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FOREWORD

It is easy for pessimists to conclude that a holiday of ten years in the life of a journal that disseminates research knowledge for human development has permanently brought to an end this mode of communication.

The Journal of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners (NITP) was created with the lofty objective of providing a medium for the dissemination of current research findings to town planners and those who may wish to use such findings and studies for physical development planning in Nigeria. This Journal which was published twice a year went out of circulation about a decade ago since 1988, which was Volume X.

Apparently, this interval cannot be unconnected with the prohibitive cost of publishing in the face of the prevailing economic malaise in the country. In spite of this, however, the hope of reading the NITP Journal again is not lost as it bounces back to life in its tradition of publishing well researched papers by competent and experienced authors in the planning profession.

My appreciation therefore goes to members of my Council, the Editor - In - Chief of the Journal, Dr. H. C. Mba, FNITP, RTP and his team, and all who have made invaluable contributions to revive this Journal. It is my hope that the Journal will not be allowed again to suffer such a long 'break' as more and more research findings are begging for publication. Members of the Institute and users alike, should continue to do their best to sustain the publication of this invaluable document.

We should all bear in mind the fact that the NITP Journal is a veritable and indispensable instrument for dissemination of planning information especially in this era when town planning and physical development planning are passing through a crucial developmental phase in Nigeria. There are roles for all to play in advancing the course of the planning profession.

It is hoped that you will find the NITP Journal very useful for your various planning endeavours and also a valuable document to keep. I solicit your continuous cooperation so as to ensure continuous publication of the Journal.

Long Live the NITP Journal.

Long Live the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners.

MR. EMMANUEL E. NZE, FNITP, RTP
NATIONAL PRESIDENT OF THE NITP
(1996 - 1998)
EDITORIAL

The Journal has at last resurfaced after exactly ten years of absence. It is unfortunate that earlier efforts at resuscitating it failed. This has been due mainly to the national economic crunch which made the cost of production very prohibitive. However, since professional and academic development must not be allowed to cease, for whatever reason; efforts at reviving the Journal have not only continued, but have finally yielded fruitful results. We are grateful to Gbenga Christ - Leads Publishing Company for continued magnanimity.

Although the logo and other special features of the Journal have been retained, the new edition has necessarily introduced some changes in order to ensure that we "move with the changing times". For example, the articles have been printed in two columns. Moreover, advertisements both in pictorial and written form are encouraged. It is hoped that these will enhance the appeal and appearance of the Journal.

Book reviews are particularly welcome especially at this time when many of our colleagues are beginning to author books in urban and regional planning. The Journal welcomes original articles that report empirical investigations in planning as well as those that present critical discussions of topical issues in planning legislations and practice.

The Editorial Board
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PUBLICATION ACQUISITION OF LAND FOR LANDSCAPING AND OPEN SPACE MANAGEMENT
Dr. J. B. Falade, MNITP, RTP

ABSTRACT

The paper provides a working definition of public open spaces, examines the functional and aesthetic roles and discusses the associated landscape development and management problems, arising from the country’s rapid urban growth. It argues the case for open space provisions and landscape planning and management as critical steps for remedying the current open space deficiencies and abuses, unsatisfied outdoor recreational pursuits and demands, and the preponderance of overcrowded and squalid housing and the loss of amenity in cities. Towards effective management of open spaces, the paper recommends as follows: setting-up adequate institutional framework by establishing a ‘parks and gardens unit’ at the local government level to fill existing gaps; establishment of landscape planning and management training programmes in the polytechnics and universities to train both middle and senior professionals in the discipline; and adoption of a comprehensive physical planning and land use policy which places great emphasis on landscape improvement than hitherto experienced in the country. The strategies for land acquisition and financing of landscape development projects are discussed.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nigeria, with a population of about 100 million people, is currently among the foremost rapidly urbanizing countries in Africa. On the average, urban population is growing at 3% per annum, although higher growth figures (as much as 6%) have been recorded in Metropolitan Lagos and other cities. Urban population, as percent of total population, rose from 10.5% in 1963 to 33 percent in 1989. The latter figure is estimated to rise to 41% by the year 2010. The country’s high urbanization figure has several implications for every aspect of the people’s socio-economic and cultural life style, including parks’ development for outdoor recreation, landscape improvement and environmental conservation for healthy living. In particular, the negative relationship between open space problems and current urban growth has been established in some studies. The higher the rate of urbanization, the greater the deficiency of open spaces and the poorer and uglier the amenity and environmental sanitation attained in these cities. This situation, no doubt, mimics the painful experiences of the developed countries of the world during the 19th century, when serious urbanization and development were achieved at the expense of physical planning and public health. On the contrary, Nigerian towns and cities, despite the adoption of physical planning, have witnessed unprecedented growth as well as the associated land use problems. Effective control of urban growth in most cities currently has outstripped, the structure and machinery set-up in most local governments and planning authorities (O’Connor, 1984) due to serious capacity constraints in the area of physical planning and land use control (Falade, 1988).

Nevertheless, the importance of open spaces and gardens in the use and structure of urban centres cannot be overemphasized. The term “built-up

* Dr. J. B. Falade is Programme Manager, United Nations Development Programme, Lagos, and formerly of Obafemi Awolowo University Ile-Ife.

landscape" is a misnomer, because no city is completely built-up (i.e., filled-up with buildings). The different land uses in any city can be grouped into two broad landscape elements. On the one hand, are the buildings which house the various uses such as industry, housing, commerce, education etc. On the other hand, are their surrounding open spaces such as parks, private yards, roads, paths, undeveloped land etc. The other important elements are the people for whom the city is built and the natural environmental and climatic factors on which the successful management and sustainability of the humanized landscapes (the landscape of man) depend.

Indeed, no city can function effectively without adequate provision for buildings and open spaces for all activities. Unfortunately, more emphasis is placed on buildings at the expense of open space provision, leading to undesirable congestion, claustrophobia and loss of amenity. This is because the city's beauty, visual form, use and appreciation are wholly dependent on the quantity and quality of its open spaces which embellish the buildings. When harmony exists between the city's buildings and their adjoining open spaces, it is simply functional, liveable, amenable and enjoyable. But planning for open spaces in Nigeria to achieve these stated goals is currently far from being realized.

1.1 A Working Definition of Open Spaces

The paper conceives of open space as "land not built upon" (Byrom, 1974) "which may be either natural, or man-made, or land developed as gardens and recreation grounds, or undeveloped land which has value for recreational purposes, amenity and conservation of land and other natural resources, historic or scenic landscape, or areas of outstanding natural beauty" (Eckbo, 1973). As a broad land use category, open space is of different types. It covers anything from the small front and back gardens in private residential houses, to the larger and more functional types such as school playing fields, recreation grounds, race courses, golf courses, polo grounds, public parks, botanical gardens, arboreta, country parks and regional parks. The term open spaces also embraces" natural landscapes such as water areas, rivers, valleys, hills, mountains, lakes, oceans and bays".

Open spaces can be classified according to ownership, size, location, catchment area, development potential, recreational facilities and landscape character (Colvin, 1970). The classification based on ownership has been adopted in this paper and the different categories of open spaces include those owned by private, public, communal and institutional bodies. By "public open space" is meant "land laid out as space essential for public use and managed by a public agency" (Chadwick, 1966). Communal and institutional open spaces differ from public open spaces, in that public access is often denied in some of them. However, for all intent and planning purposes, the various open spaces in urban areas are related, but have different roles.
Generally, the most vulnerable and abused forms of open spaces are those owned by, but disowned through neglect usually by public authorities. If an open space is not owned by anyone, it is difficult to manage and is often subjected to abuse and encroachment.

