



POL432
GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF URBAN SYSTEM

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MODULE ONE

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this first module you going to study the meaning of urban system and examine various definitions of urban system given by different scholars. The study will be divided in different units or sub-titles for easy assimilation of your learning. The first unit will be on urban size and urban product, followed by urban growth how to measure urban size, urban sprawl, characteristics of urban sprawl, job sprawl and spatial mismatch, including leapfrog development, the factors that contribute to the growth of urban areas, the arguments against urban sprawl, automobile dependency and the risk of increased housing prices. You also have self-assessment questions with answers to enable you evaluate your learning at the end of the module along with it are tutor marked assignments at the end of the module.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the study you should be able to:

- Explain urban system
- Differentiate between urban size and urban growth
- Explain urban sprawl and urban agglomerate

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 DEFINITION OF URBAN SYSTEM

Scholars like Dacosta and Claire (2004) believe that an urban area is an area that is made up of small cities. There are different types of urban areas e.g. small-big/mega cities. A small city comprises of less than 200,000 registered residents and medium city has 200,000-500,000 while big cities have up to 500,000 – 1,000,000 registered residents. Metropolitan cities inhabit more than 1 million and above registered dwellers. The daily urban system is the area around a city, in which daily commuting occurs. It is a means for defining an urban region by including the areas from which individuals commute. Therefore, it includes multiple local governments, economies, and demographics. Urban sprawl is the result of an expansion of the daily urban system. The difference between an agglomeration of an urban area and the daily urban system is that an agglomeration is a multivariate means of combining townships, counties, and other defined areas. It looks at shared economic relationships and other factors.

Daily urban system, on the other hand, only attempts to show how far away people who commute into a city are living. It shows how much sprawl has occurred. That is, it shows how people are living unnecessarily far away from where they commute to everyday due to differences in conditions between the regions. For example, Paris's central urban population is 2,125,246. Its agglomerated population is 9,644,507. That's a big difference. Roughly 7 million people live outside of Paris proper, but are easily within the greater Parisian area. Paris's daily urban system has a population of 11,174,743. That's 1.5 million people living outside of what can (at the most generous) be called Paris, and yet are commuting there every day. 10% of the city lives far enough away that they cannot really say they 'live outside of Paris,' but commute to the Paris daily (Pumain 2014). Also in 2004 Pumain, stressed that urban centers are regarded as those with population of 1500 or greater, while Kalwani (2011), argue that urban areas has two sub urban system known as the intra-urban and inter

urban systems. Like other concepts in political science the concept of urban system eludes comprehensive definition. He believes that, it is a difficult problem because towns and cities can receive a variety of social meanings. Thus, there are several varying definitions of the urban system. Urban entity however, can be defined as a permanent grouping of resident population on a small quantity of land. There is no universal threshold of population density that can be associated to such definition. To Pumain, (2004), the ambiguity of defining the term urban area arise from several factors which include among others, Services: The fact that some rural areas offer services found in urban areas, sociological criteria, which denies the physical feature of an urban fabric, the concept of 'settlement continuum' which makes it difficult to draw a clear divide line between urban and rural areas, as well as the elusiveness of the term "urban" which keeps on changing with social development over time (Pumain 2004).

On the other hand, Kalwani, (2011) the term urban is delicate for there is no one conventional definition. Kalwani, stretched that each country has its own definition along the following commonly applied criteria: Demographic (based on population factors). Population size as criterion for the distinction of urban from rural areas; and density criteria also range differently from country to country e.g. In India a settlement with over 386 persons per km² is regarded urban.

- i. Functional: percentage of population engaged in non-agrarian (agricultural) activities as compared to those performing rural agricultural functions.
- ii. Definition based on sociological differences between country life and urbanism (urban life style).
- iii. Legal definition – This is arbitrarily determined by individual countries' regulation on what criteria to use in defining an urban area. (Kalwani, 2011)

The term "urban" includes land areas, populations and housing developments located in urbanized areas, such as cities and towns or urban clusters, while "rural" refers to territory, populations and housing units located outside urbanized areas or clusters.

Urban areas or urban centres feature densely populated landscapes, and typically have census-determined population densities of more than 1,000 residents per square mile. Rural areas, in contrast, generally have fewer than 500 people per square mile, and fall outside the borders of urbanized areas, urban clusters and their surrounding census blocks. According

to Weeks (2008) urban is a characteristic of place, rather than of people (Weeks 2008). Places are typically defined as "urban", and on the basis of definition of the people living there are thought of as being part of the urban population. But, we still do not usually apply the term "urban" to a person. The personal adjective urbane "still occasionally, used to describe a person is defined by the Oxford English dictionary as having the qualities or characteristics associated with town or city especially elegant and refined in manners, courteous, suave, sophisticated. If we agreed that urban is a place-based characteristics, then we can proceed to define an urban as a spatial concentration of people whose lives are organized around non-agricultural, whereas rural means any place that is not urban (Weeks 2008).

From the above definition of Weeks, a farming village of 5000 people should not be called urban, whereas a tourist resort or an artist colony of 2500 people may well be correctly called and designated as urban place. This means that "urban" as other political science concepts is a fairly complex term. Attributes characterise such as, (1) sheer population index, (2) space (land area), (3) the ratio of the population size (density or concentration) (4) economic and social organization of the place are some of the attributes that would determine if the area will be regarded as urban or not.

Urban systems are centred in urban areas; in terms of ecosystem and services. Urban areas are primarily sites of consumption which contrasts with the other systems such as cultivated systems (dry lands, and coastal systems), which primarily generate and supply ecosystem services. Urban systems exist at several scales and can be identified with individual urban settlements or networks of such settlements. Urban settlements are agglomerations of people and their activities; although urban areas may contain a wide variety of species, it is the humans that make them urban. About half the people in the world live in areas defined as urban. Over the same period, the rural population more than doubled, increasing from 1.4 billion to 3.2 billion (United Nations 2002). The share of Earth's land area that is urban is also growing, but it remains only about 2.8%.

3.2 WHAT IS URBAN SYSTEM

According to Faculty et al, urban systems are comprised of the processes by which life in metropolitan areas is organized and operated. These processes may be grouped into four

major categories of; infrastructure, built environment/planning, administration and human services.

In the 1980s John Friedmann deepened this analysis, by suggesting that processes of globalization were resulting in a new urban hierarchy, in which London, New York, and Tokyo were "global financial articulations", while Miami, Los Angeles, Frankfurt, Amsterdam, and Singapore were "multinational articulations", and Paris, Zurich, Madrid, Mexico City, Sao Paulo, Seoul, and Sydney were "important national articulations", all forming a "network". The spatial dispersion of production, including its internationalization, has contributed to the growth of centralized service nodes for the management and regulation of the new space economy. To a considerable extent, the weight of economic activity over the last fifteen years has shifted from production places such as Detroit and Manchester, to centers of finance and highly specialized services.

Thus there are contradictory trends: as production disperses worldwide, services increasingly concentrate into a relatively few trading cities, both the well-known "global cities" and a second rung of about 20 immediately below these, which we can distinguish as "sub-global". These cities are centers for financial services (banking, insurance) and headquarters of major production companies; most are also seats of the major world-power governments. A recent study of world cities distinguished four key groups of advanced service activity

1. Finance and Business Services: including banking and insurance, commercial business services such as law, accounting, advertising, and public relations, and design services including architecture, civil engineering, industrial design, and fashion;
2. "Power and Influence" (or "Command and Control"): national government, supranational organizations like the UN and OECD, and headquarters of major organizations including transnational corporations;
3. Creative and Cultural Industries: including live performing arts (theatre, opera, ballet, concerts), museums, galleries, exhibitions, print and electronic media;
4. Tourism: both business and leisure tourism, including hotels, restaurants, bars, entertainment, and transportation services.

All these are service industries. The process differs somewhat from sector to sector, but it all involves generating, communicating, and consuming information, often with a high degree of immediacy. Whether one considers the investment analyst trading shares, or the lawyer offering advice, or the board of a major corporation in a meeting, or the television producer at work on a show, or the tour guide taking a group sightseeing, specialized information is being processed and transmitted by highly-qualified people in real time. Further, much of this activity involves face-to-face exchange of information, either as a central feature or as an essential ancillary activity (as when the stock analyst has lunch and picks up important market information).

These categories tend to be highly synergistic with each other, and many activities fit effectively into the interstices between them: thus hotels and conference centers and exhibition centers are simultaneously business services and part of tourism; museums and galleries are creative and cultural but also parts of tourism; and advertising is both creative and a business service. Therefore, an extremely strong force of agglomeration operates within and across these sectors.

Work by the GAWC (Global Analysis of World Cities) group at the University of Southborough in the UK goes a long way to recognizing these trends and developing a new urban hierarchy: it identifies a "global hierarchy" of cities, based essentially on the relationships between different units engaged in delivering advanced services like law and accounting. In it, European cities are prominently represented and, of the top six cities, four are in the so-called North West Metropolitan Area of Europe, with London at the top. This is further supported by recent work on the global urban hierarchy based on airport connectivity. The daily urban system is the area around a city, in which daily commuting occurs. It is a means for defining an urban region by including the areas from which individuals commute. Therefore, it includes multiple local governments, economies, and demographics.

This way of defining an urban agglomeration is recommended by UNO for producing comparable urban statistics. It reflects a concept of a town or a city as a spatially relatively isolated and autonomous entity. That means that a town is spatially organized in a coherent way by a principle of centrality and that it also has a consistency over time, through a

relatively continuous aggregative spatial growth process. On the contrary, an urban commune (municipality) does not correspond to any coherent geographical concept. However, as urban definitions are far from being standardized despite UNO recommendations, too many urban studies are still relying on municipal statistics, because these are almost universally produced, while ignoring that such entities cannot be taken for consistent objects and that they do not offer comparable opportunities for urbanization (communes or municipalities may have very different shapes and sizes, their surfaces are not comparable from one country to the next).

Several other types of urban forms complicate the definition: for instance, two or more urban agglomerations that have grown more or less independently but not far away from each other can merge, creating a conurbation which means an aggregation or continuous network of urban communities. The spatial continuity of the built-up area admitted for the definition of an agglomeration (usually no more than 200 or sometimes 500 meters between two groups of buildings in a constructible area) has lost its significance with the enlarged range of spatial interaction made possible by the automobile, leading to alternative definitions of urban statistical areas (like the US SMSAs or the more recent French Aires urbanizes) that rely on a given threshold of labour force commuting to the centre. But not all countries define such more realistic or functional urban entities (commuting data are not available everywhere), and most of the existing urban data bases that can be used for comparative purposes (Moriconi-Ebrard, 1993), especially for historical times rely on the definition of urban agglomeration.

Further arguments may be advocated in favour of adopting the definition of urban agglomeration for comparative purposes: despite urban sprawl, the continuously built-up area still concentrates the major part of urban activities (since more central locations are observed for jobs than for resident population), and there is a rough proportionality between the size of this core and of the daily urban system, which makes the agglomeration rather well representative of the importance of the functional urban area. Noticeable exceptions are to be found in North America, where the presence of new “edge cities” located far away from an older centre may be blurring the concept of urban agglomeration or even of daily urban system. Furthermore, we shall see that, when available, the concept of functional urban area may today provide better historical continuity than the traditional concept of urban agglomeration.

3.3 URBAN SIZE AND URBAN PRODUCT

If the concept of an urban agglomeration is considered at the moment as offering the safest and most generally available measure of urban size for international and historical comparisons, the total population of the continuously built-up area (or, more frequently, of the set of administrative local units, e.g., communes, within which it is located and within whose limits the population is enumerated) may not always be considered as a measure of the relative importance of the city with respect to all possible bases of comparison. For instance, when comparing towns or cities from developed and developing countries, the same population size may relate to very unequal amounts of urban product and wealth. For example, several orders of magnitude separate the economic size of Lagos and Los Angeles, despite their comparable population size. So, another means of measuring in an objective way the importance of a city would be to estimate its gross local product. This is not easy either, since data of that kind are very rare. Usually, production statistics are collected at the place where headquarters of the firms are located and not at each place where the added value is actually produced. Personal income cannot be used as a proxy, because such statistics are also very rarely produced at urban level. For measurement purposes, some estimation of urban size in economic terms has been carried out by disaggregating regional gross product (Prudhomme, 1996).

One could imagine comparing cities as economic or ecological systems in terms of their costs of functioning or energetic balance. Once again, there is a lack of statistics about urbanization costs, and much of the literature in this field has been theoretical rather than empirically founded. An interesting attempt has been made for comparing cities as ecological systems (MOB programme by UNESCO), but the results were deceptive, mainly because of the difficulty of bounding a city, measuring the ingoing and outgoing flows, and of estimating in the same units physical consumption and the products of human activities. In summary, then, population statistics remain a solid and universal basis for establishing scaling effects in urban systems, even if they have to be supplemented by other meaningful but partial in. Historical path dependence despite the multiplicity and apparent diversity of national urban systems in the world, three major styles are recognizable in their hierarchical and spatial organization. These styles are differentiated because of different historical trajectories. Their properties vary according to their period of emergence (technological

conditions during the urban transition determine space-filling parameters) and according to any major exogenous impacts (such as colonization).

Furthermore, the phrase “Urban system” according to Ioannides and Overman (2000), was introduced by Brian J.L Berry in an article published in the early 1960s with the title “Cities as systems within systems of cities.” They argued that an urban system may be defined as any network of interdependent urban places in which any significant change in one system will have consequences for other cities in the system.

The special structure of an urban system may be defined as the pattern taken by the distribution of cities and towns in a defined area. The spatial settlement structure of a region is a result of the interaction between historical, political, social, technological and geophysical conditions. However, delimiting the geographical space of an urban system is not at all straight forward as it cannot be confined to urban land classes. Cities are systems in which multiple components are assembled to deliver the best possible conditions for human growth. Human growth here understood as increase in material, cultural and human assets that contribute to better and longer lives of its inhabitants. Urban system represents the frame within which urban settlements are organized and how they interact with each other regarding their size and functions.

Also the US census bureau defines urban areas as those areas in which the human population reaches or exceeds a population density of 186 people per square kilometre (Pickett et al, 2001). The bureau explains that urban areas comprise larger places and the more densely settled areas around them. They are of two types namely the urbanized areas and the urban clusters. The urbanized areas are those with an urban nucleus of 50,000 or more people with a core having a population density of 1000 persons per square mile and adjoining territory with at least 500 people per square mile. The urban clusters are places with population of more than 2500 and less than 50,000 (Dabson, 2007).

Cabral (2013) defined urban system as the centre of economic and social development characterized by the mixture of residential, commercial, agricultural and industrial activities. Urban life style, and by extension, urban area can be defined by three population characteristics which are on the basis of three (3) variables namely,

- (1) number,
- (2) density of settlement and

(3) degree of heterogeneity of the urban population.

3.4 URBAN GROWTH AND THE MEASURE OF URBAN SIZE

The most frequently used evaluation of the importance of a town or a city is its number of inhabitants. To determine this may appear as a simple problem of measurement, until it is realized that the resident population has to be counted within a physical geographical object, which is generally expanding over time. If towns and cities were strictly bounded by walls or inside an administrative border, the difficulty of the enumeration procedure would be limited to the usual problems of defining what a “resident” population should include. But usually, even if a strict delimitation did exist at some point in time, cities have been growing and the new buildings aggregated to the original urban node have spilled over the former walls or the once established administrative boundaries, expanding the urban agglomeration into several communes or counties (in some countries the territorial limits of the authority of municipalities are periodically revised, but this process is not so frequent and never follows exactly the physical expansion).

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 1.1

Give a definition of urban system

3.5 URBAN SPRAWL AND URBAN COMMUTING

Urban growth, also known as urban sprawl, refers to the expansion of a metropolitan or suburban area into the surrounding environment. It is often controlled by an Urban Growth Boundary (UGB), which is a clearly defined and legally enforced zoning tool.

Leaning on the Merriam-Webster’s dictionary urban sprawl can be defined as the stretch or extend of an urban city as a result of an expansion of the daily urban system. This refers to how the city grows, develops, or spreads irregularly and without apparent design or plan. Urban sprawl or suburban sprawl describes the expansion of human populations away from central urban areas into low-density, mono-functional and usually car-dependent communities. The difference between an agglomeration of an urban area and the daily urban system is that an agglomeration is a multivariate means of combining townships, counties,

while the other defined areas. It looks at shared economic relationships and other factors. Daily urban system, on the other hand, only attempts to show how far away people who commute into a city are living. It shows how much sprawl has occurred. That is, it shows how people are living unnecessarily far away from where they commute to everyday due to differences in conditions between the regions. For example, Paris's central urban population is 2,125,246. Its agglomerated population is 9,644,507. That's a big difference. Roughly 7 million people live outside of Paris proper, but are easily within the greater Parisian area. Paris's daily urban system has a population of 11,174,743. That's 1.5 million people living outside of what can (at the most generous) be called Paris, and yet are commuting there every day. 10% of the city lives far enough away that they cannot really say they 'live outside of Paris,' but commute from there on a daily bases.

Definitions of sprawl vary; researchers in the field acknowledge that the term lacks precision. Batty et al. defined sprawl as "uncoordinated growth: the expansion of community without concern for its consequences, in short, unplanned, incremental urban growth which is often regarded unsustainable that despite a dispute over the precise definition of sprawl there is a "general consensus that urban sprawl is characterized by an unplanned and uneven pattern of growth, driven by multitude of processes and leading to inefficient resource utilization. Urban sprawl has typically been characterized as urban development that exhibits at least one of the following characteristics: low-density or single-use development, strip development, scattered development, and/or leapfrog development (areas of development interspersed with vacant land) (Chin 2002). He argued that a better way to identify sprawl was to use indicators rather than characteristics because this was a more flexible and less arbitrary method. He proposed using "accessibility" and "functional open space" as indicators (Ewing op cit) Ewing's approach has been criticized for assuming that sprawl is defined by negative characteristics. What constitutes sprawl may be considered a matter of degree and will always be somewhat subjective under many definitions of the term. Ewing has also argued that suburban development does not, per se constitute sprawl depending on the form it takes, although Gordon & Richardson have argued that the term is sometimes used synonymously with suburbanization in a pejorative way (Gordon Peters 1997).

Urban commuting:

Commuting from urban areas into low-density is mono-functional and usually car-dependent communities. In addition to describing a particular form of urbanization, the term also relates

to the social and environmental consequences associated with this development. In Continental Europe the term "peri-urbanization" is often used to denote similar dynamics and phenomena, although the term urban sprawl is currently being used by the European Environment Agency. There is widespread disagreement about what constitutes sprawl and how to quantify it. For example, some commentators measure sprawl only with the average number of residential units per acre in a given area. But others associate it with decentralization (spread of population without a well-defined centre), discontinuity (leapfrog development, as defined below), segregation of uses, and so forth.

The term urban sprawl is highly politicized, and almost always has negative connotations. It is criticized for causing environmental degradation, and intensifying segregation and undermining the vitality of existing urban areas and attacked on aesthetic grounds. Due to the pejorative meaning of the term, few openly support urban sprawl as such. The term has become a rallying cry for managing urban.

According to the National Resources Inventory (NRI), about 8,900 square kilometres (2.2 million acres) of land in the United States was developed between 1992 and 2002. Presently, the NRI classifies approximately 100,000 more square kilometres (40,000 square miles) (an area approximately the size of Kentucky) as developed than the Census Bureau classifies as urban. The difference in the NRI classification is that it includes rural development, which by definition cannot be considered to be "urban" sprawl. Currently, according to the 2000 Census, approximately 2.6 percent of the U.S. land area is urban (Lubowski et al 2006). Approximately 0.8 percent of the nation's land is in the 37 urbanized areas with more than 1,000,000 populations. In 2002, these 37 urbanized areas supported around 40% of the total American population. U.S Demographic (2000) explained that some urban areas have expanded geographically even while losing population. But it was not just urbanized areas in the U.S. that lost population and sprawled substantially. According to data in "Cities and Automobile Dependence" by Kenworthy and Laube (1999), urbanized area population losses occurred while there was an expansion of sprawl between 1970 and 1990 in Amsterdam, the Netherlands, Brussels, Belgium; Copenhagen, Denmark; Frankfurt, Hamburg, Munich, Germany, and Zurich, Switzerland, albeit without the wholesale dismantling of public transit systems that occurred in the United States among others. At the same time, the urban cores of these and nearly all other major cities in the United States, Europe and Japan that did not annex new territory experienced the related phenomena of falling household size and,

particularly in the U.S., "white flight", sustaining population losses. This trend has slowed somewhat in recent years, as more people have regained an interest in urban living. Los Angeles was one of the world's first low density urbanized areas, resulting from its large geographic metropolitan area. Today, the area's near universal car ownership makes it a prominent example of sprawl. However, Los Angeles has become denser over the past half-century, principally due to small lot zoning and a high demand for housing due to population growth. Today, the greater Los Angeles metropolitan area is denser than any other in the country (Census Bureau U.S. 2013). Urban sprawl is not limited to developed countries, and may be more prevalent in developing countries. For example, there is considerable land consumed by urban sprawl in Mexico City in the National Capital Region that surrounds Delhi in Beijing, the new desert developments of October City and New Cairo to the west and east of Cairo (respectively), in Antananarivo (the capital of Madagascar), in Johannesburg and in eastern parts of South Africa. The international cases of sprawl often draw into question the definition of the term and what conditions are necessary for urban growth to be considered sprawl. In Mexico, for example, new housing development at the urban periphery is single-use but not low-density (Monkkonem 2010).

