrants will provide large working population which will help in full and effective utilization of resources to increase the level of output. Other things being equal, an increased level of output would lead to an increased level of consumption. Consequently, the standard of living will increase.
2. Large market for goods and services: There will be increased productivity to meet the high demand. This may lead to economies of scale in production and producers will be encouraged to increase productivity further.
3. Economies in the provision of certain services: Economic services such as defense and administration, when the total costs of providing them are spread over the population, the cost per person will be lower than that with fewer people.
4. Foreign aid and investment: A country with large population will attract more foreign aids and investments.
5. There will be increase in skills and talents that will help to raise the level of productivity in the economy.
6. It boosts market at the receiving region.
7. It promotes cultural integration e.g. inter-marriage at the receiving region.

1.4 Effects of Rural – Urban Migration

Rural–urban migration has a number of consequences both on the source areas (rural areas) and the destinations (urban centres) these include:

1. Urban unemployment is aggravated: The migration of many people to urban centres increase the number of people seeking employment in these urban areas. However, the number of job opportunities is not enough to absorb many of the young people who have drifted to the towns and cities. Urban employment therefore grows at a fast rate. The problem of unemployment is further compounded by the fact that most of the unemployed people have no special training or skill. They therefore constitute a source of social problems in towns. Crime would be on the increase. Some might take to armed robbery, petty theft, thuggery, loitering etc.
2. Explosion of demand for social services: Demand for social facilities such as housing, medical facilities, educational facilities, electricity, pipe-borne water etc.

will be far in excess of their supplies. This explosion of demand has a number of consequences.

3. There will be congestion on the available facilities: They will be over-used resulting in their breakdown.
4. Shanty towns would develop: As used here, this refers to those parts of the city which are not properly developed. They lack adequate facilities and usually serve as hide-out for criminals.
5. It would necessitate the diversion of funds from productive investment to the provision of social amenities, thereby altering priorities.
6. Rural-urban migration reduces the supply of labour in rural areas: Since many young people migrate to the towns, farming is left in the hands of an ageing population which is incapable of coping with arduous farming activities. These old men and women who are left behind in the farms make use of traditional methods of production. The consequences of inadequate man power for labour and use of traditional methods has reduced productivity per worker and per hectare.
7. It reduces the number of taxable adults in rural areas: Since many taxable young men have migrated to the towns, the amount of revenue which can be derived by the Local Government in the rural areas would be low. If little revenue is derived, the amount of social facilities provided will be low.
8. It leads to cultural disintegration at the destination region.
9. It leads to the loss of able-bodied men and youth at the source region.
10. Environmental pollution: Poor housing, turn-out of waste materials due to high level of human activities generally lead to environmental pollution.
11. Rural – urban migration also inadequate health services as a result of influx of people to an area.

1.4.1 Advantages of Rural – Urban Migration to the Rural Areas

1. Reduction in government expenditure: Declining populations have fewer people to cater for and as a result there will be a reduction in expenditure by government.
2. High standard of living: Standard of living has to do with the number of people and the available resources. With fewer people coupled with increasing resources, this will cause an increase in per capita income, which will result in higher standard of living.
3. Reduction in congestion: As a result of decrease in the number of people, there will be a corresponding decrease in congestion in terms of human, accommodation and vehicular traffic.
4. Creation of job: As a result of increase in the number of old people, there will be more employment opportunities for the few labour force.
5. Increase in saving: With decreasing population, there is an increase in savings on the part on the government.
6. Increase of investment: As a result of the increase in savings, there will be enough capital for investment in important sectors of economy.

1.4.2 Disadvantages of Rural-Urban Migration to the Rural Area.

1. Reduction in labour force

2. Fall in Gross Domestic Product (GDP): The fall in the size of the labour force would result in a fall in the productive capacity of the country. The small labour force, combined with its inability to make optimum use of available resources, results in low savings and a fall in Gross Domestic Product.
3. Less Mobility of labour: As a result of the increasing number of people, mobility of labour becomes difficult as old people may either stay at home or refuse to accept new ways of doing things.
4. Risk of invasion: Due to the increase in the number of old people in the area, the risk of invasion by external forces is very high.
5. It leads to under-population
6. High dependency ratio
7. Reduction in tax.
8. Lower rewards for factor of production
9. Change in the pattern of demand



1.5 Summary

Rural-Urban migration has apparently come to stay particularly in developing nations like Nigeria. This is because such a movement is instigated by such factors as gainful employment, better economic activities, existence of modern infrastructural facilities such as electricity and pipe- borne water; easy access to essential services such as medical, education and other social services. We submit that such a migration can only be looked when such facilities are adequately made available to the rural area.

Rural-urban migration is seen as a sinequonon in developing countries due to availability of modern infrastructural facilities and other social services in the urban centres. Against this backdrop, this unit gets out to conceptualize the rural-urban migration. Here it stated that the quest for employment particularly the white collar jobs, economic opportunities, better infrastructural facilities such as electricity, pipe-borne water, hospitals, telephone, schools etc. instigate such a movement. The unit then identified certain problems that arise as a result of such movements. Some of these are: Congestion on land and pressure on other resources, fall in per capita income, higher demand of goods and services etc.

The Unit also identified the benefits of such migration as among others, high supply of labour, large market for goods and services, economies in provision of certain services, etc., such effects as urban unemployment, explosion of demand for social services, reduction of supply of labour in rural areas, environmental pollution etc. The unit concluded with outlining the advantages and disadvantages of rural-urban migration.



1.6 References/Further Readings

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1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

State ten problems that arise when people migrate from rural to urban areas

Answer

1. Congestion on land and pressure on other resources including social services.
2. There will be a fall in per capital income.
3. The demand for goods and services will be relatively higher than what is available.
4. There will be increased imports and greater balance of payment problems.
5. There will be a high-level of unemployment and underemployment.
6. Producers may use more labour intensive forms of production.
7. There may be an excess supply of labour which will lead to a fall in wages and weaken the bargaining power of the trade unions.
8. There will be a high dependency ratio
9. There will be a high level of government spending.
10. Social problems will tend to mount.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Explain the advantages and disadvantages of Rural-urban migration in Nigeria.

Answer

Advantages of Rural – Urban Migration to the Rural Areas

1. Reduction in government expenditure: Declining populations have fewer people to cater for and as a result there will be a reduction in expenditure by government.
2. High standard of living: Standard of living has to do with the number of people and the available resources. With fewer people coupled with increasing resources, this will cause an increase in per capita income, which will result in higher standard of living.
3. Reduction in congestion: As a result of decrease in the number of people, there will be a corresponding decrease in congestion in terms of human, accommodation and vehicular traffic.
4. Creation of job: As a result of increase in the number of old people, there will be more employment opportunities for the few labour force.
5. Increase in saving: With decreasing population, there is an increase in savings on the part on the government.
6. Increase of investment: As a result of the increase in savings, there will be enough capital for investment in important sectors of economy.

Disadvantages of Rural-Urban Migration to the Rural Area.

1. Reduction in labour force
2. Fall in Gross Domestic Product (GDP): The fall in the size of the labour force would result in a fall in the productive capacity of the country. The small labour force,

combined with its inability to make optimum use of available resources, results in low savings and a fall in Gross Domestic Product.

3. Less Mobility of labour: As a result of the increasing number of people, mobility of labour becomes difficult as old people may either stay at home or refuse to accept new ways of doing things.

4. Risk of invasion: Due to the increase in the number of old people in the area, the risk of invasion by external forces is very high.

5. It leads to under-population

6. High dependency ratio

7. Reduction in tax.

8. Lower rewards for factor of production

9. Change in the pattern of demand

Unit 4: CONCEPT AND THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcome
- 1.3 Main Content
 - 1.3.1 Definition of Leadership
 - 1.3.2 Characteristics of Effective Leadership
 - 1.3.3 Functions of an Effective Leader
 - 1.3.4 Basic Qualities and Skills of Effective leader
- 1.4 Theories of Leadership
 - 1.4.1 The Trait Theory
 - 1.4.2. The Great Man Theory
- 1.5 A Contingency Theory
 - 1.5.1 Normative Theory
 - 1.5.2 The Path- Goal Theory
 - 1.5.3 A Situational Theory
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

In every organization, which of course is made up of people, someone or persons usually emerge as either the spokespersons of the group or providing the guide for other group members to adopt or follow. Hence in any group are categories viz: (i) the leader and the followers. Each of these must exhibit unique characteristics that must be demonstrated positively in order to ensure smooth running of that organization. In every establishment both in the private or Government, certain groups of people perform leadership roles. For instance, who-so-ever occupies a headship position becomes the leader of those he is heading. And the success or failure of that group is usually attributed to how effective or not the leader is. In the management parlance, the leader is regarded as an Accounting officer because, he has to be held responsible for what transpires in that organization. The woes or failures of the Nigerian State, for instance, has always been attributed to the past leaders



1.2 Learning Outcome

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

- 1. Understand the need for Leadership in every group endeavour
- 2. define the concept of leadership
- 3. outline the functions and basic qualitative of an effective leader
- 4. identify some theories of leadership



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 Definition of Leadership

Bobbit et al (1978:253-254) define leadership as the ability to influence the behaviour of others. Similarly, Carslie (1976:554) defined the term as basically an influence process. Continuing, he states that the leader is the person in the group who has the most influence over the actions of a unit. If a person has little influence over what the group does, he or she is not considered a leader. If through interpersonal relations another person is usually able to get others to follow direction, that individual is considered as a strong leader. Comprehensively therefore, he states that Leadership is a process of providing direction in group activities and influencing others to achieve common goals. If group progress is inconsistent with the expectations of its members, the leader will lose influence. Louis A. Allen (1964) defines leadership as “the work a manager performs to cause people to take effective action”. He identifies five main activities that are associated with management leading:-

- i. “Management Decision Making: the work a manager performs to arrive at conclusion and judgments.
- ii. “Management Communicating: the work a manager performs to create understanding.
- iii. “Motivating: the work a manager performs to inspire, encourage, and impel people to take required action.
- iv. “Selecting People: the work a manager performs to choose people for positions in the organization.
- v. “Developing People: the work a manager performs to help people improve their knowledge, attitudes, and skills.”

Effective leadership is essential to the achievement of results. The manager’s leadership strength or weaknesses affect the performance of the entire organization:

1. He can clarify or confuse objectives, job assignment and expected results, and criteria for measuring performance.
2. He can stimulate or inhibit optimum performance.
3. He can encourage or retard the use of his subordinates’ best abilities, skills and interests.
4. He can provide or withhold incentives for growth and development.
5. He can enhance or undermine job satisfaction and morale.

Research and observation indicate that high productivity, high morale, and optimum growth and development of subordinates result primarily from the leadership given by their immediate superior.

Self-Assessment Exercise

1.	What do you understand by Leadership?
2.	List the Characteristics of a leader

1.3.2 Characteristics of Effective Leadership

To carry out his leadership responsibilities, each manager requires:

1. Awareness, sensitivity and an understanding of human relations. Skill in the techniques of ascertaining the cause of personnel problems.
2. Mastery of the art of changing behavior
3. Skill in on-the-job coaching

These are basic qualities and skills. The effective manager/leader also exhibits the following important characteristics:

1	he adds value to the resources of the organization	He secures the greatest possible return on the assets of the organization by expertly planning, organizing, integrating and measuring activities with maximum efficiency and a minimum waste of talent, time, money and effort
2	he is a prime mover	He determines exactly where the organization is to go, and he is vigorous in his efforts to ensure that it gets there. He pursues his objectives with single-minded intensity. He is flexible in the means he chooses to achieve results. He adapts his strategies to the realities of the specific situation. He may resort to authority or participation, encouragement or command forcefulness or persuasion, depending on which approach is most likely to achieve his objective.
3	he energizes his staff	He knows his subordinates. His daily interaction with them increases their motivation and improves their working relationships.
4	he builds a committed and cohesive work group	He emphasizes the importance of teambuilding. He leads his people so that they are stimulated to cooperate with each other, to offer mutual help spontaneously when needed and to have pride in their workforce – to think of themselves as a good team.
5	he promotes the satisfaction of subordinates' needs	He recognizes that the motives of his subordinates for working in the organization are about as self-centered as his own. He knows that each of his subordinates is concerned with getting as much needed satisfaction as he can from the work situation. He assumes responsibility for changing these self-centered stances to attitudes of mutual interest.
6	he sets an example to his staff	He sets an example – whether good or bad of management in action. This is the fundamental basis for the practice of delegation, coaching, counseling and other forms of functional sharing.
7	he is a resource	He makes it clear that he is willing to help his

	expert	subordinates, but only after they have exhausted their own resources for solving problems. He offers his assistance only after they have done their homework
8	HE INDUCES TENSION	He encourages dissatisfaction with work that is no more than adequate, in order to stimulate subordinates to put forward their best efforts. He recognizes that organizations suffer most, not from occasional setbacks or reversals but rather from complacency resulting from past successes.
9	HE IS A CHANGE AGENT	He effects profitable, productive change. He does not expect dramatic breakthroughs or take needless risks with imprudent change, but he commits himself to the hard work of planned, practical programmes of improvement that are geared to measurable results.
10	HE IS AN ESSENTIAL LINK BETWEEN HIS STAFF AND THE REST OF THE ORGANISATION	He extends the range of his activities beyond vertical relationships with his superiors and subordinate to include both lateral and Diagonal relationships in the organization. He shields his people from unfair demands or incursions by personnel in other departments. He supports the views of top management, and he defends and communicates the views of his staff to the higher echelons. He provides information to his people on both what they want to know and what they need to know if they are to coordinate their efforts with those of other work groups.

1.3.3 Functions of an Effective Leader

1. Decision making
2. Motivating
3. Selecting People
4. Developing People
5. Performing Basic Management Functions
6. Control of Subordinates
7. Model of the Fellowship
8. Management Communication

1.3.4 Basic Qualities and Skills of Effective leader

1. A Prime Mover
2. Plans for the organization
3. Prudent Utilization of Scarce Resources
4. Equitable Distribution of Resources and Infrastructures
5. A Change Agent: Creative and Innovative
6. Builds A Committed & Cohesive Work Group

7. Promotes the satisfaction of subordinates' needs
8. Essential link Between His Staff and the Rest of the Organization
9. Provides Information for His People

1.4 Theories of Leadership

Theories of leadership refer to various perceptions as contained in the received wisdom in the field. Here for instance, there is the position that a person's leadership status may be based on any of the several kinds of power such as reward power, coercion, referent power, expert power or legitimate power. In some instances, the most influential member is the emergent leader, whose power derives from sources other than that of his formal organizational position. Whereas in other instances the most influential member may be the appointed leader

1.4.1 The Trait Theory

Perhaps the oldest theory of leadership effectiveness embodies as its basic concept the idea that leadership effectiveness is determined mainly by personal traits or characteristics of the leader. Although research is yet to come with a set of peculiar traits that guarantee an effective leader, there are still certain traits that characterize effective leaders. It has been established, for example, that one who emerges as a leader is likely to be more intelligent than the average of the group that is led. It is equally established that the personality traits identified in leaders are not necessarily antecedents of leadership. They may develop in individuals as they take on leadership roles.

1.4.2. The Great Man Theory

This theory is related to the traits theory. The proposition here is that some individuals emerge as leaders because they have been born with the necessary leadership traits. A similar theory is the Zeitgeist theory. Zeitgeist is a German word meaning "Sprait of the time". The implication is that a leader is a product of his times, and those leaders will emerge who have the traits or characteristics needed to meet the demand of their times. A good example of great men who emerged as leaders because of the circumstances of the time were Adolf Hitler (Germany); Winston Churchill (Britain); George Washington (United States of America); Charles De Gaul (France); Kwame Nkruma(Ghana); Julius Nyerere (Tanzania); Nelson Mandela(South Africa); Sir, AlhajiAhamadu Bello (Northern Nigeria); Dr. Nnamdi Azikwe (Esatern Nigeria) and Chief Emek Odumegwu Ojukwu (defunct Biafra) Chief Obafemi Awolowo (Western Region of Nigeria).

1.5 A Contingency Theory

One of the most widely discussed theories of leadership in recent years has been that proposed by Fred Fiedler, which he calls a contingency theory of leadership effectiveness. To define leadership behavior, Fieldler developed a questionnaire that could be used to measure a leader's perceptions of co-workers. From the result of his research, it became clear that the relationship between leadership style and effectiveness depends upon several factors in the situation. He identified three:-

1. Task Structure: The most structured task has only one situation, only one path to the solution, and a solution that is clear and verifiable. The most unstructured task has none of these characteristics.