2. URBAN OPEN SPACE PLANNING PROBLEMS

2.1 Gross Deficiency in Open Space Provision in Urban Areas:

Concomitant with the rising urban growth in the country, there is an acute shortage of open spaces as well as widespread abuses of the existing ones in many urban centres. Urban land use studies show that there are gross deficiencies in the necessary amount and range of open spaces and recreational facilities in these cities (Falade, 1988). There is overcrowding in housing areas, especially in high density housing suburbs, where people are confined to buildings without spaces for outdoor recreation and gardening. Here, the street is the children's play ground. The amount of public open spaces provided in older Nigerian cities varies from 0.3% (for Ile-Ife) to 4% (for Kaduna) of the total area developed. Moreover, what people take for granted as public open spaces in most towns are either in private or institutional ownership. In Zaria, for example, out of 23 hectares of land in open space use, 17.30 hectares are in private ownership and have been developed as race course and the golf course, leaving the remaining 5 hectares as open spaces accessible to the general public. The planners who prepared the Land Use Master Plan for Zaria, therefore allocated some 559 hectares to redress the identified deficiencies in public open spaces.

The problem of deficiency of public open spaces is compounded by the non-development of land reservations in suburban housing schemes. At Ile-Ife, for example, some 47 hectares of land were allocated to public open spaces in the various private sector-led residential layouts numbering 224 development proposals approved in the city between 1960 and 1983. However, none of them was developed. The experiences of other cities are not different. All the public open spaces approved in the Land Use Plan for Festac Town, Lagos, have been subjected to either encroachment or misappropriation by the authorities. Festac's experience is quite deplorable, because this problem is stemming from a public sector-led development. The two main constraints are: firstly the planning authorities in these two cases are yet to establish a viable institutional framework for development and management of public open spaces, and secondly, these authorities are yet to adopt a comprehensive land use policy for landscape development and management.

2.2 Enroachment of Land Use on Open Spaces

Fast population growth often leads to rapid outward expansion of towns and cities with the attendant problems of congestion, overcrowding and loss of green fields. As a result of urbanization, more and more green fields at the urban fringes are
increasingly giving way to urban development. According to Mumford (1971), "we have deflowered the forests to build our cities".

High land values often engender high land speculation by estate developers and managers. This phenomenon coupled with inadequate development control often encourages encroachment on open spaces, whether public or private, for building purposes. Cases of such encroachment abound in many cities. Whenever there are conflicting claims between the various land use categories such as housing, parking, commercial and industrial and open space uses, the loser is always the open space. The commonest but most objectionable and unhealthy abuses of open spaces are the ones subjected to indiscriminate dumping of refuse and garbage, leading to environmental pollution and loss of amenity. Again this problem is due partly to inadequacies in planning and partly to the inadequacies of local and municipal government.

2.3 Unsatisfied Outdoor Leisure Pursuits in Urban Areas

The gross deficiencies in public open spaces have also manifested in the paucity of leisure facilities in urban areas, resulting in inhibition and unsatisfied leisure pursuits and demands by urban dwellers. The effects of inadequate provision of leisure facilities and recreational open spaces on the urban population is well documented by Falade (1985) and Falade and Bakare (1990). Falade (1985) which is briefly drawn upon in this paper, utilized the empirical recreation data collected in Ile-Ife and Jos to analyze the following three hypotheses, using the multiple regression analytical technique.

(a) That outdoor leisure pursuit was dependent on the socio-economic and demographic factors of respondents such as age, income, educational level, occupation, marital status, club membership, all of which are among the information sought for in the questionnaire administered in the study;

(b) That outdoor leisure pursuit by the respondents was dependent on the availability of recreational open spaces and accessibility by foot to open spaces such as parks, private gardens, school playgrounds, club recreation grounds, stadia, children's playgrounds etc.; and

(c) That outdoor leisure pursuit by the respondents was dependent on the combined influence of the factors stated in (a) and (b)

By so doing, the significance of each of the stated factors in explaining the variations observed in the respondents' leisure pursuits can be measured objectively and mathematically, utilizing the step-wise regression analytical technique. The analyses show that the identified factors were individually correlated to varying extents with outdoor leisure pursuits. It is interesting to note that factors such as female sex, car ownership and low educational level are negatively and poorly correlated with outdoor leisure pursuits; whereas other factors such as public parks, school playing fields and private
gardens are positively and fairly correlated with outdoor leisure pursuits. (See tables 1 and 2). The analyses show that the observed differences in the respondents' leisure pursuits were attributable more to availability of recreational open spaces than the variations analyzed with respect to the differences in their socio-economic and demographic factors. While socio-economic factors accounted for as little as 3 percent of the total variation observed, availability of public parks, playgrounds, private yards, children's playgrounds and accessibility by foot accounted for 49 percent. The interpretation is that availability of open spaces and their accessibility by foot are significant factors which influence the respondents' full participation in leisure pursuits. The study concluded by endorsing the need to provide more recreational facilities, and argued that their provision will induce usage by the urban population.

TABLE 1: CORRELATION BETWEEN OUTDOOR LEISURE PURSUITS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS AND RECREATIONAL SPACES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor/Recreational Spaces</th>
<th>Outdoor Recreation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor Leisure pursuits</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income level</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car ownership</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low educational level</td>
<td>-0.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Club membership</td>
<td>0.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female sex</td>
<td>-0.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidental open spaces</td>
<td>0.334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children's playgrounds</td>
<td>0.246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private yards and gardens</td>
<td>0.316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School playing fields</td>
<td>0.394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public parks and gardens</td>
<td>0.353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility by foot</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>-0.042</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


TABLE 2: REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF OUTDOOR LEISURE PURSUITS WITH SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS AND RECREATIONAL OPEN SPACES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors in the Equation</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>R2</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>F - Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School playgrounds</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>53.98***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidental open spaces</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>37.82***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children's playgrounds</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>36.56***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public parks and gardens</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>17.56***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private yards and gardens</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>20.59**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female sex</td>
<td>-0.66</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>6.98**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Low educational level  -0.45  0.49  0.27  2.68*  
Married       -0.24  0.49  0.24  1.02*  
Car ownership -0.34  0.50  0.28  1.54*  
Low income    -0.8D-04  0.50  0.00  1.29*  
Accessibility by foot 0.11  0.50  0.34  0.11*  
Age           0.2D-02  0.50  0.02  0.1*  
CONSTANT      2.28

Notes:
R² = Per cent contribution to variation observed (Explained Variance)
F-Ratio = Validity Ratio
*** = Significant at 1 percent level
** = Significant at 5 percent level
* = Significant at 10 percent level
D-04 = 10ª

2.4 Inadequate Institutional Framework

Open spaces offer opportunities for the improvement and aesthetic appeal of towns and cities. There is a general lack of amenity in most cities in the country. This problem has been attributed to the lack of pursuit of landscape planning, design and management objectives in promoting land use development. In particular, there are no departments for development of open spaces in most local governments and planning authorities. The only exceptions are old Anambra, Enugu and probably Lagos States which at one time or the other toyed with the idea of setting-up their own open space development commissions. From a comparative study, the few university campuses that have emerged with attractive open spaces and landscapes are the ones that set-up very virile and dynamic parks and garden units. A case in point is the Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife; which is currently regarded as one of Africa's most beautiful campuses.