3.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF URBAN SPRAWL

The following characteristics are often associated with sprawl: Single-use development Single –use zoning .This refers to a situation where commercial residential, institutional and industrial areas are separated from one another. Consequently, large tracts of land are devoted to a single use and are segregated from one another by open space, infrastructure, or other barriers. As a result, the places where people live, work, shop, and recreate are far from one another, usually to the extent that walking, transit use and bicycling are impractical, so all these activities generally require an automobile (Frumkin 2002). The degree to which different land uses are mixed together is often used as an indicator of sprawl in studies of the subject (Bhatta 2010).

3.7 JOB SPRAWL AND SPATIAL MISMATCH

Job Sprawl is another land use symptom of urban sprawl and car-dependent communities. It is defined as low-density, geographically spread-out patterns of employment, where the majority of jobs in a given metropolitan area are located outside of the main city's Central Business District (CBD), and increasingly in the suburban periphery. It is often the result of

urban disinvestment, the geographic freedom of employment location allowed by predominantly car-dependent commuting pattern of many American suburbs, and many companies' desire to locate in low-density areas that are often more affordable and offer potential for expansion.

Spatial mismatch is related to job sprawl and economic environmental Justice. Spatial Mismatch is defined as the situation where poor urban, predominantly minority citizens are left without easy access to entry-level jobs, as a result of increasing job sprawl and limited transportation options to facilitate a reverse to the suburbs. Job sprawl has been documented and measured in various ways. It has been shown to be a growing trend in African and America's metropolitan areas. Stoll in (2005) defined job sprawl simply as jobs located more than 5-mile (8.0 km) radius from the CBD, and measured the concept based on year 2000 U.S. Census data (Michael Stoll 2005)

Other ways of measuring the concept with more detailed rings around the CBD include a 2001 article by Glaser Edward 2009) that argued that sprawling urban peripheries are gaining employment while areas closer to the CBD are losing jobs (Kneebone 2009). These two authors used three geographic rings limited to a 35-mile (56 km) radius around the CBD: 3 miles (4.8 km) or less, 3 to 10 miles (16 km), and 10 to 35 miles (56 km). Kneebone's study showed the following nationwide breakdown for the largest metropolitan areas in 2006: 21.3% of jobs located in the inner ring, 33.6% of jobs in the 3-10 mile ring, and 45.1% in the 10-35 mile ring. This compares to the year 1998 - 23.3%, 34.2%, and 42.5% in those respective rings. The study shows CBD employment share shrinking, and job growth focused in the suburban and exurban outer metropolitan rings. Low-density Sprawl is often characterized as consisting of low-density development (Chin 2002).

The exact definition of "low density sprawl" is arguable, but a common example is that of single family homes on large lots. Buildings usually have fewer stories and are spaced farther apart, separated by lawns, landscaping, roads or parking lots. Specific measurements of what constitutes low-density is culturally relative; for example, in the United States 2-4 houses per acre might be considered low-density while in the UK 8-12 would still be considered low-density(Chin op cit). The impact of low density development in many communities is that developed or "urbanized" land is increasing at a faster rate than the population is growing.

3.8 LEAPFROG DEVELOPMENT

Overall density is often lowered by "leapfrog development". This term refers to the relationship, or lack thereof, between subdivisions. Such developments are typically separated by large green belts, i.e. tracts of undeveloped land, resulting in an average density. This is a 20th and 21st century phenomenon generated by the current custom of requiring a developer to provide subdivision infrastructure as a condition of development (DeGrove et al 1991). Usually, the developer is required to set aside a certain percentage of the developed land for public use, including roads, parks and schools. In the past, when a local government built all the streets in a given location, the town could expand without interruption and with a coherent circulation system; because it had electricity enough power system. Private developers generally do not have such power (although they can sometimes find local governments willing to help), and often choose to develop on the tracts that happen to be for sale at the time they want to build, rather than pay extra or wait for a more appropriate location. Land for sprawl is often taken from fertile agricultural lands, which are often located immediately surrounding cities; the extent of modern sprawl has consumed a large amount of the most productive agricultural land which are converted to urban use (Krannich et al 2005), as well as forest and other wilderness areas.

3.9 FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO THE GROWTH OF URBAN AREAS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

There many factors that necessitate the growth of urban areas; these include among others, Natural increase/fertility, migration particularly rural-to-urban migration and boundary re-classification which mainly include a host of a political and city government decision to extend urban boundary to incorporate formerly categorized rural areas. Urban systems fundamental components are society (economic, culture, technology and political organization), and space (area, natural resources, accessibilities, climate, networks, and internal arrangement of land use). The United Nations postulated that slightly less than half of the world's population now resides in cities, and this is projected to rise to nearly 60% in the next 30 years. Urban development trends, also not only make the task of urban definition more difficult, they also challenge the underlying rationale for this.

The uncontrolled expansion of urban areas is causing a wide range of social and environmental problems and has become a major concern for urban planners and policy makers in the developed and developing world.

1. Rapid urbanization growth,
2. Continuous rural/urban migration,
3. Urban concentration in one or two primate cities,
4. Lack of infrastructure networks in urban areas and
5. Economic problems due to the failure of development policies and the burden of external debts.

3.10 FACTORS THAT AFFECT FUTURE OF URBAN SYSTEM

There are four main factors that are expected to affect the future of the urban systems. These according to them, are future population growth, industrial development, improvement of transportation facilities, and communication technology revolution.

1. Future Population Growth:

By the year 2100, world population is expected to reach 7.6, 8.5 and 9.4 billion according to low, medium and high population forecasting. 95% of the population increase will be in developing countries.

2. Industrial Development:

Industrialization will be responsible for satisfying the needs of the increased population regarding the shrinking role of agricultural sector. Information and processing industries will rapidly grow rather than extracting and mining industries.

3. Improvement of Transportation Facilities:

The remarkable development in transportation facilities has highly affected the concept of place. The impact of distance as a variable in defining regions will disappear. Regions and sectors of cities will be strongly linked with each other with modern, fast and secured untraditional transportation facilities, while giant urban agglomeration based on highly efficient transportation system will appear (Transit Metropolis).

4. Communication Technology Revolution:

Communication and information revolution is the main feature of the 21st century. The sense of place and time are dramatically changed due to this revolution which severely affects both way of life and urban population distribution. Urban settlements are

expected to be more separated and segregated depending on the efficiency of remote sensing and communication facilities. (Wheeler, 2000; Mitchell, 2000)

5. Identification of urban system:

Most frequently used evaluation of an urban area is its number of inhabitants. For administrative or political purpose, it may be relevant to identify a town or city with its official, non-physical limits and to consider each commune as a separate and autonomous entity. For geographical or systemic studies, a better definition is to aggregate within a single urban agglomeration all communes which are contiguous and whose urbanization usually result from the historical growth around older urban center.

6. Environmental Implications of Urban Systems:

Urban sprawl is associated with a number of negative environmental and public health outcomes, with the primary result being increased dependence on automobiles. These problems include flooding, which results from increased impervious surfaces for roads and parking; increased temperatures from heat islands, which leads to a significantly increased risk of mortality in elderly populations; decreases in natural areas and forests, and increased incidences of water pollution and water-borne disease. Due to the larger area consumed by sprawling suburbs compared to urban neighbourhoods, more farmland and wildlife habitats are displaced per resident. As forest cover is cleared and covered with impervious surfaces like concrete asphalt in the suburbs, rainfall is less effectively absorbed into the ground water aquifers (Frumkin 2002) This threatens both the quality and quantity of water supplies. Sprawl increases water pollution as rain water picks up gasoline, motor oil, heavy metals and other pollutants in run off from parking lots and roads. Sprawl fragments the land, which increases the risk of invasion species spreading into the remaining forest. Gordon & Richardson have argued that the conversion of agricultural land to urban use is not a problem due to the increasing efficiency of agricultural production; they argue that aggregate agricultural production is still more than sufficient to meet global food needs despite the expansion of urban land use (Gordon 1997). Sprawl leads to increased driving, and increased driving leads to vehicle emissions that contribute to air pollution and its attendant negative impacts on human health.

Results of numerous studies in the US by Environmental Health Committee Ontario 2004 shows that sprawling patterns of development leads to increased use of the private

automobile as the primary mode of transport. Low density levels, single purpose land usage, and poorly connected street networks are associated with more vehicle miles travelled (VMT), increased vehicle hours of travel (VHT), fewer transit trips, and greater vehicle. Air pollution affects health directly, while increased greenhouse houses emissions contribute to climate change, with numerous resulting negative effects on public health. Automobiles are a major source of air pollution. The existing research clearly indicates that serious public health problems will continue to escalate unless decisive and immediate action is taken to control urban sprawl and preserve sufficient green space, improve air quality, and protect water sources.

In the years following World War II, when vehicle ownership was becoming widespread, public health officials recommended the health benefits of suburbs due to soot and industrial fumes in the city centres. However, air in modern suburbs is not necessarily cleaner than air in urban neighborhoods. In fact, the most polluted air is on crowded highways, where people in suburbs tend to spend more time. On average, suburban residents generate more per capita pollution and carbon emissions than their urban counterparts because of their increased driving. The American Journal of Public Health and the American Journal of Health Promotion have both stated that there is a significant connection between sprawl, obesity, and hypertension (Mckee 2003). Many urbanists argue that this is due to less walking in sprawl-type developments. Living in a car centered culture forces inhabitants to drive everywhere, thus walking far less than their urban (and generally healthier) counterparts (Measuring Health Effect of Sprawl National Analysis of Physical Activity Obesity and Chronic Disease 2003). A heavy reliance on automobiles increases traffic throughout the city as well as automobile crashes, pedestrian injuries, and air pollution (De Ridder 2008). Motor vehicle crashes are the leading cause of death for Americans between the ages of five and twenty-four and is the leading accident-related cause for all age groups. Residents of more sprawling areas are at greater risk of dying in a car crash. Research covered in the Journal of Economic Issues and State and Local Government Review shows a link between sprawl and emergency medical services response and fire department response delays

Increased infrastructure/transportation costs living in larger; more spread out spaces generally makes public services more expensive. Since car usage becomes endemic and public transport often becomes significantly more expensive, city planners are forced to

build highway and parking infrastructure, which in turn decreases taxable land and revenue, and decreases the desirability of the area adjacent to such structures. Providing services such as water, and electricity is also more expensive per household in less dense areas (Snyder et al 1998). Residents of low-density areas spend a higher proportion of their income on transportation than residents of high density areas (Mccan 200). The RAC estimates that the average cost of operating a car in the UK is £5,000 a year, most of which stems from financing costs and depreciation (Guardian media group 2003). Urban sprawl may be partly responsible for the decline in social capital in the United States. Compact neighborhoods can foster casual social interactions among neighbours, while sprawl creates barriers. Sprawl tends to replace public spaces with private spaces such as fenced-in backyards. Critics of sprawl maintain that sprawl erodes quality of life. Duany and Plater-Zyberk (2001) believe that in traditional neighbourhoods the nearness of the workplace to retail and restaurant space that provides cafes and convenience stores with daytime customers is an essential component to the successful balance of urban life. Furthermore, they state that the closeness of the workplace to homes also gives people the option of walking or riding a bicycle to work or school and that without this kind of interaction between the different components of life the urban pattern quickly falls apart. James Howard Kunstler has argued that poor aesthetics in suburban environments make them "places not worth caring about", and that they lack a sense of history and identity. Urban sprawl has class and racial implications in many parts of the world; the relative homogeneity of many sprawl developments may reinforce class and racial divides through residential segregation.

Numerous studies link increased population density with increased aggression. Some people believe that increased population density encourages crime and anti-social behaviour. It is argued that human beings, while social animals, need significant amounts of social space or they become agitated and aggressive. However, the relationship between higher densities and increased social pathology has been largely discredited. According to Nancy Chin, a large number of effects of sprawl have been discussed in the academic literature in some detail; however, the most contentious issues can be reduced "to an older set of arguments, between those advocating a planning approach and those advocating the efficiency of the market. Those who criticize sprawl tend to argue that sprawl creates more problems than it solves and should be more heavily regulated, while proponents argue that markets are producing the economically most efficient settlements possible in most situations, even if

problems may exist (Chin, Nancy 2002). . However, some market oriented commentators believe that the current patterns of sprawl are in fact the result of distortions of the free market. Chin cautions that there is a lack of "reliable empirical evidence to support the arguments made either for or against sprawl." She mentions that the lack of a common definition, the need for more quantitative measures "a broader view both in time and space, and greater comparison with alternative urban forms" would be necessary to draw firmer conclusions and conduct more fruitful debates.(Chin 2002). Arguments opposing urban sprawl include concrete effects such as health and environmental issues as well as abstract consequences including neighbourhood vitality. American public policy analyst Randal O'Toole of the Cato Institute, a libertarian think tank, has argued that sprawl, thanks to the automobile, gave rise to affordable suburban neighbourhoods for middle class and lower class individuals, including non-whites. He notes that efforts to combat sprawl often result in subsidizing development in wealthier and whiter neighbourhoods while condemning and demolishing poorer minority neighbourhoods (O'Toole, Randal 2009).

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 1.2

Mention five factors that affect the future of urban system in any developing world.

3.11 ARGUMENT IN FAVOUR OF URBAN SPRAWL

One of the primary debates around suburban sprawl is the extent to which sprawl is the result of consumer preference. Some, such as Peter Gordon, a professor of planning and economics at the University of Southern California's School of Urban Planning and Development, argue that most households have shown a clear preference for low-density living and that this is a fact that should not be ignored by planners. Gordon and his frequent collaborator, Harry Richardson argued that "The principle of consumer sovereignty has played a powerful role in the increase in America's wealth and in the welfare of her citizens. Producers (including developers) have responded rapidly to households' demands. It is a giant step backward to interfere with this effective process unless the benefits of intervention substantially exceed its cost. (Gordon, Peter; Richardson, Harry 1998) They argue that sprawl generates enough benefits for consumers that they continue to choose it as a form of development over alternative forms, as demonstrated by the continued focus on sprawl type developments by most developers. However, other academics such as Reid Ewing argue that while a large segment of people prefer suburban living that does not mean that sprawl itself is preferred

by consumers, and that a large variety of suburban environments satisfy consumer demand, including areas that mitigate the worst effects of sprawl. Others, for example Kenneth T. Jackson (1985) have argued that since low-density housing is often subsidized in a variety of ways, consumers' professed preferences for this type of living may be over-stated.

Argument against Sprawl

The American Institute of Architects and American Planning Association recommend against sprawl and instead endorses smart, mixed-used development, including buildings in close proximity to one another that cut down on automobile use, save energy, and promote walkable, healthy, well-designed neighbourhoods. The Sierra Club, the San Francisco Bay Area's Greenbelt Alliance, 1000 Friends of Oregon and counterpart organizations nationwide, and other environmental organizations oppose sprawl and support investment in existing communities. Number USA, a national organization advocating immigration reduction, also opposes urban sprawl, and its executive director, Roy Beck, specializes in the study of this issue.

Automobile Dependency

Whether urban sprawl does increase problems of automobile dependency and whether conversely, policies of smart growth can reduce them have been fiercely contested issues over several decades. An influential study in 1989 by Peter Newman and Jeff Kenworthy compared 32 cities across North America, Australia, Europe and Asia. (Newman et al 1989) through which they found that denser cities, particularly in Asia, have lower car use than sprawling cities especially in North America which has been largely accepted although the relationship is clearer at the extremes across continents than it is within countries where conditions are more similar. According to them, within cities, studies from across many countries (mainly in the developed world) have shown that denser urban areas with greater mixture of land use and better public transport tend to have lower car use than less dense suburban and ex-urban residential areas.

This usually holds true even after controlling for socio-economic factors such as differences in household composition and income. (Fank, Land Pivot 1994) This does not necessarily imply that suburban sprawl causes high car use, however. One confounding factor, which has been the subject of many studies, is residential self-selection people who prefer to drive tend to move towards low density suburbs, whereas people who prefer to walk, cycle or use

transit tends to move towards higher density urban areas, better served by public transport. Some studies have found that, when self-selection is controlled for, the built environment has no significant effect on travel behaviour (Handy, S., Cao, X. and Mokhtarian, P.L. 2005). More recent studies using more sophisticated methodologies have generally refuted these findings: density, land use and public transport accessibility can influence travel behaviour, although social and economic factors, particularly household income, usually exert a stronger influence (Handy, S. 2005).

Those not opposed to low density development argue that traffic intensities tend to be less, traffic speeds faster and, as a result, ambient air pollution is lower. Kansas City, Missouri is often cited as an example of ideal low-density development, with congestion below the mean and home prices below comparable Midwestern cities. Wendell Cox and Randal O'Toole are leading figures supporting lower density development. Longitudinal (time-lapse) studies of commute times in major metropolitan areas in the United States have shown that commute times decreased for the period 1969 to 1995 even though the geographic size of the city. Melia S. (2011) found support for the arguments of both supporters and opponents of smart growth measures to counteract urban sprawl. Planning policies that increase population densities in urban areas do tend to reduce car use, but the effect is a weak one, so doubling the population density of a particular area will not halve the frequency or distance of car use. These findings led them to propose the paradox of intensification, which states: *Ceteris paribus*, urban intensification which increases population density will reduce per capita car use, with benefits to the global environment, but will also increase concentrations of motor traffic, worsening the local environment in those locations where it occurs.

Risk of increased housing prices

There is also some concern that anti-sprawl policies will increase housing prices. Some research suggests Oregon has had the largest housing affordability loss in the nation, but other research shows that Portland's price increases are comparable to other Western cities (Lewyn M 2005). In Australia, it is claimed by some that housing affordability has hit "crisis levels" due to "urban consolidation" policies implemented by state governments. According to Saunders, Peter (2005) in Sydney, the ratio of the price of a house relative to income is 9:1. The issue has at times been debated between the major political parties which Archer, Lincoln Kevin (2007) proposed alternatives.

Many critics concede that sprawl produces some negative externalities; however there is some dispute about the most effective way to reduce these negative effects. Gordon & Richardson for example argue that the costs of building new public transit is disproportionate to the actual environmental or economic benefits, that land use restrictions will increase the cost of housing and restrict economic opportunity, that infill possibilities are too limited to make a major difference to the structure of American cities, and that the government would need to coerce most people to live in a way that they do not want to in order to substantially change the impact of sprawl. They argue that the property market should be deregulated to allow different people to live as they wish, while providing a framework of market base fees (such as emission fees, congestion charging or road pricing) to mitigate many of the problems associated with sprawl such as congestion and increased pollution (Gordon, Peter;1998)

Alternative Development Styles

The term 'smart growth' has been particularly used in North America. The terms 'compact city' or 'urban intensification' are often used to describe similar concepts, in Europe and particularly the UK where it has influenced Government policy and planning practice in recent years. The state of Oregon enacted a law in 1973 limiting the area urban areas could occupy, through urban growth boundaries. As a result, Portland, the state's largest urban area, has become a leader in smart growth policies that seek to make urban areas more compact (they are called urban consolidation policies). After the creation of this boundary, the population density of the urbanized area increased somewhat (from 1,135 in 1970 U.S. Urbanized 1950-1990 to 1,290 per km² in 2000).

While the growth boundary has not been tight enough to vastly increase density, the consensus is that the growth boundaries have protected great amounts of wild areas and farmland around the metro area. Many parts of the San Francisco Bay Area have also adopted urban growth boundaries; 25 of its cities and five of its counties have urban growth boundaries. Many of these were adopted with the support and advocacy of Greenbelt Alliance, a non-profit land conservation and urban planning organization. In other areas, the design principles of District Regionalism and New Urbanism have been employed to combat urban sprawl. The concept of Circulation flow land use management has been developed in Europe to reduce land take by urban sprawl through promoting inner-city and brown field

development. While cities such as Los Angeles are well known for sprawling suburbs, policies and public opinion are changing.

Transit-oriented development, in which higher-density mixed-use areas are permitted or encouraged near transit stops is encouraging more compact development in certain areas—particularly those with light and heavy rail transit systems. Bicycles are the preferred means of travel in many countries. Also, bicycles are permitted in public transit. Businesses in areas of some towns where bicycle use is high are thriving. Bicycles and transit are contributing in two important ways toward the success of businesses. First, is that on average the people living the closest to these business districts have more money to spend locally because they don't spend as much on their cars. Second, because these people rely more on bicycling, walking and transit than on driving, they tend to focus more of their commerce on locally owned neighborhood businesses that are convenient for them to reach. Walkability is a measure of how friendly an area is to walking. Walkability has many health, environmental, and economic benefits. However, evaluating walkability is challenging because it requires the consideration of many subjective factors. Factors influencing walkability include the presence or absence and quality of footpaths, sidewalks or other pedestrian right-of-ways, traffic and road conditions, land use patterns, building accessibility, and safety, among others. Walkability is an important concept in sustainable urban designs. (Grignffini 2008)

Self-Assessment exercise (SAE) 1.3

Explain the argument for and against urban sprawl

3.12 ALTERNATIVE DEVELOPMENT STYLES

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4.0 CONCLUSION

To conclude this module let us consider urban agglomerate, which may simply refer to a large number of people living in cities or towns. Urban sprawl is the result of an expansion

of the daily urban system. The difference between an agglomeration of an urban area and the daily urban system is that an agglomeration is a multivariate means of combining townships, counties, and other defined areas. It looks at shared economic relationships and other factors. Pumain (2003), believes that towns and cities have expanded all over the world for more than eight thousands years. The size of these permanent resident population ranges today, from a few thousands to tens of millions inhabitants residing in them. The number of cities in a given territory is always in an inverse geometrical progression of their size (for instance, there are about 23 000 urban agglomerations larger than 10 000 inhabitants in the world, 2000 are larger than 100 000 inhabitants and about 200 above 1 million, after Moriconi-Ebrard, 1993).