2. Leader-member relations: The effective relationships the leader has with his group. How much do the members of the group approve of, and support, his leadership.
3. Position Power: The power inherent in the leader's organizational position; the degree to which the leader has at his disposal various rewards and sanctions, his authority over the group's members, and the degree to which this authority is supported by the organization

1.5.1 Normative Theory

Whereas Fiedler's contingency theory is firmly rooted in empirical observations of leadership effectiveness in many situations, Vroom and Yetton have provided an elaborate and precise normative model of leadership styles. It is based deductively on certain assumptions about the outcomes that result from various leader behaviors. The assumptions appear to be consistent with most of the descriptive data reported in the research literature and Yetton model is still in the testing stage. What is significant about this theory is that it provides operational, prescriptive statements that managers or leaders may use in determining which leadership methods they should employ in each of various situations that they encounter in carrying out their leadership roles.

Vroom and Yetton considered such terms as task orientation and process orientation, or concern for production and concern for people, to be too imprecise to be operational.

They concluded that a normative leadership theory must specify leadership behavior precisely enough that a person may determine with certainty whether or not he is acting in accordance with the prescription offered by the theory.

They further assume that the leadership method used in response to one situation should not constrain the method or style used in other situations. In other words, they believe that a leader should use different methods depending on the particular situation. To arrive at prescriptions as to the appropriate decision method for various situations, a description of the kind of outcomes desired is needed. Vroom and Yetton distinguish three classes of outcomes that influence the ultimate effectiveness of decisions:

1. the quality or rationality of the decision,
2. the acceptance of the decision by subordinates and their commitment to execute it effectively
3. the amount of time required to make the decision. With these classes of outcomes in mind, Vroom and Yetton concluded that the leader's choice of decision method should be based on the problem attributes.

1.5.2 The Path- Goal Theory

The normative theory of leadership discussed in the preceding section focuses on the decision-making function of the leader. But decision making is only one of a number of leadership functions. The path-goal theory emphasizes how the leader influences the subordinate's perceptions of his work, personal goals, and the paths of goal attainment. The main concern is the degree to which the leader's behaviour is motivating or satisfying to his subordinates. The central hypothesis of the theory is that a leader's behavior is motivating or satisfying to the degree that the behavior increases subordinate goal attainment and clarifies the paths to the goals. This theory of leadership is closely related to the expectancy theories of motivation. The kinds of leadership behavior

conceptualized in the theory are similar but not identical to those we have discussed in previous sections. They are as follows:-

1. Directive leadership – the behavior involved in letting subordinates know what is expected of them, providing specific guideline, standards, and schedules of work to be done as well as rules and regulations.
2. Supportive Leadership – the leadership behavior that shows concern for the status, well-being, and needs of subordinates, attempting to make work more pleasant, and exhibiting friendliness.
3. Participative leadership – the leadership behavior that involves consultation with subordinates, soliciting suggestions and giving them consideration in decision making.
4. Achievement –oriented leadership – the activity of setting challenging goals of emphasizing improvement in performance, expressing confidence in and high expectations of subordinates' ability to meet higher standards of excellence.

1.5.3 A Situational Theory

A useful situational leadership theory is helpful to managers and leaders in diagnosing the demands of their situation have been developed as a result of behavior science research. This theory is based on a relationship between the amount of direction (task behaviour) and the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour) a leader must provide, and the level of “maturity” of his followers or group. Followers in any situation are vital, not only because individually they accept or reject the leader, but as a group, they actually determine whatever personal power he may have.



1.6 Summary

The quality of leadership an institution or, organization or even a country is endowed with determines, to a large extent, how successful or otherwise that organization will be. We have leadership everywhere for instance; he who occupies a headship position in an endeavour is a leader. In government establishments, we find leaders in every Cadre, Ministry, Department, Branch, Division, Section, Unit etc. All these inform our devoting a considerable time to this unit. The knowledge acquired in this unit will not only assist you in being at home with your responsibilities as a subordinate but will also your responsibilities as a leader (either now or in the future).

The study of leadership is a significant parameter for understanding administration of urban centres. This is because at the top of this administrative structure is a leader. All these we shall appreciate shortly.

Discussions on leadership will assist us to appreciate leadership roles in administration generally and administration of urban centres in particular. Against that backdrop, this unit defined the concept of leadership which talked about influencing others. From here discussions shifted to the characteristics of effective leader where we identified ten (10) of such characteristics. The unit also outlined the functions of an effective leader as well as the basic qualities and skills of an effective leader.

Finally, the unit discussed various leadership theories. These are: the trait theory; the Greatman theory; the Contingency theory; the Path-goal theory; and a Situational

leadership theory. It is our hope that this unit has sufficiently exposed you to the fundamental knowledge of leadership. The next unit (i.e Unit 10) will provide a more detailed discussion on leadership that is leadership styles.



1.7 References/Further Readings

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1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. What do you understand by Leadership?
2. List the Characteristics of a leader

Answer

1. Leadership is a process of providing direction in group activities and influencing others to achieve common goals.
2. Characteristics of a leader include:-
 - (a) He adds value to the resources of the organization
 - (b) He is a prime mover
 - (c) He energizes his staff
 - (d) He builds a committed and cohesive work group
 - (e) He promotes the satisfaction of subordinates needs
 - (f) He sets an example to his staff
 - (g) He is a resource expert
 - (h) He induces tension
 - (i) He is a change agent
 - (j) He is an essential link between his staff and the rest of the organization

UNIT 5: LEADERSHIP STYLES AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcome
- 1.3 Main Content
 - 1.3.1 Two Dimensions of Leadership
 - 1.3.2 Factors that affect Choice of Leadership Style
- 1.4 Relationship between leadership style and motivation
- 1.5 Task Behaviour and Relationship Behaviour
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 Further Reading
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

In the preceding unit, we explored the concept of leadership, the functions, qualities and characteristics of a leader. In the process, adequate foundation was laid for discussions on this unit. With such background information, we look, in this unit, at various leadership styles at the disposal of a manager. Each has its own characteristics as well as positive or negative influence on the staff on the one hand, and achievement of organizational goals on the other. We took a position in this unit that the choice of leadership style made by a manager is a function of his personality, those of his staff and envisaged results achievement.



1.2 Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Explain the two dimensions of leadership
2. Identify the factors that affect the choice of appropriate leadership style.
3. Outline the characteristics and effects of various leadership styles.
4. Establish a relationship between leadership styles and motivation.



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 Two Dimensions of Leadership

Two dimensions of leadership are of major concern to managers. First, there is their leadership style:

1. Some managers choose their leadership style either by intuition or by following the example of other managers.
2. Studies of group operations and power relationships have shed much light on the differing impacts of various leadership styles.
3. Researchers in the field of management have long been engaged in a search for the “best” style of leadership. But evidence to date clearly indicates that there is no single style that is appropriate to and effective in all types of situations.

4. Results-oriented managers are those who can adapt their leadership style to meet the demands of each specific situation and the needs of their subordinates.

In addition to their leadership style, managers are concerned with the substance of their directing and controlling activities. These two factors interact, and neither can be ignored:

1. What the manager does to direct and control his subordinates will determine what they will do.

2. How the manager carries out those responsibilities will determine where the emphasis will be placed and influence the level of the subordinate's response.

Awareness of the importance of leadership has led many managers to ask themselves questions such as the following:-

1. How democratic should I be?

2. How much group participation will provide results and how much is just a waste of valuable time?

3. How can I best use my authority without arousing resentment? - How can I prevent my orders from being distorted by staff two levels down in the organization?

4. Why is it that this group seems to respond differently to my leadership than the staff in the last organization in which I worked?

1.3.2 Factors that affect Choice of Leadership Style

Various factors affect the choices of an appropriate leadership style:

1. The personality of the manager. Since he is the product of his past experiences, the manager will find it easy to engage in certain types of behaviour, difficult to carry off others adroitly and impossible to feel comfortable with still others.

2. The manager's life philosophy. The manager's values are the rudder that guides his behaviour. Obviously, the ethically callous can act in ways that the ethically sensitive would not even contemplate.

3. The characteristics of the work group. The work group is no more a blank page than is the manager. Its members have their own traits as individuals; and the work group as a whole also has unique distinguishing characteristics.

4. The manager-work group relationship. The chemistry between the leader and the followers is crucial. Each combination of individuals requires a slightly different approach.

5. The manager's influence with his superiors and others who have power in the organization. Without relatively consistent backing from his superiors and cooperative support from other key personnel in the organization, the manager's efforts to lead may well miscarry.

6. The manager's interaction with other departments. In complex organizations, extensive negotiation, accommodation and adaptation are required.

7. The mandate of the work and the work environment. Opportunities for and obstacles to effective leadership necessarily vary from one situation to another.

8. The requirements of the organization. The organization's philosophy, climate and tempo and the pressures on it dictate the types of managerial leadership that will be rewarded.

Manager need to become familiar with their leadership behaviour because:

1. This behaviour has been developed over a period of time, and it is what others have learned to recognize in them as their style.
2. Subordinates expect and may even be able to predict certain kinds of leadership behaviour in their superior.

Much management training takes the form of developing a leadership model:

1. To assist each manager in determining his own natural style.
2. To help each manager to clarify the assumptions he has made about his staff.
3. To provide managers with feedback on the appropriateness of their style to both the demands of the situation and the needs of their subordinates

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. List the factors that affect the choice of leadership style
2. Explain the relationship between a leadership style and motivation.

1.4 Relationship between leadership style and motivation

This we explain in terms of focus of the leader with regards to carrying out tasks Vis-a-Vis his relationship with those who carry out the tasks. Hence we referred to it as task behaviour and relationship behaviour.

1.5 Task Behaviour and Relationship Behaviour

The recognition of the task and relationship as two important dimensions of leader behaviour has been an important part of the works of management theorists over the last several decades. These two dimensions have been variously labeled, using terminology ranging from “autocratic” and “democratic,” to “employee-oriented and “production oriented.”

For sometime, it was believed that task and relationship were either/or styles of leader behaviour and, therefore, could be depicted on a single dimension, a continuum, moving from very authoritarian (task) leader behaviour at one end to very democratic (relationship) leader behaviour at the other.

more recent years, the feeling that task and relationship were either/ or relationship styles has been dispelled. In particular, the relationship studies initiated by the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University questioned this assumption. In observing the actual behavior of leaders in a wide variety of situation, the Ohio State staff found that they could classify most of the activities of leaders into two behavioral categories or dimensions: “Initiating Structure” (task behavior) and “ Consideration” (relationship behavior). Definitions of these two dimensions follow:

Task Behavior – The extent to which a leader is likely to organize and define the roles of the members of his group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do as well as when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished. It is further characterized by endeavouring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.

Relationship Behavior – The extent to which a leader is likely to maintain personal relationships between himself and the members of his group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, delegating responsibility and giving subordinates an

opportunity to use their potential. It is characterized by socio-emotional support, friendship and mutual trust.

In the leadership studies that followed, the Ohio State research staff found that relationship styles tended to vary considerably from leader to leader. The behavior of some was characterized mainly by structuring activities of followers in terms of task accomplishments, while others concentrated on providing socio-emotional support in terms of personal relationships between themselves and their followers. Other leaders had styles characterized by both task and relationship behavior. There were even some individuals in leadership positions whose behaviour tended to provide little structure or consideration. No dominant style appeared. Instead, various combinations were evident. Thus, it was determined that task and relationship are not either/or leadership styles as an authoritarian – democratic continuum suggests.



1.6 Summary

This unit brings us to the end of discussions on leadership and leadership styles. From the conclusions reached in the unit, there is no best way of leading due to the numerous factors at play in choosing an appropriate style. The fact still remains that the leader is an accounting officer who is held accountable for successes or failures of the work group or department or organization. So, with the target of achievement of goals and objectives in mind, he chooses the leadership style which he feels will best achieve his purpose. This unit thus is an attempt to assist the leaders either present or future to acquire that knowledge and exposure that will enhance their performances as leaders.

This unit started by looking at two dimensions of leadership which are of major concern to managers. The belief is that it is a logical continuation of discussions in the preceding unit. It stated that in addition to their leadership styles, managers are concerned with the substance of their directing and controlling activities.

The unit submits that these two factors interact and neither can be ignored. We equally explained that factors that affect the choice of leadership style. Here we identified and explained eight of such factors. We thereafter identified three essential leadership styles which are Autocratic, Variable and Democratic leadership styles. The characteristics of each of these were articulated. Thereafter, we discussed leadership style and motivation which come in form of leaders reaction to carrying out assigned tasks and his relationship with his subordinates who perform these tasks. A managerial Grid was sketched to reveal a picture of this relationship in four compartments. From these compartments you can identify the particular leadership style at play in each compartment. This, of course, will enable you identify the best leadership style.



1.7 Further Reading

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1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

List the factors that affect the choice of leadership style.

Answer:

The factors are:-

1. The personality of the manager
2. The manager's life philosophy
3. The characteristics of the work group
4. The manager-work group relationship
5. The manager's influence with his superiors
6. The manager's interaction with other departments
7. The mandate of the work and the work environment
8. The requirements of the organization.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Explain the relationship between a leadership style and motivation

Answer

This we explain in terms of focus of the leader with regards to carrying out tasks Vis-a Vis his relationship with those who carry out the tasks. Hence we referred to it as task behaviour and relationship behavior.

MODULE 3

Unit 1: PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcome
- 1.3 Main Content
 - 1.3.1 What is Performance and Performance Gap
 - 1.3.2 Common Reasons for Poor Performance
- 1.4 Performance Analysis
 - 1.4.1 Performance Evaluation
 - 1.4.2 Aims and Objectives of Performance Evaluation
- 1.5 Reporting System in the Nigerian Public Service
 - 1.5.1 Strategies for Systems Improvement
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 Reference/Further Readings
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

The drive to achieve organizational goals we refer to as performance. In other words, the extent to which an individual carries out assigned duties and tasks is what we call performer. So, performance is dependent on availability of duties, tasks, responsibilities etc. Where these are successfully carried out we say that the individual has performed. The individual is adjudged as a non-performer when reverse is the case. At a more micro level, an organization is equally adjudged to be performing as long as it is achieving its mandate. Reverse is equally the case where it is said to be non –performing. This situation is vital in that in Nigeria, some companies fold up due to non-performance. The recent situation with the banking industry is a case in point. Sometimes the government’s central agency, Civil service falls within the bracket of non performing institution where services rendered to the citizens are either not there or inadequate i.e. falling short of expectation

In this unit therefore we shall examine this concept of performance, its analysis, evaluation and benefits derivable there from



1.2 Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you should be able to

1. explain the term, performance, and performance gap
2. identify common reasons for poor performance
3. discuss the concept of performance Analysis
4. analyse performance Evaluation and ratings in the Nigerian Public Service.



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 What is Performance and Performance Gap?

A quick look at Job Analysis reveals that what an employee actually does is his duty, how he does it constitutes the different tasks that make up the duty. Job analysis also shows that a statement of the duties an employee is expected to carryout is referred to as Job description while the qualities required for the satisfactory performance of the duties could be referred to as Job Specification.

The actual accomplishment or discharge of the duties is referred to as his performance. A discrepancy occurs when there is a difference or gap between what employees usually do and what they are expected to do. This constitutes a performance problem.

In discussing Performance Management therefore, emphasis should be placed on the gap or discrepancy which exists in the performance of an employee's duties. The word discrepancy is used here in place of deficiency which is sometimes erroneously used, because deficiency gives a pre-judgemental impression while the onus is the analysis or examination of all the probable contingencies that brought about the 'gap'. Hence one can only refer to the cause of the gap as the employee's deficiency in any of the contingencies, only after their appraisal and an identification of a particular cause like knowledge or skill is made.

1.3.2 Common Reasons for Poor Performance

The greatest challenge of performance management in organizations is performance problems of employees. The ultimate aim of performance management therefore is resolution of these performance problems in order to ensure improved performance. This informed identification of courses of these problems.

When an employee is not performing well, there is often an identifiable reason. Listed below are some common causes of gaps in performance.

1. The employee is apathetic about his work, his co-workers or the department. He is not interested.
2. He is dissatisfied with working conditions, his pay, the personality of his supervisor or his treatment by the supervisor or others in the organization.
3. The manager's approach is obtrusive or inappropriate. It is:
 - i. Too directive, autocratic or demanding
 - ii. Laissez-faire or negligent
 - iii. Inconsistent or unpredictable
4. The employee does not know what is expected of him, does not know the objectives of his job, does not know by what standards his efforts will be judged.
5. He does not accept the manager's expectations, because they are unrealistic, inappropriate or, in the employee's view, unimportant. He feels no commitment to the job objective and no responsibility for achieving it.
6. He believes, erroneously, that he is meeting expectations; he is unaware that his performance is inadequate.
7. He does not know how to do his job; he lacks the necessary knowledge, skill or competence to perform satisfactorily.
8. He feels that there are good reasons why he cannot do what is expected; he is aware of a problem, barrier or restraint that the manager does not seem to recognize.