It is noteworthy that the ad hoc response to promote environmental sanitation as an offshoot of the War Against Indiscipline (WAI) led to the development of public parks in some cities. The task forces set-up to implement the objectives of WAI in some northern towns like Yola, Jos and Kaduna were able to develop some parks. As an ad hoc response, the results were not sustainable. What is required is not just ad hoc measures to landscape improvement, but a sustainable institutional and policy framework for doing so.

3. THE CASE FOR OPEN SPACES PROVISION IN URBAN CENTRES

It is an irony today for one to start over again to argue the case for open space provision in Nigerian cities. This is because studies of indigenous settlements revealed that our early fathers in human settlements provided
for all kinds of public and private open spaces, ranging from the village greens, town squares, sacred gardens and squares, private yards and the royal gardens. Before the country was plunged into the present rate of urbanization and the towns became inundated with motor traffic, the entire city was the people’s playground.

At the beginning of this century, the colonial administrators gave us a legacy of urban planning strategy which provided for open spaces, private gardens, public parks and amenity ground. This is evident in the number of public parks provided in the colonial cities founded by the early 20th century. The importance attached to parks development and private gardens is also evident in the suburban residential areas developed by them as outlets for extending the growth of older towns, which are otherwise known as Government Reservation Areas (GRAs), all of which were based on the garden city concepts.

However, the post-independence era witnessed the abandonment of the planning principles which extol landscape development and management objectives such that Duckworth (1950) denounced the neglect in the following unequivocal terms.

The desire for beauty in the layout and continuity of our towns may eventually come from young Africans who have had the opportunity of travelling abroad and seeing how towns can be made attractive with public gardens, seats and roadside trees.

 Barely 48 years after Duckworth’s clarion call, the essence of the message has not been universally accepted by professionals in the field. It is no exaggeration to say that open spaces in Nigeria’s urban centres are regarded as no man’s land, little tended, and lost in their surroundings as small and apparently irrelevant visual resources in the country’s physical, economic and industrial growth. Falade (1985) recommended that a crusade for open space development be started; and then advanced several reasons for parks provisions in Nigerian cities. These can be summarized as follows:

(i) Experience shows that those with the little or no gardens feel an instinctive need for greenery and spatial release. The feelings most people have for open spaces derive from the following factors: (a) an inherited urge for the primeval forests; (b) their passions for gardening, allotments, country cottages and listening to birds singing.

(ii) The need for public open spaces in cities increases with urbanization, and as there are increases in longevity, mobility and leisure of the growing urban population. Car ownership has more than doubled in the country. Moreover, increased longevity and automation will mean that people will need more time for leisure than they have today. The length of the Nigeria’s working week fell from six days to five days; and consequently, weekly working hours fell from 45 hours per week to 40 hours per week. This implies more time for leisure for the urban working population. According to existing projections, most cities in developing countries will double their population figures before the middle of the next century, during which time the demand for outdoor recreation is
estimated to treble. Increasing premium will be placed upon the quantity and quality of leisure facilities to be provided, as education and living standards rise while the nature of work changes from being physically exacting to being more repetitive and undemanding. Currently, urban people are increasingly demanding more leisure facilities. From Table 3, the facilities most demanded are the ones not currently provided.

(iii) In order to accommodate more people in the urban centres, there will be need to build at higher densities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facilities Demanded</th>
<th>Percent Response</th>
<th>Ile-Ife</th>
<th>Jos</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Roadside walkways</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community centres</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public parks and gardens</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement of open spaces</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation clubs</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycle ways</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library and community centres</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports halls</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cinema/Theatre</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming pools</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museum/art gallery</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dance halls</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 3: DEMAND FOR RECREATIONAL FACILITIES IN NIGERIAN CITIES**


(iv) Open spaces fulfil several functions among which are (a) places for rural escape; (b) places for release of tensions by people feeling hemmed in, (c) places to recuperate and regenerate, where people can stroll, sit or lie. They offer people the opportunity to enlarge their freedom in a limited space.

(v) The greatest landscape assets of London are its open spaces and parks. These parks have been described as "the lungs of London". Urban greens have practical uses as well as being breathing spaces: they
act as a filter for noise, heat, fumes and smells. Each five metres’ depth of trees absorbs and reduces noise by 1 decibel; and during the heat of the sunny days and months, greenery serves to cool cities whose buildings are storing and reflecting heat.

(vi) Put simply, in countries like Nigeria with hot climates, the provision of liveable and amenable open spaces is not a luxury but a necessity. The hot climate which prevails encourages outdoor life. The medieval settler-fathers understood this factor and incorporated it into building designs and settlement planning. They, for example, evolved the "courtyard architecture" which incorporated outdoor rooms within residential compounds. Moreover, the house was a temporary shelter from rain and wild animals; as man’s occupation, social and religious life took place in the open rather than in enclosed space. Not only have we witnessed the continuing decline of courtyard architecture, all aspects of city dwellers’ life and activities have increasingly been confined and cramped into buildings to their total discomfort. Thus, the provision of well shaded and ventilated open spaces serve as outdoor rooms and cooling places in cities whose buildings are storing up heat.

(vii) Last but not the least, open spaces add beauty to the city and are the vehicles for extending indoor uses into outdoor spaces; hence they promote the harmony between indoor and outdoor spaces.

4. SOCIAL LEGISLATION FOR PUBLIC ACQUISITION OF OPEN SPACES

Open spaces have very low bargaining power in bidding for land. Yet the presence or proximity of well developed parks, open spaces with high amenity and prospects around buildings, immediately enhances their values and rent. Land values are highest in areas of outstanding landscape beauty. Such properties should be subjected to levy arising from the enhanced rents and values of the property.

Because of the low bargaining power of open spaces, it has become necessary to acquire land compulsorily on behalf of the general public if we are to make land available for such open spaces. Although the power of compulsory purchase by government is currently enshrined in the existing legislation, it is yet to be used to make meaningful contribution to landscape and open space development in Nigeria.

For instance, the most well-criticized Town and Country Planning Act of 1946, which has now been repealed and replaced by the Urban and Regional Planning Decree No. 88 of 1992, provides adequately for open space reservations and their development, as well as promotion of general amenities in Nigerian cities. Specifically, the Act empowers planning authorities to acquire land compulsorily for the following objectives (Government of Nigeria, 1946):

(i) reservation of land as open spaces, whether public or private and for burial grounds;

(ii) preservation of views and prospects and amenities of places and
features of natural beauty or interest;

(iii) preservation of buildings and objects of artistic, architectural, archaeological or historical interests;

(iv) preservation and protection of forests, woods, trees, shrubs, plants and flowers; and

(v) management of such places to prohibit indiscriminate advertisement hoarding, injury to amenity and control of deposit of refuse.

The Land Use Act 1978, is currently regarded as one of the most controversial legislations of our time. It aims at curbing land speculation, and provides for the compulsory purchase order (CPO), if necessary, to acquire land for public purposes together with the payment of compensation. It also provides for revocation of land acquired under the Act. Section 28 of the Act provides for three instances in which revocations can be made. These include:

(i) cases of land transactions contrary to the provisions of the Act;
(ii) cases when land is required by the federal, state and local governments for public purposes; and
(iii) cases where land is required for mining activities and laying of oil pipelines.

