

**LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND THE
CHALLENGES OF COMMUNITY
DEVELOPMENT IN LAGOS STATE,
NIGERIA
(1999 – 2012)**

BY

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**BEING A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF
POST GRADUATE STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF LAGOS
IN FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (Ph.D) IN
POLITICAL SCIENCE.**

APRIL, 2014

CERTIFICATION

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to the Glory of God, The Father, God The Son, and God The Holy Spirit. Also with tears rolling down my cheeks, to the memory of the one who valued education so much that he toiled and died in the process of bequeathing this invaluable legacy to his children, I mean my irreplaceable, unforgettable, highly treasured, ever loved and, loving father, Pa Zacchaeus Babalola Awosika. I know some day; we shall meet again at the feet of Jesus to part no more.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I appreciate my parents late Pa Zacchaeus Babalola Awosika and my aged mother mama Deborah Oluwafunbi Awosika for their sacrifices to give me the foundation of a good education.

I would like to gratefully and sincerely thank my supervisor, Dr. Derin Kofoworola Ologbenla for his guidance, understanding, patience, and most importantly, his friendship since my doctoral studentship. His mentorship was paramount in providing a well rounded experience consistent with my long-term career goals. He encouraged me to not only grow as an academic but also as an independent thinker. For everything you've done for me, Dr. Ologbenla, I thank you.

I am deeply grateful to Prof. Chuks Maduabum (my co-supervisor), for his guidance, criticism, patience and support and painstaking supervision that made it possible for me to complete my Ph.D programme successfully. I consider myself very fortunate for being able to work with a very considerate and encouraging professor like him. Without his offering to accomplish this research, I would not be able to finish my doctoral study.

I also appreciate my academic godfathers and mentors, the late, Professor Stephen Oluwole Olugbemi and Dr. Abdulwakili Adesina Sambo, my first and second supervisors respectively on the programme. I pray that God would continue to take care of the families you left behind.

Dr. H.O. Coker and Professor Alaba Ogunsanwo are highly appreciated for their guidance. Prof. Remi Anifowose, Prof. Adejugbe, Prof. Tomori, Prof. Olaloku and Prof. Adele Jinadu are appreciated for their academic and moral support.

I want to also appreciate profoundly, the academic contribution, moral and financial support of my Head of Department, Professor Solomon Oladele Akinboye. I appreciate immensely, Prof. Gabriel Olatunde Babawale for his confidence in my academic ability. Sir, thank you for your constant urging and encouragement. A special appreciation also goes to Dr. Browne Oliva Onuoha. Sir, I appreciate you for waking me up from my academic slumber to the realities of scholarship.

Prof. Tayo Fakiyesi (Late) Prof. Kayode Soremekun, Prof. Omololu Soyombo, Prof. Kayode Oguntusahe, Prof. Gbade Sote, Prof. Olatunde Makanju, Prof. Lai Olurode, Prof. Felicia Oyekanmi, Prof. Adebayo Ninalowo, Prof. Ralph Akinfeleye, Prof. S.I. Oni, Prof. Demola Omojola, Dr. Agiobu Kema, Prof. Ndubusi Nwokoma, and all academic and administrative staff

of the Faculty of Social Sciences are highly appreciated for their academic, moral and intellectual contributions and support toward my academic success.

I am equally grateful to the authorities of the University of Lagos, under the dynamic leadership of the Vice-Chancellor, Prof. Rahman Ade Bello, for the timely grant given to me to be at the University of Cape Coast, Winneba, Ghana in the course of preparing my thesis. The efforts and usual assistance of Mr. Aliu the Deputy Registrar, Academic Staff Unit (ASU) as well as those of Mr. and Mrs. Keshinro, in this regard are appreciated. All the members of the University Academic Planning Committee (APC), particularly, the Chairman, Prof. Dele Olowokudejo, Dr. Adedun, Prof. Ngozi Osarenren, Prof. Virgy Onyene, Prof. Yemisi Obanishoro John, Prof. Ojikutu and Prof. Okunuga. I am very grateful to the Head of Dept, Public Administration O.A.U Ile-Ife, Dr. (Mrs) Janet Taiwo Makinde and Dr. Mike Adeyeye of the Institute of Local Government Studies, both of the Obafemi Awolowo University (OAU) Ile-Ife for their joint efforts at shaping my topic and charting the course of the thesis from the drawing board.

At the Institute for Development Studies (IDS), University of Cape- Coast Ghana, I would like to thank my off-shore supervisor and the Dean of the Faculty of Social Sciences, Professor Stephen Bugu Kendie and the Director of the Institute, Professor Mensah for their remarkable interest in my work, their insightfulness, criticisms and contributions to the thesis.

I also appreciate every academic and administrative staff of both the institute and the Faculty. They all cooperated to provide me a very congenial, conducive and fruitfully auspicious academic environment for my stay in the University. At home, I appreciate the contributions of the following individuals in my Department and Faculty, Dr. Oluwajuyitan, Dr. Fadakinte, Dr. Akinyemi, Dr. Ugoh, Mrs. Majekodumi, Dr. Quadri, Dr. Odukoya, Dr. Okeke, Dr. Eesuola, Dr. Onah, Dr. Ottoh, Dr. Ashiru, Dr. Oloruntoba, Dr. Odubajo, Dr. Eneanya, Dr. Shambavi, In Sociology, I appreciate, Dr. Funmi Bammeke, Dr. Lekan Oyefara, Dr. Pius Adejoh Dr. Kununji and Mr. Okonji. In Psychology Dr. Kehinde Ayenibiowo, Dr. Fagbohunbe, Dr. O.A. Akintayo, and Dr. Akinbode, In Economics I appreciate profoundly, Dr. Kemi Lawanson, Dr. W.A. Ishola, Dr. Akinleye, Dr. R.O.S. Dauda, Dr. Nwaogwugu and Mr. A.A. Adebisi, In Mass Communication Department, Dr. Sunday, Dr. Ajibade, Dr. Soji Alabi, Rita Joy Mogbogu, Pastor Tayo Popoola, In Geography Department, immense appreciations go to Dr. Mayowa Fasona, Dr. A.S.O. Soneye and Dr. (Mrs) Vide Adedayo. Dr. Ngozi Nwakeze and Dr. CCP Nnorom deserve special mention for facilitating the link I had with the University of Cape Coast. I doff my cap for you in

appreciation of your contributions to the success of this work. I appreciate, also and very importantly too, all my six research assistants led by Mrs. Bukky George and Mr. Muiyiwa Fatoba, others are Mr. Salaudeen, M.O., Mrs. Odunaike Adenike; Mr. Sanya Olusanya and Mr. Taiwo Abiodun .

All my spiritual fathers, Pastor M.A. Olatunji, Pastor Tunde Akintajuwa, Pastor J.O. Akinyemi, Pastor Peter Awodimila, Pastor Tade Akinsibo, Pastor (Dr) Lanre Ayannuga, Deacon (Dr) Akin Akinlua, Pastor Olabanji Akinjewe, Late Pastor Arueya and all the brethren in my church, Gospel Faith Mission International, Gani Fawehinmi, branch, Ondo, Ketu and Magodo Assemblies in Lagos, are all appreciated. Very worthy of appreciation is the regular enthusiastic fire prayer of Pastor Raphael on phone. Mrs. Martha Eboigbe, Mrs. Ewedemi, Mrs. Blessing Ariwajoye, Mrs. Adeola Fatodu, Mrs. Laide Ogunkoya, Mrs. Florence Adaramoye, Mr. Odunayo Olatoye, Papa Alex, Mr. Alatishe (Alart), Mr. John, Mrs. Onwuneme, Mrs. Moses, Mrs. Tunrayo Adeyemi, Mr and Mrs. Lamidi, Mr. Layi Oyelakin, Mrs. Franca Sote, Mrs. Adegboyega, Miss Toyin Effiong, Mrs. Dibia, Mrs. Owoade Alhaja Adedeji, Mrs. Idowu, Mrs. Jumoke Ogunkayode Mrs. Folami, Mr. Friday, Mr. Babalola, (DLI).

To the family of Alhaji and Alhaja Adeshina , I am very grateful for your constant support and encouragement in all ramifications. For taking the pains to type the work accurately within the limited time I value the efforts of Mrs Bukky Akinlade and Mrs. Bibiana of (shop 50). Mr. Ola (Shop7) and Mr. Olamide (Shop 39) at the FSS Shopping complex are also appreciated.

.All my in-laws, both at home and in Diaspora, are highly appreciated, for their moral and financial support toward my thesis. I appreciate all my cousins, nephew, nices, uncles and aunties (particularly, Daddy and Mummy Agbo Awosika at Egbe). I say a very big THANK YOU to all my siblings, starting from ' Brother Mi' (Brother Dele), ' Auntie Mi' (Sister Kehinde), Brother Folabi, Brother Rotimi, Lawale and Taiye, for their moral, spiritual and financial support. Finally, I deeply appreciate my immediate family, my jewel of inestimable value, the only God's project in my life, the amiable, beautiful delectable, adorable, quintessential, steadfast and caring wife, fondly called Iyabo, "The Ogbolatu of Ondo Kingdom", and, of course, the ones that are for signs and wonders, our precious pearls, Mayowa, Yinka and Daniel Ayokunle. I appreciate heartily every one of you for your perseverance and sacrifices as occasioned by my maternal conditions and constant absence from home, which culminated in this thesis. God bless you all.

ABSTRACT

In contemporary scholarship, the discourse on local government system has shifted from the debate on the requisite level of autonomy for local government administration, to the more topical issue of the impact of the local government system on grassroots development. Whereas scholars are agreed on the import of local government in any form of governmental contraption, however, there are divergent views on the extent of the role of the local government system in community development. Specifically, the work examines both the import of local government in respect of certain indicators of community development and also, the impact of local government strategies to community development. The work is equally an attempt to assess the effects of intergovernmental fiscal relations on local government and community development activities in Lagos State. Being an effort that interrogates the extent to which local government administrations impact on community development, and by extension, the citizenry at the grassroots, the work draws its analysis from the scenarios in five local government authorities in Lagos State, viz; Amuwo-Odofin, Epe, Mainland, Ikorodu and Ikeja. The five local Governments were based on the five administrative divisions of Lagos, which are Ikeja, Ikorodu, Epe, Lagos Island and Mainland. The local government selected under each division was arrived at by simple random selection through balloting. The choice of some local government systems in Lagos as case-studies is partly derived from the impressive developmental progress that Lagos has recorded since the beginning of the fourth republic. The study employs three theoretical platforms for its analysis. These are; the Democratic Participatory School, The Efficient-Service School and The Developmental School. While the Democratic and Participatory Schools of Thought are complementary in outlook, the Developmental School holds a differing perspective thereby balancing the various view-points on the extent of the effects of local government administration on community development. In furtherance of the objectives set out in the research, we employ a case study research design as its methodology, in which two qualitative research methods (in-depth interview and focus group discussion) were used to gather data. Subsequently, the data were content-analysed. The conclusive findings of the work show that the involvement of stakeholders in project initiation and implementation is key to the development process of their community. Similarly, effective communication between local government authorities and community members is fundamental to the attainment of community development goals. Thirdly, the activities of community development associations is critical towards achieving adequate provision of basic amenities for the rural populace. The findings also reveal that corruption negates the attainment of development at the local government level. As a panacea for system improvement and by implication overcome the identified challenges, the study recommends among others that: recognition and establishment of local communities as centers of development in the local government, improving and strengthening the local communities in this quest, creation of opportunities for the communities to determine their socio-political and economic needs and satisfaction, involvement of the communities in the making and execution of decision that affect their everyday life and effective condition of the activities of the community. In the final analysis, some tentative conclusions are reached to suggest that the local government system is still found wanting in forging and implementing community development initiatives at the grassroots level.

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ABBREVIATIONS

FGD:	Focus Group Discussion
IDI:	Indept Interview
FGN:	Federal Government of Nigeria
PSRC:	Public Service Review Commission
CBOs:	Community Based Organisations
NEEDs:	National Economic Empowerment and Development strategy
SEEDs:	State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
LEEDs:	Local Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
CEEDs:	Community Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
PEEDs:	Personal Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
SAP:	Structural Adjustment Programme
MDGs:	Millenium Development Goals
NAPEP:	National Poverty Eradication Programme
IMF:	International Monetary Fund
DFID:	Department for International Development
UNO:	United Nations Organisation
ECA:	Economic Commission of Africa
CDA:	Community Development Associations
CDC:	Community Development Committees
AMP:	Alternative Modes of Production

LED:	Local Economic Development
NURTW:	National Union of Road Transport Workers
NULGE:	National Union of Local Government Employees
NUT:	Nigerian Union of Teachers
NGOs:	Non-Governmental Organisations
CDA:	Community Development Association
CRA:	Community Resident Association
LGA:	Local Government Area
ICAN:	Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria
HIV:	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
LAWMA:	Lagos State Waste Management Authority
NASPA-CNN National Adaptation Strategy and Plan of Action for Climate Change in Nigeria	

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Local government's role in community development should be respected, not eviscerated. In these tough economic times, nothing is more important than continued public investment to stimulate growth, create jobs, and provide greater stability for communities.

(Shane Brinton 2011;1 Arcata City Council member, California)

The history of modern local government institutions in most developing countries has been a tortuous one. It has been an age-long episode of trials and errors, partly as a result of attempts at blending the traditional system of governance with modernity. For decades, Nigeria like most other countries has been and still is in search of a workable and effective grassroots administration and development strategy that will promote rapid socio-economic development (Ekpe, 2006). The views of the Federal Government on the main report of the Public Service Review Commission (1974), which still forms the basis for present-day policy direction, show that the essence of the local government system is anchored on attempts to reconcile participation of people in their own administration with the needs for an efficient delivery of essential services. The resultant effect of this position is evident in a good number of systems and reforms that have been experimented in the country. It all started from the pre-colonial era, where kings, chiefs, and elders held sway over the governance of their respective domains. As the custodians of the people's customs and traditions, the chiefs were highly respected and they had authority to compel their citizens to obey the laws of the land. Then, came the advent of the British era through indirect rule, which started in 1951 and till to the emergence of a modern

local government system from 1952-1965 and the 1966 era of Caretaker Committees and Sole administration, (Bello-Imam, 1983).

Aside from the chequered history of local government system in Nigeria, the system has also been impregnated by various problems, such as incompetent workforce, financial constraints, corruption, lack of autonomy and prohibitive control by State Governments (Ola, 1980b). One of the most remarkable attempts at stemming the downward slide of local government system in Nigeria was the 1976 Reforms. The philosophy of the 1976 reforms was a conscious effort to stem these constraints as well as to strengthen and correct the defects of the previous local government system. Till now, the effect of the reform exercise is yet to be fully realized.

A fundamental issue in this respect is related to the blatant misconception of the character and status of the local government system in most parts of the developing world- Nigeria inclusive. (Adejuyigbe 1979).

Often, the term “third tier” of government is misconstrued to connote the existence of lower levels and subordinate units, against a higher level and superior unit respectively. This view perceives local government as a separate government of its own (Agi, 2002). This misconception has apparently impeded development and progress on the part of the local government. Local government authorities are seen as providing inferior services. By extension, local government employees irrespective of status or rank are treated as subordinate colleagues in public service.

This notion contradicts the classic meaning of local government as stated below

as an essential instrument of national or state government for the performance of certain basic services which can best be decided upon and administered locally on the intimate knowledge of the needs, conditions, and peculiarities of the area concerned. It unites people in a defined area in a common organization, whose functions are essentially complementary to

those of the central government and in the interest of the local residents for the satisfaction of common community needs. It is also a means by which a local community satisfies jointly its common problems and needs which would have been difficult to solve by individuals. Consequently, its effectiveness is judged through the development it generates, the social amenities it provides and to the extent that it has catered satisfaction for the happiness and general well-being of the communities it has been established to serve. (The Western State of Nigeria Local government Law, 1958)

These functions and interpretations of the local government form the basis upon which local government authorities serve their communities all over the world.

It is however instructive to note that there are slight variations with respect to the scope of operations and the degree of autonomy in the discharge of local government authorities' statutory functions. For instance, the American system conceptualizes local government(county) authorities as distinct forms of government with distinct individual legal identity, definite geographical boundary, and entitlement to some discretion in providing services and limited taxing and spending autonomy (Adeyeye 1995). In contrast, the Anglo-Saxon tradition opposes the idea of autonomous existence for local government authorities. The logic being that since local governments are not independent bodies and derive their powers and functions from the higher authorities, they cannot be considered self-governing and autonomous bodies.

Despite the slight variations in conceptualization, the philosophy of local government authorities should be bound by the desire to encourage community development. Hence, the idea of local government authority as the existence of a local community having a will of its own, which must be discovered and respected by giving it due consideration in the formulation and implementation of public policies. According to Oladosu (1981), local government authorities should exhibit the following characteristics: provision of opportunity for the local community to

determine their own political, economic, and social destinies by active participation in the making and execution of decisions that affect them in their everyday lives and, indeed, managing their own affairs in the way they see it. It is against this background that local government authorities serve a great deal in arousing the citizenry's political awareness and mitigate the participatory inadequacies of both the national and State Governments.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Like all other states in Africa, Nigeria has always been challenged by developmental issues. These development challenges come in form of political, economic and socio-cultural challenges. Unfortunately, Nigeria has not fared well in confronting these challenges. The local government is the third tier of Government, which is constitutionally empowered to bring development closer to the grassroots. However, there are concerns that despite the Local Government Reforms of 1976 and the Civil Service Reform of 1988, this level of government has not been able to live up to the expectations of the people.

Development projects by local government councils should embrace the community participatory approach and make use of Community Based Organizations (CBOs), in order to facilitate the desired development. This expectation contrasts with reality if the development approach is yet to improve the people's well-being. The idea behind the creation of local governments is to foster development at the local or the grassroots level. Indeed, it is aimed at bringing government closer to the people.

The 1976 Local Government Reforms was aimed at achieving the lofty ideal of ensuring that government is closer to the people in order to engender development. It was the Reforms that

established local government as a separate level of government with statutorily allocated grants from the Federation Account and specific functions to be performed.

The blueprint for implementing the 1976 Reforms categorically states that:

(the) government at local level exercised through representative councils established by law to exercise specific powers within defined areas. These powers should give the councils substantial control over local affairs as well as staff and institutional and financial powers to initiate and direct the provision of services and to determine and implement projects so as to complement the activities of State and Federal Governments in their areas and to ensure through devolution of functions to these councils and through active participation of the people and their traditional institutions, that local initiatives and responses to local needs and conditions are maximized (Gboyega 1989: 179).

In spite of this constitutional provision and the huge quantum of resources that have accrued to local governments for more than three decades, development is still elusive in local communities all over Nigeria.