This persistent scaling behavior has been questioned for more than one century, giving rise to a large variety of interpretations. Are the scaling effects observed in urban systems produced by the hierarchical organization of societies? Are they generated by purely random processes, a mere product of laws of large numbers? Are they the possibly involuntary result of some not totally conscious social rules? Are they constrained by physical and/or social rules, according to some optimization or ordering principles? Are they emergent properties linked with the historical process of urbanization? Could they disappear after the end of the urban transition? From the above it becomes pretty obvious that to define an urban entity is a difficult problem, because towns and cities can receive a variety of social meanings.

They are usually considered as a permanent grouping of resident population on a small quantity of land, but no universal threshold of population density can be associated to the definition of a town for differentiating urban from rural settlements. Most of the time, urban features are associated to non-agricultural activities, but the urban portfolio has considerably evolved over time with further progress of social division of labour. Several factors have been claimed to be at the historical origin of towns and cities, either religious centers versus places for political and military control, or market places commercializing local surplus of agricultural activities versus central nodes in networks of long distance trade.

The hypothetical purposes or advantages associated to the grouping of population and activities are considered to be of a social character (since proximity permits the maximization of social interaction and therefore, by increasing the probability of encounters, favours the emergence of innovation); economic (since urban agglomeration generate economies of different kinds (scale economies, market economies and sharing of urban

infrastructures); or cultural (since symbolic representation and mimetic behaviour may explain why people gather in urban places). Probably all three of these explanations are at least partially valid, and this fact entitles urban settlements to be considered as complex systems! Certainly in the end, a general explanation of urban systems would have to rely on a given social significance and on explicit social processes.

In the United States, urban citizens tend to include white-collar workers, artists and students. Those who live in cities are typically more favorable to environmental causes and less religious than those who live in rural areas. A social problem is any issue that a group of people sees as being undesirable for the entire community. The group of people who identify and name the problem do not necessarily have to constitute all or even a majority of the entire community, only a significant number out of the whole population. Sometimes this leads to conflict between groups

Social problems refer to a large group of issues that community members may feel negatively affects a certain population. An issue that affects only one individual is not a social problem. An issue that occurs only once is a social problem. For example, if a young person has a party and plays loud music, a sleepy neighbor cannot claim that this incident is a social problem. However, the incident may reflect what many community members identify as a social problem. The loud music played at the party reflects the lack of respect for elders among younger people, evident in the loud music late at night. Some social problems are identified by the whole population, like crime and war. Social problems must be identified by their geographic location and boundaries, a particular offending person or group, and an identifiable, injurious problem.

However, the research cannot embrace at once the entire semantic field of urban reality. Observations of regularities in urban systems have tempted some researchers to reduce it to simpler measures, especially of urban size. The size of a town or city is a rather synthetic indicator, which can be correlated with many aspects of city functions and urban life.

5.0 SUMMARY

They argued that an urban system may be defined as any network of interdependent urban places in which any significant change in one system will have consequences for other cities in the system. Cities are systems in which multiple components are assembled to deliver the best possible conditions for human growth. Human growth here understood as increase in material, cultural and human assets that contribute to better and longer lives of its inhabitants.

Urban system represents the frame within which urban settlements are organized and how they interact with each other regarding their size and functions. Like other concepts in political science the concept of urban system eludes comprehensive definition. Urban cities render services, their sociological criteria, and ensures settlement continuum' which makes it difficult to draw a clear divide line between urban and rural areas, as well as the elusiveness of the term "urban" which keeps on changing with social development over time.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

1. Mention and explain five features of urban system
2. Explain the factors that affect the growth and future of urban system
3. Discuss leapfrog development style
4. Explain alternative development
5. Distinguish between urban sprawl and urban agglomerate

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE TWO

UNIT 1: DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN URBAN AND RURAL SYSTEMS

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main content

3.1 Human settlement

3.2 Key differences between the urban and rural areas

3.3 Types of rural settlements patterns

3.4 Highlights Ten major distinctions between Rural and Urban communities

3.5 Rural – urban linkages

3.6 Traditional stereotypical differences between Urban and Rural systems.

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assessment

7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In our last study session, we discussed the meaning and features of urban systems, in it we learnt the definitions of urban systems, factors that contribute to the growth of urban areas and factors affecting the future of the urban system amongst others. In this lecture we are going to study the difference between the urban and the rural systems. The lecture will be divided into three sessions. The first session will describe urban system, the second will describe rural system and the third session will deal with the relationship/ link between the urban and the rural. Please pay attention to the details and discover why a certain place will be regarded as urban and another rural and also to their functions.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the study you should be able to:

- Mention and explain at least five distinctions between urban and rural systems
- Explain rural and urban linkages

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 HUMAN SETTLEMENT

According to Gulbahar, a human settlement is defined as a place inhabited more or less permanently. It includes buildings in which they live or use and the paths and streets over which they travel. It also includes the temporary camps of the hunters and herders. It may consist of only a few dwelling units called hamlets or big cluster of buildings called urban cities. There are the two different types of Human settlements classified on the basis of size and function? These are urban settlements and rural settlement: In the urban settlement the chief occupation of the people is non-agricultural i.e. industry, trade and services. The major function of an urban area are trades and commerce, transport and communication, mining and manufacturing, defense, administration, cultural and recreational activities.

The Population density in urban settlement is high and the settlement size is large. In the Rural settlements: The people are chiefly concerned with primary activities such as agriculture, mining, fishing, forestry etc. Most of the people of rural settlement are engaged in agricultural work. The major function of rural settlement is agriculture and each settlement specializes in various activities. Population density is small and the settlement size is small. Settlement is classified into urban and rural, but there is no consensus: Population size is small in rural settlement than urban settlements but it is not a universally applied because many villages of India and China have population exceeding that of some towns of Western Europe and United States. Facilities available in the villages of developed countries may be considered rare in villages of developing and less developed countries. For example Petrol pumps are considered as a rural function in the United States while it is an urban function in India.

3.2 TYPES OF RURAL SETTLEMENT PATTERNS

The pattern of rural settlements is influenced by the site of the village, the surrounding topography and terrain. i. On the basis of setting: The main types are of villages are Plain villages, b. Plateau villages, Coastal villages, Forest villages and Desert villages. On the basis of functions: There may also be a Farming village, Fishermen's villages, Mechanic village and Pastoral villages etc. On the basis of forms or shapes of the settlements: These may be a number of geometrical forms and shapes such as: Linear pattern: In such settlements houses are located along a road, railway line, and river, canal edge of a valley or along a levee. Rectangular pattern: Such patterns of rural settlements are found in plain areas or wide inter-montane valleys. The roads are rectangular and cut each other at right angles. c. Circular pattern: Circular villages develop around lakes, tanks and sometimes the village is planned in such a way that the central part remains open and is used for keeping the animals to protect them from wild animals. Suryaveer Singh (2009). Star like pattern: Where several roads converge, star shaped settlements develop by the houses built along the roads.

The term "urban" includes land areas, populations and housing developments located in urbanized areas, such as cities and towns or urban clusters, while "rural" refers to territory, populations and housing units located outside urbanized areas or clusters. Urban areas or urban centers feature densely populated landscapes, and typically have census-determined population densities of more than 1,000 residents per square mile. Rural areas, in contrast, generally have fewer than 500 people per square mile, and fall outside the borders of urbanized areas as well as urban clusters and their surrounding census blocks. Despite the continued spread of towns and cities, the UK geographic landscape is still predominantly rural. Whichever classification is used, for all four countries in the UK, less than one third of the land area is classified as urban (Pateman 2011).

However, at least 60 per cent of the population is concentrated in these smaller urban areas. The topographic differences between town and country might be expected to be very different. Most people have a clear impression of what the cities, towns and countryside look like in the UK, both physically and in terms of the lives of the people who live there. Some people also believe that there is quantitative evidence that rural areas are better off than urban areas on a number of different measures, such as unemployment and crime, but there are substantial differences within both rural and

urban areas. In a few respects rural areas are worse off. Analysis indicates that house prices are less affordable to local workers in rural areas than urban areas and the costs, travel time and carbon emissions resulting from transport tend to be higher in rural areas. Using classifications that show sparse areas of England, some topics, such as incomes and qualifications, show ‘two countryside’ experiences for their residents. Transport and access to services are the most obvious areas for study, and this chapter looks at the differences between the urban and the rural areas. Probing whether barriers exist (in which case differences might be divisive), or whether people appear to be moving freely, in which case differences could be argued to represent genuine diversity and choice.

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 1.2

Describe a rural and urban society

3.3 KEY DIFFERENCE BETWEEN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS

According to Urban society's index there are ten major differences between the urban and rural areas. Urban areas are defined by faster lifestyle, increased technology and high population density. Rural areas are defined by small-tight knit community, with lack of technology and resources. Human settlement areas are classified depending on lot of things, countries, state, rural, urban, etc. In today's norms, where you live defines the type of person you are. The most common way to classify a residential area is according to urban and rural. If a place is considered as urban or rural varies depending on country and nations. However, almost all countries agree that in order for a place to classify as urban, it requires having less space between structures and population level must be high.

Urban areas are characterized by having higher population density and vast human features compared to the surrounding areas. Cities, towns are commonly referred to as urban areas. It must also have ongoing urbanization for further development. Metropolitan cities, which include satellite cities, are also considered as urban places. Urban areas have also been characterized by high amounts of pollution (noise and air), large-scale industrialization and faster lifestyles. Pollution in urban areas is high due to the large amount of people, cars, buses, train, factories etc. Industrialization includes factories, machines and offices. It also has a higher employment rate compared to rural areas. Lifestyle

in urban areas is considered to be fast paced, where time for little things are not enjoyed. People are often depicted as workaholics or having an active social life. Urbanization also includes having more advanced technology and science, where hospitals have more advanced machinery and people have smart phones, tablets, laptops, desktops, etc. Pertaining to, or characteristic of the country, country life, or country people; rustic: rural tranquility, the rural population refers to that part of the country pertaining to agriculture.

Rural economy areas are characterized with having small, tight-knit communities. For example in gatherings or shows, where everyone knows everyone else, well that's a rural community. Villages or small towns are considered to be rural areas. People know each other and are neighbors, friends, etc. Rural areas are classified according to their small population and having farming abilities. Many people in rural areas are considered to be farmers. Rural areas are more dependent on natural resources and organic materials. They have small stores and family run business, compared to the big supermarkets in urban areas. Many governments have also taken an active part in trying to further urbanize more rural areas and provide extra help in forms of technology, medical and other resources. Rural areas are more community based people and depend on social gatherings and other similar events. Rural places also have pollution due to lack of large factories.

3.4 DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN RURAL AND URBAN COMMUNITIES

Some characteristic features that differentiate between urban and rural settings are as follows:

1. In the rural society there is very little scope for occupational mobility, while in the cities there are many occupations, so occupational mobility are as well as frequent.
2. In the rural villages the family played a very significant and predominant role. Its hold is very strong.
3. In the cities hold of families is not strong, and many functions which the families used to perform have been taken away by other institutions and associations.

4. In villages there is no fast changes and as such no necessity for social adaptability. In the cities there must be fast mobility and adaptability to suit ever changing fast life.
5. In the rural society culture is very deep rooted. Everyone loved culture and heritage above everything else. In the cities it is difficult to find pure culture.
6. In the rural society there is no division of labour while as in the urban community there is always division of labour and specialization in job allotment.
7. Rural society does not give due and proper respect to the womenfolk; in urban communities women enjoy comparatively high status.
8. In the rural society people love nature and nature bounties, in urban communities, people have no time to stand and gaze at the nature.
9. The people in the rural communities are religiously minded and afraid of gods and goddesses
10. Here in the rural community there are very few chances of providing employment and incentives to the unemployed by the society, while as those in the urban cities are religiously minded but are more materialistic. The cities provide both incentive and employment to the people and thus frustrated village find solace in the cities which respects ability and judges their worth.(urban-societies/23390/)

The debate on the rural/urban dichotomy continuously result in various definitions of what is rural and what is urban. Much of the development debate of the last 4/5 decades have been centered on the changing relationship between agriculture and industry (the rural and the urban respectively), and the current allocation of investment between the two sectors. (Tacoli, 1998). Bell (1992) reinforces this argument earlier when he argued that the difference between a country life (rural) and city life (urban) may only be true in the mind. The necessity to define the rural system vis-a-vis urban is important for shaping development policies that have long term consequences for both rural and urban areas. This, according to Wilkenson (1992) as quoted in Theodoropoulos (2000), arises from the concern that rural problems may cause societal instability. (Theodoropoulos, 2000).

Scholars generally believe the rural sector contains most of the poverty and most of the low cost resources of potential advance, while the urban sector contains most of the articulateness, organizations and power. The criticism to this notion is on its exclusion of the urban poor and the rural rich. (Dhital, 2004). Isserman (2005) stressed that the criteria used to characterize an area as rural or not are numerous. These include the size of population, geographical unit, population density, commuting distance, share of agriculture, among others. (Isserman 2005). Bengs & Schmid-Thone (2006) based the differentiation on high/low degree of urban influence (measured by density, urban size) and high/medium/low degree of human intervention (measured by land cover). (Bengs & Schmid-Thone, 2006). Coombes (2004) as quoted in Champion (2008) also see settlement size as important for classifying urban and rural areas. Thus settlement size, intensity or concentrations of settlements, accessibility to services are criteria used to measure related but different aspect of urbanization. (Champion, 2008). Stauber (2001) divides rural America into four (4) categories based on devising settlement typologies of their own as urban periphery, sparsely populated, high amenity and high poverty (Stauber, 2001).

However, the US bureau view urbanized areas as those with an urban nucleus of 50,000 or more people with a core having a population density of 1000 persons per square mile and adjoining territory with at least 500 people per square mile. Urban clusters have populations of more than 2500 and less than 50,000. The rest of the country that is not urban, open country and settlements fewer than 2500 people is defined as rural. (Dabson, 2007). Isserman (2005) designated as rural that which is not urban. Rural is simply defined as homogenous with respect to not being urban. (Isserman, 2005). The continued division today between 'urban' and 'rural' is based on the assumption that the physical distinction between the two areas is self-explanatory and uncontroversial. However, there are three major problems with this view.

The first is that demographic and economic criteria used to define what is 'urban' and what is 'rural' can vary widely between nations, therefore, making generalizations problematic. For example, Asia remains a predominantly 'rural' continent, with two-thirds of its population living in rural areas in 1990. However, if both India and China were to change their definition of urban centers to one based on a relatively low population threshold of 2,000 or 2,500 inhabitants as used by many Latin American

and European nations, a large proportion of their population would change from 'rural' to 'urban'. A second problem is that of the definition of urban boundaries, and The third problem in the definition of the boundaries between 'rural' and 'urban' areas is the fact that urban residents and enterprises depend on an area significantly larger than the built-up area for basic resources and ecological function. This concept makes clear the dependence of any city on the resources and ecological functions of an area considerably larger than itself (although urban areas with limited industrial bases and with most of their population having low incomes will have much smaller and generally more local ecological footprints than large and prosperous cities). (Tacoli, 2004).

Rural System:

As evident in conceptualization of the urban system, the rural system is devolved of a single definition. However, it is generally defined negatively as not being urban or agglomerated. The rural system is viewed as a spatial concept that deals with the conditions and trends, as well as the options and opportunities in an area. Brun (1994) argued that the quantitative threshold for defining the borderline of rural areas vis-a-vis urban varies considerably. In France for instance, communities are characterized as rural when they have less than 2000 agglomerated inhabitants Rural areas in the US is seen as low density/ small towns in non-metro areas which relies on agriculture and have a traditional way of life. (Long, 1994). Rural areas are characterized by a more personal and intimate web of social relationships which is lacking in urban areas. Thus, if rural and urban areas are defined as people who identify and interact with one another, then the amount of interaction and the reason for the growth or decline in interaction becomes important. According to Scott et al, (2007) rural areas can be identified in five dimensions

- i. Negative to urban. That is not urban
- ii. Low population density
- iii. Extensive land use
- iv. Primary economic activity and employment
- v. Community cohesion and governance. These definitions are in continuous change from time to time in order to reflect changes in the socio economic administrative structures of mobility and communication. The organization

of economic corporation and development (OECD) proposed that an area is rural when its population density is below 150 inhabitants per square kilometer.

Based on this, Theodoropoulos (2000), in making a distinction between rural and urban areas postulated 3 typology of region viz:

- i. Predominantly rural
 - ii. Significantly rural
 - iii. Predominantly urban Regions are predominantly rural when more than 50% of the population lives in rural community. It is significantly rural when 15% to 50% of the population lives in rural communities, and predominantly urbanized when less than 15% of the population is characterized as rural.
- Gade (1992) classified rural/urban areas into four. These four typologies is based on functional or spatial differences in development as Braun (2007) view rural as referring to remote farming areas and urban as crowded cities. To a large extent, this view has facilitated the isolation treatment of issues affecting each space. In reality, the rural and urban areas coexist along a continuum with multiple types of flows and interactions happening between these two spaces. The distinction between rural and urban territories is also insufficient to characterize some communities and overlook the multi layered connection between rural and urban areas.

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 2.2

Give five major distinctions between rural and urban societies

3.5 RURAL-URBAN LINKAGES

The rural and urban sectors are also interconnected economically, financially, and socially. The relationship between urban and rural sectors in many developing countries is still characterized by an economic dualism, in other words, by the coexistence of a modern sector and a traditional rural sector. This duality occurs as a result of the transfer of resources and labour surpluses from the traditional (rural) sectors to the modern (urban) sectors. This development strategy favors the development and growth of the urban sector at the expense of the rural sector. (Fan et

al, 2005). Rural–urban linkages include flows of agricultural and other commodities from rural based producers to urban markets, both for local consumers and for forwarding to regional, national and international markets; and, in the opposite direction, flows of manufactured and imported goods from urban centers to rural settlements.

They also include flows of people moving between rural and urban settlements, either commuting on a regular basis, for occasional visits to urban-based services and administrative centers, or migrating temporarily or permanently. Flows of information between rural and urban areas include information on market mechanisms from price fluctuations to consumer preferences – and information on employment opportunities for potential migrants. Financial flows include, primarily, remittances from migrants to relatives and communities in sending areas, and transfers such as pensions to migrants returning to their rural homes, and also investments and credit from urban-based institutions. (Tacoli, 2004) Rondinelli (1985) as quoted in Dhital (2004) cites different types of rural- urban linkages, namely:

- i. Demographic or population linkages: linkages involving migration, journey of work, etc.
- ii. Physical or spatial linkage: involving road, water, and air transport networks, ecological interdependence.
- iii. Service delivery linkage: involves credit/financial and extension service network, education, health and other rural service delivery systems, etc
- iv. Social interaction linkage: visiting, kinship pattern, religious activities and social group interaction.
- v. Technological linkages: technological interdependence, irrigation and telecommunication system
- vi.** Political administration and organizational linkages. (Dhital, 2004)

3.5 Traditional Stereotypical Differences between Urban and Rural Systems

DIMENSION	RURAL	URBAN
1. Economy	Primary industry sector and supporting activities dominant	Secondary and tertiary sectors dominant
2. Employment	Agriculture, forestry and industry occupations	Manufacturing, construction, administration and services
3. Education	Lower than national average	Higher than national average
4. Service accessibility	Low	High
5. Information accessibility	Low	High
6. Sense of community	High	Low
7. Demography	High fertility and mortality	Low fertility and mortality
8. Political views	Conservative and resistant to change	Liberal and radical elements more strongly represented
9. Ethnicity	Homogenous	Varied
10. Migration	Low: generally net migration	High; generally net migration

Source: Scott et al (2007)

4.0 CONCLUSION

Often time, new contextual and exogenous conditions cause changes in the opportunities for rural-urban linkages as well as the intensification of such linkages. This can be referred to as Causes of Change in Urban –Rural linkages. Elements of the changing conditions include.

- (a) Increasing trade and capital flows which prompt rapid changes in the agriculture and food system as urban consumers increasingly influence the nature and level of interactions among the various stakeholders in the agro-food chain.
- (b) The information revolution, as more and more rural communities benefit from enhanced access to communications technologies that carry relevant information and facilitate new market institutions and services; and

(c) Increasingly decentralized governance: structures across the developing world, as national governments and policymakers, as well as private investors, are involved in regional development and interregional competitiveness. Lagging regions: Rural areas that have not yet evolve completely

- i. Declining regions: Areas that evolved but are unable to compete effectively and thus, experience decline
- ii. Competitive regions: Areas that express conditions of urbanity and modernization. And
- iii. Specialized regions: Areas with a unique economic activity like mining, forestry, tourism, etc. (Gade, 1992).

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 2.3

Explain urban-rural linkages

5.0 SUMMARY

The differentiation on high/low degree of urban influence (measured by density, urban size) and high/medium/low degree of human intervention as (measured by land cover) as rural that which is not urban. Rural is simply defined as homogenous with respect to not being urban. The continued division today between 'urban' and 'rural' is based on the assumption that the physical distinction between the two areas is self-explanatory and uncontroversial. This is another important determinant of diversity between rural and urban area. Rural areas face different problems based on their relative location with respect to urban areas. For example, rural areas close to urban areas could experience problem such as over use by recreation with increase land value and damages by vandals, etc while rural areas far away from urban areas could face problems of high transportation cost, lack of hospitals and services, etc yet the urban and the rural reinforces and needs each other.