Considering these provisions, it can be argued that the government is adequately empowered to acquire land compulsorily on behalf of the public for the development of parks and gardens. These powers are wide ranging, and if applied appropriately, would have gone a long way to redress the acute shortage of open spaces in our cities.

There is reluctance to use the legislation in this positive sense, whereas there are cases of abuses and encroachment upon open spaces which are yet to be revoked under the Act.

Another major gap in the promotion of open space development is the poor record-keeping of open spaces approved in layout plans. Each planning authority should keep an adequate record of such open space reservations. The process of dedication to government authorities of land approved for public open spaces in private sector-led development must be established. This will check future omissions, commissions and compromises on the part of officials, in the misappropriation of approved public open spaces in layout plans.

5. A NEW FRAMEWORK FOR LANDSCAPING AND MANAGEMENT OF OPEN SPACES

With due regard for the definition of open spaces already provided above, the quest for public acquisition of land for open spaces in Nigeria must be matched with the pursuit of landscape design and management. In the developed countries of the world, the concern for open spaces and healthy and attractive environment eventually caught up with the fast growing and densely-built urban centres of the 19th century (Hoskins 1965); and more recently, with rising affluence and leisure pursuits (Mumford, 1971). In Britain, which is among the first urbanized industrial nations of the world, the public park movement slowly gathered momentum
from the impetus of men like John Claudius Loudon. Eventually, the idea of the urban park movement spread to other European countries and to North America, where it found a new meaning as the 'park system', that is, planning for open space as a balanced, comprehensive and growing entity to match outward urban expansion. The 'park system' became the very spearhead of comprehensive land use planning approach. Since the end of the World War II, the park system concept has progressively and logically extended into countryside planning.

For proper appreciation of the contribution of the landscape designers to open space development, we must move from the concept of open space and superimpose on it other concepts such as 'gardens' and 'parks'. While a garden is necessarily an open space, the reverse is by no means true. This is because the term "garden" has adopted a specialized meaning in landscape design. In the general and ordinary sense, a garden is a piece of ground devoted to the cultivation of flowers, fruits and vegetables. In the plural sense, (that is gardens), the term tends to mean a place of public resort. Today among landscape architects, gardens are more than mere spaces for the cultivation of plants. Gardens are vehicles for expressing ideals which often relate to forms of paradise. The distinction between the ordinary and technical usages of the term "gardens" has been well brought out by Crowe (1983). According to her:

A garden can give two separate pleasures - the pleasures of growing plant with its individual beauty and the pleasure of the garden as a whole; a world to live in and to look at. To create and enjoy the first, a knowledge of horticulture and sensitivity to the colour and form of plant suffices. But to make a garden which can give pleasure entails the same understanding of the laws of harmony and composition that go to the making of any work of art. For garden design is an art and just like the knowledge of painting and music is necessary not for performance only, but even for full enjoyment, so is some understanding of landscape design which not only opens up possibilities in one's own gardens, but adds to the pleasure of seeing others.

In other words, the development of gardens is a technical and professional activity, which requires not only the knowledge of plants but detailed understanding of the design principles for making any work of art. For landscape design is an art.

The creation of parks and gardens offers opportunities for developing and managing attractive open spaces in our towns and cities. The major actors at the moment are the non-professionals due to manpower shortage and absence of training institutions. There is need to create avenues for training professionals at the polytechnics and universities, to fill existing gaps.

As already discussed above, the institutional framework for landscape improvement or the development of parks and gardens does not exist. Many planning authorities are yet to set-up their parks and gardens units. For this reason, the little contribution by non-governmental agencies in developing public gardens have remained unsustainable. There is a need for creating appropriate institutional frameworks for landscape planning and management at all the three levels of government in the country.

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6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The effort at landscape improvement in Nigerian cities demands more than mere lip service and ad hoc measures. There is need for concerted efforts between the private and public sectors to mount a crusade for landscape improvement. We need to adopt strategic and robust approaches to landscape development and management, which will be sustainable as long as city administration exists.

The need to set-up a department for landscape development as an arm of the planning department is long overdue. Any delay in this respect will continue to rob the cities of the opportunities to redress the shortage of parks and gardens. Every planning authority needs to carry out a survey of the open spaces resources in the city and come-up with structure and action plans to guide their design, development and management.

There is a dire shortage of manpower in the field of landscape design and management. Every support must be given to train both middle and professionals in the field of landscape design and management. Kaduna Polytechnic took the active lead to set-up a training programme in landscape horticulture some years ago to train students to the level of Higher National Diploma (HND) level. The Nigerian universities should resonate such effort and set-up full-fledged professional study programmes to complement the courses offered in their various faculties of environmental design and management.

Landscape development is an expensive and gainful venture. Both the private and public sectors should pull their resources together to generate the required funds for promoting landscape improvements. In particular, the private sector will need to make more contributions by giving a high priority to funding the development of private gardens. Moreover, there must be ways of taxation and levies on high land and property values and on rents accruing from landscape improvements. The funds so generated can be ploughed back for landscape improvement.

The efforts of non-governmental organizations such as the Rotary Clubs, Lions Clubs and Soroptimist International in promoting public gardens on secular basis is duly recognized. Their contributions in this regard should be sustained. The main gap so far is the little emphasis on sustained maintenance of the parks. By the time a virile organizational framework for parks and recreations is set-up in each local government, this problem would have been solved. However, until such time, these NGOs will need to embark on sustained maintenance of the parks developed by them.
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ABSTRACT

Nigerian cities which are supposed to be development centres are currently plagued with environmental problems of various types. There has, however, been the recognition that better city management practices will facilitate attempts at minimizing these environmental problems. Moreover, combined efforts of the federal, state and local governments, as well as those of the private sector will be needed in order to deal effectively with urban problems.

Using the participant - observation research approach, the paper investigates the relevance of environmental planning and management process to local governments, and identifies some of the roles of local governments within the process. It, in particular, highlights the roles of planners in facilitating activities of local governments in implementation of the sustainable Ibadan Programme (SIP). It argues that the environmental problems facing Ibadan Metropolis can be effectively addressed in a sustainable manner by application of participatory and interactive environmental planning and management (EPM) process.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Cities are engines of economic growth. In Nigeria, cities such as Lagos, Kaduna, Enugu, Port-Harcourt, and Ibadan generate abundant revenues for urban government while providing the required income/earnings for individuals to meet their welfare requirements. Unfortunately, most of these cities have become heavily plagued with such environmental problems as desertification, deterioration of urban physical quality, land degradation (Egunjobi 1993:33), overcrowding, pollution of all types, rapid urbanization, poverty, street children, unemployment and lack of basic services. All these have consequential effects on social equity, human health and well-being, economic welfare, social and political stability, housing infrastructure and services as well as sustainability of natural resources.

Urban development planners have, in the last couple of decades, continuously advocated for a more conscious approach to the planning and management of the process of urban growth and development as a panacea to urban environmental problems. "Learning how to better plan and more effectively manage the process of urban development can help to avoid or minimize problems as well as provide more equitable distribution of development costs and benefits while still realizing the vital economic potentials of city growth and change" (UNCHS/UNEP, 1996:8).