While examining the management of local governments within the context of prevailing laws in Nigeria, Nubi, (2002) observed that the local government culture and weak economic base was caused by prolonged State dominance, poor staffing of local governments and inertia on the part of their administrative staff as well as problem of funding usually associated with urbanization, especially its attendant population explosion and increase in demand for their services. He opined that the inability of local governments to perform effectively in Nigeria had led to urban degradation, rapid slum formation and total destruction of urban infrastructure, housing crisis, transportation problems increase in poverty level and other social vices, especially in the urban

centres. In view of the various challenges being faced by the Federal Government of Nigeria, the mega nature of Lagos State and its associated problems, the local government system occupies a central position in ensuring community development in the state. Going by the aforementioned, the basic task of this research is to critically examine the effects of the challenges faced by Lagos state local governments in terms of autonomy and capacity for resource mobilization, amongst others, that are inhibiting the local governments from being effective and efficient in their area of community development that bothers on adequate and sustainable provision of essential services such as employment, skill acquisition, health care delivery, education, security, portable water and recreation centres.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The general thrust of this study is to critically examine the nature and the impact of the challenges confronting Lagos state local governments in their efforts at community development.

In specific terms, the objectives of this study are as follows: To

- 1 identify challenges faced in the quest for community development by the local government.
2. discuss the effectiveness of local governments in provision of specific indicators of community development (employment, skill acquisition, healthcare delivery, education, security, portable water, and recreation centres and many others.
3. analyze the administrative strategies being used by local governments to drive the process of community development in Nigeria .
4. examine the influence of intergovernmental fiscal relations on the local government development activities in the community and finally,.
- 5 proffer solutions for ameliorating the situation

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What are the challenges faced in the quest for community development within the local government?
2. How effective are local governments in provision of specific indicators of community development (employment, skill acquisition, healthcare delivery, education, security, portable water, and recreation centres and many others?
3. What are the administrative strategies being used by local governments to drive the process of community development in Nigeria?
4. What is the influence of intergovernmental fiscal relations on local government development activities in the community?
5. What are the solutions for ameliorating the situation?

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In 1999, Nigeria's democratic dispensation was ushered in with all the high expectations of possible participatory governance. The expectations were not misplaced considering the fact that the pre-1999 era recorded a dismal performance for community development. The reason is not unconnected with military rule, which thrives on 'alienatory' rather than participatory politics.

It is observed that most works that have been done in this area of study are either too broad, looking at sub-Sahara Africa and some looking at the entire country, while some others are too narrow looking at the aspect of community development as it relates to the local government. In contrast, this study is a bold attempt to examine Lagos State, specifically, by comprehensively interrogating the various challenges militating against the efforts of its local government councils in community development.

This study is therefore significant for exposing scholars to the extent that Local Governments in Lagos state have achieved their basic objectives in community development. Also, if it becomes obvious that Local Governments have failed in their primary responsibility of community development, theoretically scholars will have to reposition and recontextualise Local Government.

1.6 SCOPE AND DILIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The work assessed the constraint encountered by local government authorities in their various community development efforts using Lagos State as a case study. Since the beginning of democratic dispensation in Nigeria in 1999, it has been discovered that Lagos state has been making developmental progress compared to some other States of the Federation. So it is worth researching for purpose of the observation. More so, Lagos State is regarded as the commercial nerve centre of the country. The survey for the study covered some select communities within the following five local government areas in the state, namely; Ikeja, Ikorodu, Mainland, Amuwo-Odofin and Epe Local Governments. These represent the five administrative divisions in Lagos.

The period covered in this study is 1999 to 2012. This coincides with the advent of democratic government and the institutionalization of structures that could allow for popular participation in the various communities with the expectation that such participation would catalyze development.

In the course of this research, some challenges were encountered. The most prominent being the lack of cooperation displayed by some of the interviewees. The reluctance attitudes stemmed from the fear of some local government officials that their opinions may be referenced to their

disadvantage. Some others were unwilling to be interviewed because of their engagements with pressing official assignments. However, these constraints were surmounted through convincing arguments on the relevance of the research to the improvement of the well being of the people as well as the improvement in the performance of the local councils particularly in the area of community development responsibilities.

The respondents were also assured that their views on the unstructured questions would be kept with utmost confidentiality. Consequently, it is not expected that the limitations will have any significant effect on the findings of this study.

1.7 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Intergovernmental relations refers to all forms of informal moral relationships between and across various levels of government in a polity. It is a political device often used by the Federal and State Governments. It can be regarded as a practical instrument for ensuring co-operative as opposed to competitive government in the delivery of services by the various spheres of government in a given political state.

Specific indicators of community development according to this work are: employment, skill acquisition, recreation centre, effective health care delivery, education, security and availability of portable water

Community here is the constitutionally designated geographic boundaries to which a local council is responsible and accountable in the provision of essential social and economic services for developmental purposes.

Local government is an administrative body of a small geographic area, such as a city, town county or state. A local government will typically only have control over their specific geographic region and cannot pass or enforce laws that will affect a wider area.

Development is viewed in this study as a process that focuses on improvement of the quality of life of the people on a sustainable basis through the adequate provision of the specific indicators of community development as aforementioned.

Community Development: This is a process in which the efforts of the people are united with those of governmental authorities, that is, they are, in partnership to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate those communities into the life of the nations and to enable them to contribute meaningfully to national progress.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 INTRODUCTION

There is a vast body of literature pertaining to discourses on local government systems and sub-themes under the subject-matter, such as: community development, local administration and intergovernmental relations among others. The thrusts of the issues are connected to the roles and functions of local government authorities, differences between local government and local administration, and various patterns and trends for actualizing the objectives of the local government system as a whole. For the purposes of this research, relevant literature are reviewed in the following order: description of local government system to explicate the various perspectives about local government administration as well as the role of autonomy in the relationship between local government authorities and other layers of government, the issues of the linkages between development and democratic principles especially as related to the latest economic initiative of the Nigerian government as contained in National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) and its sub-national correlates such as SEEDS, LEEDS, CEEDS and PEEDS, works on community development which is the issue at the core of this study because there is concentration on impact of local government administration under a democratic system on community development; comparisons of alternative models of local government administration and finally the summary of the reviewed literature as well as the gap being filled by this research.

2.1 THEORETICAL LITERATURE

2.1.1 Local Government Administration

The concept of local government has continued to generate excitement within the academia. These excitements have not been unconnected with the increasing importance of local government as one of the paraphernalia of federalism. This is why various definitions of it have been given. These definitions have concretely identified the indispensability of the local government to grassroots democracy vis-à-vis its provisions of governmental opportunities for self-development and self-imposed resource mobilization to the grassroots.

In general, nearly all the existing works on local government have shown this level of government's increasing propensity for the enhancement of home life syndrome.

It is in this respect we can understand the position of Humes and Harloff (1969) who define local government as:

An instrument of national or state government which unites people of a defined areas whose functions are complementary to those of the central government and works in the interest of the local residents for the satisfaction of their needs.

On the same analytical premise, Akpan (1972) sees local government as:

The breaking down of a country into small units or localities for the purpose of administration on which the inhabitants of the different units or localities concerned plays a direct and full part through their elected representatives who exercise power or undertake functions under the general authority of the national government.

Put together, the relevance of local government to community development includes:

- i. Enhancement of effective and responsive service delivery;

- ii. Exercise of democratic self government;
- iii. Effective utilization of human resources; and
- iv. Provision of a two-way channel of communication between the rulers and the ruled.

The above indices of relevance constitute the parameters for evaluating the performance of the Local Government in Lagos state.

These indicators show that the local government institution is a mechanism for mobilizing and integrating the grassroots into the fold of democratic governance in Nigeria and thereby enhancing community development. The role and indispensability of the local government institution in this respect are particularly relevant to the ethno-culturally plural Nigerian polity which needs effective human resources, relevant input and commitment of the people at the local government level due to its fertility.

From the above, it is the contention of this study that the purpose of local government is vital to the cornerstone of democratic system of government for community development and to the attainment of a stable democratic republic in Nigeria. In other words, local governments exist to bring about democracy and to serve as a base for political participation and education. They equally exist to provide services and serve as a vehicle for community development (Ola, 1984). Consequent on the foregoing, it is viewed that the goals of the local government vis-à-vis community development are the enhancement of political participation, resource mobilization and efficient service delivery (Adamolekun, 1983:7).

Similarly, participatory democracy, administrative efficiency and political autonomy have been typified as the three societal values which every local government has long tried and is still

trying to promote relative to political mobilization, community development and a stable democratic republic (Mass, 1959:25 and Oladosu, 1981:1)

These goals have shown that the local government is an important part of the governmental structure which its officials as well as government and citizens cannot take for granted particularly when it comes to community affairs. The subsequent entrenchment of the core of the goals and other aspects of the Nigerian local government structure in the 1979 and 1989 Constitutions of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and the improved total reincarnation in the 1999 Constitution are supportive of this view. These Constitutions vividly demonstrated the transparent commitment of Nigeria's Federal Government to the actual survival of the local government as the real third tier of government in Nigeria's federal structure and promoter of community development through political mobilization of their areas.

The whole of Schedule 4 of the 1999 Constitution addresses the functions of the local government within the Nigerian polity. These functions which could be in tracheotomy of mandatory functions, state and local government joint responsibilities (functions) and general functions (Aghayere, 1987:56) are aimed at fruitfully enhancing community development and the positive holistic existence of Nigeria within the anatomy of Nigerian federalism.

Indeed, the existence of the local government within Nigerian federalism is positively related to the enhancement of community development and attainment of a stable democratic Fourth Republic. It is the view of Okeem (1989:2) that the role the of local government in this respect can lead to "The orientation and reawakening of Nigerians so that they would, armed with rekindled vision and renew faith, face the challenge of making Nigeria one of the envies of the world."

Aziegbe (1989:1) supports Okeem's optimism when he asserts that "For a genuine development to be achieved in the rural areas a deliberately planned programme must be evolved via the local government being the most disposed level of government to rural development."

It is, however, observed that Okeem and Aziegbe's optimism is not misplaced relative to the relevance of the local government to political mobilization, rural development and inculcation of the values of democratic stability, because local governments and their inhabitants are better placed for the realization of the goals inherent in rural development.

A significant dimension to the conceptualization of local government administration relates to its colonial underpinnings. In this respect, Awa (1981) sees the local government as a political authority set up by a nation or state as a subordinate authority for the purpose of dispersing or decentralizing political power. Similarly, Wraith (1984) defines the local government as the act of decentralizing power, which may take the form of decentralization or devolution. In a more perceptive format, Emezie (1984) presents local government as 'system of local administration under local communities that are organised to maintain law and order, provide some limited range of social amenities and encourage cooperation and participation of inhabitants towards the improvements of conditions of living.

Deriving from these definitions, it can be opined that a wide range of scholars view local government administration from the perspective of superior/subservience relationship. Emezie (1984) captures this view most appropriately by emphasising the maintenance of law and order and limited range of social amenities. In essence, the conceptual view of local government is basically a function of space and time factor. Thus a summation of the definitions above points to the fact that the local government involves the conception of territorial non-sovereign

community with the legal right and the necessary organization to regulate its own affairs. Local governments are not sovereign unlike independent nation states. The local government *per se* is a subordinate government, which derives its existence and power from law enacted by a superior government (Awotokun, and Adeyemo, 1999). However, the superior authority must recognize the power of local governments to exercise the right of autonomous existence to the extent contained in a constitution.

The need for autonomous existence for local government authorities is at the core of relationships between local government authorities and states and the Federal Government in Nigeria. There seems to be conflicting conceptual interpretations of the term ‘Local Government Autonomy’. According to Odunfa (1999), government reforms intended to preserve or extend local government autonomy end up short of their objectives because the full meaning of the term ‘autonomy’ has not been fully explained. The reason is partly echoed by Adeyemo (2005) where the author argued that we cannot have complete local self-government within sovereign states. He maintained that if local governments were completely autonomous, they would become sovereign states. In contrast, Nwabueze (1983) argues that this is not impossible and defines the autonomy under a federal system to mean that “each government enjoys a separate existence and are independent from the control of the other government”. He further asserts that if properly conceptualized, it is an autonomy which requires not just the legal and physical existence of an apparatus of government like a Legislative Assembly, Governor, Court, and many others, but that each government must exist not as an appendage of another government but as an autonomous entity in the sense of being able to exercise its own will in the conduct of its own affairs free from direction of another government. Therefore, autonomy would only be

meaningful in a situation whereby each level of government is not constitutionally bound to accept dictate or directive from another (Nwabueze, 1983).

In his contribution to the literature of autonomy, Davey (1991) opines that the local autonomy is primarily concerned with the question of responsibilities, resources and discretion conferred on the local authorities. As such, discretion and responsibility are at the core of the local government. It presumes that local governments must possess the power to take decisions independent of external control within the limits of control laid down by the law. They must garner efficient resources particularly of finance to meet their responsibilities; put differently, local autonomy is the freedom or independence in clearly defined issues, areas, as well as separate legal identity from other levels of government.

The argument for autonomy is not acceptable to Adeyemo (2005) who stresses that there can never be an absolute autonomy because of the inter-dependence nature of the three levels of government. This brings into focus the inter-governmental context of local government autonomy. The federal, state and local governments rule over the same population. Hence, if they are to achieve the purpose of their creation and not waste the meagre resources at their disposal, there must be a definition of the boundaries or area of operation for each of them.

In essence, when one talks about local government autonomy in Nigeria's polity, one is referring to the relative independence of local government control by both the Federal and State governments. Therefore, it is the nature and structure of transaction between the three levels of government that reveals the degree of local government autonomy. On the basis of this, there have been improvements on the degree of autonomy granted to the local government authorities since 1976 and with more functions given to that level of government. To this end, the statutory

character of the local government system was guaranteed by its embodiment in the 1979 Constitution. Despite this effort, various administrations in Nigeria have not respected the so-called autonomy granted local government authorities (Adeyemo, 2005). Thus i shall now assess the practice of local government system in other parts of the world.

2.1.2 Alternative Models of Local Government

Anwar (2008) notes that the idea of local government administration historically predates the emergence of nation-states. He states that in ancient history, tribes and clans established systems of local governance in most of the world; they established their own codes of conduct and ways of raising revenue and delivery of services to their tribe or clan. Tribal and clan elders developed consensus on the rules and responsibilities of various office holders in the clan. Some tribes and clans, with better organisation and skills, then sought to enlarge their spheres of influence through conquest and cooperation with other tribes. Despite this similarity in the processes of pre-modern tribes and clans, local government systems have been developed to cater for the peculiar aspirations of each society; hence, the different models of local government existing in the world today. These include the Nordic, French, German, British, Indian, Chinese and North-American models.

The Nordic model

In the 15th century, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden were ruled by a Danish king. Residents of these countries contributed to the king's coffers but were allowed to run local affairs autonomously (Werner, 2005). In the absence of a central intrusion, the seeds for a locally run, client-oriented, welfare state were sown. As a result, local governments assume most functions of the state while the central government largely assumed a ceremonial role and foreign relations

functions. Local governments therefore assumed the responsibility not only for local service delivery but also for social protection and social welfare function.

In modern times, the central government in Nordic countries has assumed wider regulatory and oversight functions, but the predominance of local government – more than 30% of gross domestic product (GDP) in Denmark – and its autonomy are still preserved because of citizens' satisfaction with local government performance (Werner, 2005). The Nordic model emphasizes small local governments (average jurisdiction of fewer than 10,000 inhabitants that are primarily self-financing).

The French Model

In the French model, the primary role of the local government is to allow citizens at the grassroots level a sense of political participation in decision making at the national level. Werner, *et al* (2005), contend that the system embodies the thinking of Rousseau and Voltaire on rationality and social cohesion and that of Napoleon on a sense of order and unbroken chain of command. The national government and its agencies represent the apex in this system, with an unbroken chain of command through regional and departmental prefects to chief executives and mayors of communes at the lowest rung of the system. There is a similar chain of command through line and functional ministries. Therefore, the model is sometimes referred to as the 'dual supervision model of local governance'. Werner (2005) maintains that the system permits 'cumul des mandats' (concurrent political mandates or holding multiple offices or positions concurrently) to provide elected leaders at the lower echelons with a voice at higher level of governments.

The average size of local government jurisdiction is small (covering fewer than 10,000 inhabitants), and local governments have a limited range of autonomous service delivery responsibilities. Local governments use a mix of local revenue instruments and rely significantly on central financing. This model, with its focus on strong central command and dual supervision, proved very popular with colonial rulers from France, Portugal, and Spain, as well as military dictators, and was widely replicated in developing countries (Humes, 1991).

The German Model

The German model emphasizes subsidiarity, cooperation and administrative efficiency. It entrusts policy making functions to the federal level and service delivery responsibilities to geographically delineated states and local governments, to which it gives a great deal of autonomy in service delivery. All presumed local services are assigned to local governments. The average local government covers 20,000 inhabitants, and local expenditures constitute about 10 percent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). General revenue sharing serves as a major source of local finance (Werner, 2005). The Swiss communes enjoy similar leverage.

The British Model

The British model has elements of the French supervision model. It emphasizes a stronger role for centrally appointed field officers and sectoral and functional ministries in the provision of local services. Local government authorities are expected to coordinate their actions with these officials. Local governments are given substantial autonomy in purely local functions, but they can only access a limited range of revenue instruments.

Local governments play a dominant role in people-oriented services as road maintenance, garbage collection, water and sewage collections, and limited role in other services as health,

education and social welfare. Property taxes are the main stay of the local government. Local government typically derives two-thirds of their revenue from central transfers. They do not have access to personal income taxes. The role of the chief executive is weak and local councils play a strong role in decision making. The average local government is large, covering about 120,000 inhabitants and local expenditures account for about 12 percent Gross Domestic Product (McMillan, Forthcoming).

The Indian Model

India had one of the oldest traditions of strong self-governance at the local level. Werner (2005) avers that during the pre-Moghul period, local government was in operation more extensively in India than anywhere else in the world. Small villages and towns were regulated by customs and community leadership, with authority normally vested in an elders' council headed by a 'Sarpanch or Nunberdar'. The apex institution was the Panchayat, with responsibilities for law and order, local services, land management, dispute resolution, administration of justice, provision of basic needs, and revenue collection. These institutions enabled each village and town to function harmoniously (Werner, 2005).

Wajidi (1990) reports that subsequent wars and conquest led to the weakening of local governance in India. During the Moghul period, Panchayats were required to collect central taxes, but local government autonomy was not disturbed. However, during the British reign, with its central focus on command and control and little concern for service delivery, the system of local government received a major setback. Powers were centralized, and loyalty to the British regime was rewarded with land grants leading to the creation of a class of feudal aristocrats who dominated local political scene on behalf of the British government.