9. The job is not worth doing; it fulfills no personal need or doing the job may be risky, costly, painful or threatening.
10. Not doing the job is rewarding in some way.
11. The job is too easy; the employee can do it with only a minimum of effort.
12. The employee feels that his past performance has not been recognized; he never gets credit for a job well done.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Identify and list ten (10) common causes of performance problems.

1.4 Performance Analysis

Performance Analysis is a detailed examination of how a job holder executes the roles assigned to him in his job in converting inputs into outputs. It looks at how the employed adds value to inputs in yielding outputs with a given resource, within a time span.

Discussion on performance analysis would be based on two levels; the organizational level, Kurt Lewin's "force-field analysis" could be used to explain the causes of performance problems among the different groups that make up the organization. Here we look at those things that enhance the group's performance as well as those things that tend to restrain or impede the group's performance.

Restraining forces constitute the performance problems of the group. Solution to the problem, therefore, rests with reducing or eliminating the restraining forces and at the same time increasing the enablers or driving forces so that the group's performances could be brought to a desired state.

Below are some enabling and re-estimating factors identified in a Parastatal organization in Nigeria during a recent study carried out by a group in ASCON.

ENABLING FACTORS	RESTRAINING FACTORS
- Pushful Leadership	- Inadequate financial allocation by the Federal Government
Opportunity for job satisfaction	- inadequate motivation resulting in Negative attitudes to work -
-Improved interpersonal relationship	- Inability to delegate effective Civil Service bureaucracy and mentality
- Ability to keep to the main set objectives of the organization	Poor Communication - Non-cooperation due to petty jealousy - Bad and insincere management problem definition and solution.

From the foregoing, the importance of organizational environment on performance is too glaring to be overlooked. Infact environmental influence goes a long way to determine individual's performance. Such environmental variables as Job design, supervision,

fellow workers, compensation, working conditions, training and evaluation compliment the individual's ability where motivation is provided to raise his performance to the desired or expected level.

Again, we discuss them as alternative sources of solution to non-performance problem.

1. Is desired performance punishing?

When it appears like someone knows how to perform as desired but doesn't, one should find out whether the desired performance leads to unpleasant results (unpleasant from this point of view). If so, the remedy is to find ways to reduce or eliminate the negative effects and create, or increase the strength of positive or desirable consequences.

2. Is Non-performance rewarding?

Here we find that many bureaucrats hide under the cloak of "Rules and Regulations" and obstruct attempts made by others to get things done. They tend to constitute themselves into thin 'gods' by exerting such obstructive behaviour towards others. That recognition gives them great satisfaction.

3. Does performing Really matter

Sometimes a performance discrepancy continues to exist neither because the performer doesn't know how to perform nor because he isn't motivated, but because it simply doesn't matter whether or not he performs. Nothing happens if he takes the trouble to perform as someone wants; nothing happens if he doesn't. In dealing with such a situation therefore, one has to arrange a consequence which should be considered favourable by the person expected to perform differently, when you want someone to perform in a particular manner, one rule is: "Make it matter".

4. Are there obstacles to Performing?

Most people often say "I could do this job perfectly well if only this telephone would stop ringing and people stop trooping in and out of my office so that I could concentrate for five minutes at a time". This is an example of a situation in which job would get more efficiently if the conditions were changed, if the obstacles were removed.

5. Which solution is best?

Having discussed different available solutions to a performance discrepancy the next important step is to choose the best of them all that would produce the desired result. In doing this, one should think whether the remedy is worth the probable results. To do so will help select which of several remedies may be the most practical, economical, easiest to use the one most likely to give the most result for the least effort. Then we finally implement such solution.

So far, we have attempted to analyze performance problems in organization. We shall subsequently look at performance evaluation

1.4.1 Performance Evaluation

Evaluation in this context refers to systematic assessment of a worker's job performance and potential or development. Evaluation therefore is the process of estimation or judging the value, excellence, qualities or status of persons. The evaluation of individuals in an employment setting has been described over the years by personnel authors and practitioners in a number of different ways. Some of the common descriptions include: performance appraisal, merit rating, behavioural assessment, employee evaluation,

personnel review, progress report, service rating and fitness report. Some personnel specialists use the concepts interchangeably while others attach special interpretations to some of those appraisal phrases. In this unit therefore, Performance Evaluation and Performance Appraisal would be taken interchangeably.

One important concept that forms part of our discourse is “Service Delivery”. Simply put, this is the main goal of organizations that are classified as public sector or governmental organizations. The bulk of organizations here constitute the single instrument which the government of the day uses in rendering services to the citizens of the country. This, much is provided in section 318, fifth schedule of the Nigerian Constitution, 1999. Hence, we have the Health Sector, Education Sector, Agricultural Sector, Power Sector, Works and Housing etc

1.4.2 Aims and Objectives of Performance Evaluation

It is important at this point to state that performance evaluation exercise is not necessarily done for promotion purposes alone. There are many reasons why organizations carry out performance evaluation exercise. However, the main purpose is to analyze what a person has done and is doing in his job in order to help him to do better by developing his strengths or by overcoming his weaknesses. Other purposes of performance evaluation exercise include the following.

1. It is used for checking on the success of recruitment, selection and placement. Organizations are known to recruit when the need arises. It is only when employee’s jobs are properly assessed that the need will be determined for the type of recruitment needed. Such new staff are placed on specific schedules after orientation and except their performance are evaluated for the period they were placed on the schedule, such an organization would know whether or not it has recruited the right calibre of staff in the right place.
2. Performance appraisal is also used to assess the current targets/objectives of the individual and the level of his achievements. It enables organizations to know how well an officer has carried out the responsibilities assigned to him and thus provides the officer a feedback on his performance and enables him know, whether or not his past performance on the job needs improvement.
3. Performance evaluation is used to identify training needs or in checking the success of previous training of employees. When officers are placed on a job, their productivity after a while will determine their training needs. It guides management to know whether or not the amount spent on staff training was well spent.
4. An organization should be able to set its goals in line with those of its workers so as to eliminate the possibility of role conflicts. When this is done, it becomes possible for the organization to assess individual employee’s performance, to know if such an employee has worked towards the organizational goal or not. Performance evaluation is therefore used to see that employees are motivated towards organizational goals.
5. Performance evaluation deals with the problem of predicting the level and type of work that the employee will be capable of doing in the future. It helps to review the distribution of such rewards as pay, power and status. It is seen as providing data for judgment of future job assignment, compensation and selection for promotion. A good

performance appraisal exercise should be able to guide both the manager and the subordinate in their continuous relationship and thereby ensuring mutual attainment of corporate goals and objectives.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. What are the aims and objectives of performance evaluation
2. What do you understand by performance?

1.5 Reporting System in the Nigerian Public Service

A major dilemma which personnel managers in the public service faced in the past was the method of filling vacant posts. The question was whether such vacant posts should be filled by generosity or by merit.

Before the acceptance of the philosophy of a results-oriented Civil Service following the Udoji report, the scale had always tilted in favour of seniority. Officers with the longest period of service within a particular grade were always considered first for promotion even if their performance reports were not very outstanding. Merit was, therefore, largely relegated. Following the Udoji report, the emphasis shifted from the seniority to merit as a factor of promotion. Officers within a particular grade could then compete for vacant posts in the higher grade and their promotability or otherwise depended on their performance and not how long they had been on their grade. The reporting system also became open. This enabled both the reporting officer and subordinate officer to discuss and determine the latter's performance in the preceding year.

This was an improvement on the old confidential reporting system which was criticized as:

1. not being objective;
2. an instrument of suppression and even oppression;
3. not guaranteeing fair treatment
4. a travesty of the rule of law which guarantees fair hearing

The 1988 Civil Service Reforms re-emphasized the philosophy of work performance and results-oriented management. Accordingly, a new Annual Performance Evaluation Reporting (APPER) system was introduced. A new A.P.E.R form where the ratings are in favour of performance and merit, was introduced.

1.5.1 Strategies for Systems Improvement

A few of them will suffice

1. Management By Objective (MBO):

This is otherwise referred to as people's management. It is an instrument that focuses essentially on setting targets. But here, the targets are jointly set for the subordinate by the superior and his subordinate. By so doing, the subordinate will see the job as "ours" and not "theirs". His commitment and dedication to accomplishing the tasks, all other things being equal, are better imagined.

2. Total Quality Management:

This is an instrument that encourages partnership among clients and customers. Here, customers of whatever goods or services which are produced are seen as customers that

must be satisfied for continued patronage. Hence all efforts are geared towards this customer satisfaction. To ensure this, we must assume that the customer must be treated as a “king” excitors could sometimes be introduced. So, Performance could be measured against the backdrop of staff/customer relationship.

3. Management by Wandering Around (MBWA):

Here monitoring is used as an effective tool of ensuring employees performance in accordance with expectations and provided guidelines. It is only through such wandering around that deviations can be detected and corrected for systems improvement.



1.6 Summary

Attempt has been made so far to re-awaken our minds and enthusiasm to performance management and the all-important evaluation of employee performance as one sure way of ensuring his positive contributions towards the survival and growth of the organization. We therefore aver that where and when the strategies proposed in this unit are accepted and implemented, the individual and organization performances will improve there by ensuring the growth of the organization.

Performance of individual employees in particular and the organization in general expose a vital aspect of administration which of course will assist in our quest for administration of urban centres. In this unit, we explained the concepts of performance and performance gap. We then identified twelve (12) common causes of poor performance.

These, we equally identified in our next section on performance analysis. We identified and carried our analysis at two levels viz: organizational level where Kurt Lewins's Force. Field Analysis (FFA) was of assistance. Finally, the unit addressed the issue of performance evaluation particularly in the public service. In the process, we assessed the confidential reporting system practice prior to the Udoji Commission's Report, then the Open Reporting System recommended by the Udoji Commission and The Target Setting recommended by the “Dotun Philips Report”. Errors in performance evaluation were identified and explained. This has led to proffering strategies for systems improvement.



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1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What are the aims and objectives of performance evaluation?

Answer:

1. To check the success of recruitment selection and placement
2. To assess the current targets/objectives of the individual and the level of his achievement.
3. To identify training needs in checking the success of previous training of employees.
4. To set organizational goals in line with those of the workers
5. To assist in reviewing the distribution of such as rewards as pay, power, status etc., based on the performance of individual employees.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What do you understand by performance?

Answer

A quick look at Job Analysis reveals that what an employee actually does is his duty, how he does it constitutes the different tasks that make up the duty. Job analysis also shows that a statement of the duties an employee is expected to carryout is referred to as Job description while the qualities required for the satisfactory performance of the duties could be referred to as Job Specification.

The actual accomplishment or discharge of the duties is referred to as his performance. A discrepancy occurs when there is a difference or gap between what employees usually do and what they are expected to do. This constitutes a performance problem.

In discussing Performance Management therefore, emphasis should be placed on the gap or discrepancy which exists in the performance of an employee's duties. The word discrepancy is used here in place of deficiency which is sometimes erroneously used, because deficiency gives a pre-judgemental impression while the onus is the analysis or examination of all the probable contingencies that brought about the 'gap'. Hence one can only refer to the cause of the gap as the employee's deficiency in any of the contingencies, only after their appraisal and an identification of a particular cause like knowledge or skill is made.

UNIT 2: EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT AND PUBLIC POLICY

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcome
- 1.3 Main Content
 - 1.3.1 Fundamental Issues in Disaster Management
- 1.4 Definition and Nature of Public Policy
 - 1.4.1 Typology of Public Policies
 - 1.4.2 The Policy Cycle
- 1.5 Role of Public Policies in Disaster Management
 - 1.5.2 Role of Policy: Key Success Factors
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Appropriate public policies that address disaster risks and related issues will go a long way to enhance disaster management. However, in examining the role of public policy in disaster management, we need to provide answers to some salient questions;

1. What are the fundamental issues involved in disaster management?
2. How will public policy enhance disaster management?
3. What should we do to ensure that public policy enhances disaster management?
4. What are the roles of Public Officers in ensuring appropriate public policies for disaster management?



1.2 Learning Outcome

by the end of this unit, you will be able to;

1. Identify and explain the fundamental issues involved in disaster management.
2. Explain how public policy enhances disaster management
3. Outline the roles of public officers in ensuring appropriate public policies for disaster management.



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 Fundamental Issues in Disaster Management

The new disaster management paradigm- disaster risk reduction- aims at pre-empting a disaster and also putting in place, following a disaster, a rehabilitation process that rebuilds resilience to future disasters.

It focuses on three fundamental issues:

1. Disaster risks
2. Vulnerability

3. Resilience

Disaster risk is the probability of harmful consequences or expected loss (of lives, properties, etc.) resulting from an interaction between a hazard and vulnerable conditions. Vulnerability is the existence of conditions of defenselessness and insecurity resulting from physical, social, economic and environmental factors which expose a group or community to the impact of hazards. It is defined in terms of exposure (where and how people live) and susceptibility (the condition of being easily affected by hazard). Resilience is the ability to absorb and recover from disaster impacts, i.e. the capacity to anticipate, cope with, resist and recover from disaster. It depends on the availability and use of social, economic, political, physical and environmental assets to meet basic needs in times of adversity.

The variables that cause disasters are rooted in the social, economic, political and environmental conditions of people. For example, high incidence of poverty and diseases, inaccessibility to education, clean water and sanitation, food and livelihood, insecurity, poor housing conditions, lack of property rights, political instability, financial insecurity, environmental stress, etc. will increase vulnerability and undermine a community's resilience making it prone to disasters. Consequently, effective disaster management will need to focus on policies and practices that promote social development, equity, economic growth, environmental quality, etc. Such policies will minimize the impact of hazards, reduce vulnerability and enhance coping and adaptive capacity.

Thus appropriate public policies are critical in disaster management.

1.4 Definition and Nature of Public Policy

Policy is a purposive course of action for dealing with a problem or matter of concern. It is a guide to action aimed at actualization of predetermined goals and objectives.

In that connection, public policy is simply a purposive direction or course of action undertaken by government institutions and officials to address specific social/societal problems.

Problems are used here in a very broad sense to refer to any situation that is unsatisfactory. In that regard, any situation that needs improvement, even though not completely bad, is a problem.

Public policy comprises of a number of elements –policy demands, policy decisions, policy statements, policy outputs and policy outcomes. • Policy demands: These are claims of the people, representing their needs, desires, wishes, aspirations, intentions, difficulties and questions. The people directly or indirectly present these demands to the political system (public officials). • Policy decisions: Policy decisions are the authoritative steps taken by the government giving direction and contents to policy actions. These provide bases for the determination of objectives and selection of suitable means for their accomplishment. • Policy statements refer to the formal expression or articulation of public policy indicating the intention of government and what will be done to realize them.

Examples are legislative statutes, executive orders administrative rules and regulations etc. • Policy outputs are the tangible manifestations of public policies. They are the actual activities carried out by the government in pursuance of policy decisions and

statements. • Policy outcomes are the consequences for society that flow from action or inaction by government. They could be manifest (intended) or latent (unintended) . Studies have shown that most government policies have latent consequences that may cripple the original intentions of such policies.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. What is Public Policy?
2. Identify the roles of Public policies in disaster management

What is Public Policy?

Identify the roles of Public policies in disaster management

1.4.1 Typology of Public Policies

Public policies can be classified according to various criteria. On the basis of the overall goals that government wants to achieve, public policies can be classified into three broad categories:

1. Distributive policies – involve programmes and project used to provide social goods and services to a segment of the population or the entire society. e.g. free education scheme; flood, erosion and desert control; rural electrification and water schemes; primary health care and immunization programme, e.t.c.
2. Re-distribution policies – involve transfer of resources or benefits from some people or communities to others. e.g. progressive tax systems, land use policy, etc.
3. Regulatory policies – involve the setting of standards and rules to restrict or control the activities of some individuals or groups in the society in order to prevent undesired consequences of their action

1.4.2 The Policy Cycle

1. Policy Agenda Building – involves bringing an issue to the attention of a large number of people who are already conscious of shared interest or who discover a shared interest.

2. Policy Formulation – involves identification and assessment of alternative (often competing and conflicting) proposals, choices of action for dealing with given problems and formalizing the choice.

3. Policy Adoption – involves action/decision by appropriate persons to approve, modify, or reject a preferred/recommended policy alternative. Also, involves bargaining, horse trading, consensus building.

4. Policy Implementation – putting the goals and objectives set forth in policy decisions into practice. Three elements of implementation include organizational structure, rules and guidelines and resource allocation

5. Policy Evaluation – concerned with the estimation, assessment, or appraisal of policy including its content, implementation and effect/impact

Policies that go through the rigours of the ‘Policy Cycle’ are more likely to be effective in addressing the problems they set out to solve.