The problems presently facing urban communities in Nigeria are so immense that no single actor whether the federal, state and/or local government, the private sector or an aroused popular sector – can meet the challenges alone. A genuine alliance, spearheaded by local-level government and backed by transparency and cooperation, must

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be formed. This will create a situation whereby everyone contributes and everyone gains.

The Agenda 21 of the United Nations Earth Summit in Rio De Janeiro in 1992 directed nations to mobilize support from local actors or stakeholders (including the indigenous people) in their quest for solutions to urban problems. As Rabinovitch (1996:1) informs us, in Istanbul in 1996 at the City Summit, local actors and partnerships were seen as central to building sustainable human settlements.

No doubt every local government is very important as a key actor, a facilitator and a catalyst in the process of urban transformation. However, no local government can do it alone. All stakeholders should work together under a framework that enables a stakeholder to contribute whatever is affordable - financial, materials, or even voluntary personal service. More importantly, the local government leadership should give the civil society an opportunity to act through responsible participatory approaches - an approach which assigns both the local government officials and the civil society specific roles in the process and sense of ownership. As Abumere (1998:1) rightly observes, "any [development] strategy that did not involve the people, the stakeholders [including the public sector] can hardly succeed".

The problems of cities attracted such a wider global attention that in 1990 the UNCHS launched the Sustainable Cities Programme (SCP) as the operational arm of the global World Bank/UNCHS/UNDP Urban Management Programme. Twelve (12) cities were selected for demonstration projects including Dar es Salaam, Tunis, Accra, Madras, Dakar, Shenyang, Ismailia, Wuhan, Katowice, Concepcion, Guayaquil, and Ibadan. As at March 1998 the number of demonstration cities had increased to twenty. Sustainable Cities Programme is a capacity-building programme in urban planning and management at the local, state/regional and national levels. The Sustainable Ibadan Project (SIP), which became operational in January 1995, is a demonstration city project for Nigeria. It is a project jointly funded by the UNCHS (Habitat), Oyo State Government, and the eleven (11) Local Governments in Ibadan region.

In order to rid the ever-growing Nigerian urban centres, and in particular Ibadan, of their environmental problems, the citizens and, indeed, all stakeholders should get involved in participatory planning and more efficient management of the process of urban development. This is Environmental Planning and Management Process, the focus of this paper. The EPM Process as observed by Onibokun (1997:8) has been introduced in response to several decades of failure of the traditional technocratic approach to urban development and management which sees the management of the city as exclusive to the technocrats with zero input from city dwellers who, incidentally, bear the consequences of the actions of the technocrats.

The objective of this paper is to highlight the relevance of environmental...
planning and management process to local governments and also identify some of the roles of local governments within the process. The paper is also out to sensitize physical planners, who constitute the major coordinators of the SCP, on the responsibilities of local governments so that they (planners) become sufficiently equipped to work best with the local governments for the success of the SCP. The approach adopted in this paper towards achieving its objective is to first, discuss the goal, objectives and strategies of the Sustainable Ibadan Project (SIP), which is currently experimenting the EPM process, and then proceed to explain the EPM Process and its relevance, the responsibilities for the local governments in the process, role performance requirements, and possible constraints. The SIP is used as a focus of this paper with specific reference to the eleven (11) local governments in Ibadan region. Finally, the paper argues that the environmental problems facing Nigerian cities, in particular Ibadan metropolis, can be effectively and adequately addressed, in a sustained manner, through a genuine application of the participatory EPM Process.

1.1. Methodology

Participant-observation research (McCall, 1975; Rubinstein, 1973) and the case study methods of the social sciences are adopted for this paper. The author is a resource person to the Sustainable Ibadan Project as well as an active member of all the key working groups set up by the SIP to tackle specific environmental issues in Ibadan. The library of the SIP served as a major source of information.

1.2 Goal and Objectives of the Sustainable Ibadan Project (SIP).

The goal of the Sustainable Ibadan Project, according to William Bloxom (1996:2), is to provide the community with an improved environmental planning and management capacity to ensure that the development of Ibadan meets the needs of the present inhabitants without compromising the prospects of future generations.

Bloxom (1996:2) identifies five principal objectives of the SIP as given below:

- to involve the people of Ibadan in planning and management of their city;
- to ensure the participation of all interested people in the initiation, formulation and implementation of policies, programmes and projects;
- to strengthen the capacity of the institutions responsible for environmental planning and management;
- to mobilize technical and financial resources from various international community, and
- to facilitate exchange of knowledge about sustainable urban development throughout Nigeria and the world.

1.3 Strategies

Some of the strategies being operated under the SIP to achieve its goal and objectives include the following:

- bottom-up approach;
- strong working relationships between local communities, the private sector, state and local governments;
- design and implementation of projects with input from the local
communities, the local governments, the Oyo State government, and the private sector.

- efficient utilization and management of physical and social infrastructure. The community-rehabilitated toilets in Bodija Market are being managed by a committee appointed from among community members and this has led to better utilization and regular maintenance of the toilets.

- initiation and implementation of physical projects including bankable ones. The Bodija Market Area Improvement WG included in their project package prepared in 1996 the idea of collecting toll from motorists entering the market as a sustainable cost recovery/management measure. The Ibadan North Local Government jumped at the idea (even before the project package could be presented to a financial institution) and has been collecting toll since.

- development of strategy and actor-specific action plans on various environmental issues to facilitate sustainable growth and development of Ibadan.

- institutionalization of the EPM process based on the action plans generated and on the experiences of, and lessons learnt from the project.

The eleven (11) local governments in Ibadan are at the centre of the SIP. They have responsibilities for the overall success of the project just as they share the greatest credit for any achievements recorded through the project. For the local governments (through their elected or appointed leadership) to successfully and effectively play their dual role as facilitators and beneficiaries of the SIP, it becomes imperative that they fully understand the entire process (on which the SIP is anchored) and their expected roles. This is the major concern of this paper.

2.0 THE ENVIRONMENTAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT PROCESS

2.1 Definition of the EPM Process

The EPM Process is a holistic approach capable of addressing all environmental problems in most urban centres. It is the heart of SCP methodology. The UNCHS/UNEP (1987) defined the EPM as

a continuing and dynamically evolving process whose purpose is to make urban development policy formulation and implementation progressively more responsive to environmental considerations (UNCHS/UNEP 1987 quoted in Bloxom, 1986:1)

The EPM process has been further described as "a new way of looking at and understanding urban development, a new way of organizing our thoughts about how to mobilize resources and take action in respect of urban development and environmental issues" (UNCHS, 1995:3). Bloxom (1996:1) sees the EPM as a tool to understand urban priority issues in the context of development-environment interaction.

The EPM Process is a bottom-up participatory, interactive and collaborative approach to urban planning and management in which public technocrats work in concert with the organized private and voluntary (NGOs) sectors and the civil society...
organizations to jointly address environmental and socio-economic issues affecting people and their environment. The Process is designed to alleviate environmental problems confronting an urban area while strengthening the local capacity for better planning and management.

Environmental Planning and Management Process is both an analytical and descriptive model of urban planning and management which emphasizes broad-based, informed as well as constructive and active participation of all stakeholders including the public sector, formal and informal private sector, and the civil society organizations.