The Chinese Model

This model places emphasis on making provincial and local government integral and dependent sphere of national government. This is accomplished in two ways (1) through democratic centralism, which integrates the local people's congress with the national people's congress through a system of election, and (2) through dual subordination of local government, whereby provincial and local governments are accountable to higher-level government in general, but the functional departments are also accountable to higher-level functional agencies and departments (see Werner, 2005). The personnel functions are also integrated among various orders of government. Because of its integrative nature, the model permits a large and expansive role for provincial and local governments in service delivery; the average local government jurisdiction is very large. Sub-provincial expenditure constitutes 51.4 percent of consolidated public expenditures. The sub-provincial local government employs 89 percent of the total government workforce.

Some clearly central functions such as unemployment insurance, social security, and social safety nets are assigned to provincial and local governments; Werner (2005) observes that local autonomy varies directly with the fiscal capacity of a local government, with richer jurisdiction calling their own tunes while poor jurisdictions are controlled by the higher-level government.

The North-American Model

In the early period of North American history, local communities functioned as civic republics (Kincaid, 1967) governed by mutual consent of their members. Accordingly, the framers of United States Constitution did not recognize local governments.

The Civil War led to the centralization of powers in the United States. Subsequently, the formal institutions of local governments were created by States. The judiciary further constrained the role of local government through recognition of Dillon's rule (Bowman and Keamey, 1990); here local government could exercise only those powers explicitly granted to them under a State legislation. Subsequently, most States have attempted to grant autonomy to local governments in discharging their specified functions through home rule provisions (Bowman and Keamey, Ibid).

Local government rule in Canada is faced with circumstances similar to those in the United States. Thus, the North American model recognizes local government as a handmaid of States and provinces but attempts to grant autonomy (home rule) to local governments in their specific areas of responsibility – predominantly delivery of property-oriented services. Local governments perform an intermediate range of function. The average jurisdiction of local government in the United States is about 10,000 and in Canada about 6,000 inhabitants.

The Japanese Model

The local government introduced in Meiji – Japan in 1890 had elements of the French and German models. According to Werner (2005), it emphasized centralized control as in the French model of local government through the ministry of interior appointing heads of regional governments (governors or prefectures), who control local districts and municipalities. The local governments simply implement policies determined by the central government.

Similarly, Muramatsu and Farrukl. (2001) noted that, in post-World War II period, direct election of governors, mayors, and councils was introduced. The practice of agency delegation (German model) was retained; and local governors were expected to perform functions mandated by the central government and its agencies. They suggested that the ministry of home affairs,

which had a supportive role for local governments, was introduced in 1960. Income taxes are the mainstay of local government finances contributing 60 percent of own-source tax revenues, followed by property taxes (30 percent) and sales taxes (about 10 percent).

2.1.3 Development

Theoretically, if the ultimate goal of development is to ensure the overall well-being of the people, through sustained improvement in their living conditions, then people and not material things must remain at the centre of all-development efforts (Gana, 1992).¹ Similarly, since development is best facilitated through the full and active participation of the people, it follows therefore that local governments are best placed to serve as centres of development. (Ologbenla, 2003). This could serve as parameters for assessing the contribution and challenges of Lagos state Local Governments in community development.

The fact that development is a multi-dimensional as well as a value-laden concept (Lane and Ersson, 1997:15-16) has affected the conceptualization of development. In general terms development has been viewed from political, economic, and social dimensions. Todaro (1985), for example, conceptualizes development as a “Multi-dimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes, and national institutions as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of absolute poverty”. He identifies three core values of development (see Todaro, 1989:89-90). This includes the ability to provide as many people as possible with basic needs or the ability to acquire adequate food, shelter, health care and protection. It also entails the perception of individuals or group of self-worth and esteem as a respected member of the society and freedom in the sense that individuals and the society at large have an expanded range of choice, not only with material necessities for

self reproduction but also in their ability to have a say in, if not to determine, the method and process by which values are allocated in the society (Omotola, 2007:8).

The widely cited political economist, Sen(1990), has offered more illuminating thoughts on the concept of development. For him, development connotes “capacity expansion” (Sen, 1990), and it is synonymous with freedom (Sen, 1999). As capacity expansion, development requires adequate empowerment of the state and the society such that they can adequately distil their complementary responsibilities. It requires an enhanced state capacity as well as institutional governmental stability. According to Omotola (2007), it is only within such a framework that individual members of the community can find fulfillment in terms of the basic necessities of life. Development as freedom, demands great latitude of autonomy for the political community and its constituent parts as well as for the individual members of such communities. Furthermore, he posits that, in such a scenario as above, the level of popular participation measured in terms of the quality and quantity of participation is highly decisive. He argues that ‘wherever democratization is defined as the process of transition to a stable/consolidated democracy, could be a harbinger of development’.

The reasoning here seems to suggest that without good government being institutionalized through accountability and transparency, development may be far from being achieved. This has been viewed as synonymous with ‘sound development management’ (World Bank, 1992).

Sharma (2007) notes that the institutional deficit that characterizes so many developing and transitional countries (Nigeria inclusive) coupled with inadequate regulatory and legal framework to enforce contracts and reduce transaction cost deprived these countries of needed productive investment and economic development. He maintains that democracy influences

economic development; specifically, secure property rights that gives incentives to individuals to be productive, institutionalization of the rule of law, especially constraints against the executive and an electoral mechanism that give citizens the ability to evict the ‘rascals’ are essential to promoting development.

2.2 EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

The term community development first came into prominence officially at the British Colonial offices’ initiatives in 1948 during the colonial era when social welfare officers tried by stimulating self-help to improve health, nutrition and general community welfare. Its major objective was to solve social problems but this later changed from social to community development resulting in many communities building schools and constructing roads and bridges.

There are extensive econometric studies that show strong correlations between long term economic performance and good governance. In other words, the quality of governance fundamentally determines long- run developmental outcomes. Kaufmann and Kraay (2003) draw on a large World Bank data designed to measure the link between government’s development and to monitor performance of countries. They tracked the quality of governance from 1996 to 2003 in some two hundred countries. Accordingly, the quality of governance was divided into six categories aimed at capturing how governments were selected, monitored, and replaced; a government’s capacity to formulate and implement sound policies; and the respect of citizens and the state for the institutions that govern them.

The six measure indicators are: (a) voice and accountability; (b) political stability and lack of violence; (c) government effectiveness; (d) regulatory quality; (e) rule of law; and (f) control of

corruption. They conclude that good governance is not only critical to development but also that it is the most important factor in determining whether a country has the capacity to use resources effectively to promote economic growth and development and reduce poverty. Nevertheless, governmental institutions and policies explain most of the variations across nations in terms of economic development such that secure property rights, business transparency, political rights, civil liberties, and stable rule of law are significant factors accounting for developmental success.

More fundamentally, development is not restricted to statistical concepts of inputs and outputs. It means much more than that. Its overall connotation seems to be shrouded in the concept of capacity expansion and freedom, which can only be enhanced if the people could meet their aspirations, including their fundamental survivalist existence.

Given that CED is a community-centred approach to development, the mobilization of community residents is essential for initiatives to be successful. The role of participation, often voluntary, is vital to ensure that initiatives respond to the needs and capacities of the community as expressed by the community itself (Fontan, Hamel, Morin, & Shragge, 2006; Markey, Pierce, Vodden, & Roseland, 2005; Mendell & Evoy, 1993). The 2002 survey of CED organizations in Canada reveals that CED organizations play an important role in mobilizing citizen engagement and volunteer contributions in communities (Toye & Chaland, 2006).

Attaining sufficient levels of participation is often challenging, particularly in marginalized communities frequently characterized as suffering from transience and a lack of community cohesiveness and commitment (Shragge, 2003). In many cases where a lack of social cohesion fails to generate a commitment to a common goal, community organizers, either from within or outside the community, play a role in Lamb (2011) mobilizing people to act for their own interest in an organized way through community collective action (Shragge, 2003; Mendell &

Evoy, 1993). There are numerous cases where community organizers have drawn communities together for participation in collective action toward community initiatives (Fontan, Hamel, Morin, & Shragge, 2006; Hanley & Serge, 2006; MacIntyre & Lotz, 2006; Shragge, 2003). Such collective action is typically targeted for participation in a specific development project, such as social housing or job training programs.

The aforementioned community organizers are frequently employed by community development organizations (CDOs). One role of CDOs is to initiate processes to bring community members together to support local development and to change defeatist attitudes, so pervasive after years of numerous development initiatives with varying levels of success (Fontan, Hamel, Morin, & Shragge, 2006).

Qualitative community development research has uncovered some determinants of participation in CED initiatives in Canada. It has been observed that there is a positive relationship between an individual's willingness to participate and her or his expected benefits from participation (Shragge, 2003). The expected benefits may be for the betterment of the broader community, which might include social justice, provision of a municipal service, and building local institutions to provide economic opportunity. Personal individual benefits may include skills and leadership development, and the opportunity to meet and spend time with other people (Shragge, 2003; Hibbert, Piacentini, & Al Dajani, 2003). Shragge (2003) observed a negative relationship between an individual's willingness to participate and the associated personal costs, which include time commitments—such as paid work and childcare—and energy levels. Observed obstacles to participation include a lack of confidence to being able to contribute to a project on the part of the potential participant, the defeatist attitude among community residents based on

the belief that nothing will ever be accomplished, and lack of interest on the part of those who hope to move out of the community (Shragge, 2003; Hibbert, Piacentini, & Al Dajani, 2003).

The CED literature suggests that several socio-economic factors are also likely to affect participation in CED initiatives. Gender has been identified as a significant socio-economic factor as women appear to dominate participation in the CED sector (Conn, 2006; Shragge, 2003). Shragge suggests that a high female participation rate may be grounded in the view that a neighbourhood is an extension of the home, and thus neighbourhood issues are more likely to attract women than men (Shragge, 2003). CED

A rural work ethic and participation are crucial factors as far as community development is concerned. Cavalevu (1964:65-68) notes that when a community banana experiment in Fiji was not supported by the local villagers, it failed. The people did not give it their manual labour and planting material. A community agency working with groups remarked: We saw that purely technical "solutions" were useless. People's attitudes and feelings must always be taken into account. A solution must be practicable and desirable from the people's point of view (Batten 1967:166). Poverty can ultimately be eradicated only if the attitudes of the people towards that poverty and other development problems are positively stimulated and they appreciate that solutions can only be generated by the people themselves (Aziz 1987).

The local community, as a group, can participate in a number of stages: In all cases seen, where real progress was being accomplished in local community development, the first step in that development had been sustained discussion by the community of its basic needs and most urgent problems. Secondly, they had, as a group decided to accept the responsibility of pooling their intelligence, manpower, and local resources to attack one specific problem, the solution of which would meet some felt need of a large majority or all the families in the community. Third, they

organised to solve the problem and, in every case studied, learned that they needed some specialised assistance and, in practically all cases, some material or financial assistance outside the community. Fourth, they developed a degree of group responsibility, pride, and zest which led them to attack other community problems (Batten 1967:48-49). Gordon (1992) further adds that it is the local population's education, skills, and overall commitment to work that determines how much can be produced and how. The *Ujamaa* programme of Tanzania is a good example. Misra (1985:91) found that the structure and operations of two Iringa villages, Lulanzi and Magulilwa, display significant variations in terms of degree of involvement of the members as well as their degree of affluence and scale of operations between socialist (*Ujamaa*) largescale farmers and the European large-scale capitalist farmers. The performance of the European farmers far exceeded that of their Tanzanian counterparts. Many studies (such as Boesen et al. 1986, Hyden 1969, 1982:220-231, Kahama et al. 1986:40-176) show that these variations are attributed to the commitment of their members to work and the quality of their integrity as well as the style of village leadership. And this is what let down *Ujamaa*.

In most sub Saharan countries (Beets 1990), a few of these qualities are present and emerging at a relatively slow pace in comparison with changes in the rate of population expansion and in relation to overall social and economic global changes. As a result both material resources and the ability to change tend to be subject to strain from the population.

Such strain is not necessarily the result of the depletion of available resources. The difference between the two still remains a source of confusion in determining Africa's resource potential. The disorganization of both the material and methods of resource exploitation and the inhibition of the such exploitation by a lack of social and economic change have tended to hamper development (Franzel and Van Houten 1992).

Everingham (1999) traces the ideological shifts that accompanied the rise of community development initiatives in 1960s Australia. Passive concepts of social rights were replaced by a more active commitment to social justice and empowerment. “These new active meanings of citizenship legitimated new claims on the state, on the basis that everyone had the right to participate in society as full and equal members of that society” (Everingham, 1999: 6). Thus disadvantaged groups were able to apply for resources to develop their communities.

Everingham acknowledges that much of this work revolved around building the social capital of these disadvantaged groups. However, the rhetoric of the time was a more universalistic language of social rights, and a focus on community rather than on individuals. Whilst social networks and mutuality were stressed then, as now, in the past they were placed within “a broader *political* agenda of empowerment for members of that particular community” (Everingham, 1999: 7).

An OECD report (1999a) tackles the key question implicit in any analysis of successful community development initiatives. That is, to what extent are best practices (in this case, good local development approaches) transferable to other areas. This OECD report found that many areas face similar challenges, subscribe to the same broad principles of development and have set up comparable organisations. However, there is also considerable diversity in local circumstances and often a natural resistance to change. For these reasons, imported solutions need to demonstrate credibility and relevance. In addition, it is unwise to transfer initiatives into an area if institutional structures are too weak to support these activities.

The report’s main conclusion about transferability is that:

Policymakers should not attempt simply to transplant policy from one area to another in a passive and one-directional manner. This is unlikely to succeed. Instead, exemplary initiatives

and experiments should be put together in a network to enable co-operation and exchange with other areas (OECD, 1999a: 41).

Smith and Herbert's qualitative action research into 80 Australian government funded, community-based initiatives tracks changes in ten different living standard outcomes. Two of these were employment related, namely participation in either the formal or informal labour market. One finding is that employment outcomes often come about as a result of success in other areas. In particular, improving people's access to information and level of social participation may then increase their participation in the formal and informal labour markets (Smith and Herbert, 1997: 63).

Jones lists characteristics that are essential if communities and local governments are to establish an effective partnership (Jones, 1995: 19). These include a clear definition of and commitment to the partnership – outlining the overall objectives and respective roles and responsibilities. It is important to ensure that the partnership has a strong community representation and that the community has the infrastructure and resources necessary to sustain that level of participation. Honesty, trust, mutual respect and patience are vital, yet often need to be developed over time given the potentially conflictual relationships between partners (Jones, 1995: 19; Riccio, 1999, 30; Aigner, Flora, Tirmizi and Wilcox, 1999: 4).

This concern is reiterated in an initial assessment of the Opotiki development project. This project has grown out of the Department of Social Welfare's (DSW) 'Welfare to Wellbeing' initiative, and aims to reduce welfare dependency by mobilising the local community into creating sustainable employment opportunities for local residents. O'Neill argues that it is important to consider the dynamics of this government-community partnership, particularly the role of DSW as the initial lead agency. For all that DSW can contribute as a partner to a network

of key stakeholders, it is clearly differentiated from the others in the group by the nature of its vested interest in the outcome, and by the ability of the organisation to influence the nature and direction of any initiative undertaken (O'Neill, 1997: 38).

In the Opotiki development project, four months had been allocated for initial consultations with key stakeholders, yet the actual process took nine months reiterating the need for both patience and a commitment to community consultations. O'Neill concludes that "a willingness to suspend the pursuit of short-term parochial goals in order to obtain long-term, sustainable economic and social growth" is crucial (O'Neill, 1997: 43).

The Community Springboard project in Leeds is another initiative that champions the merits of establishing participatory structures – in their case, a Think Tank and a Projects Forum.

The Think Tank is a bi-monthly forum for community project workers and public and private sector policy agencies to share ideas. The Projects Forum meets every three months and is an opportunity for paid and voluntary representatives from each of the eight community-based projects to share good practice and learning (Foreman, Hawtin and Ward, 1997: 160).

There are also lifecycle elements to partnerships so, for instance, a broad degree of local participation may be critical in the initial planning stages but may make communication and decision-making more difficult later on (UK Employment Department, 1995 cited in OECD, 1999a, 34; Riccio, 1999: 28).

In New Zealand, Community Employment has developed strategies for working with particularly disadvantaged groups. Evaluations have been undertaken of their Mahi A Iwi, Pacific Peoples' and women's strategies. The Mahi A Iwi process evaluation was based on 13 in-depth case studies carried out late in 1996. It pinpoints some of the uniquely positive features of CE's work. These are CE's accessibility and low key approach; its sensitivity and commitment to the culture,

style and pace of Maori groups; and its ability to work within and between Maori and Pakeha groups given its strategic placement within the Department of Labour (Community Employment Group, 1997a: 51-53). CE's focus on empowering groups to take responsibility for community employment initiatives is encapsulated in the following quote from a Hawkes Bay kaumatua: CE has helped us unlock the door we always considered locked, but they also made us realise that it is our choice to step through that door (Community Employment Group, 1997a: cover).

The 1997 process evaluation of CE's Pacific Peoples' employment strategy is based on 12 indepth case studies. Many of the strengths identified in CE's approach are similar to those discussed above. In addition, the work of CE's Pacific Islands field advisers is acknowledged as is its willingness to form partnership relationships with community groups – as distinct from merely purchasing outcomes from Pacific Islands organisations (Community Employment Group, 1997b: 23-24).

The 1998 evaluation of CE's service delivery to women combines a literature review, analysis of the CE project database, 22 phone interviews and 15 field visits with community groups, and face-to-face interviews with 7 field advisers and 4 community representatives. This is largely a process evaluation though some outcome statistics are presented. The 37 groups interviewed report on 40 projects with approximately 6,000 participants, stating that a total of 1,755 women moved into temporary, part-time or full-time employment, and 274 were undertaking formal training (Community Employment Group, 1998: 6). This evaluation provides limited information on best practice service delivery to women. However it notes that projects are enhanced when childcare is available; participants have an opportunity to develop networks, share information and take on responsibilities; and where their cultural identity is affirmed (Community Employment Group, 1998: 43).

2.2.1 National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) and Its Correlates

Government, from time to time, embarks on social, economic and political reforms as ways of demonstrating its relevance in the everyday lives of its citizens. These activities continue to be of interest to experts and commentators in order to ensure that programme goals are properly defined and desired ends are pursued with single- minded devotion.

In Nigeria, the government has come with various economic reforms to turn the economy around and has called it many names which include Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP); removal of subsidies in Agriculture; and Petroleum Deregulation of Financial Sector; Privatization Programme, Deregulation of Upstream and Downstream Oil Sector; and of recent, The National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS). (Bamiduro and Babatunde:2006)

The general trend in development policies and institutions is the greater participation in development planning and implementation by a wide range of interest groups, including local communities. This way, participants will actively contribute to the plan preparation and implementation rather than passively receiving information from outside experts, who may not have local understanding of the issues.