7.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

1. Differentiate between urban and rural system.
2. Mention and explain the linkages between the urban and the rural.
3. Explain comprehensive planning.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE THREE

UNIT 1 PLANNING AND EXECUTION OF MAJOR SERVICES IN URBAN POLITICAL SYSTEM

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main content
 - 3.1 What is Urban Planning
 - 3.2 Requirement for successful Urban planning
 - 3.3 Approaches to affordability
 - 3.4 Providing Social services in an urban system
 - 3.5 Implementation and execution of urban plan
 - 3.6 Comprehensive planning process
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor Marked Assessment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this module you are going to learn about planning and execution of major services in urban political system. Urban politics is politics in and about urban systems. This refers to the diverse political structure that occurs in urban areas where there is diversity in both race and socio-economic status. Urban politics is political science that falls into the field of urban studies, which incorporates many aspects of cities, suburbs, and urbanization. This includes such topics as: The structure of political power, Race, ethnic, class, and gender relations in cities and suburbs as well as politics of space and spatial relationships. The ongoing urbanization of the world is sometimes portrayed as a sort of natural process, as determined by economics or something else beyond the control of humans. As the previous modules this module will also be divided into sub-units for better understanding.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the study you should be able to:

- Explain urban Planning
- Describe planning and execution of major services in urban political system
- Explain processes of comprehensive planning
- Mention three requirements for successful urban Planning processes

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

The study of urban politics reveals a different truth altogether; that the process of urbanization is itself is inherently political. To study urban politics is to study what happens on the ground, among people who share the same space for day-to-day living. This makes the study of urban politics particularly challenging and difficult to analyze. The Marxist approach to urban politics conceptualized the city as a geographical entity produced and reproduced through capitalism, not as a neutral vessel in which autonomous local politics took place.' Marx considered any time spent on questioning the "organization, motivation and power of urban elites and managers" as a distraction from the direct acts that moved advanced capital. "Marx commentators reconceptualised the city as a site of capitalist oppression, where the agents of capital acted to produce favourable conditions for capital accumulation but also as a site of conflict, which is both produced by and helps sustain capitalism." (Jones 100). Interior borders can affect the metropolis. In ancient Greece the drawn boundaries were intangible.

To be born in the city was more than to be within a boundary, it was to be a citizen of that territory. The politics of the ancient Greeks restricted women, slaves, foreigners, and men under age eighteen from citizenship (Toothman). With citizenship came added powers, including the right to participate in politics. A city needs trade and uses roads for the transportation of its traded goods. The necessary tracks upon which these roads run are borders themselves. It is ideal to minimize these internal physical divisions of the city for they can lead to social divisions and worse problems following that. Just think, the land closely surrounding the roads is now of a lower

value. This means that it will sell cheap and appeal to the poorer citizen. With lower income owners flocking to this track area this may encourage other groups to move around as well, maybe outside the city to the suburbs. Jacobs (258) stressed that the city can be a metaphor for history or futurity, and established traditional structure or a fluid space of evolutionary possibility and hopeful excess." (Owens 300) This daunting task of steering the massive vessel forward or behind is left to our politicians and the populace through policy, trade, production, safety and the many more workings of urban politics.

The problem of providing infrastructure and services to the burgeoning population in most urban political systems as a result of continuous urban population growth is mind boggling and seems impossible to resolve within existing resources available to them. For example, In 1992 Cousin argued that the population of Cairo in 1980 was 2.5 million; in 1989 it was 8.5 million and is projected to be 12.9 million in the year 2000. This means that in a period of 20 years, in order to provide even the same level of services to the population as was provided in 1980, the infrastructural and service capacity of the city of Cairo will have had to be increased more than five times. Mexico City is the most striking example. In 1950 the population was 3.19 million and will have increased almost tenfold to an expected 31 million people by the year 2000. He went on to state that in 1950, 17 per cent of the total world population was urban, By 1980 the proportion had grown to 30.7 per cent, and by the year 2000 it is expected to be 43.7 per cent. In the 21st century more than half the world's population will be urban.

3.1 URBAN PLANNING

Urban planning is the process of programming the coordination of the direction of the structure and pattern of development in growth and management of urban settlement with the goal of ensuring that all necessary land –use needs (including economic, social. environmental. institutional, cultural, recreational needs), for all socio-economic population groups in the society are provided for in compatible and symbiotic relationships and densities. By varying the category and range of permitted activities from place to place within the urban context, urban planning ensures that

there is a place for every what-while activity while keeping away noxious activities from residential areas, thus protecting and safeguarding public health.

Alternatively, town planning is a deliberate ordering by public authority of physical arrangements of towns or parts of towns in order to promote their efficient and equitable functioning as economic and social units and to create an aesthetically pleasing the environment . The process of urban planning as envisaged here is one of macro city – wide scope and coverage than micro/ sectional or neighbourhood planning activities that may form part of a stage implementation of city- wide plan. Conventional and formal urban planning practice in Anglophone (Sub-Saharan) African countries was largely of British colonial creation and much of urban planning legislation in the region derived from succession of British Town Planning Legislation/Acts and their revision throughout the 12th century.

Earlier British colonial town planning legislations with the general objective to control urban expansion and provide for slum clearance and renewal were enacted in British colonies with strong settlers’ activities and potential for inter-communal conflicts. (Home1997). Efforts to effectively “manage” urban growth in the urban system have increased along with the increasing complexity of the urban growth challenge hence; zoning regulations were the principal tool deployed to ensure that land development met public goals. Along with continued urban growth, however, an increase in its adverse consequences, which includes the loss of open space and agricultural land, inefficient provision of public infrastructure and services, is deteriorating environmental quality, etc. As these impacts increased, so too has the public’s concern about them, bringing demands for a broader range of instruments to manage urban growth. (Zegras&Gakenheimer, 2000)

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 3.1

Give a definition of urban planning

3.2 Requirements for Successful Urban Planning

There has been substantive research into the requirements for successful urban planning. This reveals many layers of requirements, ranging from the more to less important, and some context dependent. First is the recognition that projects are commonly developed dysfunctional. In simple terms there is a ‘planning’ stage that takes the project to the stage of commitment; followed by ‘implementation’ and ‘operations’. These stages are usually discontinuous; involve different parties and different skill-sets. The result is an absence of continuity in thinking or personnel, and little attention to the needs of the project development process as a whole. (Bhattacharjee, 2009). There are some conditions that may determine the success or failure of city development planning. We will discuss some of these factors in a short while.

The failure to focus upon the operational phase is one consequence of this approach. There is the need for ‘context’ for major project development. This concerns the land use and transport system of which the project is to be part. Predictability has huge implications for project success; conversely a vacuum here may fatally undermine success. For example, when a planned new town fails to materialize or competing project takes expected demand (Jiboye, 2011). City authorities commonly develop city plans, transport strategies and the like, but too often these do not influence what happens, and indeed may be counter-productive engendering a false sense of security. Such plans should also confront affordability, just as the saying goes ‘we can implement only what we can afford’ (i.e. what can be funded). While financing arrangement can improve affordability today it does not increase funding – it simply postpones repayment until tomorrow.

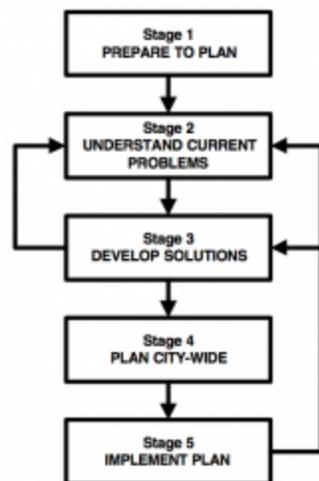
Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 3.2

Explain major requirements for successful urban Planning

3.3 APPROACHES TO AFFORDABILITY

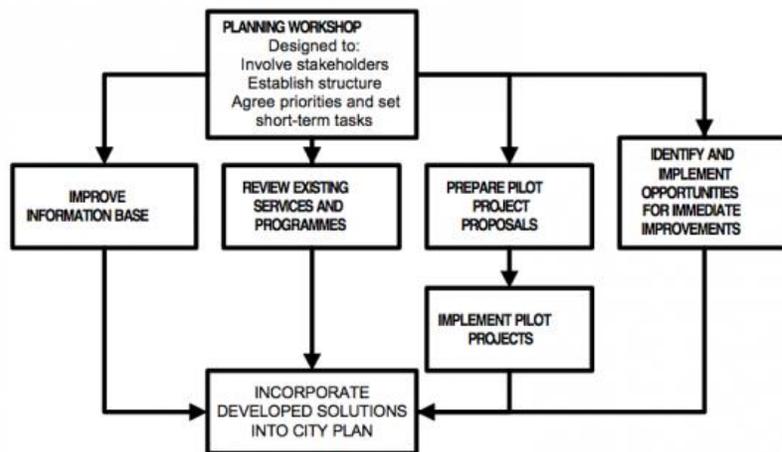
The approach to affordability usually combines public sector funding with private sector financing; but rarely do transport plans do this with any rigour. In short the necessary context for project development is often flawed. These issues do not go away; they remain as a future source of risk. In the planning and execution of major services in the urban political system, Allport et al (2008), identified six factors that are considered likely to influence its success, namely:

The project environment, and its turbulence evidenced by show-stopper events and ‘windows of opportunity’. Good infrastructure planning and transport planning – providing a sound basis for the commitment decision. Good procurement and funding structure in place at the appropriate time – a strong financial structure (providing survivability), a contract that incentivizes effective delivery and good operations, realistic risk allocation and competition and strong operator contract that permits proactive management of the operational business (Allport et al, 2008). The planning and execution process as adapted from Tayler et al. (2000), argues that the planning and execution of major services in the urban political system follows a logical sequence which include among other variables, preparing to plan; understanding current problems; developing solutions; plan city wide; and the plan implementation stage.

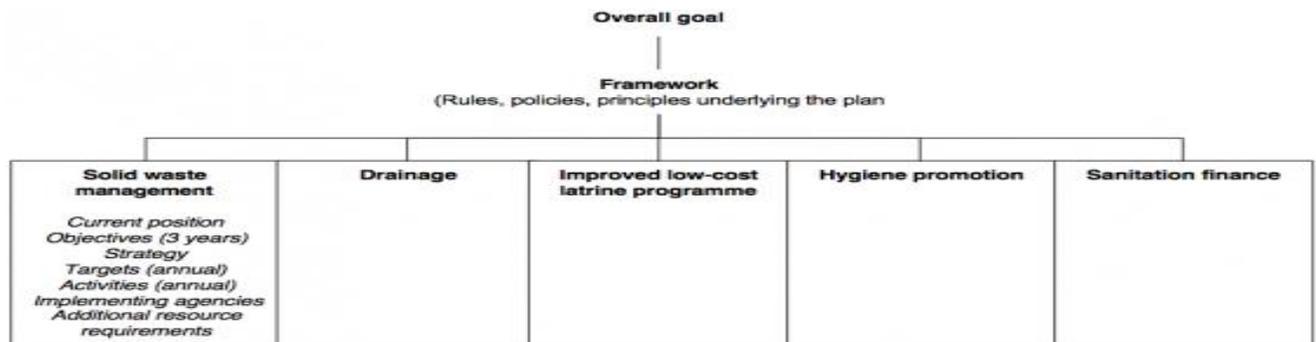


Source: Tayler et al. (2000)

It will only be possible to develop a plan if there is general agreement on the need to plan. Therefore, in a **first step**, various groups with an interest must be talked to, where necessary convinced of the benefits that they will gain from participating in and drawn into the planning process. The **second stage** will involve an analysis of the current problems and their causes. The following basic questions can help to explore and understand the current problems: Who is responsible for existing services? What Problems do we face? What are the causes of those problems? What resources are available to solve them? **The third stage** in planning and execution is the Developing Solutions where an improved information base is developed, including improved maps and records where appropriate; a review specific services and programmes in order to obtain more detailed information on specific problems identified in the course of the previous stage; and the Pilot projects to test ideas, approaches and technologies before they are introduced on a citywide scale. Because of their relatively small scale, pilot projects can be prepared and implemented fairly quickly.



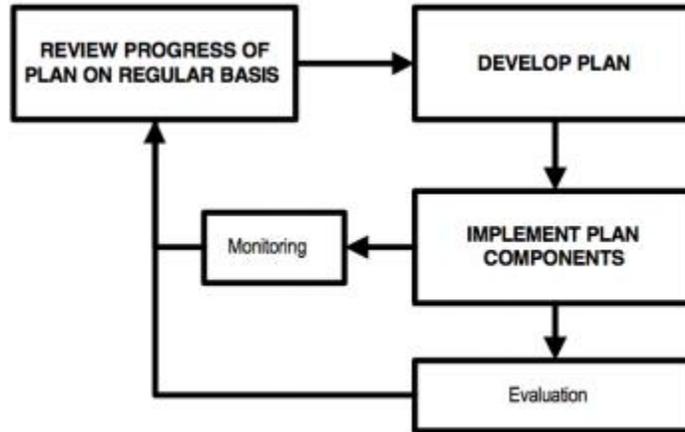
Source: Tayler et al. (2000)



The fourth stage in the planning and execution of major services in the urban political system is the Develop Citywide Municipal Plan stage. A service plan for execution should include an overall goal, a statement of the rules, policies and principles underlying the plan and details of the current position, objectives, activities, responsibilities and resource requirements for each plan component.

Structure and contents of a municipal sanitation plan. (Source: Tayler et al. (2000) It is important for the plan to: Setting priorities for action and investment, and explain clearly how these priorities have been established, and Have realistic ambitions, in other words the targets it sets must really be achievable within the specified time frame. Achievement of the first year's objectives will build confidence amongst everyone involved. Conversely, if targets are set too high and not achieved, however, people will lose confidence in the plan and may ignore it. It is important that both municipal and state authorities formally endorse the plan so that all concerned departments and agencies work within the framework it has established.

The final stage in the planning and execution of service is the implementation stage. In one sense, implementation is the end of the plan process. However, this should not be seen as an end, but rather as a beginning. There'll be a lot of learning from the process of implementation and it will be important that the lessons learned are fed back into future initiatives. After the plan has been implemented, it is important to monitor and evaluate whether it is having the desired effect and whether it has been implemented properly. (Tayler et al. 2000).



Source: Tayler et al. (2000)

In conclusion on the planning and execution of major services in the urban political systems, it becomes imperative to verge into some major services in the urban political systems. These include among others, housing, water and transportation services.

3.4 Providing Social Services in an urban system

Housing Service:

Social and health services (Welfare administration, Daycares, Home for senior citizens, Public health programs); Recreational and cultural services; Education, Land use and planning; and are some of the services that government provides in an urban system. (Enid Slack, 2009; Sharpe, 1995) Again providing an effective housing policy framework constitutes one of the major instruments required for Sustainable urbanization. In recent decades, it has been observed that the phenomenal rise in population, spontaneous increases in size of cities have led to acute shortage of habitable dwelling units in the urban political system. This scenario has resulted to diverse urban problems like overcrowding, deplorable environment, poor living conditions, inadequate and poor infrastructure, homelessness, increased rate of poverty and social vices among several others. The need to stimulate progressive urbanization through adequate

housing delivery thus constitutes a critical challenge to development (Jiboye, 2011). Ensuring Sustainable housing requires proper definition of housing needs, and the participation of the end users to ensure their satisfaction.

However, the urban government has demonstrated its concern for the state of housing in the system in various ways, although, with a limited degree of success. There have been several instances of government's direct involvement in housing provision, which reflect in the provision of staff quarters and in the construction of many housing estates in the country since the pre-independence era till the present. Government has also set-up mortgage finance organizations such as the Federal Mortgage Bank and has licensed Primary Mortgage Institutions to mobilize savings and supply funds for housing development. It has formulated the National Housing Policy and has established the National Housing Fund Scheme for workers to contribute savings towards housing development. Government, had at various times, made provision for staff housing loans for government employees. It had also delved into sites-and-service schemes and several others (Jiboye, 2011).

Water Supply:

Drinking water supply and sanitation in most urban systems continue to be inadequate, despite long standing efforts by the various levels of government and communities at improving coverage. The level of investment in water and sanitation, albeit low by international standards, has increased in size during the 2000s. (Lukman, 2014). Access has also increased significantly. At the same time, local government institutions in charge of operating and maintaining the infrastructure are seen as weak and lack the financial resources to carry out their functions. Access to safe water and sanitation is essential for health, security, livelihoods, and quality of life. Inadequate access to safe water and exposure to pathogens due to the poor treatment of solid waste leads to adverse health consequences, including diarrheal disease (William, 1985).

While the problem of inadequate access to water and sanitation exists in both rural and urban areas, the problem is particularly pressing in urban systems. With internal migration, cities are where an increasing proportion of the poor live. In the last three decades, growth in urban populations in developing countries exceeded that of rural areas three-fold. In 2007, there were already more people living in cities than in rural

areas. The water, sanitation, and hygiene infrastructure of many cities is stressed beyond capacity, and infrastructure investments have not kept pace with rapid and unplanned urbanisation.

A number of innovative approaches to improve water supply and sanitation have been tested in India, in particular in the early 2000s. These include demand-driven approaches in rural water supply since 1999, community-led total sanitation, and public-private partnerships to improve the continuity of urban water supply in Karnataka, and the use of micro-credit to women in order to improve access to water. Depleting ground water table and deteriorating ground water quality are threatening the sustainability of both urban and rural water supply in many parts of India. The supply of cities that depend on surface water is threatened by pollution, increasing water scarcity and conflicts among users (William, 1985).

Transportation:

Transportation is also another essential to all lives especially in the urban political system. The economy depends upon our capacity to get to and from work. Freight must be moved around the country. People increasingly demand access to all kinds of travel of people, goods and services within the urban political system. Allport et al (2008), using the United Kingdom as a level of analysis, argues that Countries' competitiveness is often judged using the quality of transport systems as a criterion. The fact that several urban political systems have transport problems is well established. First, difficulties may derive from the relatively high density of the population; Roads and railways appear to be crowded and cannot expand capacity in line with demand. Competing demands for land make new facilities very hard to deliver.

Second, there are also problems because of irregular funding and inappropriate financing mechanisms. Successive governments have adopted a 'stop-go' approach to tax-funded transport developments. Financing mechanisms are highly centralized, allowing for very little decision-making outside the core of Whitehall. Third, there is a perception that major transport projects are difficult to manage. Fourthly, the most urban planning system is notoriously slow and inefficient. And finally, governance arrangements in Britain as well as in most urban political systems are highly centralized by international standards. Hence, all major projects are subject to approval in the Treasury, which means that the decision about every rail investment, tramway, guided

bus, bridge, tunnel or by-pass will pass across a desk in the central government. The conclusion that flows from this is that major transport projects have a long history from concept to operations. During this period a wide range of stakeholders influence the final outcome. (Allport et al, 2008).

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 3.3

Explain three areas that you think government can provide social services in an urban system

3.5 IMPLEMENTATION AND EXECUTION OF URBAN PLAN

Comprehensive planning is a process that determines community goals and aspirations in terms of community development. The outcome of comprehensive planning is the Comprehensive Plan which dictates public policy in terms of transportation, utilities, land use, recreation, and housing. Comprehensive plans typically encompass large geographical areas, a broad range of topics, and cover a long-term time projects. The term comprehensive planning is most often used by urban planners in the United States. In Canada, comprehensive planning is generally known as strategic planning or visioning. It is usually accompanied by public consultation. When cities and municipalities engage in comprehensive planning the resulting document is known as an Official Community Plan or OCP for short. (In Alberta, the resultant document is referred to as a Municipal Development Plan, or MDP.)

During the earliest times of American history, cities had little power given to them by State governments to control land use. After the American Revolution, the focus on property rights turned to self-rule and personal freedom, as this was a time of very strong personal property rights. Local governments had simple powers which included maintaining law and order and providing basic services. Cities had little power, if any at all, to direct development in the city. Cities began to focus on the provision of basic services during the 1840s at a time known as the Sanitary Reform Movement. During this time it became clear that there was a strong relationship between disease and the availability of a quality sewer system. Part of the movement included the development

of sanitary survey planning to help bring sewer systems to infected parts of cities. From this planning also developed a new consciousness of town site location. People began to understand the environmental and social impacts of building cities and developed ways in which to further lower the spread of deadly diseases. Frederick Law Olmsted was a firm believer in the relationship between the physical environment and sanitation, which helped lead to the development of grand parks and open spaces in communities to bring not only recreation, but sanitation as well. The Sanitary Reform Movement is seen by many as the first attempt at comprehensive planning, however it failed to be completely comprehensive because it focused on only one aspect of the city and did not consider the city as a whole.

However, during the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries' cities began to urbanize at very high rates. Cities became very dense and full of disease. As a response to the over population and chaotic conditions, planning became a major focus of many large American cities. The City Beautiful movement was one of the many responses to the decaying city. The movement began in Chicago in 1890 with the World Columbian Exposition of 1893 and lasted until about the 1920s. The focus on the movement was the design and architectural characteristics of the city. Leaders of the movement wanted to push the vision of the ideal city, and demonstrate to the world what cities could look like if they were created to be works of art. The White City was created for the exposition which embodied the visions of the movement with neoclassical designed buildings set against landscaped streets. The movement spread across the United States and influenced many major American cities.