One of the attributes of the EPM Process is that it recognizes the dynamic nature of humans and the living environment and thus provides for flexibility in policy initiation and execution. According to Onibokun (1997:10) the EPM relies on constant consultation, information dissemination and capacity-building for all stakeholders to achieve meaningful participation in urban development and management.

2.2 Goal and Objectives of the EPM Process
The goal of the EPM may be described as the improvement of health and productivity in cities through reduction or total elimination of environmental hazards/degradation and the protection of natural resources for sustainable socio-economic and physical development.

The SIP-Technical Support Unit (1996) identifies three aims (which can be regarded as objectives) of the EPM Process:
- to identify urban environmental issues before they get out of hand or become more expensive to deal with;
- to agree on strategies and actions to resolve the environmental issues among all whose cooperation is required, and
- to implement strategies through coordinated public and private actions.

2.3 Elements of the EPM Process
The EPM Process, which is a dynamic, flexible and interactive approach to sustainable urban planning and management comprises four main elements. These elements constitute the condensed version of the stages of or activities to be performed under the process.

(i) Identification of urban environmental issues and involvement of stakeholders in issue assessment and priority-setting.
This involves sensitizing and mobilizing the active participation of all stakeholders whose interests are affected in one way or another by the environmental issue or by the different activities of EPM.

(ii) Formulating urban environmental management strategies.
This is an activity of consensus-building, compromise and negotiation leading to interagency collaboration and joint action. This involves all relevant stakeholders in the city using their resources (skill-expertise, financial, material and time) to prepare workable strategies of intervention required to solve specific prioritized
environmental issue. Three actor-specific strategy action plans have been prepared by the working groups on waste management in Ibadan; water supply in Ibadan, and the Bodija Market Area environmental improvement. As at the time of writing (August, 1998), the plans were being negotiated with identified actors and agencies including UNICEF, state and local government, and civil society organizations to ensure their full administrative and financial commitments.

(iii) Formulating and implementing environmental action plans. Issue-specific strategies are operationalized through the formulation of environmental action plans which define the priority actions that will convert strategy into practice.

(iv) Institutionalizing Environmental Planning and Management. This is getting the whole process integrated into the daily routine or everyday activities of the public institutions. It is to evolve a new way of thinking: of perceiving and solving problems including resource allocation for project execution and maintenance. Institutionalization requires that inter-institutional and cross-sectoral procedures and behaviour be entrenched or integrated into daily routines of institutions and organizations.

3.0 THE RELEVANCE OF THE EPM PROCESS TO LOCAL GOVERNMENTS
The benefits that local governments will derive from the EPM Process, as noted by UNCHS/UNEP (1996:8), include better environmental information and technical expertise, better environmental strategies and decision-making, more effective implementation of environmental strategies, enhanced institutional and participatory capacities, and more effective use of scarce resources for capacity-building and change. The relevance of the EPM Process to local government is presented in the following paragraphs.

(i) Greater inter-agency cooperation and collaboration: There is greater cooperation and collaboration between local government and other agencies/institutions involved in environmental matters in Ibadan including WCOS, Ibadan Solid Waste Management Authority, UNICEF/WATSAN, and SEPA among others. The organic fertilizer plant in Bodija Market commissioned in July 1996 is the result of collaboration between Ibadan North Local Government that donated the site, the Bodija market community that initiated the scheme under the SIP and the SIP, and the Oyo State Government that financed the construction.

(ii) Enhanced opportunity for loans, grants and development-support funds: The Odo-Akeu Spring Improvement Project commissioned in 1996 under the SIP was jointly funded by the Akeu community, the Ibadan North-East Local Government and UNICEF. Over 50% of the cost of the project was donated by UNICEF plus a video documentary. In 1998 UNICEF also donated 200 bags of cement, wheel barrow, and shovels to the organic fertilizer plant in Bodija market, Ibadan.

(iii) Better opportunity for revenue
generation: The traders and residents of Bodija market and environs in 1996 rehabilitated a couple of toilet blocks abandoned by the Ibadan North Local Government in the market. The toilets have not only reduced the incidence of open defecation in the market area but also generate adequate revenue for maintenance.

(iv) Opportunity for networking: The EPM process will facilitate cross-fertilization of experiences, exchange of ideas as well as joint venture between local governments, other government agencies, the private and community sectors, as well as educational/research institutions. Campbell (1996:4) observes that "Mayors learn best from each other because only they can understand risk-taking and gauge the means to offset risks in their own political environment." A number of countries and cities in the State of Iowa, USA, collaborate with each other in activities to promote economic growth in their counties.

(v) Resource sharing among and between local governments (including information gathering, analysis and utilization): The eleven (11) local governments in Ibadan are already negotiating with a financial institution for a joint loan to purchase a couple of rigs to be jointly owned and shared for borehole drilling in all the eleven local government areas.

(vi) Enhanced project demonstration and replication: The experience from the organic fertilizer plant in Ibadan North local government area is being tapped by the Ibadan North-West Local Government where a waste recycling/sorting plant is to be established under the Federal Government of Nigeria-UNICEF assisted Urban Basic Services (UBS) Programme.

(vii) Better image of local government among members of the public through the inclusion of civil society organizations in project planning and execution: Rabinovitch (1996:4) informs us that in Casablanca, a culturally sensitive mass housing project for 25,000 low-income people successfully involves formal and informal organizations to run different aspects of community life such as security, gardening and waste management.

(viii) Urban governance is made easier as political manifestos become easier to achieve through the active participation of all stakeholders in decision-making.

(ix) Inclusiveness and high sense of ownership on the part of the community promotes better management and maintenance of facilities and extends their life span.

(x) Healthy partnership between stakeholders in the areas of local economic development and infrastructure delivery and environmental improvement: Bergen (1996:2) observes that "in Johannesburg, the Transitional Metropolitan Council is partnering with inner-city business, local stakeholders and organized labour to create new initiatives for the delivery of services."

(xi) Capacity-building among government workers and members of the civil society: Between 1996 and 1998 the SIP organized a number of
capacity-building workshops in Ibadan on varying subjects including GIS, mapping, and waste management for local and state government personnel, as well as NGOs and the private sector.

(xii) Opportunity for meaningful dialogue and better understanding between the government and the governed: Through regular and open consultations with neighbourhood residents, a programme developed by the local administration in Tijuana, Mexico, distributed a percentage of the city budget to community groups to develop specific public works (Rabinovitch 1996:4)

(xiii) Improvement in the quality of the urban environment through community-based and participatory waste management, water supply, road improvement, public sanitation, and neighbourhood revitalization.

(xiv) Social equity in the distribution of development benefits and costs by local governments is ensured.

4.0 RESPONSIBILITIES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN THE EPM PROCESS.

Local governments, which constitute the third tier of government in Nigeria, are perhaps the most relevant government to the local people. The local government is the closest to the grassroots and its activities are most felt by the local population who constitute the majority in Nigeria. The elected local government officials are the people's representatives on local governance having a direct link to the public, and therefore constitute what Rabinovitch (1996:1) calls "a most effective conduit for the public's problems."