Although planning for development in Nigeria can be traced to the colonial era, its impact on sustainable development remains weak and unfelt. This has resulted in poor management of both the natural and human resources in the country and little development. Thus, despite its rich human and natural resources, Nigeria remains a paradox of poverty in the midst of massive oil

windfall. Considering the fact that Nigeria is Africa's most populous country, it has been stated that Africa's attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) depends on Nigeria's success in reducing poverty. To tackle the problem of underdevelopment, it is obvious that Nigeria requires a new and radical approach to development planning and poverty reduction if the prevailing high rate of poverty is to be reduced. Thus, in recognition of the required drastic approach for meaningful development, government in September 2003 evolved a new development strategy for poverty reduction. This homegrown development strategy, known as the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), was launched in May 2004. The NEEDS document provides an honest and self-critical assessment of poverty in Nigeria, its causes, and the challenge confronting the nation.

NEEDS sought to address basic deficiencies, such as the lack of freshwater for household use and irrigation, unreliable power supplies, decaying infrastructure, impediments to private enterprise, and corruption. The government hoped that NEEDS would create 7 million new jobs, diversify the economy, boost non-energy exports, increase industrial capacity utilization, and improve agricultural productivity. A related initiative at the State level is the State Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (SEEDS) and at the local government level is called the Local Government Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (LEEDS). At the community level, it is the Community Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (CEEDS), while at the household level, it is the Personal Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (PEEDS). NEEDS has four pillars: (1) empowering people and improving social service delivery; (2) improving the private sector and focusing on non-oil growth; (3) changing the way government works and improving governance; (4) and value reorientation at all levels. (Amaghionyeodiwe and Adediran, 2012)

Thus, it was expected that Nigeria as a growing country, moving towards reducing poverty and achieving the MDGs would translate into significant gain in social and economic development for the whole of sub-Saharan Africa.

In line with the policy thrust of NEEDS, the government set up the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) to tackle the challenges of poverty. However, since the establishment of NAPEP, it has nothing tangible to show for its existence. NAPEP, an agency established by government to tackle poverty through empowerment, rather than focus on its mandate is today enmeshed in controversy. This led the Senate of the Federal Republic of Nigeria to move a motion to probe the activities of the agency since its creation (*Guardian*, Feb., 24, 2009). The general impression is that NAPEP has failed the country because the poverty rate is still high. It is gathered that the agency has received a total of 11.8 billion Naira but it has nothing to show for it (*Guardian* Feb., 24, 2009).

Responsible for some of the issues at the local level important for LEEDS are the Local government councils whose responsibilities are as follows:

(i) The consideration and the making of recommendations to a State commission on economic planning or the consideration and the making of recommendations to any similar body on the economic development of the State, particularly in so far as the areas of authority of the council and of the State are affected. (ii) Construction and maintenance of roads, streets, street lightings, drains and other public highways, parks, gardens, open spaces, or such public facilities as may be prescribed from time to time by the House of Assembly of a State; as well as (iii) control and regulation of shops and kiosks.

Furthermore the functions of a local government council include participation in the Government of a State with respects to the following matters:

- The provision and maintenance of primary, adult and vocational education; and
- The development of agriculture and natural resources, other than the exploitation of minerals.

(World Bank Official poverty website: [http://iresearch.worldbank.org/Povca netJsp/index.jsp](http://iresearch.worldbank.org/Povca%20netJsp/index.jsp))

There was a high expectation that the new economic reform could fix the socio-economic problem that bedeviled Nigeria for a long period considering its scope, comprehensiveness and reorientation potentials it portrays. It could be deduced easily from program papers that NEEDS differs significantly from the past similar economic policies Nigeria had in the mid 1980s such as Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) as it is thought to be more comprehensive, realistic, and better coordinated and tends to reflect the input of the country's stakeholders.

The Nigerian Government and the IMF were conspicuous in explaining the achievements of the neoliberal reform agenda (NEEDS) in the economy hitherto operated where Government was a major player. The achievements of the reforms have centered on macroeconomic stabilization of the Nigerian economy by improving budgetary planning and execution and provided a platform for sustained economic diversification and non-oil growth (Okonjo-Iweala and Osafo-Kwaako, 2007). Statistics provided by the IMF (2007) indicated that Nigeria had experienced growth in virtually all its sectors of the economy during the first phase of NEEDS implementation.

Other economic spheres where NEEDS had recorded appreciable achievement include fiscal and monetary policies. Public spending was reduced from 47.0 percent in 2001 to 35.4 percent in 2004 which resulted to budget surplus of 7.7 percent of GDP for 2004, up from deficits of 4-5 percent of GDP in 2002-2003 (USAID, 2006). The supply of money declined from an annual rate of 24.1 percent in 2003 to 14.0 percent in 2004. This restraining monetary policy, along with

fiscal restraint and the policy of putting the excess crude oil revenues into reserves led to reduction of inflation from an average of 18.5 percent in 2001-2003 to an estimated 10.1 percent in 2005 (Adogamhe, 2007).

Apart from its relative achievements in terms of economic growth, the reform measures have left much to be desired in the area of economic development. A cursory view of the nation's local manufacturing sector, for instance, shows that harsh business environment has restrained the performance of the sector in Nigeria. The sector is confronted with a myriad of constraints such as acute power shortage, multiple taxations, insecurity of life and property, high interest rate, poor infrastructure, inefficient port administration, among others leading to more than 45 percent decline of industrial capacity underutilization and closure of more than 60 percent of industrial companies (Amanze, 2010). The reforms need to be consolidated by different policy measures designed to discourage imports and encourage greater reliance on the products of domestic industries, in order to stimulate local production to contribute to GDP growth, create more jobs and reduce unemployment and poverty.

In spite of the reform structures and institutions established by the Government to ensure economic efficiency, transparency and proper management, there is enough evidence that the reforms did not achieve those noble objectives (Adogamhe, 2007). This situation could be due to the mounting challenges on the path of structures and institutions. For instance, regular and efficient power supply remains the main infrastructure that is required to release the full entrepreneurial energies of Nigerian economy. Stable power supply is the basis for creating more wealth, providing more job opportunities and unleashing unprecedented economic growth and poverty reduction (Fashola, 2010), yet it is not available on a sustainable basis.

Despite the achievements recorded by NEEDS, the reality indicates that the reforms is still far in between. The basic infrastructure including water, electricity, education, transportation and health facilities, as indices for measuring community development, remain deplorable. In spite of the increased economic fortune as a result of high crude oil prices in the international market in the last 13 years, Nigeria is still grouped among poorest countries in sub-Saharan Africa, with a very high poverty level (UNDP,2009) and collapsed infrastructure (Biereenu-Nnabugwu,2007). Nigeria must have focused leadership and stronger state institutions for reforms to significantly reduce poverty and stimulate economic progress. Corruption, poor state of basic infrastructure and weak institutions remained the major deterrents to investment, sustainable growth and improvement in social welfare (DFID, 2006). Leadership and stronger institutions for successful neoliberal reforms including NEEDS could be achieved through promotion of popular democracy, free and fair election and quality education (Abdu Ja'afaru Bambale:2011).

2.2.2 Community Development

Sanders, (1970) explicates the concept of community development in Carry, L. J. (ed). Ever since the post colonial state emerged in Nigeria, like any other nation in Africa, the state has become saddled with the task of socio-economic transformation. Therein lies the social question that has generally become the major crisis of state in Africa today. Related to this is the task of harnessing and mobilizing resources to address living standards. This task, of recent, has come to increase the pressure mounted on governments as they widen its spheres of responsibility amidst dwindling economic resources in the face of global economic depression resulting in a crisis of unfulfilled expectations.

It is in this regard, that seeking the cooperation of citizens to augment governmental efforts in development has become primary. Causally related within this context are the twin concepts of ‘community’ and ‘development’ popularly taken together as ‘community development’. It is expected to serve as the magic multiplier tonic that will fill in the vacuum in the development process between the people and government. Furthermore, it is to serve as a catalyst and cybernetic mechanism in the tailoring of socioeconomic transformation.

However, in general terms, community development has come to assume a broader meaning with more encompassing attributes as its usage embraces both the socio-political and economic objectives of development packaged in various forms of activities.

The concept of community development is not completely a new ideology. What probably may appear new is the mode of application in modern time and its ancestry as a union of community, organization and economic development (Sanders 1970). Nigeria’s colonial history with respect to community development reveals that ever before the advent of British rule in Nigeria, the people of pre-colonial era had always pooled their resources to embark on projects that would better their environment and existence.

The concept of community development is a multidimensional paradigm both in scope and operation. It is seen as a movement, educational method and a process. In attempt to give a definition to this concept, the Cambridge Summer Conference of 1948 in Hanachor (2009:5) opines that:

Community development is a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and, if possible, on the initiative and, if not forth coming spontaneously, by the use of

techniques for arousing and stimulating it in order to ensure its active enthusiastic response to the movement .

The focal point of the Conference was community development as embracing all forms of betterment of community members including all activities of development, be it undertaken by government or non governmental bodies. Community development is seen as a movement when it is desired to promote better living for the community. In the same direction, the Ashridge Conference of 1954 presented community development as “a movement designed to promote better living for the whole of the community with the active participation and on the initiative of the community”. The United States International Co-operation Administration (1956) defines community development as a “method by which national government reaches out to people at the village level and helps them use local initiative and resources to achieve increased production and higher standard of living”. This contribution presents community development as a social process within the community which gives room to community members not only to identify their areas of needs (felt needs) but goes on to offer solutions from within their local resources. In addition to the contributions of conferences and organizations, individuals also took positions in the attempt to define community development. One of the early contributors in this area was Baker (1950) who presents community development as an educational process in his statement that:

“It is not better roads, better bridges, pure water nor better sanitation. It is something of the spirit more than something of material. It must reach into deep cultural patterns of the people, examining them and testing them as principles of faith. It is not a temporary, physical construction; it is a building with the heart and minds of men not a recreation centre in the middle of the field”.

Baker in his definition emphasizes the conscious involvement of members of the community. This in fact tallies with the idea of the Ministry of National Planning on true development as the development of man, the unfolding and realization of his creative potentials. In his contribution, Olson (1996) see community development as a move by the people (community members) to provide their basic needs through their own efforts and sometimes with external assistance (where necessary and possible). He asserts that though this, external assistance can come or not, but it is believed by professionals in community development that adequate injection of external assistance in self help endeavours, by the communities, reinforces local development actions. Heward and Voorhes (1969) adopt the developmental process approach in their definition of community development as “the induction and educational managements of that kind of interaction between the community and its people, which leads to the improvement of both”.

Community development as reported by Hillman (1960) in Bello and Bola (1987:2) is

A method of helping local communities to become aware of their needs, to assess their resources more realistically, to organize themselves and their resources in such a way as to satisfy some of their needs and in so doing acquire the attitude, experience and co-operative skills for repeating this process again and again on their own initiative.

In his definition, Hillman presents a process approach to community development as involving dynamic sequence which sets in motion people’s effort in the realization of their goals in which ever direction. Still revolving around the process of educating the members of the community for change, Nelson and Lowry (1960) define community development as “the process involved in the education of members to take deliberate action for community change, the nature of which is determined by them in terms of their own valued system”. To Nelson and Lowry, social change

should be man's cherished aspiration. In a related view, Biddle and Biddle (1988) in Anyanwu (1992:2) define community development as:

A process of social action in which the people of a community organize themselves for planning and action, define their common and individual needs and problems..., execute these plans with maximum reliance upon community resources and supplement these resources when necessary with services and materials from government and non-government agencies outside the country.

Community development is seen as a process when individuals are assisted through organized effort to acquire the attitudes, skills and orientation required for effective and meaningful participation in programmes designed to improve their standard of living. Meziro (1967) had earlier argued that community development was “a planned and organized effort to assist individuals to acquire the attitudes, skills and concepts, required for their democratic participation in the effective solution of a wide range of community problems in order of priority”. Community development when viewed in the light of educational process manifests in change in behaviour and acquisition of new skills and confidence as a result of repetition or practice and co-operation. Murry (1966), in Bello and Bola (1987:1), presents another dimension (programme approach) thus:

The utilization under a single programme of approaches and techniques which rely upon local communities as units of action which attempts to combine outside assistance with organized local self determination and effort which correspondingly seek to stimulate local initiative and leadership as the primary instrument of change.

Murry's definition like others emphasizes the importance of participation by the people of a community in the improvement of their living condition and physical environment. It also brings in the element of external assistance for successful community development.

In the same direction, the United Nations Organization (1978) quoted in Anyanwu (1992:3) views community development as:

A process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and enable them contribute meaningfully to national progress.

The definition of the United Nations stresses the need for local effort involvement in form of active participation and self help in initiation, planning and execution of projects in communities with much reliance on their local resources, and the vital role of governmental and non-governmental sources of assistance in the areas of technical and financial services to encourage communities in the achievement of specific goals. In its contribution, the Economic Commission of Africa (ECA), as reported in Hanachor (2005:7), defines community development as:

The outcome of a series of quantitative change occurring among rural population. It is a process by which a set of institutional measures are implemented with and for the inhabitants of rural areas with the aim of improving the socio-economic condition of the rural populace.

Since community development implies a change for better, the concept suggests that people are not whatever circumstance dictates for them. They have the capacity to make creative input to the improvement of their situation and the mastery of their environment. This may have informed the definition of Nzeneri (1995) who attributes it to hard work and maintains that community development is "self-help and hard work freely undertaken by youths and adults

through the inspired vision for better standard of living for the country as a group”. Barikor (1984) provides an all embracing, contemporary definition of community development. He submits that community development by contemporary standard is “an amalgam of many dynamic and complementary factors involving education, economic, socio-political, cultural effort to emancipate the community from retrogressive tradition, poverty, ignorance and disease”. Community development seeks to increase the capacity, confidence and self-reliance of community members so that they can take charge of their own future.

Apart from the various meanings ascribed to community development by different authors, scholars, national and international organizations associated with the concept, it is also needful to examine the views of other professions on the concept. The field of education identifies community development with adult education discipline or basic and fundamental education. This is because some aspects of adult education do go beyond instruction in formal courses in programmes of local action and these can be viewed as part of educational process. Supporting this view, Anyanwu (1992) states that, as an educational process, “community development is usually employed as a means of educating the people of a community to help themselves both as individuals and as groups”. Sociologists and anthropologists, because of their concern with the process and techniques of social change, see community development as an applied field of their discipline. This position is based on their emphasis on strategies and formulation of programmes designed to achieve specified community development goals. Amongst economists, there is a clear distinction between economic development and community development. Political scientists, in recognizing community development as a means of helping people in rural communities to identify with central government, have tended to focus more on public administration than on community development which makes it lose its essence when rigidly

administered. Agricultural extension specialists, especially in the United States, see in rural community development programmes a chance to apply the technique of social organization and communication that had positively influenced agriculture. Extension workers have viewed community development programmes as a threat to their programmes giving preference to their traditionally much narrower approach over comprehensive community development plans.

In recent times, social workers, as they extend their views to international programmes, see community development as an excellent vehicle for the expanded expression of Western social work philosophy and organizational methods. Some would equate community development to community welfare organization particularly in the urban areas. Yet, community development through its programmes is a more detailed action of people of a community in identifying their needs and executing their plans with the support of government and non-governmental agencies, the outcome of which gave rise to self-help projects. In line with this is the view of United Nations Organization, which advocates the unity of the efforts of the people and those of the governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of the people of the communities.

At this stage of the development of the concept, in most parts of Nigeria, there are several community development projects, though initiated by the community members, have been assisted by government or non-governmental agencies. Contemporary advocates of community development such as Barikor (1984), Nzeneri (1995) Hanachor (2009) have included in the concept of community development such terms as voluntary participation, collaboration, empowerment, and emancipation from tradition, poverty, ignorance and diseases. Programmes in line with these contemporary views of the concept in Nigeria include National Poverty

Eradication Programme (NAPEP), the Roll Back Malaria Programme, Micro Credit and Empowerment Programme, Mass Transit Programme and many others. Each of these programmes/projects has specific objectives, whose achievement depends on several other factors.

Theoretically, different scholars have identified various forms of community development practices. Takaya (1988) identifies four forms of community development exercise namely communal crisis task force, citizen secuor, communal tribe, and development land marks. The first three fall within the classified period of pre-colonial Nigeria.

The Crisis Task – Force: This is regarded as the oldest manifestation of community cooperation. It is characterized by a spontaneous action by members of community, especially able bodied men who respond to tackle an emergency problem. Examples abound in addressing natural disasters as floods, unusually pests (like locust, army birds etc) and combating external aggression.

Citizen Secuor: This form of community cooperation practices has the members voluntarily contributing materials or money, labour or artifact which is to be used by an individual member or family in need with the expectation that another member would also benefit in the same manner based on the principle of rotation. Examples include large-scale assistance, in a short time, on a farm, harvest, building or fencing a house or compound etc.

Communal Tribute: As part of the benefits of royalty are some special services. As perquisites of traditional royal institutions are farms and residential quarters, the functioning and maintenance of these were the collective responsibility of the subjects as their tribute. These were evident in the cultivation of royal farms, estates, roads etc.

Furthermore, the strong visible evidence of community development practices which abound in the aforementioned categorized ways put together formed the policy thrust and philosophical backbone of Tanzania's adoption of Ujamaa as the basis of African socialism.

It was in response to this quest that the Cambridge Summer Conference on African Administration, held in 1948, came out with a definition that was adopted as the working formula for British colonies. The Conference viewed community development as:

A movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation, and if possible on the initiative of the community, but if this initiative was not forthcoming spontaneously, by the use of techniques for arousing and stimulating it in order to secure its active and enthusiastic response to the movement. It includes the whole range of development activities in the district whether these are undertaken by government or un-official bodies; in the field of agriculture by securing the adoption of better methods of soil conservation, better methods of farming and better cares of livestock; in the field of health by promoting better sanitation and water supplies, proper measures of hygiene, infant and maternity welfare; in the field of education by spreading literacy and adult education as well as by the extension and improvement of schools for children. Community development must make use of the cooperative movement and must be put into effect in the closest association with local government bodies. (Cited by Takaya in Nweze 1988).

It is this given matrix that has come to shape and define the direction and modus operandi of community development in Nigeria within the theoretical frame work of development landmarks. Development landmark, according to Takaya (1988), refers to:

The practice today is for State and local governments, in their efforts to encourage community development, to place more emphasis on the

promotion of physical projects. For this reasons, community development has inadvertently come to be equated with the external manifestations of development in form of major “landmark” projects such as schools, clinics or dispensaries, rural roads and bridges, electricity, pipe-borne water, market stalls etc. executed through communal efforts.