1.5 Role of Public Policies in Disaster Management

Disaster management involves cross-cutting issues:

1. Issues that promote social and economic development and wellbeing so as to ensure that risks from hazards are either eliminated or reduced to the minimum in all development processes- poverty alleviation, equality, access to social amenities and services, critical infrastructure, e.t.c.
2. Issues that promote the protection and enhancement of the ecology and total human wealth in order to improve the environment's carrying capacity and reduce vulnerability.
3. Issues that make people responsible for their actions in order to control abuse and misuse of common critical assets which can undermine resilience. Disaster management therefore involves actions from multiple parties (governments, private sector organizations, communities, etc) across all sectors (environment, transport, industry, finance, construction, agriculture, education and health, etc.)
4. Policies provide the platform for the integration and coordination of the multiplicity of actions by the multiple parties involved.
5. Policies provide overall direction and a vision of a better society that is less prone to disasters. Policies direct attention and action to compelling priorities for better resource allocation.
6. Policies provide incentives and/or disincentives for appropriate and/or inappropriate behaviour. Policies provide the basis for, and define the nature of partnerships among and between partners.

1.5.2 Role of Policy: Key Success Factors

1. Absolute Leadership commitment/support
2. Extensive Stakeholders involvement/consultation
3. Unconditional Political WILL
4. Continuous Capacity building
5. Faithful implementation
6. Networking



1.6 Summary

Disasters threaten livelihoods and human existence; they should be eliminated or reduced to the maximum. Appropriate disaster management strategies are needed; those that minimize risks from hazards, reduce vulnerability and enhance resilience of communities. Appropriate public policies that address relevant issues and integrate all actions will promote effective disaster management strategies and eliminate or reduce disaster threats to human existence.

Disaster management can only be effectively undertaken by both government and individuals or, groups if a policy is enunciated for that purpose. This is because policy provides the guide for a systematic approach to tackling problems. With this in mind, this unit set out to identify those fundamental issues in disaster management and linked it up with the concept of policy. The unit went further to outline the roles of public policies in

disaster management and finally identified key success factors in disaster reduction and disaster management.



1.7 References/Further Readings

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1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

What is Public Policy?

Answer

Public policy is simply a purposive direction or course of action undertaken by government institutions and officials to address specific social/societal problems.

Problems are used here in a very broad sense to refer to any situation that is unsatisfactory. In that regard, any situation that needs improvement, even though not completely bad, is a problem.

Public policy comprises of a number of elements –policy demands, policy decisions, policy statements, policy outputs and policy outcomes. • Policy demands: These are claims of the people, representing their needs, desires, wishes, aspirations, intentions, difficulties and questions. The people directly or indirectly present these demands to the political system (public officials). • Policy decisions: Policy decisions are the authoritative steps taken by the government giving direction and contents to policy actions. These provide bases for the determination of objectives and selection of suitable means for their accomplishment. • Policy statements refer to the formal expression or articulation of public policy indicating the intention of government and what will be done to realize them.

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

Identify the roles of Public policies in disaster management

Answer

Disaster management involves cross-cutting issues:

7. Issues that promote social and economic development and wellbeing so as to ensure that risks from hazards are either eliminated or reduced to the minimum in all development processes- poverty alleviation, equality, access to social amenities and services, critical infrastructure, e.t.c.

8. Issues that promote the protection and enhancement of the ecology and total human wealth in order to improve the environment's carrying capacity and reduce vulnerability.
9. Issues that make people responsible for their actions in order to control abuse and misuse of common critical assets which can undermine resilience. Disaster management therefore involves actions from multiple parties (governments, private sector organizations, communities, etc) across all sectors (environment, transport, industry, finance, construction, agriculture, education and health, etc.)
10. Policies provide the platform for the integration and coordination of the multiplicity of actions by the multiple parties involved.
11. Policies provide overall direction and a vision of a better society that is less prone to disasters. Policies direct attention and action to compelling priorities for better resource allocation.
12. Policies provide incentives and/or disincentives for appropriate and/or inappropriate behaviour. Policies provide the basis for, and define the nature of partnerships among and between partners.

UNIT3: URBANIZATION AND ITS PROBLEMS IN AFRICA

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcome
- 1.3 Main Content
 - 1.3.1 United Nations Perception of the Problems
 - 1.3.2 Urbanization and Poverty
 - 1.3.3 Two Sides of the Coin
- 1.4 Slum Upgrading
 - 1.4.1 Community Participation
- 1.5 Financial Dilemmas
 - 1.5.2 Local Governance
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.7 Reference/Further Readings
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

The central districts of many of Africa's major cities boast of numerous skyscrapers of cement, glass and steel. But far into the distance spread Africa's real urban conglomerations: unplanned, chaotic settlements built of wood, corrugated metal sheets, mud bricks and whatever other materials may be at hand. They have only dirt roads and open sewer ditches. They lack piped water, refuse collection, electricity and most other basic municipal services.

These shantytowns are home to tens of millions- and they are growing rapidly. "SubSaharan Africa is the only region in the world where urbanization is associated with negative economic growth," says former South African President, Nelson Mandela. "This adds to the enormity of the problems of urbanization in a region that is exactly most in need of growth and development to end and reverse its marginalization on the world stage"

Many of the recent arrivals in the African's slums migrate from the countryside. Although the conditions are miserable and most urban Africans see little escape from poverty, more newcomers are constantly coming.

Africa's cities are being "overwhelmed by the sheer rate of change, according to "Ms. Anna kajumulo Tibaijuka, executive director of the Nairobi-based UN centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS, or Habitat). She cites as an example Dar es Salaam, in her own country, Tanzania, which is expanding at a remarkable rate of 10 per cent a year. At that pace, the city's total population will double in seven years. "You can imagine what that will do for water services, electricity, telephones, traffic, schools."

Homelessness does not mean that there are no homes. It exists because people don't have employment to have access to homes.



1.2 Learning Outcome

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

1. explain the United Nation's perception of urbanization and its patterns
2. explain the poverty part of the problem
3. identify the existence of slums and efforts to curb them
4. explain the financing dilemmas



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 United Nations Perception of the Problems

The continent's urban problems do not revolve only around insufficient resources and services. They also include severe social dislocations, high levels of crime and insecurity, corrupt and inefficient local government institutions, striking inequalities in wealth and especially the pervasive poverty that blights most urban settlements.

A half decade ago, some of the unique urban problems of Africa were recognized at the Second UN Conference on Human Settlements (HabitatII), held in June 1996 in Istanbul, Turkey. It adopted a global Habitat Agenda," affirming that adequate shelter is a human right and acknowledging "the critical situation and needs of Africa and the least developed countries. " Participants cited Africa's high rate of rural-to-urban migration, wars that have spurred massive population displacements and the severe decay of urban infrastructure. In June 2001, the UN general Assembly held a special session in New York called "Istanbul +5." It looked again at the particular challenges facing urban centres in Africa and other parts of the world and reviewed the various programmes that have been initiated so far.

There has been progress in implementing the Habitat Agenda in Africa, noted African ministers responsible for housing and urban settlements at a November 2000 meeting in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. But at the same time, the ministers recognized that ineffective management, poor infrastructure and rising crime and violence have had "negative impact On the quality of life and working environment in many African cities and towns."

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1.	State the genesis of Habitat Agenda
2.	Identify and explain at least five problems of urbanization in Africa

1.3.2 Urbanization and Poverty

The African ministers also forecast that the continent will experience unprecedented urbanization over the next quarter century. Since most African cities simply are unprepared to accommodate the additional population, this will lead to a further "mushrooming of squatter settlements of high densities and inadequate or no services."

Already, African's urban population is growing at an average annual rate of 4 per cent, the highest of any world region. For some individual cities, it is significantly higher. Currently, Africa is still the most rural continent, with only about 38 per cent of its

population living in cities and towns. But within the next three decades, more than half of all Africans will be in urban centres.

Some of this urban growth is a result of natural population increase, but most come from rural poverty and wars continue to push many young villagers toward the cities in search of jobs and other economic and social opportunities. But with the economic crises of the past two decades, few regular jobs are to be had.

According to some analysts, Africa's urban problems have been worsened by the economic policies adopted by many governments during the 1980s and 1990s, largely at the urging of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund. The initial privatization programmes often led to reduced formal sector employment, as did trade liberalization, which contributed to which the failure of many local businesses unable to compete with cheap imports. Without steady jobs, many residents have been unable to afford adequate shelter. "Homelessness does not mean that there are no homes," notes Ms. Tibaijuka. It exists because people "don't have employment to have access to homes."

On top of this, the budgetary stringency that came with structural adjustment programmes further eroded the capacities of municipal authorities to maintain and finance essential services, such as roads, waste collection, electricity and water systems.

1.3.3 Two Sides of the Coin

Agricultural policies also have had an impact, notes Proff. Abdou Salam Fall, an urban sociologist at Chiekh Anta Diop University I Dakar, Senegal. Since market liberalization and the reduction of government support services in the 1980s, there has been an "accelerated process of pauperization" among Senegalese farmers, especially in the groundnut sector. This has pushed even more rural youths to seek income opportunities in the main cities or in Europe and the U.S.

For such reasons, Mr. Mandela emphasized, "We have to overcome the mindset which counterposes rural and urban development. Poverty knows no boundaries. Rural and urban development are two sides of the same coin."

In Africa overall, poverty is still largely rural. But with increased concentrations of people in the cities, poverty has been growing more markedly in the urban centres, even as rural conditions have improved slightly in some African countries. The November 2000 meeting of African housing and urban ministers observed that there has been a trend toward both an "urbanization and feminization of poverty" in many African countries. (Estimates of the number of households headed by women in African capital cities range between 10 and 25 per cent.)

Conditions in some of the largest cities have deteriorated to such an extent that the patterns of migration from the countryside are starting to shift. Historically, most migrants have flocked to one or two main cities in a given country: Abidjan, Nairobi, Dar es Salaam, Dakar, Brazzaville, Luanda. In 1999, according to estimates by the UN's Population Division, more than half the total urban population lived in the single largest city in 16 African countries.

Over the past decade, however, as conditions in these big cities have worsened, the urbanization process has become less lopsided. In Tanzania, for example, medium-sized towns of about 20-30,000 people have proliferated. According to research by Prof. Fall,

Dakar's rate of growth has slowed noticeably, while four or five secondary towns now absorb a greater share of rural migrants, marking the beginning of a "diversification" of Senegal's urban centres.

1.4 Slum Upgrading

Even before the 1996 Habitat conference, programme and projects were launched in a number of African countries to help residents of urban slums build better housing and to improve essential services. In Ghana, for example, a series of urban upgrading projects have been under way since 1985, in one of the most extensive efforts anywhere in Africa. By 2000, these had improved infrastructure and services for nearly half a million people in five cities, out of a total of 2 million urban residents classified as poor.

According to Mr. Chris Banes, a World Bank municipal engineer who has worked with the Ghana project, one key to its progress has been "political commitment" at the national level. Other factors were decentralization of responsibility and authority to local governments, active involvement by community groups, and an emphasis on basic, achievable services, such as main access routes, drainage networks, water supply, sanitation and refuse collection.

The Istanbul conference led to a greater emphasis, across Africa and in other parts of the world, on building stronger partnerships among all those actively concerned with urban improvement: national governments, municipalities, external donor agencies, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), and local communities themselves, including private sector contractors and businesses.

To strengthen coordination among aid agencies, Habitat and the World Bank launched the Cities Alliance in 1999, which has been spearheading the Cities Without Slums initiative, for which Mr. Mandela is the "patron." It works with other UN agencies, regional development banks, bilateral donors, local associations of municipal authorities, NGOs and private companies to identify and prepare citywide and countrywide slum upgrading programmes. Many of the initial ones have been in Asia, but programmes also are being prepared in some African countries, such as Mauritania and South Africa. The grant facility's total target for the first three-year period(1999-2001) is \$40 mn.

1.4.1 Community Participation

While external financing can play an essential role, many urban development experts, drawing on experiences like those in Ghana, argue that active involvement by the local communities is equally, if not more, important. Because urban poverty in Africa is extremely complex, sustainable solutions to the problems of the most destitute will require an "integrated approach, based on community participation", argue. Mohamed Soumare and Jerome Gerard, both of Environment and Development Action –Third World (ENDA), a regional NGO headquartered in Dakar.

In Malawi, Habitat of Humanity, another NGO, works with local and district governments, the national authorities, community groups and traditional chiefs to build low-cost houses and latrines. Locally elected committees choose low-income applicants who are willing to provide voluntary labour and ready to repay input costs (payments which go into a revolving fund for further construction). The project has involved more than 460 communities and has built nearly 4,000 houses and latrines.

In Luanda Sul, a poor shantytown area of the Angolan capital, an urban programme launched in 1995 has benefited some 2,700 families displaced by that country civil war. It has built 2,210 houses and laid in drainage, piped water and electricity lines, with financing from taxes and tariffs, the sale of land concessions and investments by private businesses. Community representatives participated in the design and planning of the programme, and local residents have first option to buy land.

One notable feature of the Luanda Sul programme was the creation of 4,000 local jobs through its construction projects, which was particularly welcome in an area of high unemployment. Similarly, in nearly a dozen West African countries, most of them francophone, job creation through public works projects in poor urban neighbourhoods has been an explicit goal of the Agence de travaux d'intérêt public pour l'emploi (AGETIP) programme, supported by the World Bank. Many of the construction projects undertaken through AGETIP were proposed by municipal authorities, but in Chad, Guinea-Bissau and Senegal a number also were proposed by community leaders or NGOs.

Community involvement has not always ensured that the benefits of such projects reach everyone. In Voi, Kenya, the government agreed that local residents could acquire access to land through traditional communal tenure arrangements, and NGOs provided technical and legal support for securing titles. However, according to one of the NGOs, Kituo Cha Sheria (Legal Aid Centre), women were marginalized in the process, since customary practices kept men as the main decision makers. One of the lessons that Habitat has drawn from such cases is that urban improvement projects should have a special focus on women.

1.5 Financial Dilemmas

One of the greatest dilemmas facing many African cities is how to finance the development and maintenance of essential services, such as waste removal and the provision of clean water. Despite some financial support from national governments or donor agencies- usually only for the initial construction of facilities, not their ongoing operations – municipal authorities must rely overwhelmingly on local taxes, fees and tariffs.

A Habitat study of municipal taxation in Kenya, Tanzanian and Uganda found that many big cities draw most of their revenue from property taxes. These account for 60 per cent of total revenue in Nairobi and 56 per cent in Dar es Salaam. In Uganda's capital, Kampala, it is only 6 per cent, but reaches 43 per cent in Jinja, another Uganda city. Through such taxes, the better-off sectors of society – those able to own taxable property – help pay for services that benefit a broader layer of the population, including some of the poor.

But actually collecting all the taxes that could be paid, let alone expanding the tax base, is not easy. Property valuations often are incomplete and out of date, while it is very difficult to value property in unplanned residential areas, since legal ownership is poorly documented. Many taxpayers also are reluctant to pay what they owe, especially where corruption is widespread and they do not see their taxes being put to good use. Moreover, in Nairobi, Mombasa and Dar es Salaam and Dar es Salaam, central government

institutions are among the largest property owners, but do not pay anything into the municipal coffers.

Given such financing constraints, there is a growing trend among city authorities to privatize or contract out the provision of services. In East Africa, the privatization of waste removal has been most prevalent. Nairobi privatized garbage collection in the central business district in 1997, while some 100 small firms operate in other neighbourhoods, many of which never had much public refuse collection. In Dar es Salaam, five private companies have been awarded contracts to collect solid waste in specific parts of the city.

Although efficiency generally has improved, there are shortcomings. Private contractors usually operate mainly in middle – and higher income areas, where residents can afford to pay, leaving many of the poor without such services. In a number of countries, including Cameroon, Cote d'Ivoire, Guinea, the Republic of Congo and Senegal, public municipal bus companies are disappearing with the privatization of transport sectors. Private taxis and bus companies often are more expensive, and only service the more lucrative routes, obliging many urban residents to bicycle or walk longer distances.

Ms. Tibaijuka sees a role for privatization of water services, but also raises concerns about equity and access. “It is a myth that the poor at the moment are accessing water free”, she argues. Because of a “total failure of public provision, the water is not reaching these people.” As a result, they must buy water from informal sector vendors, and often end up paying more than the rich do.

“The notion of privatization of water services is, in itself, not a bad thing. “ But then, she adds, “How will people access the privatized water?” Policies are needed to ensure that the poor are not excluded simply because they cannot afford to pay. “It is not a matter of either/or It is a question of finding clear answers, without losing sight of the end objective, which is to improve people’s access to water.”