In 1898, Ebenezer Howard published his book entitled "Tomorrow, a Peaceful Path to Reform," in which he developed the idea of a Garden City. This city was a planned development which included different land uses and community services. The communities were to be surrounded by a green belt and included many open spaces and parks within the city. These cities were designed to be completely self-sufficient and focused on decreasing the negative impacts traditional cities had on people's lives. Although these cities were considered to be utopian ideas, two cities were eventually built in this vision, Letworth and Welwyn, England. The vision of Ebenezer Howard greatly impacted the idea of city planning in the United States for decades and helped in the development of the idea that cities must be planning comprehensively for

growth. After the turn of the Twentieth Century, American cities began to see the need for local development and growth plans. Influential in this planning was Daniel Hudson Burnham who re-created the city plan for Washington, D.C. created by Pierre Charles L'Enfant in 1791.

The original plan called for grid iron laid streets crossed by diagonal boulevards, squares, plazas, parks, monuments, and sculptures. However, over time this plan was largely ignored and the city had developed against L'Enfant's vision. Burnham was instrumental in recreating the city plan and helping to return the city to its once intended form. In 1903, Burnham helped create the city growth plan for the city of Cleveland, Ohio and in 1906 he created the city plan for San Francisco, California. Although these were all city development plans, it was not until 1909 when Burnham created the city plan for Chicago that his plans were comprehensive. The plan Chicago is known today as the first comprehensive plan and it began a movement of comprehensive planning that emphasized planning as a way to not only make cities more beautiful, but to function better as well.

3.6 COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING PROCESS

Comprehensive Planning typically follows a planning process that consists of eight different steps. By following this process, planners are able to determine a wide range of interconnecting issues that affect an urban area. Each step can be seen as interdependent and many times planners will revise the order to best fit their needs.

Identifying Needs

The planner must first address the issue they are investigating. "To be relevant, the planning processes must identify and equally address not only contemporary issues of concern to residents, workers, property owners, and business people, but also the emerging issues that will be important in the future. Generally, planners determine community issues by involving various community leaders, community organizations, and ordinary citizens.

Stating Goals

Once issues have been identified by a community, goals can then be established. Goals are community visions. They establish priorities for communities and help community

leaders make future decisions which will affect the city. Stating goals is not always an easy process and it requires the active participation of all people in the community.

Collecting Data

Data collection is an important aspect of planning or developing an urban city. Data is needed in the planning process in order to evaluate current city conditions as well as to predict future conditions. Data is most easily collected from the United States Bureau, however many communities actively collect their own data. The most typical data collected for a comprehensive plan include data about the environment, traffic conditions, economic conditions, social conditions (such as population and income), public services and utilities, and land use conditions (such as housing and zoning). Once this data is collected it is analyzed and studied. Outcomes of the data collection process include population projections, economic condition forecasts, and future housing needs.

Preparing the Plan

The plan is prepared using the information gathered during the data collection and goal setting stages. A typical comprehensive plan begins by giving a brief background of the current and future conditions found in the data collection step. Following the background information are the community goals and the plans that will be used in order to implement those goals into the community. Plans may also contain separate sections for important issues such as transportation or housing which follow the same standard format.

Creating Implementation Plan

During this stage of the process different programs are thought of in order to implement the goals of the plan. These plans focus on issues such as cost and effectiveness. It is possible that a variety of plans will result from this process in order to realize one goal. These different plans are known as alternatives.

Evaluating Alternatives

Each alternative should be evaluated by community leaders to ensure the most efficient and cost-effective way to realize the community's goals. During this stage each alternative should be weighed given its potential positive and negative effects,

impacts on the community, and impacts on the city government. One alternative should be chosen that best meets the needs and desires of the community and community leaders for meeting the community goals.

Adopting a Plan

The community needs to adopt the plan as an official statement of policy in order for it to take effect. This is usually done by the City Council and through public hearings. The City Council may choose not to adopt the plan, which would require planners to refine the work they did during previous steps. Once the plan is accepted by city officials it is then a legal statement of community policy in regards to future development.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Using the implementation plans defined in the earlier stages, the city planners will carry out the goals in the comprehensive plan. City planning staff monitors the outcomes of the plan and may propose future changes if the results are not desired. A comprehensive plan is not a permanent document. It can be changed and rewritten over time. For many fast growing communities, it is necessary to revise or update the comprehensive plan every five to ten years. In order for the comprehensive plan to be relevant to the community it must remain current. Planning and execution must also have legal basis for it to be executed. The basis for comprehensive planning comes from the government's ability to protect the health and welfare of its citizens. The power for local governments to plan generally comes from state planning enabling legislation; however, local governments in most states are not required by law to engage in comprehensive planning. State statutes usually provide the legal framework necessary for those communities choosing to participate while allowing others to disengage themselves with the process.

The legal provision for comprehensive planning comes from what is called the Standard State Zoning Enabling Act which was written by the United State Department of Commerce in the 1920s. This act was never passed by the United States Congress but was rather a law written for state legislatures to willingly adopt. Many states did choose to adopt the act which provided local governments with the framework to engage in land use planning. Because the act never gave a clear

definition for comprehensive planning, the Department of Commerce wrote another act, the Standard City Planning Enabling Act of 1928, which defined more precisely what a comprehensive plan is and how it should be used. In states that do not require local governments to plan comprehensively, state governments usually provide many incentives to encourage the process at the local level. In Georgia, for example, the state government gives many incentives to local governments to establish comprehensive plans to guide development. Today, almost every county in Georgia has established a plan voluntarily. However, a comprehensive plan is not usually legally binding. A community's ordinances must be amended in order to legally implement the provisions required to execute the comprehensive plan.

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 3.4

Explain comprehensive planning in an urban system

5.0 SUMMARY

The problem of providing infrastructure and services to the flourishing population in most urban political systems as a result of continuous urban population growth is mind boggling and seems impossible to resolve within existing resources available to them.

In the developing world, urban growth challenges are often compounded by urban areas' relative speed of change vis a vis rapid growth in income, urban population, technological change, motorization rates, and urban expansion which complicate efforts to manage urban growth. Additional challenges arise due to the fact that developing countries often have relatively young institutional and legal structures. The failure to focus upon the operational phase is one consequence of this approach. There is the need for 'context' for major project development. This concerns the land use and transport system of which the project is to be part. Predictability has huge implications for project success; conversely a vacuum here may fatally undermine success (for example when a planned new town fails to materialize or competing project takes expected demand. To plan and execute major services in the urban political system there are six factors which Allport et al identified six factors that are likely to influence its success.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

1. Describe planning and execution of major services in urban political system
2. Explain processes of comprehensive planning
3. Mention three requirements for successful urban Planning processes

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MODULE FOUR

UNIT 1: THE STRUCTURES OF POLITICAL POWER IN AN URBAN SYSTEM

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Nature of political power
 - 3.2 Key Concepts of Power
 - 3.3 Structure of political power
 - 3.4 The structure of political power in an urban system
 - 3.5 Problem of managing urban growth
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assessment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Urbanization according to most scholars is fast becoming a powerful and inconsistent emerging reality of the 21st century. Alshihia in 2000 postulated that by 2006, half of the world's population (about 3.2 billion) will live in urban areas. This projection according to some scholars is about a 20 fold increase from the 1900 world population. While rapid urbanization concentrates population and economic growth in cities, creating better opportunities for livelihood, at the same time, cities face daunting challenges of urban squalor ranging from overcrowding, poverty, and environmental decay, inefficient systems of municipal service delivery, scarce finance and inefficient administration. Bearing the challenges of the urban system in mind, the need for an urban management can therefore not be overemphasized.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

- At the end of the study you should be able to:
- Describe the Problems of managing urban growth:

- Give a definition Structure of Political Power
- Explain the hierarchy of political power in an urban system.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 NATURE OF POLITICAL POWER

Political science often uses the findings of other social sciences, but one feature distinguishes it from others – its focus on power. The Renaissance Florentine philosopher Niccolo Machiavelli emphasized the role of power in politics. You can take all factors and approaches mentioned above but if you are not using them to study power – which is a very broad subject – you are probably not doing political science. Some people like the concept of political power. It smacks of coercion, inequality, occasionally of brutality. Some speakers denounce power politics suggesting governance without power, governance like a happy band of brothers and sisters regulating themselves on the bases of love and sharing.

However social communities formed on such basis do not last, or if they do last it is only transforming themselves into conventional structure of leader and the led. Such structures do not last owing to the fact that the quest for political power seemed to be built into human condition by nature. The black law dictionary defines political power as the power / authority held by any group or party, allowing them use of public resources as they deem fit. While the dictionary defines power as the ability to make people do what they otherwise not have done. Power is the ability to influence and direct the behavior of other people and guide the course and outcome of events.

3.2 Key Concepts of Power

Legitimacy, Sovereignty, and Authority

These three concepts relate closely to power. Authority: Authority means that an individual or group has the right to use power by making decisions, giving orders, and demanding obedience. This is the psychological ability of leaders to

get others to obey them. It relies on a sense of obligation based on the legitimacy power of the office

Legitimacy

This refers to the right to govern, the psychological right to govern, it also now refers to the attitude in the people's minds. Without legitimacy governments are ineffective refers to citizens' belief that their leaders have the right to exercise power and authority; it is the acceptance of the government by the governed.

Sovereignty:

This is the highest exercise of political power; it is supreme and ultimate authority that cannot be overruled by a higher power. Sovereignty originally meant the power of the monarch over his/her kingdom. Later the concept was broadened to mean national control over countries territory. Nations are jealous of their sovereignty and government safeguarded it they maintain armies to deter foreign invasion. They control their borders with passport and visas and they hunt down terrorist.

3.3 Structure of Political Power

Urban management means that the city governments together with other urban stakeholders like civil society organizations, private sector and local communities assume an active role in mobilization, management and coordination of resources to support the objectives of urban development and ensure vitality of cities. Thus, urban governance refers to the process through which democratically elected local governments and the range of stakeholders in cities such as business associations, unions, civil societies and citizens, make decisions about how to plan, finance and manage the urban realm. The structure of power in urban systems is important because it shapes both the physical and social character of urban regions, impacts on the quantity and quality of local public services and the efficiency with which they are delivered, it determines whether costs are shared throughout the city-region in a fair and efficient way, it also affects the ability of residents to access their local government and engage

in local decision-making, as well as the extent to which local governments are accountable to citizens and responsive to their demand. (Slack and Côté, 2014). Large cities and regions differ from each other in terms of size and density, financial and administrative capability and complexity of the challenges they face. This shows that cities have different or asymmetric governance arrangement and powers.

The structure of political power in the urban system is on a hierarchical form which the urban government is in the state, local government, and municipal government, with the local government acting as a political mechanism through, which local communities can express its collective objectives as well as provide various services to the local resident. The responsibilities of the local government include among others; Protective services (Fire, Police); Transport services (Road, Public transit); Environmental services (Sewers, Garbage disposal, Water supply); Social and health services (Welfare administration, Daycares, Home for senior citizens, Public health programs); Recreational and cultural services; Education, Land use and planning; and. (Enid Slack, 2009; Sharpe, 1995)

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 4.1

Differentiate between urban management and the structure of political power in an urban system

3.4 Nature of political power in an urban system

It is however, important to note that the municipalities are said to be corporate in nature, with defined geographical boundaries, an elected council as well as a taxing power. In evaluating the structure of political power in urban systems, the starting point is economic efficiency. According to the “decentralisation theorem,” the efficient provision of services requires decision-making to be carried out by the level of government closest to the individual citizen, so that resources will be allocated with the greatest efficiency. (Oates 1972) as quoted

in (Slack and Côté, 2014). Hence, he categorized the structure of political power in the urban system into

1. One-tier fragmented model,
2. One-tier consolidated model,
3. Two-tier model, and
4. Voluntary cooperation

However, scholars are quick to point that it is possible that one city can appear in more than one category. (Slack and Côté, 2014; Slack E, 2004; 2009).

A one-tier consolidated government model of the urban system is a single local government that is responsible for providing the full range of local services, with a geographic boundary that covers the entire metropolitan area. Large single-tier governments have generally been formed by amalgamation (the merger of two or more lower-tier municipalities within an existing region) or by annexation (appropriation of a portion of a municipality by an adjacent municipality). (Klink, 2002).

They can take advantage of economies of scale in service provision and internalize externalities. They cover the urban region, addressing service coordination issues. They are better able to advance a regional vision than would a series of smaller, fragmented local governments. A directly elected one-tier of government, it has the advantage of being easily understandable for voters, though it can also reduce access and accountability where the jurisdiction becomes too large and bureaucratic. (George B, 1992). At the same time, amalgamations to create one-tier consolidated governments reduce competition among municipalities, weakening incentives for efficiency or responsiveness to local needs and changing economic conditions. (Slack and Côté, 2014).

A major challenge with a one-tier consolidated structure is determining the appropriate geographic boundary. Looking around the world, we find that the metropolitan boundaries of governments rarely coincide with the boundaries of the economic region (notable exceptions are Cape Town and Auckland). (Slack, 2004)

In a two-tier government model, there is an upper-tier governing body (usually a region, district, or metropolitan government) that encompasses a fairly large

geographic area, and lower-tier or area municipalities (such as cities, towns, villages, and townships). The upper tier provides region-wide services and the lower tiers are responsible for services of a local nature. In this way, two-tier models help to resolve the conflict between regional and local interests, providing economies of scale, internalizing externalities across local boundaries and enhancing redistribution equity on the one hand, and ensuring local responsiveness and citizen access and accountability on the other. (Slack E, 2004). Critics argue that costs will be higher because of waste and duplication in the provision of services by two levels of government. Furthermore, two-tier levels of government are less transparent and more confusing to residents who struggle to understand who is responsible for what services. Two municipal councils covering the same geographic area can lead to considerable “wrangling, inefficient decision-making, and delays in implementing policies” (Kitchen, 2002) as quoted in (Slack and Côté, 2014).

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 4.2

Explain the advantages and disadvantages of one-tier municipal government.

3.5 PROBLEMS OF MANAGING URBAN GROWTH:

In the developing world, urban growth challenges are often compounded by urban areas’ relative speed of change visa vie rapid growth in income, urban population, technological change, motorization rates, and urban expansion which complicate efforts to manage urban growth. Additional challenges arise due to the fact that developing countries often have relatively young institutional and legal structures (linked to decentralization), face more pressing needs related to relatively large numbers of people living in poverty, and typically have fewer available resources (both financial and human capital) to dedicate to a greater number of problems (William, 1985). The process of project development follows an often difficult and sometimes rather chaotic path. Often tasks are undertaken and decisions taken only to be thrown by ‘show-stopper events’. Sometimes exogenous impacts stop projects in their tracks. Other times they open up windows of opportunity. We thus see the project development process

as one of dynamic change in which the sponsor seeks to set a robust strategy, and adapt to events as best he can. (Lukman, 2014)

Again because metropolitan structures are difficult to put in place, voluntary cooperation essentially replaces the ideal of metropolitan government with a process of metropolitan governance (Lefèvre 1998). The benefit of voluntary cooperation is that it preserves local autonomy, diversity, and the distinct identity of member municipalities (OECD 2006). Municipalities can retain their autonomy with respect to expenditure and tax decisions, while achieving economies of scale in service delivery and addressing externalities through partnerships (Sharpe 1995). There can be problems of accountability when services are provided by another jurisdiction, however, because residents often do not know who is responsible. Redistribution throughout the metropolitan area is not automatic in a system of voluntary cooperation, but could be agreed upon by the municipalities involved.

Notwithstanding the weakness of voluntary cooperation, this form of local governance has steadily grown in popularity around the world. One explanation is that voluntarism “is incremental, non-threatening, and capable of growing by trial and error” (Savitch & Kantor 2002). The voluntary model can work well when policy objectives are shared by all policymakers in the various local governments. It may not work as well, however, when there are divergent objectives as there often are. Cooperation usually involves bargaining and some municipalities may not have anything to bargain with. Although these “lighter and more informal forms of governance” can mobilize metropolitan-wide stakeholders around a common vision, planning and resourcing for implementation might require a more formal arena for collaboration (OECD 2006).

4.5 CONCLUSION

A comparative assessment of urban and metropolitan governance models according to Slack and Côté, (2014), suggests the followings that no one model of governance stands above the rest. The wide variety of governance institutions and structures around the world reflects both the complexity and the context-specificity of the issues to be resolved. Neither theory nor practice tells us clearly

which model of governance is best even within a single country. Some form of regional structure is essential for cities to be economically competitive. Metropolitan areas are characterised by strong inter-dependencies (social, economic, environmental, and political-administrative) and by externalities. Voluntary cooperation is the most popular model. The literature emphasizes the key elements of a metro government structure as political legitimacy through direct election, geographic boundaries that match the functional territory of the metropolitan region, independent financial resources, relevant powers and responsibilities, and adequate staffing (Lefèvre 2008). Yet, voluntary cooperation and special purpose districts, which have few of these characteristics, are the most popular regional governance structures around the world.

There is a trade-off between one-tier and two-tier models. Because a one-tier structure is easier to understand and is more transparent than a two-tier structure, it may enhance political and fiscal accountability. Two-tier structures are inherently more complex and may result in undesirable duplication and general confusion among citizens as to who is responsible for what and who is paying for it. On the other hand, a two-tier structure may achieve greater efficiency than is likely to be attained in a more centralised one-tier structure. Some metropolitan areas have been adopting two-tier structures (e.g. London and Barcelona) while others have moved away from them (e.g. Toronto and Bergen).

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 4.3

Discuss the problems of managing urban structure in the developing world

5.0 SUMMARY

Large cities and regions differ from each other in terms of size and density, financial and administrative capability and complexity of the challenges they face. Thus, cities have different or asymmetric governance arrangement and powers.

The structure of political power in the urban system is on a hierarchical form which the urban government is in the local state, local government, and municipal government, with the local government acting as a political mechanism through which local communities can express its collective objectives as well as provide various services to the local resident. The responsibilities of the local government include among others; Protective services Transport services Environmental services, Social and health services Recreational and cultural services; Land use planning; and Education.

The municipalities are said to be corporate in nature, with defined geographical boundaries, an elected council as well as a taxing power.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

1. Explain the problems of managing urban growth
2. Describe the hierarchy of political power in an urban system
3. Explain the structure of political power in a urban system according to the decentralisation theorem.

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MODULE FIVE

UNIT 1: THE PROBLEM OF DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN NIGERIA

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Theoretical Issues:

3.2 Challenges of urban administration in Nigeria

3.3 Factors that affect the management of urban systems

3.4 Continuing High Rate of Urban Population Growth

3.5 Alternative views of urban system and urban hierarchy

3.6 Solving the problem of urbanization in Nigeria

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor Marked Assessment

7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In our last lesson we studied the structure of urban administration and the challenges associated with it. In this lecture, we are going to study the problems of urban administration. The lecture will be divided into two sessions. Session one will deal with general knowledge of urbanization problems while the second session will be dealing with the some of the categories or types of urban problems. Make sure you study to understand the problems of urbanization, its classifications and also be able to distinguish them from each other. It is argued that one of the critical issues of concern to most urban administration, the world over is the need to stem the rate of urbanization induced by the incidence of globalization, industrialization and an unprecedented population growth rate in the cities. A kind of "revolution of rising expectations," or at least of rising demands, is taking place in our cities as they continue to swell Urban administration is that area of government in the urban system which provides the planning and management functions that are essential to the supply of urban

services. However, the problems of administration in the urban system is essentially made complex by the increase in the level of urbanization.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of the study you should be able to:

Explain the problem of development planning in Nigeria

Mention and explain the challenges of urban administration in Nigeria

Describe the factors that affect the administration of the urban system:

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Theoretical Issues: modernization theory explains development as the process of moving from traditional to modern ways/ approaches of doing things. This is the idea of the Western/ European countries that the less developed or developing countries of Africa, Latin America and Asia must be westernised or modernized to enable them develop. Hence these countries were colonized by European nations to bring them the advantages of development. Some scholars argue that, this is why British colonial rulers insisted on seeing changes in Nigerian political, religious, education, transport, communication, and culture and agriculture systems among others. This theory believes that for a society to be developed it has to move from primordial or traditional stage to new and improved technologies, and stages of social organizations that characterise developed societies, it was also stressed that development is can occur and is also possible only when society's citizens transform from traditional method of doing things to modern ways (Singer, Hans and Hansari, 1982).

Modernization theory has been criticized by several scholars for regarding rural development and underdevelopment as a condition rather than a historical process or experiences and for circular explanation of development and underdevelopment due to the system of farming in rural Africa. This method which predominantly involves traditional (daily struggle with primitive tools and equipment) method without providing explanations of what is responsible for underdevelopment in the first instance. Again it has been argued that the modernization approach is inadequate for providing answers to development

because it fails to attack the root cause of underdevelopment. (Torado1982) The Nigeria experiences in modernization approach which sought to effect the development of rural areas can be regarded as not very fruitful in this regard. National Development programs such as the First National Development Plan (1962-1968), Second National Development Plan (1970-1974), Third Development National Plan (1975-1980) Fourth National Development Plan (1981-1985), and The Structural Adjustment Program (1986-1989).