Problems Facing Community Development Practitioners: Every profession or field has peculiar challenges associated with it. Community development practitioners in course of their profession are faced with the problem of mobilization, culture and tradition, adoption of change conflict and finance. This study shall consider each of these problems as it affects community development practice.

Mobilization of Community Members: In communities, there are different categories of people; the rich, the poor, the educated, illiterate and many others. As these categories are, so are their level, of understanding and reaction to issues. Most people have natural tendency to resist innovations or change especially when they are not informed of the innovations. To be able to elicit the participation of a greater number of the member of the community, in any community development programme or project, the community development practitioner is faced with the problem of mobilization, which poses great challenge to the success of the programme or project. Mobilization is the process of putting people (individuals or groups) into readiness for active service or arousing their interest and consciousness for programmes or projects which would be of benefit to them.

Participation: Participation is a process by which members of a community actively take part in the programmes and projects of the community. In most cases, this is always a problem to the practitioners, as it is always difficult to ensure that everybody in the community gets involved.

To the practitioners, it is acceptable, if a good number of the members of the community are involved in a programme or project. This takes us to the issue of popular participation. The underlining factor is that, because every member of the community cannot be made to participate in community development programmes or projects, a good representation of all segments of the community, men, women and youth irrespective of their economic status, political affiliation, religion, level of education and many others. should be involved in the planning and implementation of programme and projects designed for the improvement of their community (Imhabekhai 2010).

Culture and Tradition: Culture is the way of life of a people, the totality of their custom, norms and tradition (Hanachor 2005). Most community members are addicted to the culture and tradition of their community. In most cases these cultural practices and tradition tend to go at variance with the focus and expectations of the practitioners, thereby posing difficulties in the execution of such development programmes or projects targeted at liberating the people from their retrogressive cultural practices.

Conflict and Crises: When communities are infested with conflict and crises, it becomes both difficult and dangerous for community development practitioners to carry out their task. Conflict implies disagreement, resulting from divergent perception of issues of common interest. Conflict can be described as a collision of two or more sets of needs, interests and motives within individuals or groups (Imhabekhai and Oyitso 2002). Conflict is an integral part of human life, and cannot be avoided as long as individuals interact with one another or groups. The management of conflict in communities is a great challenge to community development practitioners hence, they need to make assurance double sure that they take control of the

situation. When conflicts are poorly managed, they degenerate into crises, a situation of intense danger.

Adoption of Change: In the course of exposure and interaction of individuals with people outside the community, they learn certain practices, belief systems, new methods of doing certain things, which if adopted could transform their community. To the community development practitioner, this would be a welcome development but, because most people in communities are usually adamant to change, the challenge therefore is how to convince the community members that the adoption of the change or innovation will facilitate the development of their community.

Finance: The importance of finance in the implementation of community development programmes and projects cannot be over-emphasized. No matter how fantastic the development plans of a practitioner may be, without finance the good plans would translate into nothing. After planning, the practitioner is faced with the problem of raising fund for the implementation of all the plans. Adequate funding of any programme or project guarantees successful execution, but inadequate funding often leads to snail speed execution of projects and if nothing is done to improve the funding, it may result to abandonment of the programme or project. When a community development programme or project is abandoned due to lack of fund, development practitioners find it difficult to mobilize the community members to complete the project, let alone embark on a new project.

It can be concluded that since concepts and meanings attached to life phenomenon affect the perception and application of it, development stakeholders should evolve such concepts and meanings that would move the practice beyond local frontiers and sustain the practice over time.

The Way Forward: Although community development practitioners are faced with numerous challenges, with practical application of the principle of conscientization, the challenges will be surmounted. Conscientization makes people become conscious of realities around them, other than the one into which they have been socialized. It exposes the hindrances of the present situation and the prospects in their liberation and advancement. Freire (1974) remarks that: “conscientization re-enforces the development and awakening of critical awareness.”

It is worthy of note that the level of involvement of members of a community in community development programmes or projects is a function of the level of awareness created in the members. In order to elicit popular participation of the people, the information concerning the programmes or projects designed to improve the lives of the members of the community should be communicated adequately to all concerned, to appeal to their conscience. There are people in communities that have natural tendencies to resist innovations and change, but with adequate information and awareness they will see the need for the change.

2.2.3 Current Development in the Field

Vidal (2004) notes that the growth of the community development corporations in the face of a difficult macro-economic and political environment raises questions of how to identify adequate resources to sustain and build upon the foundation that had been laid. This is because community development corporations are almost totally dependent on external support for their activities; the core community development task is creating assets, and in poor community, these requires steady access to money. Therefore, resources have always been a pressing issue.

However, the interaction of the external environment and rapid CDC growth has also produced important developments and challenges that concern how the field adapts to the need for increasing complexity and sophistication in pursuing its work (Vidal, 2004). This is divided into

three broad categories namely: Structural Growth; Expanding Program Focus; and greater reliance on partnership and collaboration. These are discussed below:

Structural Change

Vidal (2004) argues that resource scarcity has made development project increasingly complex to finance, requiring the community development corporation or association to increase both their technical skill and management capability. As the community development corporations (CDCs) have become more aware of the importance of stimulating and taking advantage of under-development and poverty to heighten the impact of their work, the skills and sophistication the CDCs leaders need to do the work well have increased. At the same time, the fact that many CDCs are small, under-capitalized, and therefore engaged in modest levels of development activity fuels the desire to strengthen CDS capacity.

In some places, these factors also raise concerns about whether there are too many CDCs that are too small to make real impact and prompt interest on vulnerable people in the community.

Perhaps the most significant response to this pressure has been the development in the growing number of cities of support for CDCs (that is, network of city-level organisations, commonly working with one of the national intermediaries. Accordingly, CDCs have always had, important local sources of funding, a long- term relationship among local supporters that provides reliable access for the CDCs as well as their programmes and political support, financing, technical assistance, and core operating support, all of which have increasingly developed over the past decade (see Vidal, 2004 and, Gustafson, 2002).

Expanding Programme Focus

As noted earlier, CDCs typically have very broad community improvement missions and many of them engage in a wide variety of activities to strengthen their neighborhoods. Nevertheless, there is a widespread interest among CDCs in working on a broader array of community issues.

Gustafson (2002) notes that younger and smaller CDCs with strong developmental focus want to expand into arenas where more mature CDCs already have experience, while more mature and diversified CDCs express interest in becoming involved in activities that have not generally been part of the CDCs agenda, for example, public safety, education and child care. Moves of both types occur regularly as individual CDCs find ways to piece together resources and partners to facilitate expansion. The number of groups reporting that they do such activities as commercial development and child care have risen (Gustafson, 2002).

Greater Reliance on Partnership and Collaboration

In the words of Vidal (2004), “community development can also benefit by funding common course with broader organising efforts”. Such efforts to broaden the CDCs agenda to increase their impact underscore the growing importance of collaborating to successful community developmental work.

According to him, virtually all efforts require building new or fuller relationships among stakeholders already within the CDC system and/or reaching out in orders to forge ties among themselves as in most communities. In other cases, entering a new area of activities entails crafting working ties to non-profit making organisations with different types of expertise.

On his part, Gustafson (2002) argues that high levels of CDC interest in such issues as public transportation access and smart growth suggest that if resources can be identified, these types of coalition may attract growing CDC participation.

2.2.4 Intergovernmental Fiscal Relations.

The way taxing and spending authorities are delineated and the manner in which intergovernmental transfers are structured in a country have come to be recognized as fundamentally important in the efficient and equitable provision of public services.

Fiscal decentralisation - the devolution of taxing and spending powers to lower levels of government - has become an important theme of governance in many developing countries in recent years. Accordingly, restructuring of governmental functions and finances between the national and lower levels of government has entered the core of the development debate.

Fiscal decentralization consists primarily of devolving revenue sources and expenditure functions to lower tiers of government. By bringing the government closer to the people, fiscal decentralization is expected to boost public sector efficiency, as well as accountability and transparency in service delivery and policy-making. Decentralization also entails greater complexity in intergovernmental fiscal relations, and coordination failures in fiscal relations are likely to have a bearing on fiscal positions, nationally and sub nationally.

Most countries have several tiers of government. In addition to the national level, many countries have two sub-national levels; i.e. provincial (or regional) and local governments.

Furthermore, local authorities are often divided into sub-levels such as ward and village councils.

In many countries the lower levels of government undertake important fiscal functions, both on the expenditure side and with respect to revenues (Boadway et al., 2000). In such federal systems

various forms of fiscal arrangements between the national and lower levels determine the way in which taxes are allocated and shared among the various levels of government, and how funds are transferred from one level to another. Thus, intergovernmental relations, both vertical (between levels of government) and horizontal (within levels) are important for the development and operation of an efficient and effective public sector.

According to Bird (1990:281), it is the ‘workings of the myriad of intergovernmental relations that constitute the essence of the public sector in all countries’.

The way intergovernmental fiscal systems are organised varies from country to country. These differences partly reflect historical and geographical characteristics of each country, the degree of heterogeneity of the population and the extent of government intervention in the economy.

Given this diversity, how questions of inter-governmental structures and functions are resolved in practice will often differ from country to country (Bird, 1990). Although the diversity complicates broad generalisation, reference to the experiences of other countries is often the only guide available. Despite its limitations, such experience may provide useful lessons in assessing the potential strengths and weaknesses of intergovernmental fiscal systems in any country (Bird & Vaillancourt 1998).

The key motivation for decentralization in a number of countries has been the disenchantment of the electorate with the ability of the central government to meet adequately the increasing demand for public goods and services (Tanzi, 1999). The potential benefits of devolving fiscal responsibilities to sub national levels of government are increased efficiency in service delivery, and reduced information and transaction costs associated with the provision of public goods and services (World Bank, 1997)

Based on the public finance principle of subsidiary, (Wildersin.1988) the performance of the public sector can be enhanced by taking account of local coordination of intergovernmental fiscal relations, which has puzzled theoreticians and practitioners in recent years (Poterba, 1996). Given the increased complexity in coordinating government actions when lower levels of government enjoy greater autonomy in policymaking, the key policy challenge in decentralization programs is to design and develop an appropriate system of multilevel public finances in order to provide local public services effectively and efficiently while, at the same time, maintaining macroeconomic stability (de Mello,1998). The task consists of managing intergovernmental fiscal relations by taking into account, on the one hand, the growing need for local public goods and services and, on the other, the importance of preserving fiscal discipline, nationally and subs nationally. When new budgetary rights and responsibilities are assigned to sub national governments, institutional clarity and transparency should be promoted in the budget-making process, such that spending matches revenues at the sub national level.

Without special attention to institutional clarity and transparency, intergovernmental fiscal relations may suffer from coordination failures. These coordination failures may induce subnational governments to spend inefficiently and beyond their means, when fiscal policy is designed and implemented in a decentralized fashion. These policy failures tend to manifest themselves as a deficit bias and higher costs of borrowing given the risk premium associated with a higher probability of default (Poterba & Rueben, 1997; de Mello, 1998). Fiscal decentralization may therefore aggravate, rather than reduce, fiscal imbalances ³ and consequently endanger overall macroeconomic stability (Prud'homme, 1995; Huther & Shah, 1996; Ter-Minassian, 1999),

Unless sub national governments are committed to fiscal discipline, and the decentralization package includes incentives for prudence in debt and expenditure management. The imposition of stringent constraints on sub national indebtedness and effective monitoring of sub national fiscal positions are additional important prerequisites for successful fiscal decentralization, in addition to the availability of expertise at the sub national level to manage efficiently an increased volume of resources (Fukasaku & de Mello, 1998)

In Nigeria, the fiscal inter-relationship between the three-tiers of government has been contentious over the years due to lack of an acceptable formula. It generates tension and bad blood among the three tiers of government

Inter-governmental relations are an inevitable phenomenon in any Federal system or non-federating systems. As long as the Nigerian Federation continues to survive, resources sharing adjustments will continue to feature as an important fiscal arrangement in the Federation; this will continue to play a vital role in the operation and structural interplay of the Federation

Nigeria's fiscal Federalism is anchored on economic, political, constitutional, and local and cultural developments. The country's Federal structure presently consists of thirty-six states, a Federal Capital Territory and seven hundred and seventy-four Local Governments. Consequently, the structure is a three tier or level of Government; the centre (Federal), States and Locals Governments, within a presidential system of government (Elaigwu, 2007:93). The Fiscal Inter-relationship between the three-tiers of government has been contentions over the years. In recent times, the revenue allocation matter has become heated as a result of disagreements over the derivation principle. The crisis in the Niger Delta area of the country hinges on the revenue-sharing issue. Hence, this poses a challenge for the leadership of the Nigerian State and her policy-makers as they tackle the fiscal relationship among the three level of government. Nigeria

operates a federal structure of government that guarantees the existence of the Federating units. The functions of the Federal Government are contained in the exclusive list that of States on the concurrent list where a conflict exists, the exclusive functions of the federal government dominates. The constitution spells out the assignment of functions and areas of fiscal jurisdiction among the various units of the Federal system (Nwokedi, 2002).

It is clear that fiscal arrangements are the consequence of a federal structure. The types of fiscal arrangements ought to affect the nature of the federal structure. The main problem centres on how to put in place, a federal structure that would be conducive to national and equitable allocation of the country's resources among the different sub-national governments in order to reduce inter-governmental and inter-group tensions. In addition, other problems in Nigeria's fiscal arrangement include power sharing and the apparent imbalance between the expenditure responsibilities assigned to the different levels of government and the tax power available to them. The allocation of functions among federating units is more of a political than an economic exercise and there may be no stated principles underlying such allocations in the Nigerian Federation (Okoli & Onah, 2002:100).

The conceptual and theoretical issues involved in intergovernment fiscal relations are fully discussed in Ekpo and Ndebbio(1991) and Shah (1991). However, it is necessary to re-emphasize that local government fiscal operations can play an important role in macro-management of the economy. At the local level, certain goods and services are best provided through public means. Hence, issues of efficiency, resource allocation and distribution become relevant at the third level of government. In addition, it is generally agreed that certain taxes, levies and rates are better collected by local governments.

Expenditure made at the local level may not only be centrally financed, but also centrally directed. Local governments that act as central expenditure agents do not reflect expenditure decentralization in a meaningful sense, just as centrally collected but shared taxes do not imply proper revenue centralization (Musgrave, 1973: 342). It is, therefore, important to distinguish various types of grants and transfers reflecting the extent to which central control of expenditures and revenues is involved. Centralization could be measured between various tiers of governments. It is possible that within an economy decentralization may take place between the federal and state governments while relative centralization remains at the local government level. The converse can also occur. There are several issues on the economics of intergovernment transfers.

Intergovernment transfers can be generally classified as either non-matching or selective matching. Non-matching funds may be selective or general (conditional or nonconditional). In terms of selective non-matching transfers, the government at the centre, for example, provides a specific amount of funds to another tier and expects the latter to match the funds. Such funds are often for a specific purpose.

Selective non-matching grants are best suited as a means of subsidizing activities to which the higher level government (say the Federal Government) assigns a high priority by Local governments. Such a case would occur in a degree of spillovers up to some level of provision after which the external benefits abruptly terminate (Shah, 1991).

For non-matching unconditional or general grants, no constraints are imposed on how the funds are to be spent. Selective matching grants, on the other hand, must be spent for a particular purpose and the recipient is required to match the funds to some degree. These grants are otherwise known as cost-sharing programmes.

There are economic, political and social justifications for transfers. These reasons are covered in Boadway (1990), and Shah (1983). Economic justifications for grants include efficiency, equity and stabilization objectives. Within the theory of grants, efficiency and equity objectives are complementary. Boadway (1990) maintains that application of efficiency and equity principles suggests four main economic reasons for grants. These are:

- Inter-jurisdictional spillovers - implying that intergovernment transfers can be used to increase the efficiency with which public goods and services are provided.
- Fiscal gap – involving “a mismatch between means and expenditure needs at various levels”. This results in a structural imbalance bringing about a shortfall in revenue for a lower level of government. Fiscal gap or imbalance could be due to:
 - (a) inappropriate expenditure and tax assignment;
 - (b) limited and/or unproductive tax bases available to a lower tier of government;
 - (c) tax competition between tiers of government; or
 - (d) the centre crowding out tax room for state and local governments.
- Minimum standards of services - connoting efficiency as well as equity criteria for ensuring common minimum standards across an economy especially in a federation.
- Differential net fiscal benefits across states – occurring because some states are better endowed than others with natural resources and thus have better access to an enlarged revenue base.

Furthermore, some states could have higher incomes, hence a greater ability to raise revenues from existing bases compared with others. Stabilization grants can increase in periods of slack economic activity to encourage local expenditure and curtail spending during the upswing of the business cycle.

2.3 SUMMARY

Much of the reviewed literature on local government and community development shows or indicates an increasing propensity for the improvement of peoples' wellbeing and their emancipation from the ravaging abject poverty in developing societies of the world.

There is also a trend towards participatory democracy, administrative efficiency and political autonomy as societal values being pursued by local governments to engender political mobilization, community development and a stable democratic republic.

These works are of general nature addressing both the developed and developing societies of the world. Some of the literature focused on the Nigerian state as a whole. This is where the current work fills in the gap in literature by investigating the peculiarity of the current situation as pertaining to local government and the challenges of community development in Lagos State, Nigeria (1999-2012).

2.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Three theories of local government in relation to community development and two other general theories are highlighted and employed in investigating the subject of this research. These are (a) The Democratic Participatory School; (b) The Efficient-Service Delivery School; and (c) The Developmental School. The theory of Grants and the Systems theories represent the general theories.

2.4.1 Democratic Participatory School

Essentially, the democratic school of thought holds that local government functions to bring about democracy and to afford opportunities for political participation to the citizen as well as to

educate and socialize him politically. This viewpoint has been supported by Keith-Lucas, David Bulfer and William Mackenzie.

2.4.2 Efficient-Service Delivery School

The efficiency school argues that what is central and important to local government is not the emergence of democracy but rather that the local government must be judged by its success in providing services up to a standard measured by a national inspectorate. Jim Sharpe is of the opinion that the efficient performance of these services is so compelling that, if local government did not exist, something else would be created in its place.

2.4.3 The Developmental School

Which best captures this discourse, differs from the two other schools of thought over its ethnocentric bias in favour of the developed Western democracies. It argues that, from Alex-de-Tocqueville and J.S. Mill to James Bryce and to the contemporary theorists such as James Sharpe, William Mackenzie and Hugh Whalen, there has been the emphasis on Western Europe and Northern America. Undoubtedly, the Anglo-American has been the chief advocate of the democratic participatory school. The Western Europe side, especially the German School, has tended to embrace the efficiency services school, particularly from Rudolf Von-Gueist to Georges Langrod. The developmental school's emphasis is on how local government in the developing world, such as Lagos, can be an effective agent of a better life, an improved means of living, socially and economically and a means to a better share in the national wealth (Ola, 1984a).