The United Nations City Summit in June 1996 in Istanbul recognized and emphasized the critical role of local government in the development and management of cities. Since the 1996 Summit, the voice of local government has become part of the UN deliberations. The world community of local government has also accepted the challenge and responsibility posed to them by Local Agenda 21 (LA 21) for delivering sustainability in their settlements (ICLEI 1997:1). As the International Council for Local Environmental Initiatives informs us, "by 1997 more than 2,000 local government worldwide had established Local Agenda 21 planning processes. In Africa, however, many cities still lack the experience or tools to fully embrace the LA 21 approach" (ICLEI 1998:1).

The 1976 Local Government Reform in Nigeria puts a lot of responsibility on this grassroots government. One of the primary responsibilities is the planning and control of development in its area of jurisdiction (Federal Republic of Nigeria 1976:3). In Oyo State, planning is a local government function being performed through the town planning authority in each of the 33 local government areas.

As stated previously in this paper, the global concern for a sustainable and environment-friendly urban development is premised on inclusion and participatory approach to problem solving and management. The present dispensation of bottom-up participatory as opposed to top-down environmental
planning and management at the local level of government offers a very unique opportunity. Within the EPM Process, local governments have very specific and crucial roles to play. Fortunately they possess some capability to play such roles effectively. Local Governments have the wherewithal including legal power, constitutional provisions, jurisdictional responsibility, and power to generate revenue for development. In addition, local governments are community-or grassroots-based, have unlimited access to the private sector, and greater potential for bottom-up people-oriented participatory environmental planning and management.

Some of the responsibilities of local governments within the EPM Process are:

(a) Creation of alliance between the local-level government, other public agencies and the civil society organizations based on partnership, accountability, collaboration, participation, transparency, trust and inclusion.

(b) Facilitation of the process of sustainable urban environmental planning and management.

(c) Organization of environmental awareness programmes for members of the public throughout the local government area using a combination of local government information gadgets and the indigenous/traditional mechanism for information dissemination.

(d) Organization and briefing sessions on EPM for all local government employees, including particularly town planners, to promote greater understanding of the EPM Process.

(e) Integration of EPM Process into daily routines of all departments/sections of the local government.

(f) Formation of Local Government EPM Committee (LoGEMaC) in each local government to comprise of all heads of departments and units, supervisory councillors, representatives of the private sector, and one representative from each ward in the local government area with the LG Chairperson as Committee Chairperson, and the LG Secretary as Committee Secretary.

(g) Mobilizing the active participation of civil society organizations (CSOs) and organized private sector in the LGA to jointly identify, assess and prioritize environmental issues in their area. Successful environmental planning and management requires understanding negotiation and consensus.

(h) Undertaking sustainable public works which reflects people’s aspirations and priorities.

(i) Facilitating the active involvement and collaboration of all actors in the preparation, execution, management, and evaluation of issue-specific strategies and actor-specific action plans on jointly selected environmental issues.

(j) Encouraging healthy partnership between CSOs, NGOs, and the local government in the initiation, development, operation, maintenance and, by implication, ownership of pilot projects. Any local government that intends to adopt community development strategies may have to
relies on partnerships with neighbourhood-based groups which, most often than not, can speak for their members and also possess a wide range of development expertise as in the case of the Bodija Market Area Environmental Improvement Working Group whose members include architects, engineers, accountants, planners, businessmen and women as well as teachers and retired civil servants.

(k) Stimulating a sense of belonging on the part of every community leader and members: Chief Ramond Za’ad, a renown philanthropist in Ibadan was sensitized through the EPM process about the pathetic environmental problems in Bodija market in Ibadan. He single-handedly financed the grading of roads in the market in 1996.

(l) Initiate and facilitate project demonstration-replication within the local government area.

(m) Encouraging the introduction and adoption of cost-sharing and cost-recovery for all EPM-oriented projects.

(n) Adopting user-charges as a matter of policy to guarantee the proper functioning and regular maintenance of socio-physical infrastructure.

(o) Encouraging each department in the local government to adopt the EPM Process in their routine activities to ensure success and sustainability.

(p) Liaising regularly with relevant State and Federal Government agencies as well as NGOs on development activities that may take place especially within the local government area.

(r) Enacting and enforcing, in collaboration with both the private and popular sectors, appropriate bye-laws for proper planning and management of the living environment. Here the local government should adopt the role of enabler rather than merely a provider.

(s) Ensuring adequate budgetary allocation for the execution of EPM-based projects.

(t) Initiating and facilitating what Margaret Bergen (1996:2) refers to as "collaborative effort between the local administration and the community working in an integrated fashion."

(u) Acting as advocate for the adoption of EPM process in the entire local government area as well as at other levels of government.

5.0 ROLE PERFORMANCE REQUIREMENTS

For local government to be able to perform their identified roles within the EPM Process, certain requirements may have to be met. Some of the requirements, which are by no means exhaustive, are presented in the following paragraphs:

(i) Political will: The local government bosses, their political functionaries as well as the career officers have to demonstrate a high level of political will, interest and readiness to adopt the EPM Process.

(ii) Organization of community mobilization and environmental awareness programmes at ward levels throughout the local government area at regular intervals.

(iii) Community empowerment: The
civil society, including women and youths, should be given the required recognition and power to enable them participate in all issues affecting city life be it budget planning execution or management.

(iv) Provision of necessary logistics, including maps and physical plans, to facilitate discussions and consensus on environmental issues.

(v) Improved local government revenue and strong local economies through a well-articulated local economic development/investment framework to ensure adequate funding of projects or environmental action plans.

(vi) Transparency and accountability: Local government functionaries need to demonstrate a high level of openness, transparency and accountability in all activities including administration, revenue generation and spending, and project implementation. This will foster community’s support, co-operation and collaboration on environmental planning and development issues in the locality.

(vii) Enabling bye-laws: Environmentally sound land use regulations and other relevant bye-laws need to be enacted to reflect the adoption of EPM Process in the routine operations of local governments. The bye-laws should emphasize partnership, collaboration and consensus and stipulate penalties for non-compliance.

(viii) Joint ownership of socio-physical infrastructure to ensure their adequate protection, rational utilization, regular maintenance and sustainability.

(ix) Improved local capacity to facilitate effective planning and management of urban environment problems. Adequate technical and administrative personnel (especially in the town planning department) plus regular training and re-training opportunities are essential to enable local governments play their roles under the EPM process.

(x) Ability to inspire cooperative action, marshal and mobilize resources, and motivate others to cooperate in achieving common goals (Laquain 1996:3).

(xi) Adequate budgetary allocation and prompt disbursement of funds towards the accomplishment of relevant tasks.

(xii) Courage to delegate to both the private and popular sectors co-responsibilities for decisions bothering on project planning, selection, execution and management. Functions and responsibilities may no longer be centralized and restricted to government workers.

(xiii) Genuine interest in international trends especially the programmes and activities of international donor agencies in the area of sustainable development.

(xiv) Effective coordination of all stakeholders in the execution and management of environmental action plans. The Sustainable Conception Project (1996:31) informs us that lack of coordination capacity of the organizers of some EPM initiatives with all actors that should have been involved resulted in a poor understanding of the benefits that the
EPM Process can result in.