The First National Rolling Plan (1990-1992) and the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) (2004-2007), have not led to any significant development (IDEVAN). These plans indicate that within the span of thirty eight years, Nigeria has adopted six different national plans which have failed to actually develop the local communities in Nigeria because of the limited involvement of these communities and the citizens. The implication is that if Nigeria continues, as usual, in her development plans without adequately taking care of the root causes of under –development in her future plans then, the ambition to develop the rural communities and possible creation of mega cities will continue to elude her or possibly fail. These programmes did not contributed to the concrete development of the rural areas instead there was record of massive capital investment in agriculture, infrastructure and rural development without visible outcome to that effect. (Maconachie, M. 1987).

In the face of the disturbing proliferation of unsuccessful national development plans in Nigeria, and other African countries, there still largely exist development gaps that have reached levels that can be appropriately dubbed problematic. In fact, several years of development planning in the Nigeria for instance has failed to produce the supposed much sought-after sustainable development. Arguably, the challenge of development planning in Nigeria is compounded by the fact that sustainable development itself is not so much on the agenda of successive Nigerian governments and the absence of a true development agenda has not placed the country on the right sustainable development path. This explains why Nigeria may be described as being in the thick of the world's poorest people that could be running against the tide and lagging behind in terms of almost all the development indicators.

It is instructive to note that while there had been plethora of activities couched and cosmetically dubbed development plans, true development has not been on the agenda as far as the most Nigerian government at all levels. In fact, lack of clear vision is the foundational basis for the disjointed mission with poorly tangible results in all the globally recognized and acceptable developmental indicators that had so far attended development planning efforts in Nigeria. The sundry factors like misplacement of priorities, poor plan discipline, lack of self-reliance, ineffective executive capacity and public sector inefficiency as well as poor public/private sector partnership that have made a genuine development path somewhat illusory are evidently micro, subsidiary and mere appendage to the macro and main crux of the developmental planning problems in Nigeria. Consequently, some of subsidiary and micro factors that are an outgrowth of the mainstream near absence of true development agenda in Nigeria include the followings:

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 5.1

Explain at least five reasons for unsuccessful development plans in Nigeria.

3.2 CHALLENGES OF URBAN ADMINISTRATION IN NIGERIA

According to Bali (1997), urban planning must be based on facts that can be collected and made known, and this collection and assembling of information represent the first stage in the development of a comprehensive or master plan. To Meyerson (1961), comprehensive plan includes principal sources of the planning data from the community or area, and should provide such information as general population, school population, existing land uses patterns, tax rates, bounded indebtedness, capacity of utilities, subdivision regulations, housing and parks. The comprehensive plan is not a set of mandatory hard and fast rules and regulations. It should be flexible, and should be changed in the light of new conditions and new developments.

However, the comprehensive plan should cover such areas as land use, transportation, housing, conservation and safety. In Nigeria, development plans, projects and policies of, the post-independent like the colonial ones exhibited a

basic lack of urgency. A typical example is the iron and steel industry that was in the first and second plans and was initiated for projected completion during the fourth plan. This represented a lag of twenty years; yet this project was repeatedly acclaimed the cornerstone of Nigeria's industrialization. Similar examples include petrochemicals, fertilizers, the petroleum refinery, liquefied petroleum gas and other heavy industries. While this leisurely pace persisted, the country completed such counter-productive projects like the National Stadium and Trade Fair Complex in Lagos, Durbar Hotel at Kaduna and staged the multi-million Naira FESTAC itself in 1977

Lack of Plan Discipline

Furthermore, Nigerians seem to lack the political will to keep to national development plans. While there are enough rules in the plans to enforce plan discipline, Nigerian leaders simply have a special knack for side tracking development plans. Though plan projects acquired priorities since 1962, these are invariably ignored by the bureaucratic bourgeoisie in a blatant demonstration of the superiority of its selfish class interests over avowed national objectives. Typical examples could be found in the FESTAC which cost hundreds of millions of Naira, yet nowhere in any plan document and the Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme which was not in the second plan, yet its implementation began during that plan and its critical phase commenced during the third plan. In fact, the plans of the various governments could be described as competitive in character, problem distortion and aberration in plan execution as well as under spending on directly productive projects and overspending on prestige or white elephant projects not included in the plan. Although plans are made to accommodate little variations, the various plans in Nigeria in the past were so much altered during the implementation stages to the extent of distorting -the overall objectives and lack of discipline in plan implementation has led to many abandoned projects which litter the country's landscape today. Most of these projects like the Ajaokuta steel complex that ought to play catalyst— roles in the country's industrialization drive are still comatose.

Lack of Self-Reliance

In spite of about three decades of post-independent planning, the basic neo-colonial structure of the economy persists in terms of its dependence on international capitalism. In fact, by the kind of industrialization strategy of these plans, this is anchored to import-substitution and consequently dominated by the multinationals. Post — independent planning has essentially integrated our economy more tightly and multilaterally into the orbits of imperialistic international capitalism. Worse still, is the capital-intensive techniques of this neo-colonial industrialization together with the orientation towards consumer-goods manufacturing in the country, especially the domestic production of former imports of manufactured goods which imply increased reliance on imperialists for economic and capital goods. The ports congestion of the early post-war years and the drastic shortages results underscored the point. This, in fact, explains why most of our civil engineering constructions like roads, harbours, monstrous bridges in Lagos and other major cities in Nigeria, even housing, depend so helplessly on imperialist multinationals like Julius Berger, Dumez and the like.

Public Service Inefficiency

Since the public service is the institution that implements the development plans, any efforts at improving our implementation record must begin with the public service. The fact that Nigerians outside the public service are quite productive is an indication that the problem must lie to a large extent with the service itself. Although the public service reforms, which among other things, attempted to increase the level of professionalization in the service, is a step in the right direction, the public service is still plagued with the problem of management malady, poor conditions of remunerations, overstaffing, and lack of a clear-cut job description as well as non-institutionalization of the principle of management by objective (MBO).

Technology Transfer Syndrome

Until the fourth development plan, Nigerian development plans in Nigeria did not recognize the key role of indigenous technological capability in national

development. Worse still is the fact that the stress on technological transfer through multination which has proved to be mirage up till date.

Corruption in the system

Systemic corruption has to do with a situation where corruption has been institutionalized and (catapulted) raised to the level of a structural parameter. Thus it has become part of the value-system of a society, that is to say, a condition par excellence. It could be asserted that after independence from the first Republic onwards Nigeria has consciously or unconsciously, created systemic corruption in the country and the trend has continued through the third and fourth republics to the extent that it will not be a distortion of historical facts to assert that corruption is at home with Nigerians. In fact, it is frustrating to plan the execution of programmes which require the availability of organization, institutions and skills which the economy does not possess and cannot normally be expected to generate during the plan period. Executive capacity also involves the existence of competent contracting firms and basic socio-economic infrastructure including competent hands to run the civil service and allied government machinery.

Absence of Relevant Data

Planning relies basically on data. Accurate data is a very scarce commodity in Nigeria due to problems arising from the inadequacies of the federal office of statistics, the unwillingness of Nigerians to reveal information and the outright manipulation of data for pecuniary or other gains. The most vivid illustration of the problem of data in Nigeria is the fact that since independence till date, nobody has been able to correctly and confidently answer the simple question “How many are we?” Or give the exact population figures of Nigeria as a country. A country that does not know its population would definitely not be in position to determine the other vital statistics necessary for planning life, birth-rate, death-rate, number of those of school age and the other demographic changes in the population which are essential for planning. The absence of reliable background data has made the use of social indicators difficult and inadequate for plan preparation, implementation and the monitoring of national development.

Domestic-Foreign Resource Generation Ratio

There is the tendency to have over-sized plans because of the high expectations from foreign resources. This situation became obvious during the fourth plan, when the original capital outlay of N70.5 billion for the public sector became unrealistic as a result of the disturbances in the oil market. The plan's resource allocation was based on the assumption that oil production would remain at over 2 million barrels a day at a price of at least, \$40 per barrel. Regrettably, however, by February, 1983, Nigeria was producing less than 1 million barrels per day at about \$30 per barrel. Also, the first plan could be considered over-sized because of the total planned investment of N1,307.8 million, domestic resource availability amounted to N526 million with the expectation of 50 per cent (million) of the capital budget from foreign sources. Worse still, Nigeria's economy is mono-product and not technology driven in a domestic sense.

Public/Private Sector Partnership

There is arguably a very weak collaboration between the public and the private sectors as far as development planning efforts in Nigeria is concerned. In fact, development planning has largely followed bureaucratic process with little private sector participation so much so that such efforts can be appropriately described as lacking in synergy. Ordinarily, development planning is supposed to incorporate broad policy frameworks that will have elements of public and private sector initiatives

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 5.2

Mention and explain briefly four challenges of urban administration in Nigeria.

3.3 FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE MANAGEMENT OF THE URBAN SYSTEMS

Urbanization and Demographic Shifts

Urbanization and demographic shift is very significant for uneven urban population. This is responsible for population growth in some regions and slow

growth in others. It also increases cultural diversity in cities, with resulting pressures on social cohesion and for economic integration of migrants. Likelihood of intergeneration tension resulting from values shifts, threats to economic opportunity (e.g. NEETs), and inequity in public spending.

Economic change & social exclusion

Long-term economic and workforce dislocation, as shift towards 'knowledge economy' places a premium on education, skills, and productivity, and heightens wage inequities. Economic change and fiscal crisis thereby, perpetuating trends in poverty, inequality, and social exclusion. Growing concentrations of affluence in some areas and social deprivation in others across the country but also within large city-regions

Infrastructure, urban form & environmental demands

Land use planning and environmental sustainability challenges of managing future growth and economic development. Uneven spatial development massive public infrastructure investment needs (i.e. transport energy and water networks, social infrastructure, and housing). There is the need to adapt urban infrastructure for 21st century pressures (e.g. population growth and aging, climate change and extreme weather, food security and the integration of new technologies. One of the critical issues of concern to most urban administration the world over is the need to stem the rate of urbanization induced by the incidence of digital age and technology.

Globalization, industrialization and an **unprecedented** population growth rate in the cities. With globalization, there is a kind of "revolution of rising expectations," or at least of rising demands which is s taking place in our cities as they continue to swell. Urban administration is that area of government in the urban system which provides the planning and management functions that are essential to the supply of urban services. The problems of administration in the urban system is essentially made complex by the increase in the level of urbanization especially in this era of globalization. Consequently, with the population explosion, the pressure is not only for quantitative increases in such services as schools, parks, expressways, police, and water supply, but for

qualitative improvements and the provision of entirely new services to meet entirely new problems and public desires.

It is safe to say that, given sufficient time and the benefit of an occasional crisis situation, these pressures will become translated into new public policy for urban government, making for a larger and more burdened municipal bureaucracy. Population growth, urban service demands, and changing management technology, all have tremendous implications for the administration in the urban system. As the population of an urban centre increases, its need for infrastructure such as transportation, water, sewage and facilities such as housing, commerce, health, schools, recreation and others increases. Therefore, increasing the environmental carriage capacity of the urban areas is necessary for enhancing the livability of cities. (Ujoh et al., 2010)

Consequently High rates of unemployment in urban areas lead to increased crime rates, illegal drug use due to idleness, prostitution and the formation of illegal gangs. Immigration of people from rural areas to urban areas creates a strain on the available resources. It also contributes to unpleasant demographic results. In some countries, rural-urban migration has contributed to a high growth rate of slums. It also led to an increase in pollution, which poses risks to the health of people within such environments.

According to Grant (1960), these problems might be summarized as;

- i. Serious financial inequities, particularly to the disadvantage of the central city
- ii. Unequal services in different sections of the same metropolitan area
- iii. An illogical split-up of clearly metropolitan-wide functions of government
- iv. Wasteful overlapping layers of local government, and
- v. A weakening of democratic government at the local level by making the task of fixing credit or blame for action or inaction unduly complicated. (Grant, 1960).

Slack and Cote (2014) also summarized administrative problems of the urban system by categorizing them into Urbanization and demographic shifts; Economic dislocation and social exclusion; Infrastructure, urban form and

environmental pressures; and Stresses on local democracy and citizen engagement. (Slack and Cote, 2014)

3.4 CONTINUING HIGH RATE OF URBAN POPULATION GROWTH

Although slowing down from the high rates of 8% - 10% annual rate of urban growth of the 1960s and 1970s to 7% - 8% of the 1980s, Africa is still currently the fastest urbanizing continent in the world, with an annual urban growth rate of between 4.5% - 5.0%. This rate of urban growth is still remarkable, compared with other major developing world regions of Asia and Latin America. Much of this urban growth is from rural to urban migration. The rapid increase in rural – urban population migration in Africa which fuels urban growth and is indeed the main source of urbanization in the continent, is largely a response to the real or perceived economic and social opportunities in the cities. This migration is exacerbated by reduced incomes in the traditional agricultural sector in the rural areas. Income opportunities in the cities are incontestably much higher than in the rural areas and this spurs rural – urban population movements. The movement of people from rural to urban areas is also considered an essential element of their household strategies for increasing and diversifying incomes, mitigating the risk of dependence on agricultural production and improving individual and general welfare through improved access to educational and health facilities. (AfDB, 2005:38).

Other obvious push factors affecting the rural-urban migration include communal armed conflicts within and between some African states such as wars; internal and internal disturbances are responsible for displacement of large population from their traditional or normal habitats or residences. For example the Ife/modakeke, the Umuleri/Aguleri communal conflicts in Anambra state in early 1990s, the Jos crises and more recently the internally displaced people in the North eastern part of Nigeria like Borno, and other areas in the Northern part of Nigeria where we have the Boko Haram insurgency attack, We also have other examples like the Zimbabwe, Kenya, Somalia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Chad, Sudan and Niger.

Up to 23 out of the 45 countries in sub-Saharan Africa had for example experienced either conflict or serious political, social or natural upheavals and

disaster that had negative impact in societal peace and development of cities and rural areas. Often times than not some people especially the youth affected and displaced by communal conflicts move to the cities and therefore affect the original structure and economic plans of the cities. On the average, nearly 40 per cent of Africans now live in cities, expected to increase to 50 per cent in the next 25 years if current trends continue. (Satterthwaite, 2007). “Despite the structural slow-down of the urbanization process that has already begun, the total urban population and the urbanized areas in Sub-Saharan Africa can be expected to increase threefold, and the flows of persons and incoming and outgoing urban goods and services to increase tenfold by the year 2025 .

It is essential to develop a new vision of the African City “Despite the structural slow-down of the urbanization process that has already begun, the total urban population and the urbanized areas in Sub-Saharan Africa can be expected to increase threefold, and the flows of persons and incoming and outgoing urban goods and services to increase tenfold by the year 2025. It is essential to develop a new vision of the African City Don Okpala GRHS 2009: Regional Report Anglophone Africa as a place of innovation, wealth creation and capital accumulation, but no longer as a place of poverty and concentration of all kinds of depravity. This new vision calls for a different conception of projects in urban areas, with greater ambition and faith in the future” Jean- Marie Cour (2000:3). The foregoing is an expression of the hope and expectation from a better planned and more effectively managed urbanization.

Unplanned and Unregulated Physical Growth and Expansion of the Cities

The dominant feature and a fundamental challenge to most Anglophone (Sub-Saharan) African countries urban landscape today is that of haphazardly growing shanty-towns and of slum and squatter developments. Many sections or neighbourhoods of the cities of Sub-Sahara Anglophone African countries are a build-up of unregulated, congested and ramshackle housing surrounded by almost indescribable filth. Nearly three-quarter of African’s urban residents reside in slums, of unregulated and un-serviced by their local governments (Cited Alliance 2006) There are hardly much drainage facilities or solid waste

disposal facilities. Mountains of refuse are common features everywhere. These are now such pervasive phenomena in most large intermediate Anglophone African cities that the configuration of these cities now largely defined by where these illegal settlements spring up.

These features and trends are making it all the more expensive, if not impossible, to provide such city areas with basic services. These result in poor infrastructure facilities and deteriorating public utilities such as poor drainage and inadequate sanitation, inadequate water supplies, mounds of garbage and other solid waste, constrained mobility as a result of outdated physical layouts, or no planned layout, flourishing street trading, overcrowded, inadequate transport systems and inadequate and deteriorated road facilities resulting in overcrowding and congestion, noise and pollution. Activities have developed and located with hardly any regard for transport distances or local natural conditions (Magalhaes et al, 2000:4).

Prevalence of low levels of social discipline and civic responsibility is a challenge to city planners and administrators in the sub-region. Settlements and many are constant victims of actual or threatened evictions by public authorities. Don Okpala GRHS 2009: Regional Report Anglophone Africa. Commentaries in some National Newspapers may serve to give a clearer impression of the urban environmental situation of African cities (Muluka, 2002). West of the Sub-Region, other commentators lament that “The city of Lagos has been characterised as a bedlam, sprawling with filth and stench from uncleared refuse and drainage (Ipaye, 2001) And of another Nigerian city – Onitsha, a columnist writes that: “Onitsha is a chaotic city, an insult to the art of architecture and a disgrace to urban planning and development.

The people live and conduct business in a disorganized, congested space, carved out into small empires...” (Abati, 2006). Another writer describes the same city as: “a sprawling slum city of chaos and disorder that wears the scars of the battles against slum dwelling, violence, joblessness, banditry and absolute infrastructural neglect...” (Ehusani, G: 2006). Dewar (1995:41) had noted in the case of South African cities that, “the fragmented urban systems generate enormous amounts of movements at great temporal and monetary cost to them individuals and societies alike and massively aggravate the main developmental

issues of poverty, unemployment and inequality facing Southern African towns... The sprawling discontinuous pattern makes efficient and viable public transport impossible, they waste scarce resources such as land, energy and finance to the degree that the urban settlements are becoming financially non-sustainable, and they are resulting in extensive environmental degradation in terms of landscape, vegetation, water, air and noise”.

As succinctly summarized by Our Common Future (WCED: 1987:240-241):“The uncontrolled physical expansion of cities has serious implications for the urban environment and economy. Uncontrolled development makes provision of housing, roads, water supply, sewers, and public services prohibitively expensive. Cities are often built on the most productive agricultural land and unguided growth results in the unnecessary loss of this land. Such losses are most serious in nations with limited arable land such as Egypt. Haphazard development also consumes land and natural landscapes needed for urban parks and recreation areas. Once an area is built up, it is both difficult and expensive to re-create Open space”. Hague (2005:69) opines that “...the slum creation industry looks set to dominate urban development for the next generation”

The Challenge of Mass Poverty

Cities are historically centres of economic growth, prosperity, and cultural vitality. Yet it is an ironic fact that one of the critical challenges is the apparent abject poverty of most Anglophone (Sub-Saharan) African countries and their citizens. The vast majority (67%) (UNCTAD, 2003:8) of the countries and their populations belong to the group of Least Developed Countries with per capita national incomes of below US\$500, there is very little available for investment. The report of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) had stated that Sub-Saharan Africa was the only region where the number of people living in abject poverty had grown over the past 20 years. In fact those living in absolute poverty in the region rose by 42% to 47% from 1981 to 2001, while absolute poverty had dropped from 40% to 21% in the world as a whole. So poverty and its manifestations are a serious challenge to cities of the Anglophone Sub-Saharan African countries.

Finding innovative solutions to poverty – individual, household and state/societal is a challenge as reflected by Hague (2005:68), “Poverty is now central to any dialogue on urban development, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. Social reform and concern to better the living conditions of the urban poor were important influences on the formation of a town-planning profession, yet as planning became a statutory function, it became technocratic increasingly divorced from an understanding of poverty. This is one reason why planning has been marginalized – or even demonized – in policy discourse about shelter and settlements. We will need to change. The gap between the rich and the poor is growing – both between countries and within countries and urban areas” The fact that nearly three-quarters (75 percent) (Cities Alliance 2008:2) of the current urban population lives in slums, often unrecognized and un-serviced by their local governments, is clearly an affirmation that the current framework for urban development planning and management has not been able to cope with the problems of urbanization in these countries. The rapid growth of urbanization has not been reflected in investment in urban development management.

Weakness of Urban Planning and Management Institutions

Perhaps, the most fundamental and critical challenge faced by urban areas in most developing countries, particularly in Anglophone (Sub-Saharan) African countries is the crippling weakness of institutions of urban development planning and management. Municipal authorities are usually too short of sufficient funds to meet their responsibilities. Daily, the fiscal management problems and financial shortfalls are compounded. The institutional base and infrastructure for effective urban planning and urban development management is still largely weak and in a state of flux – urban local governments with weak and unviable revenue base, with inadequate technical and administrative skills and as yet limited political will and Don Okpala GRHS 2009: Regional Report Anglophone Africa commitment on the part of the central and other higher level governments to let the local institutions and their instruments function.

The fact remains however that: “... the impact of programmes aimed at urban shelter, services and infrastructure depends upon the quality of the institutions responsible for planning and implementing these projects. The institutional

machinery provides the channel through which the urban sector issues and priorities are articulated, projects are planned and implemented and Inter-sector complementarily is accomplished. Political institutions serve as the most critical intervening factors through which economic resources and skills are utilized among other things. (Cheema 1987:149). Planning, after all, is only as effective as the administrative system supporting it and the political philosophy, willingness and commitment of the state in which it operates allows it to be (McAuslan 1985:66). Most central and state governments in Anglophone Africa are yet to allow this institutional strengthening at the local level, and this is a fundamental challenge to effective urban development planning and management.