Theories of development have been motivated by the need to explain mass poverty. Interest in development issues is of rather recent origin dating back not much earlier than the nineteen

fifties and early sixties. As represented by their more influential proponents, the development schools of thought reflect roughly the following chronological order of appearance modernization theories from 1950s to early 1960s. The modernization school of thought was the first attempt to articulate the problem of development in terms of the need to transform the backward “traditional nature of Third World economies into “modern economies. Drawing from the historical experience of the Western Europe in the Second World War, under the Marshal Plan, it advocates the need for accelerated economic growth through an import substitution form of industrialization, a process seen to entail securing their quantity and mix of saving investment and foreign aid. There is wide agreement that economic development based on modernization theories has failed to bring about the much hoped for rapid growth, dynamic industrial sectors as well as the expansion of modern wage economies and the alleviation of the impoverished rural subsistence sectors (Singh,1977). The most incisive blow to the modernization theories came from the Marxist and neo-Marxist “dependency”(O’Brien:1975) or “under-development” theories (Baran,1968) as well as those of the structuralist writers (Hardman and Midgely, 1981)

Dependency theories are considered from the late 1960s to early 1970s. The theoretical thrust of the dependency perspectives was that capitalist penetration leads to and reproduces a combined and unequal development of its constitutive parts. The policy implication is that indigenous economic and social development in Third World social formation must be fundamentally predicated upon the removal of industrial capitalist penetration and dominance (Tylor:1979).

World economy view from the late 1970’s to early 1980’s is the third school of thought of development. The world economy school poses the problem of development not in terms of desired self sustained autonomous growth and not in terms of undesired dependency, but in

terms of necessary global interdependence. Just as third world countries depended on developed countries aid, private investment, technology and trade, so do the latter depend on Third World markets and natural resources. The policy implication is that a restructuring of the interdependent relations between the developed North and underdeveloped South is necessary in order to achieve a “new economic order” (Lipton:1977).

Basic needs approach from the late 1970's is the other school of thought. The basic needs approach shifts development emphasis from a singular concern with restructuring of the world economy to that of restructuring the domestic economy towards a new internal economic order, primarily aimed at the eradication of mass poverty and social injustices (Streeeten, 1980). The Third World problem of mass poverty is seen as the consequence more of the pattern of economic growth, rather than that of the rate of growth, as such.

The implication is central to Kuznets' hypothesis which states that there is no justifiable economic rationale for high and increasing income inequality as the basis for rapid economic growth in Third World countries.

Alternative modes of production perspective (AMP) which commenced from the 1980's and which counter-poses against the foregoing four schools of thought, are the newly emerging AMP perspectives. Under this perspective, contemporary Third World societies are seen essentially as characterized by the co-existence of sharply contrasting sectors. On the one hand, there is the overwhelmingly dominant (in production terms) traditional sector and distinguished by its predominant engagement in backward, low productivity subsistence agriculture. On the other hand, there is also the overwhelmingly dominant (but now in economic and political terms) modern sector, geographically constituted in both the urban (industrial) sector and the rural

enclave engaged in large scale extractive and cash crop agricultural sub-sector. While the traditional sector is socially and economically organized predominantly along non-capitalist lines, reflecting the unity of production and consumption, the modern sector is organized on the basis of the capitalist mode of production in which the direct producers are separated from their means of production. It is the co-existence of (at least) two modes of production that forms the theoretical object of investigation for the AMP perspective.

2.4.4 The Theory of Grants

Grants may be used to achieve several intergovernmental objectives. In this section, focus is also given to the choice of appropriate grant instruments and to the incentive effects of various types of grants. It is necessary to differentiate among various types of grants. The main distinctions are whether the grant is general or selective; or whether the grant is non-matching or matching; whether or not it is related to the fiscal need of the receiving unit.

Simply put, a matching grant is a selective grant which supports the provision of social goods only while the non-matching grant is general, since it may be used to support the purchase of additional private goods by way of tax reduction. It should be noted that, for most purposes, matching grants are more effective than non-matching grants.

According to one of the proponents of this theory (Musgrave 1980), both general grants and selective grants have their own roles for the efficiency of agencies or units. Where government wishes to increase expenditure on a particular public service, a selective grant apportioned for its use will be effective. On the other hand, general grants are not tied to specific social goods or services. Hence, if the objective is to encourage particular public services, a selective grant is more effective than a general grant.

In conclusion it must be noted that, even with selective and matching grants, the revenue or funds gained by the recipients or receiving jurisdiction may be partially diverted or channeled into other uses.

2.4.5 The Systems theory

The theory which informs our discussion of local government and community development in Lagos state Nigeria is the general systems theory. It is a theory that has been contributed to by writers such as; Almond (1960); Easton (1965); Adamolekun (1983) and Offiong (1996). A synthesis of the definitions of a system given by various writers, some of whom are listed above, can be stated as follows:

It is a phenomenon of whatever type, including physical, biological, social, political, etc., which is an organized whole with identifiable, interrelated structures delineating it from the environment (supra system) in which it is located and with which it interacts, processing the inputs from it into outputs for it.

The general systems theory argues that every system, including the political system, has subsystems which make up the entire system. These subsystems are assigned functions and provided with enabling empowerment, including resources, appropriate authority, etc. to enable them discharge their responsibilities optimally.

Where this is the case, there is said to be *homeostasis* (stability) in the political system. On the other hand, instability reigns in the political system where the contrary is the case and the subsystems and entire system are also unable to function optimally.

Input and output analysis of a political system is very important. A political system is said to obtain its inputs (demands, supports, liberty or autonomy, cooperation, criticisms, resources,

information, direct labour, etc.) from the environment. It may be pointed out that some of these inputs, such as liberty or autonomy, cooperation, and direct labour, were not specified in the original or earlier analysis of the general systems theory, but they are considered important for this research. These inputs are what the subsystems employ to discharge their responsibilities so that the political system can send out its outputs into the environment and obtain further inputs for its operations.

Applying this brief exposition of the political systems analysis to the local government system in Lagos State vis-à-vis community development, the local governments in the State constitute the subsystems. They must be well handled in terms of being fed with adequate inputs from the community which constitutes the environment so that they can contribute appropriately to the optimality of the Nigerian political system, as well as its *homeostasis*. If the reverse is the case, that is, if the local governments do not have the required inputs to operate, two important things may happen. First is that there might be instability and the second is that there might be discontent amongst the citizenry. Since the two are intertwined, it is very useful to realize the importance of the systems theory in the handling of local government and community development in Lagos State and by extension, in Nigeria as a whole. This means the realization of the sub-systemic nature of the local government which is an integral part of the overall Nigerian political system. They have their assigned responsibilities to perform to the benefit of the people, not as appendages of either the Federal or State Governments. Failure to treat the LGs as such could lead to frustration, disenchantment and inability to perform and hence dissatisfaction amongst the populace.

Scholars and practitioners in the fields of administrative studies agree on the point that the opinions of service receivers need to be taken seriously by government so as to understand what public needs are all about, how to distribute services to meet up the needs and how to communicate with people, thus assessing their satisfaction. Public administration cannot concern itself with abstract knowledge. This is why Laleye (1991) asserts that “its production is supposed to have practical effects or to have practical applicability in Nigeria” The need to recognize and fully understand the interdependence which exists between an organization and its environment is emphasized by the systems theory. Basically, the systems theory emphasizes the whole rather than the parts.

Parts, whether of organisms, organization or societies, are not looked at separately but together in the faith that the functioning of the whole is causally and inescapably tied to the functioning of the parts. Haynes (1980) believes that a system is always very complex, a mixture of sub-systems which interact with each other in various planes and dimension. He went on to point out that all systems are related to other systems in an almost infinite and multidimensional hierarchy. An organization and its parts interact and depend on each other to achieve the purpose for which the organization was set up. This implies that an administrative organization exists within an environment which has external and internal dimensions. Both the internal environment (formal structures and procedures as well as mechanism of control) and external environment (social, economic, political as well as historical) factors influence the functioning of the administrative system. Put aptly, Henry (2002) says “Systems comprise components that work together for the objectives of the whole, and the system approach is merely a way of thinking about these components and their relationship”. The local government system under consideration falls

within this framework considering its diverse nature, style of governance and the quest for development vis-à-vis its external environment (i.e. the community)

2.5 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.5.1 Local Economic Development

Literature depicts that, since early 1970s, Local Economic Development (LED) has been given considerable focus and importance. According to Blakely (1994), LED refers to a “process by which local government and or community-based groups manage their existing resources and enter into new partnership arrangements with the private sector, or with each other, to create new jobs and stimulate economic activity in a well-defined economic zone”.

Helmsing (2002: 81) has explained LED in the same way. Here the central aim of local development is to create or expand job opportunities available for local people. Moreover, the term local indicates more emphasis on endogenous development instead of exclusively on exogenous factors. Local actors are the principal actor in LED. Thus, it needs partnership among and between the government, the private sector and community and community organization (Miehlradt and McVay 2006: 32).

Eventhough there were different approaches of LED in the past, this study focuses on the new approach which Helmsing (2003) calls: “the new generation of LED”. According to him, the new generation of LED promotion is characterised by multi-actor, multi sector and multi-level. The former implies that the success of LED depends on active involvement of public, private and nonprofit actors. The multi sector indicates importance of the public, private and community sectors of the economy in LED. This shows that it is not only the public sector but also the private and community sectors that have significant contributions for local economy in making

goods and services available for current as well as future consumption. The final point multilevel refers to LED success requirement that not only depends on local initiatives but also on opportunities and threats of global change. The local initiatives are categorized into three: community-based economic development; enterprises development; and locality development. The focus of this discourse and next section is on enterprise development.

2.5.2 Business or Enterprise Development (ED)

According to Guimaraes (1998: 29), in the new LED approach, enterprise development can be promoted through two strategies: (1) attracting outside investment and (2) inward-oriented strategy. But, as many scholars argue, more emphasis has to be placed on the second strategy which promotes more rapid development. Based upon a brief and selective survey of the literature on local economic development (LED), this study provides analyses for four theoretical aspects that distinguish “local” economic development theories from their “national” counterparts as pertaining to discourses on local government and the challenges of community development. These are (1) location factors, (2) local public goods, (3) active participation by a variety of private agents, and (4) the multidisciplinary approach of LED theories. This analysis could be significant because it can be used to design an academic discipline of LED, which seldom exists in developing countries as well as shed light on the objectives and roles of agents involved in ongoing decentralization and led processes in those countries.

The fourth distinctive feature of LED theories is their multidisciplinary approach to the LED process. As shown in previous sections, LED theories draw on a variety of disciplines (such as spatial and location theories, public finance theory and the theory of governance, among others). Nonetheless, these are considered separately to emphasize different aspects of the local

development dynamics. Until the 1980s, there was a consensus among LED practitioners in terms of the various factors taken into account in the LED process. In the early 1990s, however, a set of LED theories emerged with a multi-disciplinary, multi-dimensional or multi-factorial approach to the LED process within a unified framework. Those theories have been associated with the third wave of LED policies and local government programmes and highlight simultaneous interactions between various factors to achieve local development goals.

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CHAPTER THREE

EVOLUTION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION IN NIGERIA

3.1 *RAI-SON D'E-TRE* OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Local government administration is the first form of governmental administration in Nigeria. It is one of man's oldest institutions. The earliest form of local government existed in the form of clan and village meetings. In fact democracy itself originated and developed along the line of local government initiative in the ancient Greek city states. In other parts of the world, local governance was developed along the people's culture and expectations. A lot of reasons have been given for the evolution and creation of local governments. These range from political, social and economic reasons. These reasons have been captured by section 7 (2) of the 1999 Constitution in the following words:

The person authorized by law to prescribe the area over which a local government council may exercise authority shall:

- a. define such area as clearly as practicable; and*
- b. ensure to the extent to which it may be reasonably justifiable, that in defining such area regard is paid to –*
 - i. The common interest of the community in the area*
 - ii. Traditional association of the community, and*
 - iii. Administrative convenience.*

In summary, the following are the purpose for the creation of local government:

1. **To bring governance closer to the people:**

Participation by the citizens in governance is one of the underlying precepts of democracy and modern day notion of government. Local governments served as avenue through which

the people participate in governance. This is done through participation in the electoral process and decision making in the local communities. Due to the vast nature of the country, the presence of government whether at the federal or state levels will not be felt much at the local government. The resultant effects being neglect and distrust for government. In a bid to bring the activities of government closer to the people, local governments were created to serve as conduits through which government policies are communicated to the people.

2. For administrative convenience:

Local governments are created for administrative expediency. There are many functions that will be cumbersome for the State and Federal Governments to perform because of the distance separating them and the people. These functions can be best and effectively performed by the local government.

3. To engender development:

Local governments are created to bring about meaningful development in the rural areas. As agents of rural development, local governments are to use the funds made available to them by both Federal and State Governments and their internally generated revenue to improve their communities through the following:

- a. Initiating and attracting developmental projects to the local government, such as:
provision of access road, water, rural electricity etc.
- b. Sustaining livelihood through the provision of credit facilities for agriculture, arts, crafts and small scale business.
- c. Encouraging the formations of cooperative societies and other economic groupings.

4. To preserve heritage and common interest of the people:

The creation of local government is intended to bring people of common heritage or ancestry together as a political unit to further their interest and increase participation in government business. In Nigeria today, there are over 250 ethnic groups with diverse cultures and tongues. These ethnic groups are further divided into communities. These communities form the constituent of most local governments in Nigeria. By carving out local governments amongst people of the same community, government is preserving such a long 'traditional association' and using same to foster the interest of the people concerned.

Ranny (1975:474) submits that the existence of the local government has been justified on the following grounds:

- i. It provides the people a platform to conduct their own affairs in line with the local needs, aspirations, resources and customs which they alone understand better than any outsider.
- ii. It provides a framework for mobilizing and sustaining popular zeal and initiative development.
- iii. It functions as a two-way channel of communication between the local population and central government. It aggregates local interest and transmits these to the centre and also keeps the local population informed about central government policies and programmes.
- iv. It serves as a hedge against over-concentration of power at the centre.
- v. It serves as an invaluable sociopolitical laboratory for testing new proposals for government organization and sound economic policies.

The foregoing provides a veritable background for understanding the various stages of reformation experienced by the local government in Nigeria. Hence, discussions here are focused on the pre-colonial era, colonial era and the post-colonial period.

3.1.1 The Pre-Colonial Era

Prior to colonization, there were in existence, in most African enclaves, local administrative machineries founded upon traditional institutions. In the area known as Nigeria today, the existing tribes that make up the geographical area already had one form of local administration or another.

In the northern part of the country, the Hausa/Fulani practised a highly centralized form of government with the Emir as the head, both as the political and religious leader. The Emir however delegated his power to district heads (The Magaji's) to oversee the districts that made up the emirates.

In the western part of the country, the 'Oba' firmly held power over towns. This power was delegated to the Baale who administered a town or village and paid royalties to the Oba at specified times of the year.

The Igbos of the eastern part, however, were republican and egalitarian in nature. That notwithstanding, there was still in existence, the 'Ohaneze' (an assembly of men) who sat in the village square to take decisions on behalf of the people. Some part of the east still had village heads and Igwes who administered a particular town with the advice of the council of elders.

These traditional authorities were close to the people and dealt with issues that were of local relevance and which affected the people in their hamlets, villages and towns, in addition, to their dependence completely on revenue generated locally.

In more specific terms, Maduabum (2006:386) posits that the essence of the Nigerian state is moulded by the plurality of her people as well as the wealth and character of her territory. Thus,

the main ethnic groups, which claim Nigeria as their homeland, rest their claims more on their identity with the country as a whole. In view of this, Mae-C king (1988:21) states: 'Historically, the country was divided into many independent or autonomous entities. The ancient city states of Kano and Katsina, the Kanem-Borno kingdom, the kingdom of Itsekiri, Brass and Elem, Kalabari and the Benin and Oyo empires, were examples of these fragmented political past.

Administratively, the Alafin governed the Oyo empire. He was selected by the Oyomesi (the council of chiefs) from among members of the different royal families. The Oyomesi was a council made up of six paramount chiefs. The first assignment of the council was to elect a new king in place of the dead one. It was equally the constitutional duty of the council to impeach or remove any obstinate king by summoning the king to open an empty calabash showing the rejection of the king. The rejection was however subject to confirmation by the Ogboni confraternity. The Alafin had other assistants in the discharge of his responsibilities in the empire which include

- i. The Otun-efa who headed of the deity of Sango and administrative head of the palace.
- ii. The Ona-efa who headed the empire's judiciary.
- iii. The Osi-efa who took charge of the finances of the empire.

The Alafin also appointed personal representatives who resided in the provinces and vassal kingdoms of the empire to ensure support and to collect tributes for the central regime.

In the Benin Empire, the Oba was the supreme ruler. Hence, if one were to be a Bini and lived in Benin City, he had to pledge his royalty to the Bini Oba who was the traditional ruler of the Benin Empire.

In the east, there was no central government that exercised power over the various Ibo communities rather; the traditional political system was essentially democratic with each village being a small republic. Political powers therefore were basically decentralized that is, forming a loose form of government as there was no sort of central authority for different groups. These groups that shared political authority included the village elders, the age-grades, Ozo title holders, Ofo title holder, diviners etc. This is the main reason why the Ibo political organization in the pre-colonial era was described as republic. The Igbo traditional political system was therefore based on the principle of village democracy which thrives on the patrilineal family group known as Umunna. As a result, the Ibos were remarkable for their egalitarian ways.

Law were made in the pre-colonial Igbo political system by two major institutions, are the council of elders and the village assembly known as Ama-ala. Again, this much was confirmed by Mae-Cking (1988:22) when he stated that the Ama-ala (the village assembly) and the council of elders were the basic government institutions. The segmentry system in the Ibo community was predominant and typical of the Owerri Ibos. The Nri-Ibos near Awka and those from Onitsha had kings from Royal lineages who ruled over centralized states. This is because the two different Ibo communities differ in political culture though they interact extensively with each other (Maduabum, 2006:387).

In the north, the Sokoto caliphate was the central authority. Prior to the Jihad or holy war of 1804, the territory now known as northern state of Nigeria was ruled by the Hausas under fourteen independent kingdoms. The defeat of Hausas in a holy war led by the Fulani under the leadership of the great Muslim leader, Othman Dan Fodio, led to the abolition of the Hausa kingdom and the establishment of Fulani emirates. Each emirate was headed by an Emir controlled by the caliphate in Sokoto (the Sultan) who had the power to dismiss other Emirs. For

administrative convenience, Othman Dan Fodio divided the empire into two the eastern and western section, each with its own capital. Thus, the political authority of the state was relatively strong and centralized. The Sultan of Sokoto administered the eastern zone while the Emir of Gwandu administered the western zone.