In Uganda, for example, the government’s long-term goal is to ensure full “cost recovery” for municipal services. But it also recognizes that public subsidies may be necessary to ensure that low-income groups have access to clean water services.

1.5.2 Local Governance

Solution to many of the problems of African cities depend critically on the capacities, competence and legitimacy of municipal governments and institutions. As Habitat points out, efforts to achieve secure tenure for poor residents and to include as many urban actors as possible in upgrading programmes require local government institutions that are efficient, open and transparent. To focus more attention on such issues, it has launched a Global Campaign for Good Urban Governance. Negotiations currently are under way on a proposed World charter of Local Self –Government, which would emphasize the need for national governments to decentralize more responsibilities and authority to the local level.

In most African countries, “ political and administrative power is highly centralized, “ observed Mr. K.Y. Amoako, executive secretary of the UN Economic Commission for Africa, at the November meeting in Addis Ababa. “Cities neither have the political nor

financial clout, let alone the administrative and technical capacity, to make decisions critical to the way people live.”

He added that while more African countries have moved toward decentralization over the past decade, this has “often not been accompanied by the necessary fiscal power to enable local governments and communities to raise revenues to finance investments and the operational costs essential for the sound management of cities.”

Similarly, with the dramatic shift in the 1990s toward multiparty democracy in much of Africa, more municipal governments now have elected city councils and mayors. Democratization is important, emphasizes Prof. Catherine Coquery –Vidrovitch, a prominent French historian of Africa, otherwise urban governance would have little real meaning, except to manage the cities “more efficiently on behalf of the elites and transnational corporations.”

Even where formal democratization has been introduced, corruption and other shortcomings in municipal administration have not necessarily dissipated. In Burkina Faso, for example, municipal councils have been elected since 1995, but there have been numerous cases of embezzlement, bribe-taking and other malpractices by elected councilors and appointed administrators alike. Since late 1999, residents of Ouagadougou, Bobo-Dioulasso, Tenkodogo, Hounde, Koudougou towns have been protesting that titles to urban land have been distributed unfairly to officials’ wives, relatives and friends or to wealthy individuals willing to pay hefty bribes.

Perhaps the greatest factor in pushing for improved urban governance is the increased assertiveness of civil society organizations. In two neighbourhoods of Nairobi, for instance, residents went to court and won an order suspending payments of rates and service charges to the city council until roads, water and sanitation services improve.

Since the 1980s and 1990s, some of the biggest challenges to structural adjustment and other problems of the cities have come from urban youth, notes Mr. Kadimiel Wekwete, who has worked on urban programmes in Zimbabwe and is now a senior technical advisor at the UN Capital Development Fund. As more and more Africans are concentrated in urban areas and view the cities as their primary home, the more likely they are to press vocally for improvements. Increasingly, he says, “local governments have to grapple with an urban population that is demanding things.”



1.6 Summary

Urbanization ordinarily is supposed to be developmental in nature and forms. And in most cases it has been so. For instance in Nigeria, creation of 36 states from 3 regions ab initio triggered off urbanization such that these automatically became 36 cities.

In most African cities could be noticed such modernization as skyscrapers, electricity, pipe-borne water etc.

Despite these, urbanization left many African cities in a very poor shape. For instance, such urbanization unwittingly encouraged slums and more people living in abject poverty. There are many cases of overpopulation like in Lagos and a corresponding

consequences of stretching to the limits the available resources meant for a fewer population etc.

Urbanization, though development in nature and focus has its bad ideas and disadvantages. Over population and its attendant pressure on limited resources as well as effect on the rural areas from where the migration emanated.

Against the foregoing backdrop, this unit dwelt on a survey of what the situation is in some cities across the African continent. The United Nations perspective and concern led to the declaration of the Habitat Agenda at a Conference in Istanbul, Turkey in June, 1966. The unit equally examined the degree of poverty to which inhabitants of these cities and indeed other rural areas due to urbanization of the cities. A need for upgrading the slums was canvassed. In addition, the unit looked at other issues such as Community participation, financing dilemmas, and local governance.



1.7 Reference/Further Readings

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1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

State the genesis of Habitat Agenda

Answer

“Habitat Agenda” was adopted by the United Nations as a global policy which affirms that adequate shelter is a human right. It was at the 2nd UN Conference on Human Settlements held in June 1996 in Istanbul, Turkey.

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

Identify and explain at least five problems of urbanization in Africa.

Answer

The continent’s urban problems do not revolve only around insufficient resources and services. They also include severe social dislocations, high levels of crime and insecurity, corrupt and inefficient local government institutions, striking inequalities in wealth and especially the pervasive poverty that blights most urban settlements.

A half decade ago, some of the unique urban problems of Africa were recognized at the Second UN Conference on Human Settlements (HabitatII), held in June 1996 in Istanbul, Turkey. It adopted a global Habitat Agenda,” affirming that adequate shelter is a human right and acknowledging “the critical situation and needs of Africa and the least developed countries. “ Participants cited Africa’s high rate of rural-to-urban migration, wars that have spurred massive population displacements and the severe decay of urban infrastructure. In June 2001, the UN general Assembly held a special session in New York called “Istanbul +5.” It looked again at the particular challenges facing urban

centres in Africa and other parts of the world and reviewed the various programmes that have been initiated so far.

There has been progress in implementing the Habitat Agenda in Africa, noted African ministers responsible for housing and urban settlements at a November 2000 meeting in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. But at the same time, the ministers recognized that ineffective management, poor infrastructure and rising crime and violence have had “negative impact On the quality of life and working environment in many African cities and towns.”

UNIT 4: THE ROLE OFF PUBLIC AND OTHER STAKEHOLDERS IN DISASTER REDUCTION

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcome
- 1.3 Public Awareness
 - 1.3.1 Poverty
 - 13.2 Illiteracy
 - 1.3.3 Low Salience
- 1.4 Communication
 - 1.4.1 The Media
 - 14.2 The Print Media
 - 1.4.3 Electronic Media: The Television
 - 1.4.4 Electronic Media: The Radio
- 1.5 House Journals and Instructions Materials
 - 1.5.1 Other Avenues
 - 1.5.2 Road Shows
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 - 1.5.4 Non- Governmental Organizations (NGOs)
 - 1.5.5 Social Clubs
 - 1.5.6 LEMC/SEMA
- 1.6 The Way Forward
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1.1 Introduction

Emergency Management, the discipline of dealing with and avoiding risks essentially involves mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery. Disaster Risk Reduction, the mantra of the new approach in disaster management focuses on mitigation and preparedness aspects of disaster management.

Disaster Risk Reduction is the conceptual framework of elements considered with the possibilities to minimize vulnerabilities and disaster risks throughout a society, to avoid (prevention) or to limit (mitation and preparedness) the adverse impacts of hazards, within the broad context of sustainable development.

Migration efforts attempt to prevent hazards from developing into disasters altogether, or to reduce the effects of disasters when they occur. They focus on long term measures for reducing or eliminating risks.

Preparedness is the phase in which emergency managers develop plans of action for when disaster strikes. These are activities and measures taken in advance to ensure effective response to the impact of hazards, including the issuance of timely and effective

early warnings and temporary evacuation of people and property from threatened locations.

The success of disaster risk reduction strategies is largely dependent on effective public awareness creation about risk and measures to minimize vulnerability to known hazards. The law setting up the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) rightly provides at Section 6 (I)(e) that the Agency shall educate and inform the public on disaster prevention and control measures.



1.2 Learning Outcome

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to:

1. Explain the concepts of Emergency Management and Disaster Risk Reduction
2. Identify the various stake-holders in emergency management
3. Explain the Roles of each stakeholder in emergency management/disaster reduction
4. Suggest the way forward



1.3 Public Awareness

Public awareness is the process of informing the general population, increasing levels of consciousness about risks and how people can act to reduce their exposure to hazards. Potential victims of disasters are the most important target to communicate disaster reduction measures. In order to know who these potential victims or at –risk people are, some sort of physical risk assessment or vulnerability capacity analysis is imperative.

Vulnerability Capacity Analysis helps to:

1. Identify key vulnerable groups
2. Identify factors that make them vulnerable
3. Assess their needs and capacities
4. Collate and integrate these data into a database.
5. Ensure that projects, policies and programs address these needs, through target interventions or prevention and mitigation of potential adverse impacts.

For many reasons, awareness creation for the purpose of disaster management in Nigeria is not exactly as straight forward as in the developed societies. Here the problem of poverty, illiteracy, underdevelopment, low salience among public officials as well as among the general public itself, make awareness creation an uphill task.

1.3.1 Poverty

About 70 per cent of Nigerians are among one billion people on this planet who live on less than one dollar a day. Poverty kills 30,000 children every day and most of them are in Africa. Every 30 seconds, an African child dies of malaria – a poverty related problem. Unfortunately, the poor constitute the most vulnerable group. When talking about vulnerability to disaster, we should bear in mind that epidemics are also part of disaster. The poor are not like those of you here who have some assurances as to how we can feed ourselves and other –members of our family. Emergency management issues mean very little to those who do not know where and how they and other members of their families

will get the next meal. What does right to life or the security of it mean to a man when indeed he feels he will be happier if that very life is taken away from him to end his sorrows? It does not matter to him whether he lives or not. Such fatalism begets low salience among the poor majority.

Experts who took part in a consultative meeting of stakeholders on pipeline vandalism, organized by NEMA in October 2008 to find a lasting solution to this deadly problem, identified poverty and discontentment as one of the reasons Nigerians take such awesome risk. So, while Russia could run its pipelines, through many countries to deliver gas and other petroleum products all over Europe without constituting any major risk factor, Nigerian petroleum product pipelines remain potential disaster spots anywhere they exist within the country.

The poor have no access to any medi-care. The illiterate attendant selling fake and substandard drugs in a medicine kiosk near his slum may be the only “medical expert” he knows. He is the most vulnerable to epidemics. His habits of answering the call of nature is the open, poor refuse disposal and general environmental degradation, lack of portable water are among the many factors that increase his vulnerability to diseases.

13.2 Illiteracy

The much talked about fall in that standard and quality of education is becoming increasingly evident in the society, especially among the youths. With the exception of a small minority, mostly the children of the elites who attend special schools, secondary school and polytechnic graduates can hardly read and understand the contents of a newspaper, neither could they understand television and radio programmes in English. Offices and streets are buzzing with the new “Lingua franca” broken or pidgin English. This makes it more difficult to communicate messages to them because pidgin English is not a scripted language, it is fluid and ambiguous and has no etymology.

1.3.3 Low Salience

Emergency managers find it very difficult to convince public officials to give priority to disaster issues. They find it difficult to justify the expenditure of scarce resources to prepare for events that may not happen. Disaster preparedness efforts generally have low salience among public officials as well as among the general public itself and that is a major impediment to effective policy making and awareness creation alike. All too often there is an assumption of safety and the comfort of the false logic that because it has not happened so far, it will not happen.

But disasters will happen. It is therefore better to look at the period of relative safety as incubation period during which a number of events accumulate overtime and if not noticed and understood in the context of disaster risk reduction measure may escalate into major incidents.

A typical example of how low salience among public officials hamper disaster risk reduction played out recently with the outbreak of cerebrospinal meningitis and lassa fever in some parts of the country. The country was not prepared to handle the emergency despite early warnings by the World Health Organization and NEMA. Over 2000 people died and we appeared unperturbed by the huge loss of lives. Perhaps this is a reflection of the value this society places on life. Now compare this to the outbreak of the HI NI

(swine) flu pandemic. Once 5 students took ill with the virus in New York City, a state of public health emergency was declared.

The prompt response and elaborate preventive measures were typical of the developed society. I think only one death was reported in the US, but it was such a huge issue. But over 2000 died of meningitis and we took it as normal!

Un-masking the forces against disaster risk awareness creation will help the information expert to understand the challenges before him so that his strategies will address the realities on ground. It is like conducting risk assessment as precursor to disaster risk reduction procedures.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. List the factors that militate against awareness creation for disaster management among public, officials.
2. Identify the strategies through which the public and other stakeholders could be carried along in the quest for disaster reduction in Nigeria

1.4 Communication

The next step will be to explore and identify the media that can effectively disseminate disaster risk reduction information to create and sustain public awareness, despite the odds. The National Emergency Management Agency has, no doubt, featured prominently in the news of late and one expects that disaster management information was spreading too. The activities of journalist's Against Disaster (JAD) are commendable. But in spite of the huge efforts, Nigerians are still ignorant about the structure of emergency management. People affected by small incidents in remote areas still expect NEMA to be the first responders. This is contrary to the provision of the NEMA Act. Response to such incidents should come from Local Emergency Management Committee of the Local Government. It is only when this crisis is beyond the capacity of the local authority that the State Emergency Management Agency is called upon. It is the responsibility of the State Emergency Management Agency to call upon NEMA for assistance when overwhelmed by a disaster. NEMA Act Section 9 (a) and (b). "The state commitment shall (a) notify the Agency of any natural or other disasters occurring in the state; (b) respond to any disaster within the state and may seek assistance from the Agency if it deems fit in each circumstance. If the people at the local level do not know about this structure and how emergency management operates, they will not put pressure on their local government and state government to do what is necessary to set up their local machineries for disaster management. Disaster reduction programmes cannot be effectively implemented without local participation.

The Director-General of NEMA, AVM MM Audu-Bida (rtd) raised a critical issue bordering on disaster mitigation on an NTA programme when he expressed dissatisfaction with what obtains at accident scenes on motorways. Most of the other accident scene is not helpful to the victims. They in fact, compounded their problems, because they are ignorant of basic first aid and rescue procedures.

A Daily Trust editorial opinion touched on a similar issue recently when it commented on flood sensitization by NEMA. The paper insisted that the programmes should target the vulnerable groups in the local communities. I totally agree. Emergency management, especially disaster risk reduction is an educational activity which means that involved persons must first be aware that procedures exist and then understand them.

1.4.1 The Media

Traditionally, the media is the best equipped to disseminate emergency management information. But given the reality of the Nigeria situation can we rely solely on the media?

14.2 The Print Media

The reading culture of the Nigerian public is abysmally poor. Less than one percent read regularly and that engenders low production and poor circulation of newspapers and magazines. It is not unusual for a newspaper to send less than 500 copies of its edition to a local government area with a population of over 200,000. Many local government areas in remote parts don't even get supplies; yet these remote areas are the real theatres of disasters. Demographically, the one percent who have access to the newspapers and magazines are the elites and not the very vulnerable poor. The print media, therefore may not be the ultimate channel for disaster risk reduction sensitization. Its strength may be in the areas of sensitizing bureaucrats to their responsibilities. But it has some inherent strength that is unique to it. Printed information materials are instruments of permanent record. Once in print, the information is there for posterity and likely to be read and digested by thousands of people as long as it has not been destroyed.

1.4.3 Electronic Media: The Television

This too has its problem. The poor rural dweller cannot afford a television set. He has no electricity – it is not his priority any way. Even in the cities, where most households could afford television sets, lack of electricity reduces their chances of viewing the programs. Those with alternative sources of energy have other distractions from viewing the relatively poor programmes on the local channels: the foreign cable television stations. The chances of the target audience viewing a disaster risk reduction programme on the television at any given time due to the combined effects of all the factors mentioned earlier will be very low. Television programmes are transient, if you don't catch it while it is on, it is gone forever. It is unlike the print media that is a permanent record and could be read anytime at the convenience of the reader. However, I must add that bureaucrats need to watch to hear what “the Oga” is saying or what the people are saying about them may be useful for Disaster Risk Reduction sensitization, specially targeted at public servants to facilitate the mainstreaming of DRR issues into government programmes.

1.4.4 Electronic Media: The Radio

Radio sets are available and affordable to almost all strata of the society; from simple plastic types to the gold plated ones. The FM stations have added new dimensions to radio broadcasting. Both the rich and the poor tune in with ease on their transistor radio sets, car radio sets, on their Gsm sets, etc. Most are powered by simple batteries, making them suitable for use in the rural communities as well as in the cities.

The radio is a reliable source of instant information and it gets to its target audience with or without electricity. Hour after hour and day after day, radio stations churn out music, news, sports information etc. With the radio no information is too trivial; birthday requests and wishes nor is any too big, like a disaster.

Local radio offers the community a platform to talk to itself. Being a primary source of information to many, the local radio is especially suitable for disaster risk reduction information. Even the illiterate can be communicated effectively using local language or pidgin.

1.5 House Journals and Instructions Materials

The print media may not repeat a story. It is considered stale once it has been published. The radio and television too, may not continue to air the same story, once it has been broadcast, it becomes an old chestnut. Only some new developments will bring back the story from the archive.