The last challenge is poor governance, corruption and waste of resources. From Nigeria, Kenya and Zaire, to several other African countries, the refrain is about how much the governing elites have taken out of the countries and invested all over the world, rather than in their own countries. How bad, really bad government is for a country has been demonstrated by several governmental regimes. The dismal situation was clearly reflected in the results of a recent (2004) BBC survey. The survey in eight countries in Africa, that is Egypt, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania, Zimbabwe by the international polling agency, Globes can indicated that more than a third of people in these countries felt worse off this year compared with last. In Zimbabwe for instance, just 3% of those asked thought life was getting better. Together with Nigerians they also felt especially pessimistic about their own country. The survey also showed that most Africans did not believe that their national governments reflected the will of the people, and had more trust in their religious leaders. In this environment local authorities and cities are left with very limited resources.

In similar way financial services and in particular the financing of housing is hampered. As summed up by Agbola (2005), “burdened by many of the problems associated with urban growth, cities in the sub-region are increasingly subject to dramatic crises ranging from unemployment, environmental degradation, deficiencies in urban services and inadequate housing, deterioration of existing infrastructure, lack of access to key resources and to violence” The

upshot of the foregoing challenges is that unless and until they are effectively addressed, the hope and quest for sustainably productive and healthy urban development will continue to be elusive.

Effective urban planning and implementation are the antidotes to these continuing urban challenges. While formal plans, codes, ordinances or such other land-use control measures may not necessarily seem the most important factors influencing land-use patterns and their growth, in the current context of massive urbanization in Sub-Saharan Africa, they are still exceedingly important, for it is through them that the relevant public authorities – national, state, provincial, local government or planning agencies – influence where and in what direction, for what and when urban growth will occur. Besides, effective land-use planning and its major land-use policy instrument – zoning – is in essence a hazard prevention and mitigation exercise (Stren, 1992:71) that in the main begins to address the fundamentals.

Good Governance

Good governance can be defined as the science of government behavior and performance, including the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels (UNDP, 1997; Detheir, 1999). It provides the framework through which citizens and groups exercise their rights, meet their obligations and articulate their interests. Governance is about people and the environment in which they live. It is about people as citizens of their respective states. It is about the relationship between the state and its citizens of their respective states. It is about the relationship between the state and its citizens, either in their individual capacity or as a group. It is a process by which governments and people together identify shared values, needs and challenges and jointly manage the implementation of those programs and the available resources, through a transparent and accountable process with shared responsibility for outcomes that are responsive, gender-sensitive and broad-based.

This requires a climate of respect for human rights, with the expressed objectives of maximizing benefits to men and women for the common good (Bardhan 1997).

A government encompasses. An effective state i.e. one that possesses an enabling political and legal environment for economic growth and equitable distribution of wealth and social welfare civil societies and communities that are represented in the policy making process, with the state facilitating political and social interaction, and fostering societal cohesion and stability. (Hamdol, 2000). These three elements singularly and in combination, together with sound economic management are essential for sustained development as emphasized in recent assessments by the African Development Bank (ADB, 1998 and 1999).

To achieve many of the precepts of good governance, such as increased public sector efficiency or reduced poverty, necessarily implies a loss to some groups. For example, increased efficiency in public service delivery implies that the activities of rent seekers have to be minimized. On the other hand, reducing poverty might call for income redistribution measures, which could hurt the interests of richer groups. UNDP identifies nine core characteristics covering eight key urban issues, which measure good governance. Participation-all men and women should have a voice decision-making either directly or through legitimate intermediate institutions that represent their interest. Such broad participation is built on freedom of association and speech, as well as capacities to participate constructively:

- a) Rule of law – legal frameworks should be fair and enforced impartially, particularly the laws on human rights.
- b) Transparency – this is built on the free flow of information. Processes, institution and information is provided to understand and monitor them.
- c) Responsiveness –institutions and process try to serve all stakeholders.
- d) Consensus orientation – good governance mediates differing interests to reach a broad consensus on what is in the best interest of the group and where possible, on policies and procedures.
- e) Equity, all men and women have opportunities to improve or maintain their well-bring.

f) Effectiveness and efficiency – processes and institutions produce results that meet needs while making the use of resources.

g) Accountability Decision – makers in government, the private sector and civil society organizations are accountable to the public, as well.

h) Strategic vision – leaders and public have a broad and long-term perspective on good governance and human development, along with a sense of what is needed for such development. There is also an understanding of the historical, cultural and social complexities in which that perspective is grounded (UNDP, 1997).

The Role of Government

According to Davey (1993), the role of government in urban management and development can be summarized as follows:

i) Is concerned with the policies, plans programs and practices that seek to ensure that population growth is matched by access to basic infrastructure, shelter and employment. While such access will depend as much, if not more, on private initiatives and enterprise, they are critically affected by public sector policies and functions that only government can perform. The performance of government is critical to the effective management of urban growth. Government should partner with international agencies that show interest in improving the structure, process, and resources of urban government institutions. Policies of decentralization which delegates functional responsibilities and resources to lower levels of government and new financial flows should be created to stimulate public investment. Development project should include technical assistance to improve the planning and operational processes of urban agencies

ii). The effectiveness of urban government is clearly dependent on a range of contextual factors: political stability, social cohesion and economic buoyancy, to name only the most obvious. It also depends on the skills and motivations of its policy that makes the staff who serve them. But the widespread concern to

change and improve the management arrangements suggests a belief that the structures, processes and resources base are themselves factors that contribute to effectiveness. To illustrate, the performance of a car owes much both to its driver and to the driving conditions- that is, the state of the road, the traffic, the weather. But its inherent characteristics engine power, road hold, fuel efficiency, and soon constitute a third element to the equation. Just so, the institutional characteristics of urban government play a part in determining its effectiveness, along with the people who run it and the environment within which it operates.

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 5.3

Explain three challenges of Administration of the Urban System

3.5 ALTERNATIVE VIEWS OF URBAN SYSTEM AND URBAN HIERARCHY

A hierarchy of cities — a tradition that goes all the way back to Walter Christaller's classic work written in 1933, *Central Places in Southern Germany*. Christaller's typology was developed for a very different age, and it is no longer an adequate description of the European urban hierarchy: it is dominated by small towns, some of which have ceased to operate as service centers at all, and it totally omits higher-level centers.

The urban system has been profoundly affected by the increasing globalization of the world and the information growth of the economy — the shift of advanced economies from primarily goods production to predominantly information handling. Manuel Castells in *The Information Age* has described this as the transition to the informational mode of production: a shift as momentous, in his view, as the shift from an agrarian to an industrial economy in the 18th and 19th centuries. In typical developed countries, already by 1991 between three-fifths and three-quarters of all employment was in services, while between one-third and one-half was in information handling; generally these proportions have doubled since the 1920s.

These processes have increased the importance of cities at the very top of the hierarchy, the so-called world cities or global cities. This is not a new phenomenon. Patrick Geddes recognized 'world cities' and defined them, as long ago as 1915, in *Cities in Evolution*. In 1966 I published a book entitled *The World Cities*, defining them as cities that performed multiple roles: as centers of political power, both national and international, and of the organizations related to government; as centers of national and international trade, acting as trading ports for their countries and sometimes for neighboring countries also; as centers of banking, insurance, and related financial services; as centers of advanced professional activity of all kinds, in medicine, in law, in higher education, and the application of scientific knowledge to technology; as centers of information-gathering and diffusion, through publishing and the mass media; as centers of conspicuous consumption, both of luxury goods for the minority and mass-produced goods for the multitude; and as centers of arts, culture, and entertainment, along with a wide range of ancillary activities.

In the 1980s John Friedmann deepened this analysis, by suggesting that processes of globalization were resulting in a new urban hierarchy, in which London, New York, and Tokyo were "global financial articulations", while Miami, Los Angeles, Frankfurt, Amsterdam, and Singapore were "multinational articulations", and Paris, Zurich, Madrid, Mexico City, Sao Paulo, Seoul, and Sydney were "important national articulations", all forming a "network". Saskia Sassen, in *The Global City*, developed the point that the locus of the production of advanced business or producer services has become increasingly disarticulated from the production of tangible goods: The spatial dispersion of production, including its internationalization, has contributed to the growth of centralized service nodes for the management and regulation of the new space economy. To a considerable extent, the weight of economic activity over the last fifteen years has shifted from production places such as Detroit and Manchester, to centers of finance and highly specialized services.

Thus there are contradictory trends: as production disperses worldwide, services increasingly concentrate into a relatively few trading cities, both the well-known "global cities" and a second rung of about 20 immediately below these, which we can distinguish as "sub-global". These cities are centers for financial services (banking, insurance) and headquarters of major production companies; most are also seats of the major world-power governments. A recent study of world cities distinguished four key groups of advanced service activity:

1. Finance and Business Services: including banking and insurance, commercial business services such as law, accounting, advertising, and public relations, and design services including architecture, civil engineering, industrial design, and fashion;
2. "Power and Influence" (or "Command and Control"): national government, supranational organizations like the UN and OECD, and headquarters of major organizations including transnational corporations;
3. Creative and Cultural Industries: including live performing arts (theatre, opera, ballet, concerts), museums, galleries, exhibitions, print and electronic media;
4. Tourism: both business and leisure tourism, including hotels, restaurants, bars, entertainment, and transportation services.

All these are service industries. The process differs somewhat from sector to sector, but it all involves generating, communicating, and consuming information, often with a high degree of immediacy. Whether one considers the investment analyst TRADING SHARES, or the lawyer offering advice, or the board of a major corporation in a meeting, or the television producer at work on a show, or the tour guide taking a group sightseeing, specialized information is being processed and transmitted by highly-qualified people in real time. Further, much of this activity involves face-to-face exchange of information, either as a central feature or as an essential ancillary activity (as when the stock analyst has lunch and picks up important market information).

These categories tend to be highly synergistic with each other, and many activities fit effectively into the interstices between them: thus hotels and conference centers and exhibition centers are simultaneously business services and part of tourism; museums and galleries are creative or cultural but also parts of tourism; and advertising is both creative and a business service. Therefore, an extremely strong force of agglomeration operates within and across these sectors.

Work by the GWC (Global Analysis of World Cities) group at the University of Southborough in the UK goes a long way to recognizing these trends and developing a new urban hierarchy: it identifies a "global hierarchy" of cities, based essentially on the relationships between different units engaged in delivering advanced services like law and accounting. In it, European cities are prominently represented and, of the top six cities, four are in the so-called North West Metropolitan Area of Europe, with London at the top. This is further supported by recent work on the global urban hierarchy based on airport connectivity.

3.6 SOLVING THE PROBLEM OF URBANIZATION IN NIGERIA

Urbanization is creating an array of contemporary, and interconnected environmental, physical and social challenges related to the planning and design of roads and bridges, water and sewer systems, telecommunication networks. Airports and subway lines, and buildings of sorts, infract –growing cities, government struggle to build infrastructure to maintain pace with population growth. In slow growing and declining cities, they must content tax revenues. They must contend with replacement and on-going maintenance in the face of stagnant or declining tax revenues,. At the same time, technological advances make existing systems obsolete while current consensus support thinking's' in terms of sustainability, not just solving the problem now, but addressing longer time frames to make buildings and infrastructure adaptable, ecologically sensitive and resilient to natural disaster s, the efforts of climate change and even acts of terrorism.

Nigeria housing problems manifest in overcrowding, slum development and development of shanties in our major cities which could be address by radical and measures towards ensuring housing policy implementation rather than its formulation. Housing generally has not ranked high on the scale of priorities for social spending and state governments have tended to rely upon local authorities to meet the problem. Efforts at providing low-cost rural housing have been minimal, despite the creation of the Federal Mortgage Bank of Nigeria in 1977, and shantytowns and slums are common in urban areas. Overcrowding in urban housing is a serious problem. It has been estimated that about 85% of the urban population live in single rooms, often with eight to twelve persons per room. Living conditions are poor. In 1996, only about 27% of urban dwellers had access to piped water. Less than 10% of urban dwellers had an indoor toilet.

As of 1979, about 37% of all housing units were cement or brick roofed with asbestos or corrugated iron; 34% were mud plastered with cement and roofed with corrugated iron. In the same year, 44% of urban dwellings were rented, 37% were owner occupied, 17% were rent free, and 2% were "quasirented" at below-average rates. The total number of housing units in 1992 was 25,661,000. Housing is a problem in Nigeria and should be given the right attention as other basic infrastructure like roads electricity. There has to be a deliberate effort on the part of the government to ensure that this happens. There are successful cases around the world to copy.

There is need for the government to formulate good policies to have this done government housing deed should be strongly adhered to and if found unworkable and ineffective then one that can be relied upon should be formulated. To achieve the goal of providing sustainable and affordable housing for the teeming Nigerian population, Nigerian governments need to opt for the exploitation and processing of local raw materials for building. Building materials like sand, which is one of the invariably one of the most abundant natural resources. The mixture of known and aggregates of sand and minimal mortar cement subjected to good curing process will make available cheaper and aesthetic interlocking building blocks for the delivering of affordable and sustainable housing that the average Nigerian

can afford. Government must also provide an enabling environment by encouraging first the importation of and local fabrication of special block making machines.

One important lesson we might get from our experiences is that the Federal Government should not engage in direct housing construction. Studies have shown that individuals build better and cheaper houses and at faster rate than the government agencies. We should borrow a leaf from the U.S.A. where the federal Government responsible for policy formulation and provision of funds for research and matching grants to the states. The Nigerian Federal Government should adopt this stance too. Another lesson is that the government should encourage the use of local building material for construction so as to reduce building cost. This has been successfully done in countries like Tanzania, and Sweden. Entrepreneurs wishing to go into the production of building material should be encouraged through tax relief and incentives. Government should promote alternative strategies for house construction. For example, the government might acquire land; lay them out and service them with basic infrastructures before making them available for sale to individual needing them. It is the opinion of the writers that the adoption of the various suggestions made above the housing problems in Nigeria could be successfully tackled and more housing units constructed for the citizen of the country.

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 5.4

Explain your understanding of hierarchy of cities

4.0 CONCLUSION

Cities are historically centres of economic growth, prosperity, and cultural vitality. Yet it is an ironic fact that one of the critical challenges is the apparent abject poverty of most Anglophone (Sub-Saharan) African countries and their citizens. The vast majority (67%) (UNCTAD, 2003:8) of the countries and their populations belong to the group of Least Developed Countries with per capita national incomes of below US\$500, there is very little available for investment. The report of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO)

had stated that Sub-Saharan Africa was the only region where the number of people living in abject poverty had grown over the past 20 years. In fact those living in absolute poverty in the region rose by 42% to 47% from 1981 to 2001, while absolute poverty had dropped from 40% to 21% in the world as a whole. So poverty and its manifestations are a serious challenge to cities of the Anglophone Sub-Saharan African countries.

Finding innovative solutions to poverty – individual, household and state/societal is a challenge as reflected by Hague (2005:68), “Poverty is now central to any dialogue on urban development, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. Social reform and concern to better the living conditions of the urban poor were important influences on the formation of a town-planning profession, yet as planning became a statutory function, it became technocratic increasingly divorced from an understanding of poverty. This is one reason why planning has been marginalized – or even demonized – in policy discourse about shelter and settlements. We will need to change. The gap between the rich and the poor is growing – both between countries and within countries and urban areas.”

The fact that nearly three-quarters (75 percent) (Cities Alliance 2008:2) of the current urban population lives in slums, often unrecognized and un-serviced by their local governments, is clearly an affirmation that the current framework for urban development planning and management has not been able to cope with the problems of urbanization in these countries. The rapid growth of urbanization has not been reflected in investment in urban development management. However, the challenge of mass poverty is one of the problems that stakeholders of urban planning and management have to deal with. Cities are historically centres of economic growth, prosperity, and cultural vitality.

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Manifestations are a serious challenge to cities of the Anglophone Sub-Saharan African countries. Finding innovative solutions to poverty – individual, household and state/societal is a challenge as reflected by Hague (2005:68), “Poverty is now central to any dialogue on urban development, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. Social reform and concern to better the living conditions of the urban poor were important influences on the formation of a town-planning profession, yet as planning became a statutory function, it became technocratic increasingly divorced from an understanding of poverty. This is one reason why planning has been marginalized – or even demonized – in policy discourse about shelter and settlements. We will need to change.

The gap between the rich and the poor is growing – both between countries and within countries and urban areas” The fact that nearly three-quarters (75 percent) (Cities Alliance 2008:2) of the current urban population lives in slums, often unrecognized and un-serviced by their local governments, is clearly an affirmation that the current framework for urban development planning and management has not been able to cope with the problems of urbanization in these countries. The rapid growth of urbanization has not been reflected in investment in urban development management. Furthermore, the role of the civil society is vital in management of urban problems. Against the backdrop of the failure of centralized states in the developmental project, civil society was gradually conceived as alternative deliverer of social services and welfare, thus providing solution to the in capacities of the state as well as the inequalities of the capitalist development(Olayode,2005).The United State Agency for International Development (USAID expresses this view thus: The components of civil society, the broad-based groups, the networks and communication among these groups, are at the heart of what USAID and may development agencies are trying to achieve (USAID, 1994).

THE WEAKNESS OF URBAN PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT INSTITUTIONS

Perhaps, the most fundamental and critical challenge faced by urban areas in most developing countries, particularly in Anglophone (Sub-Saharan) African countries is the crippling weakness of institutions of urban development planning and management. Municipal authorities are usually too short of sufficient funds to meet their responsibilities. Daily, the fiscal management problems and financial shortfalls are compounded. The institutional base and infrastructure for effective urban planning and urban development management is still largely weak and in a state of flux – urban local governments with weak and unviable revenue base, with inadequate technical and administrative skills and as yet limited political will and

Don Okpala GRHS 2009: Regional Report Anglophone Africa commitment on the part of the central and other higher level governments to let the local institutions and their instruments function. The fact remains however that: "... the impact of programmes aimed at urban shelter, services and infrastructure depends upon the quality of the institutions responsible for planning and implementing these projects. The institutional machinery provides the channel through which the urban sector issues and priorities are articulated, projects are planned and implemented and Inter-sector complementarily is accomplished. Institutions serve as the most critical intervening factors through which economic resources and skills are utilized for, among other things, promoting sustainable urban development" (Cheema 1987). Planning, after all, is only as effective as the administrative system supporting it and the political philosophy, willingness and commitment of the state in which it operates allows it to be (McAuslan 1985). Most central and state governments in Anglophone Africa are yet to allow this institutional strengthening at the local level, and this is a fundamental challenge to effective urban development planning and management. The last challenge is poor governance, corruption and waste of resources. From Nigeria,

5.0 SUMMARY

Modernization theory explains development as the process of moving from traditional to modern ways/ approaches of doing things. This is the idea of the Western European countries that the less developed or developing countries of Africa, Latin America and Asia must be westernised or modernized to enable them develop. However, in the face of the disturbing proliferation of national development plans in Nigeria, and other African countries and the world at large, there still largely exist development gaps that have reached levels that can be appropriately dubbed problematic. In fact, several years of development planning in the Nigeria for instance has failed to produce the supposed much sought-after sustainable development. To properly implement development processes urban planning must be based on facts that can be collected and made known, and this collection and assembling of information represent the first stage in the development of a comprehensive or master plan. To achieve many of the precepts is a function of good governance, which is shown in increased public sector efficiency or reduced poverty, necessarily implies a loss to some groups. Comprehensive plan includes principal sources of the planning data from the community or area, and should provide such information as general population, school population, existing land uses patterns, tax rates, bounded indebtedness, capacity of utilities, subdivision regulations, housing and parks. The comprehensive plan is not a set of mandatory hard and fast rules and regulations.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS (TMA)

1. Explain the problem of development planning in Nigeria.
2. Mention factors that affect the administration of the urban system:
3. Mention and explain five problems of urbanization

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MODULE SIX

UNIT 1: SELECTED CASE STUDY OF URBAN SYSTEM

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 Main content

3.1 Toronto

3.2 London/ England

3.3 Minneapolis-Saint Paul-U.S.A.

3.4 Lagos

3.5 Onitsha

3.6 Problems of urban planning in Nigeria: the Onitsha experience

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignments

7.0 References/Further Reading

1. 0 INTRODUCTION

Urbanization and demographic shift is very significant for uneven urban population. This is responsible for population growth in some regions and slow growth in others. It also increases cultural diversity in cities, with resulting pressures on social cohesion and for economic integration of migrants. Urban management means that the city governments together with other urban stakeholders like civil society organizations, private sector and local communities assume an active role in mobilization, management and coordination of resources to support the objectives of urban development and ensure vitality of cities. Thus, urban governance refers to the process through which democratically elected local governments and the range of stakeholders in cities such as business associations, unions, civil societies and citizens, make decisions about how to plan, finance and manage the urban realm. In this session, we will examine some case of urban areas and their developmental processes.

As it is our custom the session will be divided in sub-headings. Please study with keen interest as we move study the cases one after the other.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module students should be able to:

Explain the development and planning of the following urban systems

- Toronto
- Lagos
- Northern Ontario and
- Onitsha amongst others

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Urbanization and demographic shift is very significant for uneven urban population. This is responsible for population growth in some regions and slow growth in others. It also increases cultural diversity in cities, with resulting pressures on social cohesion and for economic integration of migrants. Urban management means that the city governments together with other urban stakeholders like civil society organizations, private sector and local communities assume an active role in mobilization, management and coordination of resources to support the objectives of urban development and ensure vitality of cities. Thus, urban governance refers to the process through which democratically elected local governments and the range of stakeholders in cities such as business associations, unions, civil societies and citizens, make decisions about how to plan, finance and manage the urban realm. In this session, we will examine some case of urban areas and their developmental processes.

As it is our custom the session will be divided in sub-headings. Please study with keen interest as we move study the cases one after the other.