(xv) Institutionalization of the EPM process within the framework of local government administration. It is proposed here that a committee to be called Ibadan Inter-Local Government EPM Committee (IbILGEPMC) be set-up jointly by all the eleven (11) local governments. The goal of the committee will be to pursue the institutionalization of the EPM Process at the local government level in Ibadan region. For the committee to function well, the following suggestions may be considered:

1. The committee is to be composed of the chairpersons and secretaries of the 11 local government.
2. A chairperson for the committee will be appointed in rotation.
3. Secretaries, by virtue of being heads of personnel will see to the implementation of all resolutions made by the committee.
4. Equity in the funding of the activities of the committee.
5. Committee meetings to rotate among the 11 local governments.
6. Proper documentation and prompt dissemination of decisions/information must be ensured.
7. Every department in each local government should be encouraged to adopt the EPM process in its routine.
8. The 11 local governments should promote joint capacity-building as well as collaborate projects/programmes.
9. The local government EPM Committee to be set up in each local government as stated in the previous section should hold regular meetings which may be in rotation at ward level.

6.0 POSSIBLE CONSTRAINTS
As may be expected, there are certain constraints that are likely to face the chairpersons in the course of performing their roles within the EPM process. Such constraints include the following:

i. Political instability: The frequent changes in the political structure, especially the leadership of local governments, will have negative impact on the effective operation as well as continuity of the process. Between 1995 and 1998, there have been four changes in the political/administrative structure of the 11 local government in Ibadan. In the same way, career officers are transferred and replaced almost every six months.

ii. Shirking of responsibility: The SIP is a joint project with counterpart funding from UNCHS, Oyo state government and the eleven local governments in Ibadan region. It is sad to observe that some local governments have failed to live up to their responsibilities by not paying their counterpart contributions. Majority also failed to set up Local Government SIP Committees in their local governments in spite of series of meetings with and promises made to the SIP-TSU by the affected local government.

iii. Mis-information or lack of it is a possible constraint. There has to be regular and accurate information about the activities and plans of the local government to the communities. Communication should be both ways and made in clear language.

iv. Non-involvement of the popular sector: It is a known fact that governments are often reluctant to
involve communities in decision-making for fear of the public "knowing too much." Public involvement is considered by governments as being expensive, energy-sapping, cumbersome and time-wasting. Representative participation may be one way out.

v. Poor budgetary allocation or lack of it is another possible constraint. To benefit from the EPM process, local governments as facilitators, enablers, and key actors should be prepared to expend some money on it.

vi. Dishonesty on the part of any of the stakeholders, be it in the area of information, budget planning, budget packaging or execution, may constitute a serious barrier.

vii. Partisan politics and politicization of issues especially environmental and land use regulations, project prioritization and location as well as financing: Any environmental issue brought to the local government by any community must not be denied attention simply because the leadership or members of that community do not share same political ideology with the local government leadership.

viii. Uncommitted and/or non-credible community leadership may be a constraint. The EPM Process requires some sacrifices, especially time, from people's representatives.

ix. Inadequate or lack of public awareness or enlightenment programmes on environmental issues and the benefits of public-private-community partnership.

x. Inadequate or lack of publicity for relevant environmental planning and management regulation and similar bye-laws.

xi. Non-availability of planning tools including maps, environmental inventory and action plans.

xii. Lack of consensus among stakeholders on the prioritization of environmental issues including modalities to addressing the issues.

xiii. Poor local technical and coordination capacity.

xiv. Lack of trust or unhealthy suspicion between the local government and both the private and the popular sectors.

xv. Resistance to change by local government technocrats as well as the community sector who may not see the need to offer their resources to government to provide socio-physical infrastructure.

7.0 CONCLUSION

Cities are recognized as the engines for economic and political growth. They are therefore of great significance in the growth and development of a nation. The factor of urbanization, however, has brought on cities such problems as environmental degradation, urban violence, over-population and economic deprivation. While demands for housing, transport, water, sanitation, public health, energy, and employment continue to increase by day in the city of Ibadan, both the Oyo State and the eleven local governments are becoming incapable of meeting those demands. The governments are no longer capable of addressing the various environmental problems due in

The private and popular sectors are acknowledged to have abundance of untapped resources (human, material, and financial) which could be channelled towards environmental improvements in the city. The traditional top-down approach to urban management which emphasizes the non-inclusion of both the organized and popular sectors in the development and management of Ibadan has not enabled both state and local governments to access the private sector resources. The on-going Sustainable Ibadan Project has created the enabling environment for the public-private-popular sector partnership through its participatory EPM Process. Under this process the organized private and popular sectors readily and voluntarily offer their resources to complement/augment those of governments towards a sustainable development of the city.

This paper’s argument is that the environmental problems facing Ibadan Metropolis can be effectively and adequately addressed, in a sustainable manner, through a conscious application of the participatory and interactive EPM Process.

The main responsibility of local governments in the EPM Process is simply to facilitate the creation of alliance between local and other government agencies, the private sector and the civil society organizations based on consensus, partnership, accountability, transparency and active involvement. The local government leadership should promote meaningful dialogue among public, private and popular sectors. As UNCHS/UNEP (1996:9) inform us,

successful environmental planning and management requires understanding, agreement, and coordinated action by the full range of public and private and community groups and organizations (stakeholders), both formal and informal at all levels from neighbourhood to city-region.

In order to sustain the benefits of the EPM Process, the local government chairpersons should encourage the institutionalization of the process in the routine activities of their administrations.

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TOWARDS EFFECTIVE PHYSICAL PLANNING OF OIL AND SOLID MINERAL RESOURCES IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

Mineral resources are the backbone of the Nigerian economy. They provide raw materials for various industries. They offer employment to many and contribute about 90 percent of the country’s revenue from export. Unfortunately, the exploration and exploitation of mineral resources have resulted in environmental spoils in the mineral producing areas. The land, water, and air of the producing communities have been polluted and the economic base (farming and fishing) of the area has been affected. Various attempts have been made to solve this problem, but massive scars of environmental degradation in the producing areas cast doubts on efficiency of these measures.

It is the opinion of this paper that environmental degradation in the mineral producing areas is not so much lack of safeguards for abatement of environmental spoils, but it is the conventional exploitation development approach that has fundamental flaws. It is therefore, suggested that we have to move from exploitative development to sustainable redevelopment; from hard-shell approaches to stewardship and soft-core approaches; from reliance on government to community based self-help; from laissez-faire to equitable regulation and husbandry of resources.

INTRODUCTION

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Mineral resources have become essential ingredient for life. They are the building blocks of society (Skinner, 1986). Our entire society rests upon and is dependent upon mineral resources. Countries have flourished because they controlled rich and easily exploited mineral resources; but withered as those riches declined. Mineral exploration and exploitation in Nigeria became important for a number of reasons. They provide raw materials for various processing industries; they are major sources of energy in the country; they offer employment opportunities to many; and contribute about 90 percent of the country’s revenue from export. The oil business, in particular, earns the country high royalties and at the same time trains a core of skilled workers who constitute one of Nigeria’s major assets. Associated with these developments are the environmental spoils in the oil producing areas. There are reported cases of use and misuse of land that is laid bare during mining operations. The environment has been inevitably polluted through mineral exploration and exploitation. The reality of some of these impacts are more than enough to make some Nigerian communities anything but less enthusiastic about having mineral exploration and exploitation within their territory. Hence, it is not surprising that in October, 1989, protesting villages raided the premises of a major oil company, reportedly destroyed equipment worth N10 million and injured a number of the company’s workers, all in a spirited protest against drilling of an oil well on their land. The recent Ogoni disturbances is another case in point.

There is no doubt that some attempts have been made at managing this problem, especially since the period of the Fourth National Development Plan.

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