The media is not really interested in routine disaster management information like disaster risk reduction advisory let alone talk about repeating them to increase the possibility that the target audience will read, or view or listen to them. The media is only naturally attracted to the disaster itself. Disaster is the very essence of hard news. It sells newspapers, attracts large audience for the radio and television. But the routine disaster risk reduction information do not hold such attraction it has to be “sold” to the news media.

To fill this gap, there is need for volumes of house journals. The popular “Handbook” of Emergency Management – Programs and Policies dealing with Major Hazards and Disasters” edited by Williams L. Waugh and Ronald John HY relied heavily on Federal Emergency Management Agency’s FEMA NEWSLETTER, “NATURAL Hazards Observer”, CQ Weekly Reports”, etc, all in-house publications of the US Emergency Management Agency and other stakeholders in disaster management.

The national Emergency Management Agency too has in-house magazines – NEMA newsletters and NEMA newsmagazine.

There are also many information booklets, pamphlets and manuals. Some of them are “some facts about hiv and aids”, “solid waste management: a disaster risk reduction training manual” community emergency preparedness plan”, from emergency response to disaster risk reduction”, etc.

The in-house journals should complement the mass media. There is no limit to what you can achieve with an in-house journal if it is properly packaged and edited professionally and above all, effectively circulated to the target groups.

The practice of heaping journals and publications in the store to gather dust is not going to help in the dissemination of disaster risk reduction information.

Unlike the commercial media, the in-house journals do not discriminate against routine emergency management stories. In fact the journals are all about disaster risk reduction measures and activities of disaster managers towards achieving the goal of emergency management.

1.5.1 Other Avenues

It will be advisable that strategies for creating awareness on disaster risk reduction in Nigeria be different from those employed in the developed society. The strategies must be appropriate to the realities of the society. Factors of hunger, illiteracy, ignorance, diseases, corruption, the hallmarks of underdevelopment must be taken into consideration. Messages posted on the internet will attract millions of browsers a day in the developed society. Here, access to the internet is dismally low for obvious reasons of cost, poor infrastructure, poor literacy level and poverty amongst others.

Strategies that will be effective for a people who, willingly will assist and guide a lost or wounded whale back to its habitat in the deep sea won't work for a people who would rush the carcass of a dead whale that is washed ashore, not minding the health risk, because of hunger and poverty

1.5.2 Road Shows

The Lagos State Emergency Management Agency (LASEMA) in collaboration with NEMA and the Civil Defence held a road show between Alausa and Ketu areas of Lagos recently to spread information about meningitis and lassa fever preventive measures. The organizers made it very colourful with music and dancing in between the sensitization lectures. The officials were surprised about the level of ignorance of these diseases that have already claimed over 2000 lives. The road show gave them the opportunity to come in contact with the at-risk population. They handed out leaflets to those who could read. The exercise made sense.

15.3 School Clubs

In rural communities, schools are important for the spreading of knowledge through the young ones to their parents. Simple to understand literatures could be used to teach them basic disaster reduction procedures which they will take home to their parents.

The active participation of the state and local government makes for speedy response to disasters, and since the local governments work directly with the local people they are in a better position to lead in disaster reduction measures. They are better positioned to identify the risks the people face and take steps to reduce the risks.

Whatever disaster risk reduction programmes that are initiated by the National Emergency Management Agencies at the center can only succeed if that states and local governments take ownership of such programs in their areas of jurisdiction. Perhaps the law requiring states to set up Emergency Management Agencies should be made strict and enforceable to compel the state chief executives to act. Left to their discretion, we may have to wait a long time more.

Erroneously, people call on NEMA first when there is a minor incident in their domain. They are ignorant about the shared responsibility in emergency management. I think disaster risk reduction strategy should include educating the people at the community level about the responsibilities of all tiers of government – perhaps they will begin to mount pressure on their local authorities and states to set up emergency management structures.

1.5.4 Non- Governmental Organizations (NGOs)

Non-Governmental Organizations play prominent roles in disaster management. In disaster response, The Red Cross Society is ever visible. Doctors Without Borders too and there are many new NGOs. The Red Cross Society relies on volunteers who are mobilized at short notice to assist in disaster management. NEMA needs to take a cue from the Citizens Corps, an organization of volunteer service programs administered locally and coordinated nationally by the Department of Homeland Security in the US. The citizen Corps seek to mitigate disaster and prepare the population for emergency response through public education, training and outreach. It organizes community emergency response teams focused on disaster response skills. Like the Red Cross Society, they rely on donations with limited government funding only as reimbursement to prevent misappropriation.

1.5.5 Social Clubs

A lot of social groups exist. These are groups of people with common interests. They meet periodically to discuss issues that affect them. These groups are mostly found in the communities where the population is usually homogenous. They could serve as conduits for disaster reduction information to their people. In a similar manner, churches, mosques, market unions and traditional institutions could be targeted for information dissemination about issues that affect their safety and well being.

1.5.6 LEMC/SEMA

Disaster management cannot succeed without the participation of all tiers of government; Federal/State/Local governments. In the United Kingdom, the Civil Contingencies Act 2004 legislated the responsibilities of all category one responders regarding an emergency response. There are civil contingencies secretariat at regional and local authority level. Most of disaster management training is conducted at the local level by the organization involved in any response. In the United States, emergency management responsibility is fragmented vertically between federal, state and local government. The NEMA Act provided for full participation by all tiers of government, too, but many states and local governments are yet to come onboard. Everywhere local governments are first responders to disasters. Only when such disaster is beyond their capacity that the state is called upon. And it is only if the damage is very great and beyond the capacity of both local and state is there an expectation of federal assistance

1.6 The Way Forward

The target groups for disaster risk reduction are the rural communities where vulnerability is highest. This should be the frontline for emergency management.

NEMA should establish more zonal offices so that all communities are not more than three hours drive from the zonal headquarters. The zonal operations will be more effective.

Greater emphasis should be placed on getting the local government councils to set up local emergency management committees. Grassroots emergency volunteers working with the local emergency management committees could guarantee that disaster risk awareness is created and sustained in the local communities.

Given the level of under-development, emphasis should be placed on advocacy through social groups, associations and faith-based organizations.

The NEMA/NYSC emergency management vanguards should be fully developed so that members who at all times are present in all communities play greater roles in disaster risk reduction efforts of the Agency.

Simple training manuals incorporating easy-to-understand instructions on how to avoid known risks be made available to grassroots volunteers, emergency management vanguards and others involved in emergency management programmes.

Schools should be used to spread the knowledge of disaster management. Leaflets on specific hazards prevalent in communities be written in simple language and circulated among students for their benefits and those of their parents.

Knowing the level of ignorance among the population, practical crowdpulling events like road shows be staged regularly to communicate information on disaster risks.

Stronger advocacy is recommended to get the state governments to set up state emergency management agencies. Some legal framework be explored to compel states and local governments to set up their structures for disaster management as provided by the NEMA Act. In simple terms officials should be legally liable if they are not prepared to response to emergencies.

Volunteerism in emergency management should be encouraged and expanded to cover more areas. Something like the Citizens Corps will provide more trained hands needed to penetrate the local communities.

The full potentials of local radio stations should be tapped, through jingles, dramas and discussion programmes in local languages. If need be, emergency management issues could be effectively communicated to local communities. And local radio programmes are affordable. State television stations should also be involved in creating awareness, especially among the civil servants and public office holders to mainstream disaster management into government programmes.

As much as possible, emphasis should be placed on core disaster risk reduction communication. The huge media attention presently enjoyed by the Agency should reflect this priority.



1.7 Summary

Disaster management in general and Disaster reduction in particular is the responsibility of all and sundry. Although, the government has the overall responsibility, the public and other stakeholders should assist the government in this huge responsibility. After all, it is the public and not necessarily the government that bears the greatest brunt of such disasters. In discharging its statutory responsibility in the area of disaster management government established among others, the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA). As this often drives the implementation of policies in this direction so must the public and other stakeholders cooperate with it in realizing the goal of disaster reduction in Nigeria.

The importance of emergency management in general and disaster risk reduction in particular, informed the discussions of this unit in our quest towards urban administration. The involvement of the public and other stakeholders will definitely enhance achievement of goal in this direction.

The unit as a result, discussed public awareness and in the process identified factors that militate against it as poverty, illiteracy, underdevelopment, low salience etc. for disseminating information to the public, the unit equally identified and explained the roles of print and electronic media. The unit, in addition, identified and explained other avenues such as road shows, school clubs, NGOs, Social groups and LEMC/SEMA. It finally proposed the way forward.



1.8 References/ Further Readings

Aisweni, C.I. (2009) “Developing Human capital for Disaster Management” A paper presented at the NEMA (ASCON Sensitization Workshop on Disaster Risk reduction.

Ivbijaro, F.A. (2009) “Disaster Risk Reduction Survey in Lagos and Bayelsa States”, A Paper presented at the sensitization Workshop on Mainstreaming Disaster Management into National Development.

Osadebamwen, O., (2009) “Prevention and Mitigation of Road Disaster”, Paper presented at the Sensitization Workshop on Disaster Management for Public Officers.



1.9 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

Self-Assessment Exercise 1

List the factors that militate against awareness creation for disaster management among public, officials.

Answer:

The factors are:

1. Poverty;
2. Illiteracy;
3. Underdevelopment;
4. Low Salience.

Self-Assessment Exercise 2

Identify the strategies through which the public and other stakeholders could be carried along in the quest for disaster reduction in Nigeria

Answer

It will be advisable that strategies for creating awareness on disaster risk reduction in Nigeria be different from those employed in the developed society. The strategies must be appropriate to the realities of the society. Factors of hunger, illiteracy, ignorance, diseases, corruption, the hallmarks of underdevelopment must be taken into consideration. Messages posted on the internet will attract millions of browsers a day in

the developed society. Here, access to the internet is dismally low for obvious reasons of cost, poor infrastructure, poor literacy level and poverty amongst others.

Strategies that will be effective for a people who, willingly will assist and guide a lost or wounded whale back to its habitat in the deep sea won't work for a people who would rush the carcass of a dead whale that is washed ashore, not minding the health risk, because of hunger and poverty

MODULE 4

Unit 1: EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT INSTITUTION IN NIGERIA: NATIONAL EMERGENCY MANAGGFEMENT AGENCY (NEMA)

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcome
- 1.3 Main Content
 - 1.3.1 Historical Overview
 - 1.3.2 The Effect of Disasters
 - 1.3.3 The Structure and Functions of NEMA
- 1.4 NEMA and Strategies against Fire Disaster Risks
- 1.5 NEMA's Performance: An Assessment
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) is one of the key agencies that Government has established in its determination to protect life and property irrespective of whether the threat to such life or property is man-made or natural. We seem to live in a world where hardly a month passes without us receiving reports of disasters in the form of hurricanes or earthquakes; landslides or flashfloods; accidents and other unfortunate losses that affect our common humanity. As a country, we have no option but to put in place the enabling infrastructure that will help our people respond swiftly and effectively to disaster whenever and wherever it may occur. Disasters threaten national development, poverty reduction initiative and the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals of government. While Nigeria has been spared the occurrence of major disasters, with devastating socio-economic consequences, as witnessed in other parts of the globe, we cannot afford to be complacent. We should continue to build on our capacity for effective and prompt response so as to reduce our vulnerability. This capacity is crucial today more than ever before in the face of daunting challenges.



1.2 Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Trace the historical antecedents that led to the establishment of NEMA.
2. Explain the organizational structure and functions of NEMA
3. Identify NEMA's achievements and challenges so far.



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 Historical Overview

Disaster management in Nigeria started as far back as 1906, when the Fire Brigade (now Federal Fire Service) was established, with the mandate to, amongst others, “save lives and property and provide humanitarian services during emergencies.”

The devastating drought of 1972/73, during which the country suffered huge losses in life and property however became the catalyst for the eventual establishment of the National Emergency Relief Agency (NERA) in 1990. NERA was charged with the responsibility of collecting and distributing relief materials to disaster victims. This precursor of the National emergency Management Agency had a narrow mandate and its function was equally limited in scope.

That was the landscape of disaster management until the Federal Government was spurred into further action later in the 1990s by the United Nations International Decade for Natural Disaster reduction (IDNDR), among other factors. Subsequently, the Government set up an inter-ministerial body to address natural disaster reduction in Nigeria.

With the growing awareness of disaster management issues, the Federal Government, in 1993, expanded the scope of disaster management, via Decree 119, which raised the status of NERA to an independent body under the Presidency, with the responsibility for “formulating general policies and guidelines relating to management of disasters in Nigeria and in friendly countries.” The pioneers of disaster management soon discovered the inadequacy of the functions and capacity of NERA to meet the difficult challenges posed by disasters. The Ejigbo C 130 military plane crash, in which the nation lost almost a whole generation of young military officers and other crises, were a rude awakening to the fact that emergency service delivery was still in the deficit, NERA was essentially a relief dolling outfit; not equipped to manage risks and hazards in vulnerable communities to prevent catastrophic events and other disaster risk reduction activities.

National Emergency Management Agency, as it is today, is largely the product of a consensus among stakeholders. Upon the review of the failures of emergency management, and the understanding that what was desperately needed was a body to coordinate disaster management in the country, NERA was assigned this role by the stakeholders.

This role, amongst others, was formally enacted into law when National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) was established in March 1999 via Act 12 as amended by Act 50.

The Act conferred NEMA with the following functions and powers:

- a. Formulate policy on all activities relating to disaster management in Nigeria and coordinate the plans and programmes for efficient and effective response to disasters at national level;
- b. Co-ordinate and promote research activities relating to disaster management at the national level;
- c. Monitor the state of preparedness of all organizations or agencies which may contribute to disaster management in Nigeria;
- d. Collate data from relevant agencies so as to enhance forecasting, planning and field operation of disaster management.

- e. Educate and inform the public on disaster prevention and control measures;
- f. Coordinate and facilitate the provision of necessary resources for search and rescue and other types of disaster curtailment activities in response to distress call;
- g. co-ordinate the activities of all voluntary organizations engaged in emergency relief operations in any part of the Federation.
- h. Receive financial and technical aid from international organizations and non government agencies for the purpose of disaster management in Nigeria;
- i. Collect emergency relief supply from local, foreign sources and from international and non governmental agencies;
- j. Distribute emergency relief materials to victims of natural or other disasters and assist in the rehabilitation of the victims where necessary;
- k. Liaise with State Emergency Management Committees established under section 8 of this Act to assess and monitor where necessary, the distribution of relief materials to disaster victims;
- l. Process relief assistance to such countries as may be determined from time to time;
- m. Liaise with the United Nations Disaster Reduction Organization or such other international bodies for reduction of natural and other disasters;
- n. Prepare the annual budget for disaster management in Nigeria; and
- o. Perform such other functions which in the opinion of the Agency are required for the purpose of achieving its objectives under this Act.

The Act also defined “natural or other disasters” to include any disaster arising from any crisis, epidemic, drought, flood, earthquake, storm, train, roads, aircraft, oil spillage or other accidents and mass deportation of Nigerians from any other country.” The definition is broad and comprehensive and apparently intended to cover all natural or human- induced disasters. Such is the huge task before NEMA.

The present management of NEMA assumed duty in 2006 and immediately adopted proactive disaster management as its mantra. Proactive disaster management is in sync with the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015 adopted by the united nations World Conference on Disaster Reduction, with the theme “Building Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters.”

The shift in emphasis from mere emergency relief and response to proactive disaster risk reduction (DRR) threw up many daunting challenges before NEMA; not least the complete absence of emergency management structures at the state and local government levels (with the exception of a few) as anticipated by the NEMA Act.

The 1999 Act, at section 8 (1) “... established for each state of the Federation, a State Emergency Management Committee (in this Act referred to as State Committee)”

The functions of the State Committee are:

- a. Notify the Agency of any natural or other disasters occurring in the State.
- b. Respond to any disaster within the state and may seek assistance from the agency if it deems fit in each circumstance.
- c. Carry out disaster management activities in the state as may, from time to time, be recommended by the Agency; and

- d. Be accountable to the Agency for all funds accruing to it for purposes of discharging its functions under this Act.

If this provision had been complied with by the States, the task of providing efficient emergency management would have been much easier, but only 20 of the 36 states and Abuja have any disaster management structures in place, albeit mostly sketchy. This frustrates the fragmentation of government responsibility for emergency management programs intended by the Act vertically between Federal and state governments with some autonomy at the state level.

The non participation by most states leaves a big void. To fill this gap, therefore, NEMA has had to go beyond its mandate in many instances. It was impossible to strictly concentrate on managing disasters at the national level as provided for in the Act.

The establishment by NEMA of six Zonal offices namely North East with office in Maiduguri, South West, with office in Lagos, North central with office in Jos, South South with office in Port Harcourt, North West with office in Kaduna and South East with office in Enugu, was meant to decentralize disaster management. The zonal offices are expected to provide mechanism for sustainable interdependence and interrelation between the three tiers of government and among all stakeholders so as to build a culture of preparedness, prevention, response and community resilience to disasters in the country.