3.1 TORONTO

Toronto has been widely studied because of its successful experience with two-tier government. Although studies confirm that this early experiment with two-tier government was an important model of local government structure, it has subsequently been disbanded and Toronto is now a one-tier city. Metropolitan Toronto was created by provincial legislation on January 1, 1954. It was a two-tier government structure with a metropolitan tier that encompassed thirteen lower-tier municipalities. The two-tier government structure was created for three reasons. First, the creation of a metropolitan level of government allowed for the relative wealth of the central city to be used to pay for services in the suburbs. By the mid-50's, the central city had no vacant land for development. The suburban municipalities did not have sufficient resources to provide the infrastructure required for new development (educational facilities, roads, water, and other services). The creation of a metropolitan tier of government allowed the wealth of the central city (measured by the size of its property tax base) to be redistributed to the suburbs to provide needed services.

Second, the metropolitan government could coordinate land use planning and transportation across the city-region. Fragmented local governments had meant that services such as transportation and land use planning were not coordinated across the city-region. Since the benefits of these services spilled over into other jurisdictions, there was increasingly a need for governing body with wider jurisdiction to coordinate the provision of these services.

Third, at the same time, the metropolitan government could be used to address issues of redistribution and spillover at the lower tiers and could provide the local services that they could afford. These lower tiers could be more responsive to local needs than could a large metropolitan government that provided uniform services across a broader area. Smaller governments also provided easier access for residents. In the two-tier government structure in Metro Toronto, both levels of government was involved in providing services. The metropolitan level was responsible for borrowing, transit, police services, social assistance, traffic control and operations, licensing, conservation, waste disposal, and ambulance services. Lower-tier governments were assigned responsibility for fire protection, garbage collection, licensing and inspection, local distribution of hydro-electric power, public health, recreation and community services, and tax collection. Both tiers shared responsibility for parks, planning, roads and traffic control, sewage disposal, and water supply. Redistribution within the metropolitan area was achieved through a combination of tax and spending policies. On the tax side, the main source of local revenue to the metropolitan government was the property tax levied on residential, commercial, and industrial properties.

On January 1, 1998, the new City of Toronto came into being by replacing the former metropolitan level of government and its constituent lower-tier municipalities (Toronto, Etobicoke, North York, Scarborough, York, and East York) with a single-tier city. This restructuring was not initiated by local initiative but by the provincial government through the passage of Bill 103, the City of Toronto Act, 1996. Indeed, opposition to the proposed amalgamation

came from many different quarters, centred on the loss of local identity and reduced access to local government.

Following the amalgamation of Toronto, the Province also established the Greater Toronto Services Board (GTSB). The GTSB was given no legislative authority except to oversee regional transit. It was not designed to be a level of government nor was it given direct tax in authority. The GTSB was comprised of elected officials from each of the municipalities in the GTA. It has since been disbanded, however, with the important function of regional transit being taken over by the provincial government. Within the GTA, the costs of social services and social housing are pooled across the city region through an equalization formula which measures the capacity of each municipality to contribute to these costs.

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 6.1

Explain reasons for the creation of a two-tier government structure in Toronto

The Greater Vancouver Regional District is a model of voluntary cooperation within a two-tier structure. The Greater Vancouver Regional District was created in 1967 as part of a system of regional governments being created by the provincial government in the province of British Columbia at that time. There are just over 1.8 million people in the GVRD. It comprises 18 municipalities as full members and three unincorporated areas. Prior to 1965, inter-municipal services in metropolitan Vancouver. They were largely handled by special-purpose bodies such as the Joint Sewerage and Drainage Board, a Greater Vancouver Water District, various healths and Planning Board, and an Industrial

Development Commission of Greater Vancouver. These single-purpose bodies were completely voluntary. GVRD was created to increase municipal cooperation. Regional organization in the Vancouver area has always been characterized by voluntary participation of individual municipal governments and an approach of consensus building. The advantages of the Vancouver model are that it preserves local autonomy, diversity, and the distinct identity of its member municipalities.

3.2 LONDON/ENGLAND

The Greater London Authority Act was proclaimed in 1999 and the new Greater London Authority with a directly elected Mayor came into being on July 3, 2002. Greater London comprises 32 boroughs and the Corporation of London. The population of Greater London is 7.4 million. From 1964 to 1986, London was governed by a two-tier structure: the Greater London Council and 32 boroughs (each with its own mayor and council). In 1986, then Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher abolished the Greater London Council but left the 32 boroughs in place. London's governance became a direct responsibility of the government ministers (coordinated by a Cabinet sub-committee headed by a Junior Minister for London) and joint agreements.

Since there was no metropolitan authority, ad hoc arrangements were used for regional planning. In 1994, the Government Office for London (GOL) was established to allow the central government to act as a strategic authority. It brought together the regional offices of line ministries, 32 lower tiers of local government, the boroughs, and agencies with London responsibilities. The new Greater London Authority Act created two new elected bodies. The

25-member Assembly elected from two different electoral bases (14 on a constituency basis and 11 London-wide) and the Mayor (who is not a member of the Assembly). Together, the Mayor and the Assembly constitute the GLA. This system of governance is unique in England. The Mayor appoints the Chief Executive, sets the administration budget and ensures proper management of funds from the central government. The Assembly's powers, on the other hand, are limited to scrutiny of the Mayor. The Assembly has no service responsibilities. The GLA's principal purpose is to promote economic development and wealth creation, social development, and the environment. It is not permitted to spend directly on any function that is assigned to the boroughs (such as housing, education, social, or health services).

3.3 MINNEAPOLIS-SAINT PAUL-U.S.A

Many U.S. metropolitan areas are characterized by fragmented local government structures. Minneapolis-Saint Paul provides an interesting example of voluntary cooperation in one specific area – tax base sharing. In the early 1990s, Saint Paul had to raise its taxes dramatically and cut services because of increasing social responsibilities. At the same time, some of the richer suburbs were reducing taxes and maintaining high levels of service. The idea behind regionalizing the property tax base was to make the growing property wealth available to all parts of the region to meet social needs. Property tax base sharing also reduces the fiscal incentives towards exclusionary zoning and urban sprawl. Each of the above case studies of governing structure applies to large cities. Much less has been written about governing smaller communities, especially in remote areas.

Northern Ontario provides an example of governance that entails a modified two-tier structure with significant provincial government involvement.

The population of Northern Ontario is approximately 840,000. Population density is very low: The population of Northern Ontario represents 7.4 percent of the provincial population but the land area represents 89 percent of the provincial total. Municipalities in Northern Ontario are located in one of 11 territorial districts. Territorial districts exist only for judicial and administrative purposes and, with the exception of one, not as municipal government units. They are simply geographic areas, the boundaries of which are set out in provincial legislation. They have no governing structure (provincial or local) attached to them. Municipalities located within territorial districts are single-tier municipalities (cities, towns, townships, and villages).

In Northern Ontario, there are 155 municipalities, 104 First Nations, and over 150 unincorporated communities. Unincorporated communities (also known as unorganized territories) are communities without municipal organization. They are not subject to the provisions of the Municipal Act (provincial legislation governing municipalities). Services in these unincorporated communities are provided by local services boards, local roads boards, or by district boards. The provincial government may also provide services directly to these communities, including, for example, public health, education, airports, policing, land use planning, and waste management. Property owners in these communities pay a Provincial Land Tax (PLT) to the provincial government but this amount does not cover the cost of service delivery.

Unincorporated communities can establish a Local Services Board (LSB). Any ten property owners (18 years of age or older) that are Canadian citizens may establish an LSB by calling a meeting and giving proper notice of the meeting. LSBs, of which there are 45 in Northern Ontario, can be established for the following services: water supply, fire protection, sewage, street lighting, recreation, roads, and public library service. There are no upper-tier governments in Northern Ontario. There are, however, district wide boards that act in some ways like an upper tier government but they do not necessarily provide all local services. For example, District Social Services Administration Boards (DSSABs), of which there are eleven, are the delivery agents for social services and social housing.

3.4 LAGOS, NIGERIA

Nigeria's Lagos is the second largest city in Africa, and the fastest growing Megacity in the world. Its current population figure stands at 20 million and is expected to hit the 25 million mark by 2015. However, its rapid urbanization followed by an unplanned urban expansion as well as the historical trajectory facing the city in the last decades, result in the formation of a chaotic laboratory of urban/socioeconomic form which is yet far from the model of a balanced and effective polycentric development. Lagos land area is about 1,341.7 square mile with a population (million) of 17,552,942 and a population density of (sq mi) 13,000. The number of districts are 16 Local Government Areas and a population growth 6% per annum.

With a population density varying from 4000 to 20,000 (people per sq km), Lagos is an urban agglomeration composed by local and disconnected fragments, which fail to interact in a reciprocal way and highly depend on each

areas' eco-social profiles. The highest densities are found in the mainland's low-income areas (i.e. Shomolu), in the tip of Lagos Island (Ikoyi) and on Victoria Island. Business districts with luxurious high-glass towers as well as upper-class, spacious and green housing estates occupy a lower percentage of the metropolitan area; these scattered urban 'pockets' accommodate local elites and multinational companies and act as the city's global nodes.

Thus, Lagos' spatial structure hosts phenomena which often hold a dualistic character: On one hand the emerging wealth and increasing migration generate new socio-spatial mixtures and on the other, the latter encounter with a well-established structure rooted in kinship, ethnic homogeneity and communal land tenure, rather than merely in economic segregation. Informal growing as a result of the above processes, citizens' participation is limited at specific levels and certainly does not constitute an active part for the development of a cohesive urban strategy. Moreover, the role of urban professionals in Lagos remains marginal, while national policies are focused on enhancing the city's global profile, failing to incorporate everyday practices and the life of the urban majority - which remains invisible on paper (Agbola 1997; Peil 1991).

The effects of this failure give rise to privately organized initiatives and grassroots organizations, dealing with community engagement, deteriorating infrastructure, unemployment and environmental problems. Given the fact that a 68% of the working population in Lagos is accommodated by the informal sector and urban growth is spread through informal settlements, the potential of this hidden 'illegality' maybe the solution to an effective polycentric evolution. However, the dynamics of informality have recently begun to be recognised by

central governance which organizes ways of negotiation with local governments on the provision of an inclusive living environment, bottom-up approaches and participatory governance (Agbola 1997; Peil 1991).

According to Fashola (Fashola, 2010), these should integrate small-scale solutions to large-scale developmental imperatives, as education and skill development centers, expansion of small businesses, redistribution of facilities in the emerging new centers and elimination of the mismatch between population and infrastructure. Generally, the main sectors to be addressed the following years by the central government are: public transport and healthcare provision, waste and water management, unemployment and migration, security and environmental mitigation and adaptation. Nevertheless, the above initiatives are still in an experimental state regarding the enhancement of local communities' capacities as well as the strengthening of participatory governance and social sustainability.

Given that by the end of the twentieth century the world's 20 most populous cities have switched former Euro-American focus to a developing world bias within only 20 years (Adetokunbo, 2010), CITIES suggests that Lagos. Megacity is a unique case study. Lagos' urbanization is a consequence of its economic potential. Nigeria is blessed with vast human and natural resources: large and fairly good agricultural land, extensive forests, excellent fisheries, and a large labour force of about 150million (Olokesusi, 2011).

However, juxtaposed against the potentials for economic growth and sustainable development are deteriorating socio-economic conditions. Lagos state claims that she will continue to uphold its cherished values of working for the common good and collaborating with the Federal Government and the private sector in

mobilizing resources for the management of its megacity challenges (Bamidele, 2008). Yet, it must be noted that this should be matched with substantial discharge of social responsibility and political and economic decentralization, at an urban as much as at a regional and international scale, in order to sustain a long-term, urban development. (Bamidele, 2008)

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 6.2

Describe the structure of Lagos urban system

3.5 ONITSHA, NIGERIA

Onitsha is a city on the eastern side of the lower Niger basin about 1 km south of the confluence with the Anambra river in Anambra state. It is approximately between latitude 6°, 10 N and longitude 6°, 47E and measures about 150 miles north of river Niger (Henderson and Henderson 1962:15). The city and its environs belong to the equatorial rain forest belt of West Africa and receives more than 80 inch of rainfall annually, mostly during six months of the raining season (Milne 1939: 773) According to Elekwa (1991:21) pointed out that the boundaries of Onitsha are drawn closely around the town itself, so that, if the town expands to north and east it will inevitably encroach into the territories of *Anambra* and *Idemili* local government areas A critical look at the Onitsha planning framework reveals that there is a comprehensive plan. As Onitsha started to engulf neighbouring villages of *Nkpor*, *Nsugbe* and *Obosi*, the Anambra state government then commissioned the Onitsha master plan in 1978 to check the physical development of the town (see fig 5). Originally the plan was designed to last for twenty years and has provisions for infrastructure based

on the projected population of the town. The master plan of 1978 has hardly been subjected to modifications based on the trends of growth in terms of population and industrialization especially small scale industries. For instance certain areas are not zoned for residential or for industrial projects, but if the master plan is being modified it will meet and accommodate the needs of both industrial and residential purposes.

3.6 PROBLEMS OF URBAN PLANNING IN NIGERIA: THE ONITSHA EXPERIENCE

Despite the effort of successive administrations in Nigeria in ensuring qualitative developmental control through urban planning, the problems of urban planning is still a fact of life in many urban areas in Nigeria today (Amujiri 2001: 406). In specific terms, the problems of urban planning in Nigeria and Onitsha in particular can be examined as follows:

Patterns of Settlement

According to UN Habitat report (1976:22); in Nigeria, little attention is been paid to sectoral and financial planning with the total neglect of physical planning. This has led to disorderly spatial and environmental development. The result in the words of Okeagu (1996: 39) is an outmoded urban structure providing little satisfaction from the point of view of efficiency and aesthetics. This pattern of unplanned or uncontrolled urban growth and settlement pattern has created a special brand of problem in almost every urban area in Nigeria, especially Onitsha.

Lack of Involvement of Operational Agencies

In Nigeria, while developing urban plans, master plans, commercial and residential layouts and the likes, operational agencies have not been fully involved. Successive administrations in Nigeria have been hiring consultants to develop plans. Green (1981:30) stated that this has been done in Lagos, Kano, Kaduna, Jos, Onitsha, Enugu, Maiduguri, Port-Harcourt and many other cities in Nigeria. Green (1981:31) further noted that co-ordination is not a static abstract activity, but rather a process of dynamic adaptation to changing circumstances. The use of consultants and non-involvement of operational agencies poses serious problems to urban planning in Nigeria.

Inadequate Qualified Manpower

Another major problem of urban planning is the inadequate qualified manpower to face the large planning and management responsibility; confronting it. Urban planning activities need a well-qualified architect, surveyor, building inspector, drawing technicians, land valuation officers, site officers and a host of field officers. All these are lacking in most urban areas.

Political Interference

Urban planning in Nigeria usually encounters service problems as a result of political interference. This has resulted in politically motivated urban plans, layouts, buildings plans and construction of houses on unplanned locations. This has equally led to the distortion of master plans of some cities, illegal conversion of government reserved areas to commercial or industrial areas which constitute security risks and adversely affect urban planning.

Problems of Housing and Living Conditions

Undoubtedly, poor housing conditions prevail in the majority of urban areas in Nigeria especially in Onitsha. Despite all efforts, acute shortage of suitable and decent accommodation especially among the low income groups in urban areas like Onitsha. This has posed a serious to urban planning. Surveys of housing conditions have indicated qualitative and quantitative deficiencies in residential accommodation in major towns and cities in Nigeria.

Issues of Management and Institutional Framework

Most of the problems of urbanization in Nigeria according to Sada (1981:51) arise because of a certain dogged reluctance on the part of government to confront the fact that for Africa at least, ours is a highly urbanized country. There is nowhere the government has formally defined what an urban centre is and what are the powers, responsibilities and privileges of such community (Amujiri 2001:412). This question of legal status of an urban centre is critical as it affects the importance attached to their management. According to Bali (1997), urban planning must be based on facts that can be collected and made known, and this collection and assembling of information represent the first stage in the development of a comprehensive or master plan. To Meyerson (1961), the comprehensive plan includes principal sources of the planning data from the community or area, and should provide such information as general population, school population, existing land uses patterns, tax rates, bounded indebtedness, capacity of utilities, subdivision regulations, housing and parks. The comprehensive plan is not a set of mandatory hard and fast rules and regulations. It should be flexible, and should be changed in the light of new conditions and

new developments. However, the comprehensive plan should cover such areas as land use, transportation, housing, conservation and safety.

Land use:

The land use aspect of the comprehensive plan shows the purposed general distribution, location and use of land for housing, business, industry, open spaces, education, public buildings and grounds, solid and liquid waste disposal facilities and other categories of public and private uses (Griselle 1973).

Transportation:

The transportation aspects show the location and extent of roads, high ways other systems and facilities for moving people and goods.

Housing:

The housing aspect of the plan show the programmes and methods of improving housing and the provision of adequate housing sites to meet the needs of all economic segments of the community or area.

Conservation:

The conservation aspect of the plan deals with the extent and means of achieving the conservation, preservation, development and use of natural resources. Open spaces/recreation, provision of open spaces for resources conservation and protection, outdoor recreation, public health and safety and agriculture.

Safety:

The safety aspect of the plan deals with the programmes for protection from noise, flood, fire as well as other natural or artificial hazards to public health and safety (Meyerson 1961). The adoption of a master plan by a city or metropolis does not automatically control land uses. This is because the plan itself has no

legal effect: it is commonly implemented by a variety of land use controls. According to Blair (1971), the legal means of such controls are the town and country planning land, building codes, zoning and sub-division regulations.

Building Codes:

These are a legislative set of principles for administrative guidance in regulating original construction and improvements. The code provides for minimum standards of building construction and conditions, and for human occupancy, and concerns such factors as lightening, ventilation, heating, sanitation plumbing, and electrical work, types of building materials and fire prevention and protection (Webster 1958). Building codes also cover a variety of commercial business such as bakeries, barber shop, drug stores, hospitals and hotels (Blair 1971). **Zoning:** According to Goodman (1968), zoning is a form of governmental regulations providing for the orderly social and economic development of an area. This tool is most frequently employed to regulate the use of land and buildings by restricting certain areas for industrial, business, residential, agricultural and other purposes.

Sub-division regulations:

The sub-division regulation is a statement of policy and standards which govern the sub-dividing or cutting up of large parcels of land into smaller parcels. It sets forth the community's policies regarding the needs for public facilities, pavement widths, and development standards, for control and facilities (Lynch 1975). The increasing rate of urbanization has produced the need for urban and regional planners in Nigeria to develop policies which can control and manage urbanization (Tylor 2000). Because of the growth of the city, the practice of planning and managing cities in Nigeria has become progressively more

demanding in terms of resources, organization and skill (Onibukun 1989: 49). Although the number and size of agencies responsible for generating policies and exerting powers in Nigerian cities have grown over the years, there has not been a corresponding improvement in the quality and quantity of urban services rendered (Fourchard, 2002).

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAE) 6.3

Describe the patterns of settlement in Onitsha urban system

4.0 CONCLUSION

Urban management means that the city governments together with other urban stakeholders like civil society organizations, private sector and local communities assume an active role in mobilization, management and coordination of resources to support the objectives of urban development and ensure vitality of cities. To study urban management we looked at various cities like Toronto which has been widely studied because of its successful experience with two-tier government. Metropolitan Toronto was created by provincial legislation on January 1, 1954. It was a two-tier government structure with a metropolitan tier that encompassed thirteen lower-tier municipalities. London, as a case study we learnt that the Greater London Authority Act proclaimed in 1999 and the new Greater London Authority with a directly elected Mayor came into being on July 3, 2002. Greater London comprises 32 boroughs and the Corporation of London.

The population of Greater London is 7.4 million. From 1964 to 1986, London was governed by a two-tier structure: the Greater London Council and 32 boroughs (each with its own mayor and council). In this module we also learnt that many U.S. metropolitan areas are characterized by fragmented local

government structures. Minneapolis-Saint Paul provides an interesting example of voluntary cooperation in one specific area – tax base sharing. Northern Ontario. Each of the above case studies of governing structure applies to large cities. Much less has been written about governing smaller communities, especially in remote areas. For Lagos, we understood that Lagos Nigeria is the second largest city in Africa, and the fastest growing Megacity in the world. Its current population figure stands at 20 million and is expected to hit the 25 million mark by 2015. Onitsha is a city on the eastern side of the lower Niger basin about 1 km south of the confluence with the Anambra river in Anambra state. The city and its environs belong to the equatorial rain forest belt of West Africa and receives more than 80 inch of rainfall annually, mostly during six months of the rainy season (Milne 1939: 773)

5.0 SUMMARY

The structure of power in urban systems is important because it shapes both the physical and social character of urban regions, impacts on the quantity and quality of local public services and the efficiency with which they are delivered. Large cities and regions differ from each other in terms of size and density, financial and administrative capability and complexity of the challenges they face. This shows that cities have different or asymmetric governance arrangements and powers. This position can be seen in the cases like Lagos, Toronto, Onitsha, among other cities. The structure of political power in the urban system is on a hierarchical form which the urban government is in the local state, local government, and municipal government, with the local government acting as a political mechanism through which local communities can express its collective objectives as well as provide various services to the local resident.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS (TMA)

1. Explain the urbanization processes of any three urban areas that you know.
2. Explain the new Greater London Authority Act created two new elected bodies.
3. Explain the Problem of urban planning in Nigeria using Onitsha as a case study.

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