In order to make the work of the administration easy, the Sultan of Sokoto and the Emir of Gwandu appointed Emirs to handle territories under their own control. The Emirs were appointed either from amongst Usman Dan Fodio's descendants or selected from local communities. These were the lower Emirs. Although the lower Emirs had power to administer their territories according to local needs, they were guided by Islamic principles and were subject to the authority of the Sultan of Sokoto and Emir of Gwandu.

Under the control of the lower Emirs, who headed the emirates were the district heads. There were many districts under each emirate. Each district was headed by a district head called Hakimi. It was the lower Emir that appointed the district heads. The district heads had to inform the Emir about all major decisions made within his own domain. For the administration of the village, each district head appointed village heads. It was the function of the village head to perform the task of peaceful movement of his own village. The village administered the village in the interest of the district head.

Nonetheless, it was in 1861 that the British rule started in Nigeria with the colonization of Lagos. The British gradually colonized the rest of Nigeria through series of treaties concluded with local leaders – the Emirs, the Obas and the Chiefs. It was the resistance for these treaties, on trade and the economic consequence arising there from, that made the British government to deport king Jaja of Opobo and Chief Nnana respectively from their homes. Between 1886 to 1900, Britain

inaugurated a company government over a large portion of Nigeria. It was under the auspices of the company called Royal Niger Company that Nigeria was conquered by force and, in 1899, the British crown took over the entire administration of its territories. However, the local institutions were accorded such a great respect that the British government used the institutions to establish her central authority over the large territory of Nigeria (Maduabum: 2006:388).

3.1.2 The Colonial Era

Colonialism is the extension of political control by one powerful nation over a weaker nation. These foreign immigrants dominated the countries where they settled not only politically but also socially and economically. Thus, Britain, like other European nations after the 1890 Brussel Conference sent his officials to its four West Africa colonies including Nigeria for effective occupation.

Under the colonial government, Britain defined the values of the central government and endeavored to localize them. The administrative style of the colonial government was however alien to the local people and as a result it adopted an alternative method known as indirect rule system of administration. The indirect rule is a system of administration in which the British government adopted and utilized the traditional political institutions such as the local chiefs and other appointed intermediaries and agents to govern the people in accordance with their traditional norms, law, customs, and practices which do not conflict with the British law but under the guidance, supervision and control of the British government officials. The indirect rule system comprised two basic components (1) the British Political Service and (2) the Native Administration.

During the colonial period, Nigeria was divided into a colony and protectorate, which was later named as regions. The regions were subsequently divided into provinces which were, in turn, subdivided into districts headed by officers for effective administration of the local people in their areas.

Therefore, the British conquest and occupation of the protectorate of northern Nigeria in 1900 was followed by the institution of an administrative framework for local governance and the emergence of native authority system which was extended to the protectorate of southern Nigeria in 1906. The native administration consisted of native authorities and native courts. On the one hand, the native administration was headed by a chief appointed as native authority by the governor but under the supervision of the British officers. On the other hand, the native court was established to handle difficulties and judicial administration and headed by the warrant chief.

Generally speaking, each native administrative area was organized into districts with districts heads. The essence of native administration was to link local areas to the centre through the Emirs, Obas and chiefs and this remained the pivot around which local government was organized throughout Nigeria until and up to the early 1950s.

However, from early 1950s there were developments in the system of local government in the country. There were many native authorities and emirate councils who were transformed into smaller native, divisional councils, county councils and district councils. Small local council were also created in some parts of the country to give a sort of limited autonomy to a number of small communities. When native authorities and emirate councils existed in the northern part, divisional councils were common in the Western part while county councils were common in the

eastern part. The divisional and county councils were somehow superior to the district councils. Their areas of authority might cover the areas of authority of more than one district councils, functions were shared between the two types of local governments. In some cases, a district council whose had number official councils which were too small to function without the support of, or directives from the district councils.

3.1.3 The Post Colonial Era

During the period of self-government in Nigeria, between 1957 and 1960 when the country attained independence, the tendency was to abolish the large (county, divisional, emirate) councils as well as the small (local) ones and to retain and reform the medium local government; that is, the district councils.

According to Maduabum (2006:389), the immediate stimulus for the reform of the native authority system came from the following three sources

- i. The nascent nationalist movement which was routing for self government for Nigeria.
- ii. Britain's appreciation of the immense contributions of her dependencies, including Nigeria to her world war II efforts and successes; and
- iii. The change in British colonial policy made possible first, by the commitment of the victorious allied powers to the right of dependent peoples to self determination and sovereign independence, and secondly by the emergence of the Labour Party as the government of Britain following the first post-World War II elections in that country.

The combination of these forces therefore pushed the British in the direction of reforms aimed at guiding her colonies towards eventual independence.

The Creech Jones dispatch of 1947 to British colonial administrations in Africa was the first articulation of the new dispensation for the development of the colonies .In it, the reform and development of a strong and efficient system of local government was seen as a necessary and essential foundation for the planned socio-economic and political development of the dependencies (Ibid: 389-390)

Furthermore, he argues that, to fully appreciate the differences which accompanied the implementation of this directive in Nigeria, it was necessary to recall that the two sub units-east and west created out of the southern Nigeria in 1939 were upgraded by the Richards Constitution of 1946 and eastern and western groups of provinces. With that development Nigeria came to be composed of three units-north, east and west in preparation for a federation of Nigeria. Each group of provinces had its administration under the leadership of a lieutenant's governor and a legislature composed of nominated native authorities and exercising considerable advisory jurisdiction. There was also a central administration headed by the governor of Nigeria and a legislative council of nominated representatives from all over the federation.

The significance of this political and administrative arrangement lies in the fact that local government became the responsibility of the provincial administrations. Hence, they assumed responsibility for implementing the Creech Jones dispatch as it related particularly to the local government system. One outcome of this development was the cessation of uniformity in the structure and practice of local governments nationwide. In addition, was the incessant tinkering with the system as, and when, it pleased the provincial and regional administrations (Maduabum, 2006:390).

In the Western Region, there was the introduction of modern local government councils with membership drawn from elected councillors and traditional office holders consisting one quarter of the entire membership. The president of the council was the traditional office holder it was a three-tier system comprising the city council, the divisional council and the rural council. Furthermore, a unified local government system was introduced consisting of all the senior employees of all local governments in the region under the control and supervision of state appointed local government service board. This was due to the need to overcome the difficulties in getting knowledgeable councilors to handle personnel administration and also to provide tenure for each officer as well as make them transferable between the local government councils and enhance their prospect for promotion. Apart from this, the existing 114 local authorities were abolished and replaced with 39 local governments and 350 area development councils by the Western Region Government so as to streamline their activities. Consequently, the local government system had various adverse effects due to the poor revenue system generation, poor staffing, three-tier nature and smallness in sizes.

In the Northern Region, a two-system local government comprising native authority councils and district councils was established. The head of each of the councils was selected from the traditional rulers. Other members of the council included elected members and village heads. According to Orewa (1991:71), a peculiar feature in the Northern Region local government was “the portfolio council system” which was inherited from the colonial native authority. In this system, members of the councils taking up headship of a council were equally offered leadership of the public servants in the departments. The traditional ruler who was the chairman of the native authority council had a veto power over the decisions of the council and also made the

selection of the various council heads subject to the approval of the regional government. This was the trend up to 1967.

In the Eastern Region, the earliest form of local administration was the native authority as earlier mentioned. However, following an intense national zeal in the 1940s, the native authorities were abolished in the 1950 and fully elected three-tier structure of local government was established. According to Orewa (1991:13), in this system members who were functional were under the direct supervision of the British administrative officers. The three-tier structure was local, district and county councils. It was however discovered that the prevailing system of local government in the region was beset with lapses arising from its disarticulate structures and general ineffectiveness as a means of generating political participation at the grassroots and allocating resources to rural communities.

The different regional perspectives to local government administration in Nigeria ended with the advent of the military into the nation's politics on January 15, 1966. Between 1966 and 1976, there were series of reforms by various Regional and State governments. The practise ranged from that giving local governments the freehand to perform and to secure sure sources of revenue, on the one hand, to that of turning local governments to area offices on the other. Undoubtedly, the general review of local governments which was carried out by the Federal Military Government in September 1976 was a major local government reform throughout the country. It brought some uniformity to local government system in the country.

Prior to the 1976 Local Government Reform, the institution of local government was never accorded any constitutional recognition as a tier of government under a federal system. Attempts were made before and during the First Republic by the various Regional Governments in the

country to evolve a democratic local government system. Unfortunately the trend was to centralize the administration of local government and to place the regional government in such a comfortable position that they could manipulate the council arbitrarily (Fadaunsi, 1977). The local councils created became mere instruments of local control by the regional government.

The pre- Civil War era beginning from 1966 witnessed the same trend. The creation of more States in the country did not significantly result in any change in the system; neither did it reduce the enormous power wielded by the State Governments. The period was indeed regarded as one in which the search for a democratic and autonomous system of local government in Nigeria suffered its greatest setback. The report of the Committee on the Activities of Local Governments summarizes the negative roles of state government thus:

- a. Division or misappropriation of statutory allocation from the federally collected revenue;
- b. Non-payment of statutory allocation to local governments;
- c. Appointment of incompetent and uncommitted councilors to Local Government Management Committee.
- d. Transfer of functions to local governments without corresponding transfer of revenue accruing to them;
- e. Taking away, without consultation, some basic functions of the local government;
- f. Ministries of Local Governments which interpret their roles vis-à-vis the local governments consist of control and supervision rather than cooperation, coordination and guidance (Olowu, 1988).

Flowing from the above, it is evident that State Government constituted a major threat to local government at that time, hence, the clamor for government and indeed the nation's Constitution to recognize the existence of the local government as a tier of government.

Thus, in an attempt to evolve a uniform and stable local government system in the country, the Muritala/Obasanjo led Federal Military Government embarked on a nation-wide reform of local government in 1976.

3.1.4 The 1976 Local Government Reforms

The 1976 Local Government Reform can be rightly described as a watershed in the development of local government administration in Nigeria. The reform exercise was fundamentally justified by the expectation that local governments can contribute meaningfully to democracy and social development of the country (Akinboye, 2006). This led to the formal recognition of local governments as the third tier of government. The 1976 Guidelines for the Local Government Reform clearly underscore this:

The Federal Military Government had decided to recognize local government as the third tier of government activity in the nation. Local governments should do precisely what the word government implies; that is, governing at the grass-roots or local level (Guidelines for Local Government reform, 1976).

The Reform saw the emergence of a uniform structure of local governments from different forms of local administration which the federal system of government generated. The major aspects of the 1976 reforms were incorporated into the 1979 Constitution as stated in section 7(1) of the constitution as follows:

The system of local government by democratically elected local government councils is under this Constitution guaranteed; and, accordingly, the government of every State shall ensure their existence under the law which provides for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions of such councils (1979 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria).

Indeed, the new local governments were expected to be governed by local representations with independent staffing, revenues, financial and institutional powers; and they were to provide in every conceivable way, a great deal of opportunity for grassroots democracy. This is in view of the erosion of the local government powers as well as other defects of the past local government system in the country.

The Reform introduced a most innovative and rather radical departure from the existing structural pattern of local governments in the country. The main features of the Reform are summarized below:

- i. Abolition of the old divisional administration system previously in operation in several parts of the country;
- ii. Creation of multi-purpose and 299 single tier local authority tagged “local government” with chief executive system of management;
- iii. Re-introduction of a representative local government system in the States and a fundamental change in the conceptualization and organization of local administration;
- iv. Creation of 301 local governments with population ranging from 150,000 to 800,000;
- v. Provision of federal grants to be disbursed to local governments through the States;
- vi. Local government was enriched in the 1979 Constitution specifically section 7(1);

- vii. Redefinition of the role of Ministry of Local Government;
- viii. Provision of uniform guidelines for recruitment, promotion, training and discipline in the unified local government service regarding of post to attract more qualified personnel;
- ix. Introduction of new management structure to strengthen the administrative capacity of local councils;
- x. Establishment of a local government service commission with functions similar to that of Civil Service Commission.

The 1976 Local Government Reform can therefore be seen as a turning point in evolution of local government administration in Nigeria. This is vividly captured by Ademolekun (1988:21) when he states that:

What distinguishes the 1976 Reform from all previous reform exercises in the country is the formal and unequivocal recognition of local government as a distinct level of government with definite boundaries, clearly stated functions and the provisions for ensuring adequate human and financial resources. (Ademolekun, 1988 : 21).

In spite of all these innovations and radical transformation in the local government system in the country, the 1976 nationwide Reform exercise has been criticized on two main grounds. Firstly, it fails to critically address the problem of financial instability being consistently experienced by various local government councils in the country. Secondly, the Reform fails to address, in a fundamental sense, the definition of roles of local government actors as well as the critical issue of power separation between the arms of government as is typically the case in a presidential system of government which the country was envisaging to operate in the Second Republic.

The foregoing criticisms may have informed the institution of the Dansuki Committee by the Federal Government in 1984 as a strategy for ameliorating the situation and to ensure an adequate local government administration in Nigeria.

3.1.5 The 1984 Dasuki Local Government Review Committee

As a result of the noticeable inadequacies of the 1976 Local Government Reform, it was felt that the exercise was not sufficiently able to generate the desired impact. This led to the setting up of the Dasuki Local Government Review Committees in 1984. Essentially, the Committee was charged with the responsibility of identifying the various constraints to the effective implementation of the provisions of the 1976 Local Government Reform. In its report, the Committee observed that the major problem of the local government system was not structural or operational but human (Akinboye, 2006).

The Dasuki Report which made far reaching recommendation on the management, staffing and finance of the local government was subsequently submitted to the Federal Government, and a white paper on it was released in 1985; however, not much of it was implemented. This led to the 1988 Reform which formed part of the main Civil Service Reforms carried out by the Babangida Regime. (Maduabum 2006:400)

3.1.6 The 1988 Local Government Reform

In spite of the fundamental restructuring that occasioned the 1976 Local Government Reform, it fails to entrench certain vital principles and ideals. For example, it did not make provision for the principle of separation of powers, which constitute the pivot of the executive presidential system of government that Nigeria was to operate. More so, the idea of the local government

chairman concurrently exercising both executive and legislative functions was considered as being at variance with the principle of separation of powers.

According to Oyelakin (1995:40-41) the Reform was generally designed to:

- a. Hasten the development of the democratic culture in Nigeria and create a conducive environment for meaningful political participation at all levels of government;
- b. Strengthen the local government system and enhance its status and autonomy by giving it a parity of treatment with higher tiers of government;
- c. Streamline the practice at local government level with what obtains at the higher levels of government, thus facilitating the internationalization of the principle and practice of presidential system at local government level;
- d. Provide an effective counter poise to the executive authority of the local government chairman who used to concentrate enormous powers in his hands as:
 - i. Head of both executive and legislative arm of the local government;
 - ii. Chief executive and accounting officer; and
 - iii. Chairman of the finance and general purpose committee.
- e. Strengthen the system of checks and balances at the local government level to act as an insurance against the ever present possibility of excess, corrupt manipulations and abuse, through the establishment of the office of the auditor general of local government, the process of audit alarm, the codification of offences and sanctions and the principle of recall.

Maduabum (2006:402) posits that the application of the 1988 Civil Service Reforms in the Local Government Service was another measure of enhancing the status of local government as the third tier of government. The measure was to professionalize the service of local governments and to strengthen accountability through the use of audit alarm system and the creation of the

office of the auditor general for the local government. The organization structure of the local government had limited the number of departments to six. The office of the secretary to local government was regularly politicized. Also, various and numerous reforms were made and enshrined in the 1989 Constitution.

Hence, the Reform provides for the full introduction of the presidential system at the local government level such that the councillors (comprising the leader, deputy leader and other councillors) form the legislative arm, while the chairman including his vice and supervisors constitute the executive arm of government. In the same vein, the chairman of a local government was vested with the responsibility of chief executive and accounting officer. It is reasoned that since he is elected by the vote of the people in the whole local government area, he has the responsibility of being accountable to the entire people of his local government. Thus, it is imperative for him to control the resources within his local government in order to ensure his effectiveness and efficiency.

3.1.7 The 1991 Local Government Reform

In 1991, there was a further adjustment in the structure and functions of local governments. The fundamental plank of the Reform was the introduction of presidential system of government to the local government as it used to be at the Federal and State levels. According to Maduabum (2006:402), this development was regarded as a test tube for the nation's grassroots democracy

The main features of the Reform in accordance with the implementation of the basic Constitutional and Transitional provision (Amendment) Decree 1991 are as follows:

- i. The executive chairman ceases to be a member of the council;
- ii. Councillors were to form the legislature;

- iii. Chairman to appoint supervisors from within or outside the council, but if within the council such a councillor immediately loses his seat;
 - iv. Councillors to elect a leader who will act as council speaker;
 - v. Council clerk now to head personnel management department;
 - vi. Executive arm of the council to consist of chairman, vice chairman, secretary and supervisors;
 - vii. Council secretaries now become chief executive officer and adviser to the executive arm.
- (Maduabum, 2006: 402-403)

Apart from the foregoing, the Reform also addresses the critical issues of autonomy and poor financial position of the local government. On the issue of autonomy, the Federal Government took two major actions. The first is the abolition of the Ministry of Local Government Affairs at the State level and the establishment of a department of local government in the State Governor's office. The second is the decision of the Federal Government to increase statutory allocation to local governments, first from 10% to 15% in 1991, and later 20% at the expense of the state Governments which were required to contribute 10% of their internally generated revenue to the local government purse (Oyediran, 2002:289).

Furthermore, under this Reform the local government council which constitutes the legislative arm was charged with these functions:

- i. Law making, debating and passing local government legislation;
- ii. Debating, approving and possibly mending local government yearly budgets, subject to chairman's vote which could be over-ridden by a two-third majority of the councillors;

- iii. Vetting and monitoring the implementation of projects and programmes in the council's yearly budget;
- iv. Impeaching the council chairman who has committed an impeachable offence in accordance with the Constitution;
- v. Advising, consulting and liaising with the chairman who is the head of the executive arm of the local council; and
- vi. Performing such other functions as may be assigned by the House of Assembly of the State in which it is situated. (Maduabum,2006: 403)

Similarly, the executive authority was conferred on the local government chairman or the vice chairman, secretary and supervisors or officers in the service of the council to perform as follows:

- i. To function as the chief executive and accounting officer of the local government provided his roles as accounting officer shall exclude signing of cheques and vouchers.
- ii. To assign to supervisors of the local government responsibility for any business of the local government including the administration of any department of the local government;
- iii. To hold regular meetings with the vice-chairman and all supervisors for the purpose of:
 - a. Determining the general directions of the policies of the local governments;
 - b. Coordinating the activities of the local government; and
 - c. Generally discharging the executive functions of the local government.
- iv. To set performance target for each local government employees;
- v. To observe and comply fully with checks and balances spelt out in the existing guidelines and financial regulations governing receipts and disbursement of public funds and other assets entrusted to his care and shall be liable for any breach thereof;

vi. To adhere fully to the Finance, Control and Management Act, 1989 and Its Amendment.