The full potentials of this strategic approach will not be realized without emergency management structures at the state level to serve as conduit to the local communities. To overcome, or better still, lessen the impact of this problem, NEMA came up with community-based programmes like Grassroots Emergency Volunteers in partnership with local government councils and Emergency management vanguards in partnership with the National Youth Service Corps Directorate.

Briefly, the Grassroots Emergency Volunteer Programmes enables NEMA in partnership with local government councils to train at least 200 volunteers resident in the communities in basic skills of disaster management, while the Emergency Management Vanguards programme aims at training selected youth corps members in disaster management skills before they are posted to their host communities for the one year service. Both programmes are strategic to building a pool of first responders to disasters, thus creating resilience at the community level.

NEMA's emphasis on community based and people-centric programmes is borne out of the fact that communities that suffer the least damage and recover the fastest from disasters are those that can rely on their mutual support systems and their own resources.

One of such initiatives achieved a major breakthrough in the area of search and rescue and epidemic evacuation, with the signing of the instrument by stakeholders, at a ceremony presided over by the Vice President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, Dr. Goodluck Jonathan (GCON), who was also the Chairman of the Governing Council of NEMA.

The Search and Rescue and Epidemic Evacuation Plan was conceived in 2006, a period that witnessed unprecedented scale of air disasters, thereby exposing the inadequacy of search and rescue operations in the country. Search and rescue operations were bedeviled

by inter-agency conflict and distrust, wasteful duplication of efforts and unwarranted competition.

NEMA took the initiative to work out strategies towards achieving a sound and efficient response plan which all stakeholders in disaster management will identify with. It is imperative that as stakeholders in disaster management, we should have a system in place whereby we could all draw on our collective strengths to build a formidable group of highly mobile, motivated, dedicated and competently trained workforce of disaster managers.

In conjunction with stakeholders, NEMA came up with the Search and Rescue and Epidemic Evacuation Plan for Nigeria, a plan that spells out the specific functions and responsibilities of different agencies and organizations during search and rescue operations in nine different disaster scenarios; Aviation disasters within and outside the airports, maritime based disasters, road accidents, flood, fire, collapsed building, rail accident, oil pipeline explosion and epidemic evacuation plan.

The attainment of Full Operational Capability (FOC) by the Nigerian Mission Control Centre (NIMCC) is another remarkable achievement for search and rescue operations. The achievement enables NEMA to communicate directly with the international community with the CospasSarsat equipment, for cooperation in search and rescue procedures. NIMCC is ready to integrate ECOWAS countries to NEMA's MCC and plans are in top gear to install Rescue Coordination Centres (RCCs) equipment in all the countries in the sub region and link them via Aeronautical Fixed Telecommunication Network (AFTN) to NEMA's MCC. After successful RCCs installation and test run, delegates will be invited from these countries for a workshop in NIMCC on the use of the equipment.

Eleven West African countries have been configured on NEMA's Mission Control Center and communication link tests successfully carried out from the MCC to the AFTN Centers located at the various airports in those countries.

Search and Rescue operation is capital intensive. In this regard, the willingness of the Federal Government to fund the procurement of some critically important plants and equipment and other facilities for search and rescue is therefore a welcome development. NEMA has a deliberate policy of manpower development for Disaster Risk Reduction. This is designed to identify the imperatives of DRR for sustainable development and good governance. The policy is also to identify effective strategies for mainstreaming DRR into public programmes and safety measures during disasters in work places by equipping participants with basic skills to respond to disaster events and reduce vulnerability.

NEMA in its bid to build the capacity of its staff, stakeholders and communities has undertaken some major programmes. These include collaborating with some six federal universities, Administrative Staff College of Nigeria, National Education Research Development Council, National Institute for Policy and Strategies Studies and AFCSC Jaji.

1.3.2 The Effect of Disasters

Disasters are serious disruptions of the functioning of a community or a society causing widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected community, or society to cope using its own resources.

Over the last decade, disasters, natural or human induced, have claimed more than 600,000 lives and affected more than 2.4 billion people, worldwide, the majority of them in developing countries.

In Nigeria, as in most developing countries, disasters are threats to national development, poverty reduction initiatives and the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals.

The range of disasters include: frequent oil spills in the Niger Delta, pipeline vandalism in many parts of the country, rise in number and severity of floods due to climate change, increasing threat of desertification, rampant cases of fire disasters across the country, ethno-religious conflicts, gully erosions with humanitarian consequences in many parts of the country, shrinking coast lines, outbreak of avian influenza H5N1 (bird flu), plane crashes, collapsed buildings, drought and increasing levels of industrial pollution and waste.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- | |
|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Identify the consequence of disasters over the last decade in the world.2. Outline the achievements and the challenges of NEMA |
|--|

1.3.3 The Structure and Functions of NEMA

The National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) is the Agency of the Federal Government “charged with responsibility for disaster management in Nigeria; and to make provision for other matters connected therewith” – National Emergency Agency (Establishment, ETC.) Act 1999).

The Departments report to the Director-General who is the Chief Executive and Accounting Officer of the Agency. NEMA is structured into departments, divisions, units and the zonal offices, as follows:

Department of Planning, Research and Forecasting: After the office of the Director-General, this is the nerve center of activities of the Agency. Its responsibilities include, but not limited to developing policies on activities relating to disaster management; coordinating plans and programmes for efficient and effective response to disaster at national level and monitoring the state of preparedness of all organizations or agencies which may contribute to disaster management in Nigeria.

The department also coordinates the operations of the zonal offices established by NEMA to decentralize its operations for greater efficiency in disaster management.

Programmes on early warning, vulnerability capacity analysis, inter agency collaboration and coordination are within the purview of the department. The Geographic information System (GIS) Lab and the Agency Library are units in the department.

The Department of Relief and Rehabilitation occuppies. This department is essentially concerned with post-disaster management activities. It is, therefore, the most visible department of the Agency from the perspective of disaster victims and those NGOs,

CBOs and international organizations involved in post disaster relief and rehabilitation activities.

While the current trend in disaster management is in favour of proactive disaster risk reduction as prescribed by UN/ISDR, humanitarian relief support and rehabilitation are indispensable in major incidents, to restore normalcy. The department is presently executing rehabilitation programmes for vulnerable communities in Agwagune, Cross River State and Wase in Plateau State respectively.

Relief and Rehabilitation Department is also handling the Disaster Risk Reduction Programme of the Agency towards implementing the Hyogo Framework For Action 2005 (HFA). Disaster Risk Programme for Nigeria serves to inform and guide disaster risk reduction implementation in Nigeria.

The Department of Search and Rescue: This department is the operational arm of the Agency. When disaster strikes, it has the responsibility of “coordinating and facilitating search and rescue activities”. It coordinates the Disaster Reaction Units (DRUs) of the Nigeria Armed Forces, the Agency’s Emergency Response Teams (ERTs) and those of other stakeholders, for efficient and effective response to disasters. Search and Rescue department has the Nigeria Cospas-Sarsat Mission Control Center (NIMCC) which is an international programme that supports search and rescue, using satellite aided technology and ground segment facilities to detect and locate distress alert signals from aircraft, ships and land users. The year in review saw the inauguration of the Search and Rescue and Epidemic Evacuation Plan for Nigeria (SAREEP). It is expected that SAREEP would remove all obstacles to smooth search and rescue operations henceforth.

The Department of Administration and Supplies: This is the hub around which all functions of the Agency turn. The Stores/Suppliers/Warehouse Management Units are run by the department, amongst others. The department also participates in search and rescue exercises as it is on standby at the warehouses to provide urgently required relief materials.

Department of Training: This department is responsible for developing training programmes for staff, stakeholders, state emergency management agencies and the general public is crucially important to create manpower base for effective disaster management.

Finance and Accounts Department: This department is responsible for the coordination of day-to-day finance and accounts activities of the Agency.

In addition, Six zonal offices were established by the Agency in 2006, to improve interaction between NEMA and the other tiers of government, response organizations, NGOs, CBOs, FBOs, etc. The zonal offices facilitate rapid response, quick intervention and smooth communication between NEMA and stakeholders in disaster management.

1.4 NEMA and Strategies against Fire Disaster Risks

National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) advises the general public to take extra precautions when handling fire and combustible materials at our homes, markets, workplaces, etcetera.

Fire kills and destroys properties; take the following steps to prevent it!

1. Ensure candles are not placed on tables, carpets or any combustible materials.

2. Ensure that candles or lanterns are put out before going to bed. • Never smoke in bed; dispose cigarette stubs appropriately.
 3. Comply with no smoking rules/signs.
 4. Make an escape plan and practice regularly.
 5. Conduct evacuation/fire drills for large offices and factories.
 6. Call the local fire service in case of fire out breaks.
 7. Be conversant with the telephone numbers of the fire service/emergency services closest to you.
 8. During fire incident, move out and remain outside until the fire service arrives.
 9. Assist the fire fighters with necessary information.
 10. Purchase fire extinguishers and learn how to use them and service them regularly.
 11. Ensure that only professionals carry out your electrical installations.
 12. Do not cut corners by using undersized cables.
 13. Never pass extension cables under the carpet.
 14. Avoid the use of generators/stoves in market place; if you have to, they must be far away from combustible materials.
 15. Avoid bush burning.
 16. A little investment could save your life and properties.
 17. Insure your assets.
 18. Raise an alarm by breaking the glass of the nearest fire alarm point or shout Fire! Fire!! Fire!!! Keep shouting until everybody is out.
 19. Switch off all electrical appliances after office hours or when not in use at home.
- Do not hesitate to contact the fire service in your area, if you require further information. If you identify or detect any sign of risk/hazard, contact National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA).

Head office; 8, Adetokunbo Ademola Crescent, Maitama, Abuja, Phone: 09 2905777, 09 4134341, 08032003555.

For similar purpose below are NEMA Zonal Offices.

- a. North West Zonal Office; No. 15, Wurmo Road, Unguwan Sarki, Kaduna, GSM: 08035925885
- b. South East Zonal Office; NCFC Building, No. 5 Onisha Road, Enugu, GSM 08037020447; 07026106217
- c. North Central Zonal Office; Direct Labour Compound, Vom Road, Jos. GSM 08069107987.
- d. South South Zonal Office; No. 51, Ikwere Road, Diobu, Port Harcourt, GSM 08068652639, 07026106215
- e. South West Zonal Office; 4th Floor Old National Assembly Building, Obalende, Lagos. GSM 08039795231.
- f. North East Zonal Office, Medical Store Premises, Off TBS, Baga Road, Maiduguri GSM 08030998210, 07028175614.

NEMA “Coordinates resources towards efficient and effective disaster prevention, preparedness, mitigation and response in Nigeria”.

1.5 NEMA’s Performance: An Assessment

The National Emergency Agency (NEMA) made modest achievements in 2009, in concrete terms, as programmes and policies aimed at reducing or eliminating risks and vulnerabilities in the society began to materialize. However, it is often difficult to categorically say that the programmes are effective, in the absence of real disasters. It is also appreciated that in severe disasters no amount of preparation is adequate. Nevertheless, mitigation measures that either attempt to prevent hazards from developing into disasters or reduce the impacts of disasters when they occur are preferred options in modern disaster management to post disaster relief and rehabilitation which was the focus in the country until recently.

While the agency made some progress, it is still contending with the daunting problem of inertia by critical stakeholders whose participation in emergency management is anticipated by law and indispensable, practically. State governments and Local government councils have vital roles to play. The law requires the State governments to establish their autonomous state emergency management agencies (SEMAs) to take charge of disaster management in the states while NEMA operates at the national level and may only be called upon to participate in disaster management operations that are beyond the capacity of the SEMAs. It is the norm all over the world that local emergency management structures play pivotal roles in disaster risk reduction by embracing structural and non- structural mitigation measures while they are also expected, due to sheer logistics, to be first responders in disaster situations in their communities. Response to emergencies, to be efficient, should begin within the first five minutes of the outbreak. For most incidents 30 minutes is already too late to save lives and properties.

Emergency management also suffers low issue salience and resistance to regulatory and planning efforts among stakeholder agencies, departments and ministries having clearly defined roles in disaster management. What NEMA has been able to achieve, therefore, is mostly through hard work and ingenuity of the management and staff of the Agency. It is pertinent to say that as a coordinating Agency, NEMA should be able to depend heavily on collaboration and cooperation from stakeholder agencies, departments, ministries, nongovernmental organizations, etc, to succeed in its assignment.

The outgrowths of the inertia by stakeholders are:-

1. Failure of most state governments to establish their state emergency management agencies.
2. With the exception of Lagos State which has a fully functional, well funded and equipped Lagos State Emergency Management Agency (LASEMA) the so called SEMAs are not worth the paper their laws are written on. Let me note also, for the purpose of encouragement, that Kaduna, Anambra, Niger and Kano SEMAs are coming up and wish that they emulate Lagos State.
3. Lackadaisical attitude of core stakeholder agencies to emergency management matters leading to low attendance, lateness, low level representation at seminars, workshops and a general lukewarm attitude to the Agency's functions.

It is hard to understand this attitude to disaster management in an area that is constantly witnessing the ravages of natural and human-induced catastrophes. With us, any disaster in any part of the globe is a wakeup call to be prepared. Nigeria is not immune to

disaster; we have had some and are at risk all the time. It is, calm as incubation period during which many hazards and risks accumulate and if not noticed and acted upon may escalate into major disasters. It is the actions taken before the disaster (preparedness) that matter; once it has struck, it is too late. How you cope with that disaster to curtail losses of lives and properties, mitigation pains and miseries of the victims are determined by what has been put in place in “peace” time.

Some of the programs executed by the Agency, which have the potential of really transforming disaster management in Nigeria are; grassroots emergency volunteers, emergency management vanguards, executive emergency volunteers, courses disaster management in six universities across the six geopolitical zones, sensitization workshops for senior civil servants to mainstream disaster management into public policies, specialized training in high skill search and rescue and recovery, simulation exercises, etc.

Grassroots Emergency Volunteers: As stated earlier, response to disasters must be spontaneous. Yet disasters can happen anywhere, any time and often without warning. Therefore, NEMA conceived the grassroots emergency volunteer program through which at least 200 men and women from different communities and backgrounds are trained in basic disaster management techniques. Once trained, these volunteers are expected to serve as first responders should disaster erupt in their communities. With 774 local government areas the country could have as much as 154,800 volunteers when the programme is fully developed. So far, 6480 have been trained. It could have been faster if NEMA had its way. Here too the States and the LGAs have shown very little interest, inspite of the potential gains of this programme.

Emergency Management Vanguards: This programme is targeted at members of the National Youth Service Corps. They are selected upon volunteering at their orientation camps and trained in disaster management skills, including advocacy in disaster risk reduction, which knowledge is expected to impact positively on their host communities during their one year national service. Their presence in all nooks and crannies of the society and their level of education and discipline stand them in good stead to be advocates of disaster management. This programme has started in six states of the federation, but NEMA is gradually expanding its scope to cover the whole nation.

Executive Emergency Volunteers: These are volunteers drawn from the top echelon of the society. Made up of top professionals, senior military officers, senior civil servants, senior police officers, etc, the executive emergency volunteers will provide leadership and direction in disaster situations, among others. The scheme is being established all over the country.

Courses in disaster/emergency management: NEMA is collaborating with six universities in the six geopolitical zones to offer courses in disaster/emergency management up to graduate and post graduate levels. The universities are University of Nigeria, Nsuka, Federal University of Technology, Minna, University of Ibadan, University of Maiduguri, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and University of Port Harcourt. This programme will, among others, ensure the availability of core professionals in disaster management who will eventually help to overcome the problem of ignorance and or lukewarm attitude to

emergency management in the establishments they are eventually employed. Funds have been released to the universities for the takeoff of the courses.

Specialized training in high skill search and rescue operation: The Agency engaged experts from Israel to train 65 Nigerians in high skill in search and rescue operation. The participants were drawn from different stakeholder agencies with vital roles in search and rescue operation. They were given drawn first class training in modern search and rescue techniques, placing them at par with the best in the world.

Sensitization workshops for senior civil servants: Seminars and workshops were conducted for senior civil servants on grade levels 12 and above in all the six geopolitical zones of the country. Administrative staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) was engaged by the Agency for this program which served, among others, as a platform for advocacy, education and information dissemination on disaster management. NEMA expects that the seminars would help break through the problem of inertia for emergency management issues in the public service and help mainstream disaster management perspectives into national development plans.

Simulation exercises: Preparedness for disasters is enriched when disaster scenarios are simulated to enable emergency rescue workers practice their drills. Such exercises afford emergency rescuers the opportunity to correct lapses in their approach, deficiencies in equipments and other shortcomings. The scenarios are disaster specific. Two major ones were conducted in 2009; plane crash in and around the airport and epidemic evacuation. Mindful of the importance of these rehearsals, the Agency has established a division solely responsible for designing and conducting simulation exercises.

It is worthy of note that the achievements as recorded in the 2009 Annual report were possible because of the tremendous support and encouragement from the President, Dr. Goodluck Ebele Jonathan (GCFR) who was the Chairman of the Governing Council of NEMA. Indeed, all other council members, especially sub-committee chairmen have shown keen interest in the success of disaster management in Nigeria. But the benefits of our success at the Federal level will not trickle down to the communities where the majority live without SEMAs and local emergency management committees participating and taking ownership of programmes and other emergency management initiatives in their domain.



1.6 Summary

The havoc reaped by disaster on individuals and groups both in Nigeria and elsewhere cannot be overemphasized.

The fact remains however that numerous lives are continuously lost in such tragic events. Notable accident occurrences across the globe include the Tsunami, earthquakes, floods, air and road accidents etc. In response, the world body – United Nations demonstrated some concerns which stimulated among others in Nigeria, the establishment of the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA). The Nigeria's government support for this Agency and its activities so far indicate a serious approach at tackling this monster in order not only to save lives but protect lives and property.

The challenge posed by Disasters in Nigeria informed putting in place measures to forestall the ugly incidence. One of those measures is the eventual establishment of the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) with an overall mandate of stemming the tide. Against this backdrop, this unit set out to examine this agency which is believed to enhance through its activities the management of urban and rural areas. In its introduction the unit identified NEMA as the centrality of government's efforts in disaster management.

The Unit also traced the historical antecedents right from 1906 to 2006 that led to the establishment of NEMA. The organogram and functions of NEMA were examined. Similarly, the functions of each of the six departments of NEMA and those of the six zonal offices in Nigeria were outlined. NEMA's strategies for Managing Disasters were equally identified. Finally, NEMA's performance so far was assessed during which some challenges facing the agency were identified.



1.7 References/Further Readings

NEMA: 2008 Annual Report (Abuja NEM: The Presidency)

NEMA: 2009 Annual Report (Abuja: NEMA: The Presidency)

NEMA (2008) Newsletter, Vol.1, No. 10, December NEMA (2009) Newsletter, Vol.1, No. 17, October.



1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Identify the consequence of disasters over the last decade in the world.

Answer

Disaster, natural or human induced have, claimed more than 600,000 lives and affected more than 2.4. billion people worldwide, the majority of them in developing countries.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Outline the achievements and the challenges of NEMA

Answer

The National Emergency Agency (NEMA) made modest achievements in 2009, in concrete terms, as programmes and policies aimed at reducing or eliminating risks and vulnerabilities in the society began to materialize. However, it is often difficult to categorically say that the programmes are effective, in the absence of real disasters. It is also appreciated that in severe disasters no amount of preparation is adequate. Nevertheless, mitigation measures that either attempt to prevent hazards from developing into disasters or reduce the impacts of disasters when they occur are preferred options in modern disaster management to post disaster relief and rehabilitation which was the focus in the country until recently.

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anticipated by law and indispensable, practically. State governments and Local government councils have vital roles to play. The law requires the State governments to establish their autonomous state emergency management agencies (SEMAs) to take charge of disaster management in the states while NEMA operates at the national level and may only be called upon to participate in disaster management operations that are beyond the capacity of the SEMAs. It is the norm all over the world that local emergency management structures play pivotal roles in disaster risk reduction by embracing structural and non- structural mitigation measures while they are also expected, due to sheer logistics, to be first responders in disaster situations in their communities. Response to emergencies, to be efficient, should begin within the first five minutes of the outbreak. For most incidents 30 minutes is already too late to save lives and properties.

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UNIT2 FIRE DISASTER: PREVENTION OF MITIGATION

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcome
- 1.3 Main Content
 - 1.3.1 Fire Prevention
 - 1.3.2 Definition
 - 1.3.3 Fire fighting
 - 1.3.4 Method of Fire fighting
- 1.4 Classes of Fire
 - 1.4.1 Method of Extinction
 - 1.4.2 Other Fire Preventive Measures
- 1.5 Fire Safety in Public and Private Properties
 - 1.5.1 How to Respond to Emergencies
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 References/Further Readings
- 1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content



1.1 Introduction

Fire has been a very old friend of ours since ages past. Even Biblical stories present it been used in different purposes, as some instances it was used for burning of sacrifices, in another, as a source of light to lead the people, while in some other instances as indication for the presence of God, and at some other instances for destruction. We hear of how the primitive man used fire to prepare his food. In our days we have increased the use and forms of fire to endless limits. But how far have we been able to control fire after having used it for so long? The Scientist who have invented fire in many forms, have also invented ways of controlling them, but have we kept those instructions? If we keep the instructions then fire is our friend, else it is readily our enemy living with us.



1.2 Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. Define fire
2. Explain fire prevention and methods of fighting fire
3. Outlined fire safety procedures in Public and Private Properties
4. Explain how to respond to emergencies



1.3 Main Content

1.3.1 Fire Prevention

Fire Prevention is the precautions taken to reduce or check any occurrence of unwanted fire in a particular place or environment. It could be in buildings, vehicles, and bush or in any other thing that is of value to the owner(s). All fire outbreaks sustain a loss in one way or the other, so fire prevention is viewed as being more important and loss-free than then firefighting.

On October 9th, 1871 the great Chicago fire killed very many people and rendered many other people homeless. In the United States of America, during the reign of Calvin Coolidge, 15,000 lives were lost to fire and estimated 16400 homes were destroyed by fire. Again in 2003 in the USA, also about 17600 lives and 25,600 buildings were lost to fire and 1520 person were injured.

In Akwalbom State property worth about =N=14,000,000.00 (fourteen million naira) was recorded lost to fire. Loss caused to both states and the Federal Government of Nigeria through market fires within the last few years have been very alarming and calls for serious concern from all angles of life endeavours.

If America, with all her technological advancements can be confronted by fire despite their sophisticated machines, it means that fie fears nobody or government.

WHAT SHALL WE DO?

Let's take to Fire Prevention, lest it takes us by surprise. Let it be taught in schools, in communities, and in everywhere. Let's open offensive attack on fire and block all possible entrances against unwanted fires through intensified Fire Prevention Operations. The most awesome fire used to be petrol fire because of its rate of spread, but now we owe Malaysia thanks for overcoming petrol fire with XPLOPROJECT.

1.3.2 Definition

Fire is rapid chemical combination of two or more combustible substances resulting in the production of Heat and Light.

Before any fire can occur three elements must be present viz: HEAT, FUEL AND OXYGEN. These three elements are normally linked by some chemical combinations, known as chain reaction before we can have fire. This is known as Fire Tetrahedron.

1.3.3 Fire fighting

In firefighting, we cut off the supply of one of the three elements to extinguish the fire. But sometimes, depending on the class of fire and the type of extinguisher used, we do two things at the same time, that is, cut off the supply of one element and chemically interfere with the chain reactions.

1.3.4 Method of Fire fighting

There are three methods that can be adopted in fighting fire.
They are:

1. STARVATION: the withdrawal of fuel.
2. SMOTHERING: The withdrawal of the supply of oxygen from the fire.
3. COOLING: The reducing of Heat from the temperature of the burning materials.

1.4 Classes of Fire

There are four classes of fire. These are classes A, B, C and D.

CLASS A: These are fire involving free-burning materials such as wood, textiles, paper, etc.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. List the three methods that can be adopted in fighting fire
2. Identify and explain measures to be adopted in managing fire and its attendant consequences.

1.4.1 Method of Extinction

By cutting off the supply of oxygen (Smothering) using CO₂, Dry Chemical Powder or Foam Extinguishers. Dry Sand can be used on the spillage.

CLASS C: Fire involving Gases such as methane, butane, Acetylene etc.

METHOD OF EXTINCTION: Is by using Dry Chemical Powder, sand. Turn off the valve.

CLASS D: These are Fires involving metals such as potassium, magnesium, sodium, etc.

METHOD OF EXTINCTION: By smothering with special Dry Powder, Dry Sand, powdered Graphite, Talc, Soda Ash, Limestone.

ELECTRICAL FIRES: In time past, people used to count electrical fire as being a separate class of fire by itself but now it is made known that electrical fire does not exist on its own, that fires starting from electricity burn on either materials of classes A, B, or D.

The normal procedure in fighting electrical Fire is to switch off or disconnect the electricity and use an extinguishing method appropriate to what is burning.

For fires where there is suspicion of electrical equipment operating or remaining energized, special extinguishing agents may be required which are nonconductors of electricity and those include halons, dry powders and carbon dioxide.

It should be remembered however, that dry power may cause corrosion if not removed completely from electrical components and carbon dioxide gas may affect sensitive electronic equipment due to rapid cooling and condensation

WHAT TO DO IF YOU DISCOVER A FIRE:

1. Raise the alarm, warn everyone
2. Call the fire Service
3. Evacuate the building
4. Attack the fire with available extinguishers if it is safe to do so.

1.4.2 Other Fire Preventive Measures

At the start of business every day, ensure that:

- a. Doors to escape routes are kept open and remain unobstructed
- b. Fire Doors are shut

- c. Fire Detectors and Alarm are tested
- d. Actuated fire extinguishers are replaced.

At the close of business each day, ensure that:

- a. All outside doors, windows and means of escape are in good state and are secured against intruders who may cause fire in order to defraud the company.
- b. Heating apparatus and mains switches are, where appropriate, turned off and plugs removed from wall sockets.
- c. Inspect the whole premises before leaving it.

1.5 Fire Safety in Public and Private Properties

The general attitude that people have about public properties in terms of protecting them from fire accident is such that would make the word accident irrelevant, since the properties were not even enjoying any protection before the fire out-break. Take for instance, public building built at the cost of many millions or billions of naira may lack the provision of even one fire extinguisher in cases where some extinguishers are provided, nobody is shown how to use the fire extinguisher to save the building in event of fire outbreak.

Public buildings with many costly machines and equipment may not enjoy enough sockets to plug the equipment unto, rather the officer who is detailed to handle the machine/equipment may buy extension real and or many adapters to overload the available electrical point which may cause short circuit and a consequent fire outbreak.

Public vehicles bought with many millions of naira lack portable fire extinguishers which may cost about two or three thousand naira, so that a single fire out-break in the vehicle may consume the whole vehicle entirely.

WHAT NEED BE DONE

All public buildings should be protected from fire rage by taking the following action:

- a. Install the proper types of fire extinguishers.
- b. Train people occupying such buildings on how to use the available fire extinguishers to fight fire if it occurs.
- c. Keep files and other free burning materials away from electrical socket.
- d. Switch of all electrical appliances and remove them from the socket before leaving the office.
- e. Public vehicle should be equipped with fire extinguishers and the drivers should be given some induction course on what to do in event of fire out-break in the car. After all not all cases of car fires need the use of the extinguishers if discovered in

1.5.1 How to Respond to Emergencies

There are three development stages prior to an emergency:

1. **Warning Phase:** This phase is the best of stages if detected either by smelling the early stage of combustion or recognized the feeling of furious heat.
2. **Impact Phase:** This is when the smoke or other fumes have charged up the atmosphere or room environment to trigger the alarm bells.
3. **Evaluation Phase:** The situation having gotten out of control, leads to the affected area being evaluated or abandoned. This point could be avoided if there were no barriers to the points listed below:

- a. Limitation of senses
- b. Not my business
- c. Not an emergency situation
- d. May be someone else have already raised the alarm

If these points are carefully observed and avoided, the emergency situations would be responded to immediately.

Rather, be

- a. Familiar with your work area
- b. Know exit routes and muster stations
- c. Follow safety orders
- d. Do not panic use the fire acronyms to find, inform, restrict and extinguish the fire.

F-] Find (using all senses)

I -] Inform (notify, call, raise alarm bell)

R -] Restrict (remove any part of the fire triangle)

E -] Extinguish evacuate or escape the place

MEANS OF FIRE PREVENTION

Understanding fire helps to prevent and control them. Majority of fires can be prevented by knowing that preventing the outbreak of fire is a collative responsibility and starts from YOU. Prevention as they say is better than cure, and so the knowledge of prevention should be built around the fire triangle. Several steps will lead to fire prevention program: Work site analysis, maintenance, good housekeeping, fire prevention and control seminars, safe work practices, being fire conscious, regular fire hazard inspection etc.

USING FIRES EXTINGUISHERS

Fire extinguishers are identified by a pictorial attached to the extinguisher body showing the type of fire for which they should be used. We have different portable fire extinguishers: Water type, dry chemical powder type, carbon dioxide type, foam extinguisher etc.

To use the portable extinguisher, follow the steps called PASS.

P – Pull the pin

A – Aim at the base of the fire

S – Squeeze the trigger

S- Sweep from side to side.

It is good to note here that it is always good to aim at the base of the fire. This is important for two reasons. First, a small fire extinguisher has limited material. It will be wasted aiming above the flame.

Secondly, the fire extinguisher materials will form a barrier above the fire. The flames can roll up under the barrier towards you.

FIRE PREPAREDNESS

Being prepared to control a fire is different from prevention of a fire hazard. These are a number of steps taken to be prepared for a fire emergency. Consider starting these practices in your home or place of employment.

- a. All family members/employees should be trained in fire prevention and control measures
 - b. Fire service emergency lines should be accessible to all persons
 - c. Written directions to the house exit route should be known and used at ease.
 - d. Smoke alarms and carbon monoxide detectors should be installed in houses and companies.
 - e. Test the batteries and replace them as needed.
 - f. Schedule regular fire training and fire drills with families and employees.
- Being prepared for a fire is a good insurance that all persons involved will react in focused and safe manner.



1.6 Summary

Prevention and mitigation of fire disaster is every body's task. This will really be achieved when we do not panic at fire situations but rather build up our confidence in our primary understanding of fire related situations.

It is however imperative to be prepared ahead of time because you won't have time to shop or search for the supplies you will need when a disaster strikes. Some disasters are caused by human actions, but regardless of the type of disaster, there are things you can do to prepare. Contact your Fire Service Station, Local Red Cross Chapter, visit FEMA website to make sure you are aware of the potential for national disasters in your community. But aware from these:

- a. Install smoke detectors
- b. Test your detector at least every month
- c. Keep detector from dust
- d. Fire extinguishers should be mounted in the kitchens, garages and workshops
- e. Learn how to use fire extinguishers Don't store newspapers near fireplaces
- f. Install thunder arrester in your houses.
- g. When lighting the gas, strike the match first before you turn the gas on.
- h. Install and maintain heating equipment correctly.
- i. Don't leave space heaters operating when you are not in the room;
- j. Keep space heater at least three feet away from combustible materials.
- k. Never leave home with the clothes dryer running.
- l. Never put in synthetic fabrics, rubber or foam in cloth dryer.
- m. It is better to use extension cord especially running it under rugs or twist around nail or hook.
- n. Disconnect electrical appliances from sockets after use.

This way, fire will always be prevented from our environment and our lives and properties will be saved and secured.

The havoc reaped by fire both to individuals and groups within the society informed our choice of the topic for discussion. And of course we do know that the bulk of fire ravages takes place in the urban centres. Its knowledge is therefore appropriate as part of administration of urban centres. The unit explained the concept of fire and how it could

be prevented. The unit equally explained measures to be adopted when and where fire occurs and above all, measures to be adopted in responding to emergency situations. This way, fire will always be prevented from our environment and our lives and properties will be saved and secured



1.7 References/Further Readings

Bassey, N.I. (2009) “Prevention and Mitigation of Fire Disasters” Paper Presented at a Workshop organized by NEMA in collaboration with ASCON, 10-13 August, 2009.

Ojo, E.O. (2009) “Disaster Risk Reduction in National Development: An Update,” Paper delivered at a Sensitization Collaborative Workshop On Mainstreaming Disaster Risk Reduction into Public Development Policies, Kaduna State, 10-13 August, 2009



1.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercise(s) within the content

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

List the three methods that can be adopted in fighting fire

Answer

The methods are:

1. Starvation
2. Smothering
3. Cooling

Method of extinguishing them is by cooling with water in various forms.

CLASS B: These are Fires involving flammable liquids e.g. petrol, kerosene, diesel, paints, fats, etc.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Identify and explain measures to be adopted in managing fire and its attendant consequences.

Answer

There are three methods that can be adopted in fighting fire.

They are:

4. STARVATION: the withdrawal of fuel.
5. SMOTHERING: The withdrawal of the supply of oxygen from the fire.
6. COOLING: The reducing of Heat from the temperature of the burning materials.