A major positive effect of extending the presidential system of governance to the local government level is the entronement of the principle of separation of powers, which guarantees adequate checks and balances within the distinct organs of government. While the legislature is, for instance, to be headed by the Leader and Deputy Leader of the council with powers parallel to the Speaker and Deputy Speaker of a State House of Assembly, the elected chairman becomes the head of the executive arm of government which comprises the Chairman, Supervisory Councillors and the Secretary to the Local Government.

In general, the application of the separation of power doctrine was intended to attenuate the possibility of the legislature enacting tyrannical laws and the executive implementing them in an oppressive manner. It was also aimed to provide for checks and balances and thus ensure proper accountability and efficient grassroots administration.

In spite of the strength of the new reforms as regards the extension of the presidential system of governance to the local government level, certain weaknesses or shortcomings are embedded. One of these is the high cost of administration at the local government level. The presidential system of government is generally known to be expensive in terms of its running cost. Consequently, after expending on the administration, only very meager resources will be available for capital development in the local government areas.

Furthermore, in the new reforms, additional responsibilities have been assigned to the local governments including payment of primary school teachers and managing primary education

generally. This imposes a heavy burden which the local governments find difficult to shoulder in spite of the increase in the share of their statutory federal allocation from 15% to 20%.

3.1.8 The 2003 Obasanjo's Reform

The contentious issue of local government restructuring in Nigeria has, for sometime now, dominated national discourse. The debate was flagged off by the Nigerian President, Olusegun Obasanjo in a broadcast to the nation in June 2003, in which he highlighted the necessity to review, *inter alia*, the structure of the existing local government system in Nigeria (Akinboye 2006:230). A technical committee on the review was subsequently inaugurated on June 25, 2003 with the following terms of reference:

- a. To examine the problem of inefficiency and high cost of governance with a view to reducing costs and wastage at the three tiers of government.
- b. To review the performance of local governments within the last four years and consider the desirability or otherwise of retaining the local government as the third tier of government. Also, and in that regard, to consider the adoption of a modified version of the pre- 1976 local government system of government.
- c. To examine the high cost of electioneering campaign in the country and consider the desirability of whether political parties, rather than individual office seekers, should canvass for votes in elections, and to consider any matters which, in the opinion of the technical committee, are germane to the goal of efficient structure of governance in Nigeria.

While the first and third terms of reference relate to the three tiers of government in Nigeria, the second specially refers to local government. Two critical issues have been raised in the second term of reference. The first is concerned with the retention or otherwise of the local government

as a third tier of government in Nigeria while the second relates to the adoption of a modified version of the pre-1976 local government system. On the first issue, it should be stressed that though the existence of local governments under the Nigerian federal structure is guaranteed under the 1999 Constitution, it is also not a federal affair. Section 7(1) of the 1999 Constitution explicitly states:

The system of local government by democratically elected local government councils is under this Constitution guaranteed; and accordingly, the Government of every State shall, subject to Section 8 of the Constitution ensure their existence under a law which provides for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions of such councils (Nigeria's 1999 Constitution)

Two implications of this constitutional provision are clearly discernible, first, the local government is guaranteed in the Constitution. Secondly, the local government is an integral part of State Government and is expected to relate with the State Government in the same manner that State Government should relate to the Federal Government. Under a functional federalism, the local government is universally recognized as the exclusive responsibility of the State Government. Hence, Federal Government's involvement in local governance is a contradiction of the very idea of federalism (Nwabueze, 2002 *cited in Akinboye, 2006*).

The second proposal relating to a return to the pre-1976 system with modification similarly deserves some appraisal. The pre-1976 era can be appraised under two phases. The first is the First Republic (1963-1966) when the country was under the parliamentary system of government. The second phase is the era of military dictatorship (1966-1976). The parliamentary system, as practised at the local government level in the period 1963-1966, was consistent with what was in operation at the Federal and Regional levels. Under it, there existed

only one election for the position of councillors who thereafter appointed among themselves the chairman of their respective local government councils. The chairman subsequently appointed among the councillors the supervisory councillors who both played legislative and executive roles.

The system was less expensive and fits neatly into the parliamentary governmental system in place. Hence, it was quite appropriate at the time of operation. In the period between 1966 and 1976, the country was under military dictatorship with its inherent contradictions. There were no elections to local government councils (Akinboye: 2006). Instead, State Military Governors were empowered to appoint council officials; and those appointed, in some cases, were compelled to make returns to State Governors that appointed them, failing which they stood the risk of being removed. Since the country has attained civil polity, it is not desirable that it should slip back to the era of military authoritarianism.

Ironically, since the advent of the Fourth Republic under a civilian dispensation, local government councils have been capriciously dissolved and replaced by sole administrators or caretaker committee. Some State Governors have treated local government areas in their domain as adjuncts of their administrative structures. Clearly, such an aberration is absurd and should be discontinued. The era of selecting and imposing unpopular candidates to govern at the local government level is no longer tolerable and should not in any way be contemplated.

3.1.9 Local Government Reforms and Challenges to Community Development

Local government system in Nigeria has become an imperative political demand. There is the need to fashion out, a model that will ensure a progressive, robust and vibrant local government system in the country. According to Akinboye (2006:232), three fundamental areas are germane

to the rejuvenation, namely: appropriate governmental system for the operation of local government, jurisdictional power of the state, and fiscal autonomy for local government.

- **Appropriate Governmental System:** One area that has attracted debate on the reform of local government is the application of appropriate governmental system for the operation of local governments. Two contrasting views have been canvassed. The first is that the local government system is best operated and managed under a parliamentary system. The argument is anchored on the view that the administrative cost of running the local government is too high under the presidential system as is currently practised. The Technical Committee on the Restructuring of Local Government held this position, and recommended to government the adoption of the parliamentary system. It was reasoned that it is less expensive and most appropriate for grassroots administration. The opposing view is premised on the logic of maintaining consistency and symmetry in the entire polity. We allude to Nwabueze's submission, which captures the position of this school of thought. Since presidentialism is the system in operation at the state and federal government levels, it is necessary and logical to run and operate the same principles and forms of government at the local level (Nwabueze, 2002).
- **Jurisdictional Power of the State:** Prior to 1976, the Federal Government had no direct involvement in local government affairs. The local government was the exclusive preserve of Regional/State Government. The Federal Government did not directly create local government but merely provided guidelines for its establishment. This was informed by the recognition that State Government had primary responsibility for local governments. Section 7(1) of the 1979 Constitution explicitly recognizes the power of the State to establish local government and defend its structure, composition and functions. Section 7(1) of the 1999

Constitution similarly recognizes this power. Section 8(5) of the 1999 Constitution however demands that the National Assembly must ratify any new local government created by a State Government; otherwise the process of creating such local governments would remain inchoate.

There is the need to remove this constitutional clause in order to streamline the contradictions in sections 7(1) and 8(5) of the 1999 constitution. This was, for instance, the basis of a recent debate between the National Assembly, and the States (represented by State Houses of Assembly). The States preferred to terminate the tenure of local government council officials in April 2002 after they had put in three years. The National Assembly was however of the opinion that the tenure should be extended by one year so as to tally with that of other elected officials at the higher levels of government. The issue was therefore taken to the Supreme Court, which ruled that the authority to determine the tenure of local government council resided in the States. The State, having triumphed, spontaneously dissolved the councils preparatory to fresh elections in the disbanded councils. This seemingly contradictory clause also accounts for the non-release of Lagos State council funds by the Federal Government in spite of the Supreme Court's ruling that the funds should be released. It is therefore imperative that the clause should be completely expunged from the nation's Constitution.

- **Fiscal Autonomy for Local Government:** one of the nagging problems of Nigeria's federalism is the persistent failure to grant fiscal autonomy to local government as a third tier of government. Under a true federalist structure, the autonomy of local government is adequately guaranteed. Although decentralization policies have been introduced in some West African states, including Nigeria, much success has not been attained towards granting autonomy to local governments. This according to Materu, is due to the inadequacy of legal

framework and constitutional provisions to guarantee the autonomy of local governments (Materu, 2002).

In Nigeria, for instance, where such legislation is absent, statutory allocations to the local government are paid into the State joint local government account. Unfortunately, the practice has been that State Governments, rather than releasing the funds as appropriate, often diverted it to other uses. This perhaps informed the Federal Government's recent decision to enact a new act to regulate revenue allocation to the Local Government. It provides for the establishment of the Joint Local Government Allocation Committee to monitor and ensure that all allocations made to the local government council are promptly paid into the State Joint Local Government Account

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CHAPTER FOUR

STRUCTURE AND ROLES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN INTEGRATED COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

Developments in local government in recent times are all pointers to the complexity of the management of affairs at the grassroots level. This is because innovations continue to pour into the local government system. Coupled with this is the fact that there is no local government that is totally autonomous. (Ndujike, C; 2005) Each is part of the interdependent and interrelated political and administrative structures of a country. What is proposed in this chapter is two-fold. First is to analyze the structure of the local government administration; second is to examine and outline the functions of local government, which is perhaps the most important model of decentralization.

4.1 THE STRUCTURE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION

The local government can rightly be described as a major component of the bureaucracy in Nigeria. It is the first form of governmental administration in this country. Therefore, the concern is to ensure that the local government in Nigeria is structured and administered in such a way as to further the political, socio-economic and cultural interests of its residents (Nwabueze, B; 2002). Thus, local governments may be the same structurally or may differ along the following lines:

- a. **Urban Government:** This kind of local government is usually found in capital cities of countries or States/provinces. By virtues of their geographical locations and political status, they are in a special class as found in New York, Tokyo, Paris, Toronto, Rome, London. Abuja Municipal Council and Lagos Island Local Government are examples in Nigeria. In

the United States, they are called Cities but in Britain cities are traditionally the seat of Cathedral and the normal term is Borough. If it covers the whole of a country, it is known as County Borough and the functions of the two are fused.

- b. **Rural Government:** These are local governments that are rural based. They are primarily created for areas with little or no development in terms of infrastructure and social amenities. Most times, local governments with rural coloration emanate from chiefdoms, emirates or kinship of some local sort. They are often mergers of villages and tokens of common roots, ancestry, geography or which are located within certain deposit of mineral that can sustain a Local Government. A good example of rural based local governments can be found in India (where villages are organized under the control of the State or other Regional Government) and Nigeria.(Kumar,D andDutt;1982) Thus, most local governments in Nigeria are rural based.

In the view of Orewa (1991:30-43), a local government is usually organized either as a single-tier local government or a multi-tier local government. Under the single-tier arrangement, one local government council performs all functions assigned to a local government within its area of jurisdiction. This is the structure in Nigeria today where each local government plans, executes and manages all local services within its area. The merit of this model includes easy co-ordination of available resources and activities, reduced overhead costs, since fewer personnel is employed, and easy identification of officials that are responsible for particular services by the local population. However, in cases where a single-tier local government council covers a large area or multiplicity of ethnic groups, remote areas and minority groups may suffer neglect.

Under the multi-tier structure, two or more local councils share responsibility for local services within a given local territory. For instance, in the old Western Region of Nigeria, a local government consisted of the divisional council within which there were a number of district councils each of which in turn was composed of many local councils. This model has the advantages of bringing government closer to the people, of providing more responsibilities for leadership to the people and of allowing each zone within the council to develop at its own pace. It has the demerit of constant conflict among the different levels usually over funds. Often, the lower tiers in this system are too poor to attract expert personnel and to execute meaningful projects.

Ranney (1975:479-482) identifies three broad forms of the local government internal management structure. They include:

- i. The mayoral or mayor-council model;
- ii. The conciliar system; and
- iii. The managerial or council manager arrangement.

The Mayoral Model is identical to the presidential system of government. This is the system that is currently in use in Nigeria. Under it, both the chief executive (mayor or chairman) and the legislature (the council) are independently elected by the people for fixed terms of office. There are two forms of the mayoral system; the “Weak mayor” or “Strong mayor” models. The weak mayor is one which, in spite of his position as the main political leader of his council, the mayor does not have the sole power to appoint, remove and supervise his council’s administrative staff some of whom are elected by the people. Under the strong mayor pattern, the mayor is the only

elected executive official and he has the power to appoint and dismiss department heads and shares policy-making functions with the council.

Under the Conciliar System, the council which is directly elected by the people selects a presiding officer usually from among its members but occasionally from outside. The whole council acts as a legislature while the work of administrative supervision is performed either by the mayor or committee of the council. The chairman of the various committees constitutes the cabinet of the council to guide policy formulation and implementation. Forms of the Conciliar System are used in France, Britain, Germany and other European countries.

The management pattern is one in which an elected council sets broad policy but hires a manager to serve as the chief executive. The manager is vested with the responsibility for supervising administration. He is expected to be a professional and to work full time and at the pleasure of the council. The managerial model is the pattern in use in most American cities.(Adamolekun L;1983)

The local governments in Nigeria are hierarchically structured and are discussed along the following lines:

- The Executive Arm;
- The Legislative Arm;
- The Departments of the local government.

4.1.1 The Executive Arm

The executive arm is composed of

- i. The Executive Chairman;

- ii. Vice Chairman; and
- iii. Supervisors

The Executive Chairman

The chairman of a local government holds the executive power of that council and is the chief executive of the local government area. The law also empowers him to delegates his executive function to

- a. The vice chairman or supervisors of the local government, or
- b. officers in the service of the local government.

- **Qualification:**

By virtue of Section 20 of the Local Government Law of Lagos State, “a person shall be qualified for the election as a chairman if he

iIs a citizen of Nigeria;

- a. has attained the age of 30 years ;
- b. has been educated up to at least the School Certificate Level or its equivalent; and
- c. is a member of a political party and sponsored by the party.

- **Disqualification:**

The law of Lagos State Government also makes provision relating to the disqualification of candidates for local government chairmanship. Conditions for disqualification are

- i. Acquisition of citizenship of another country or taking an oath of allegiance of another country;
- ii. Being adjudged a lunatic or a person of unsound mind under any law in force in Nigeria.

- iii. Having been sentenced to death or imprisonment of an offence involving dishonesty by a court or tribunal or having such sentence being substituted by an appropriate authority;
- iv. Contravention of the Code of Conduct (see Fifth Schedule of the 1994 Constitution);
- v. Being an undercharged bankrupt and having been so declared by a law in force.
- vi. Failure to resign appointment in the public service of the federation or local government 30 days before the date of the election;
- vii. Membership of a secret society ;
- viii. An indictment for fraud by a judicial commission of inquiry or tribunal under the Tribunals of Inquiry Act or any other Federal, State or local government law.

- **Functions**

By virtue of his position, he handles the day-to-day activities of the local government having been properly briefed by the secretary who is the leader of the professionals of the local government. The chairman approves all executive decisions and actions and recommends issues for discussion to the executive council or the legislative.

He leads the supervisors and assigns duties to them. Apart from his vice, who is elected by the same ballot result, he appoints other supervisors who hold office at his pleasure.

As the chief accounting officer of the local government, he monitors the revenue and expenditure of the local government. He also carries out policies of the local government in general. Occasionally, the chairman usually in consultation with the secretary makes direct consultation with heads of the department of the local government. He holds meetings with them.

Finally, he holds consultations with the State Governor and other State functionaries whenever the need arises. He also consults the traditional rulers and the traditional council of the local government. In pursuance of peace in the local government area, he interacts with groups and associations including trade guilds, traditional and religious groups and others.

The Vice Chairman

The vice chairman is elected along side with the chairman. He assists the chairman generally, and functions as chairman in the absence of the chairman. He represents the chairman at meetings and ceremonial occasions. Thus, the conditions for qualifications and disqualification are the same as applicable to the position of a chairman. Also, he is usually assigned a portfolio like a supervisor.

The Supervisors

The supervisors (no longer supervisory councilors) are usually appointed by the chairman to take charge of the various departments of the local government. The chairman has a right to appoint three or five supervisors who can be appointed from outside the council members. Every supervisor is assigned a portfolio to oversee the day to day activities of the local government within a specified area. Such areas include education, health and social welfare, agriculture and natural resources, works and town planning. The supervisors work directly with relevant heads of department and links up with the chairman.(Oyediran,O;2002)

In summary, the functions of the executive arm of the local government are as follows:

- i. To hold regular meetings to take routine decisions on the execution of the local government policies and on the general running of the affairs of the local government.

- ii. To formulate policies and initiate bye-laws, these they have to pass on to the council of the local government for consideration and approval.
- iii. To also discuss and propose for the approval of the local government council annual (budget) estimate proposals and every supplementary estimates (budget).
- iv. To propose periodic development or rolling plans and present such to the council for approval, after it had been considered by the executive.

4.1.2 The Legislative Arm

The law of the local government is made by a body known as the council. Members of the council are known as the councillors. Thus, the councillors constitute the legislative arm of the local government. They elect a leader and a deputy leader from among themselves and they sit to make bye-laws and lay down general policies for the local government.

The Leader

The leader of the local government is the chairman of the legislative arm of the local government. As the chairman, he presides over the proceedings of the local government and signs not only the proceedings of the local government but also all the bye-laws of the local government. He is also the link between the councillors and the chairman. For effective local government administration, he is expected to be in close contact with the local government chairman.

Deputy Leader

The deputy leader is elected along with the leader. He assists the leader generally and functions as the leader in the absence of the leader. He also represents the leader at meetings.

The Councillor

A councillor is an elected representative of a local political unit, usually a ward, alongside other councilors, forms the local government legislative council.

- **Qualification**

The qualification for the office of the councillor is provided for in Section 14 of the Local Government Law of Lagos State. It is materially the same with the qualification for the position of a chairman with a slight difference in the age requirement. The age requirement for the post of a councillor is put at 25 years.

- **Disqualification**

Just as in the case of the chairman, the Local Government Law of Lagos State also makes provisions relating to the disqualification of persons from contesting the position of a councillor. The conditions for disqualification are the same as applicable to the position of a chairman.

- **Tenure**

Normally, the tenure of a councilor expires at the dissolution of the council to which he was a member. In practice, the life of a local government legislative council expires either at the formal dissolution of the council or upon the inauguration of a new council.

Section 12 (1) of the Local Government Law provides that the council shall stand dissolved at the expiration of three years from the date when the councillors take and subscribe to oath of membership.

In addition, the Local Government Law makes provisions as to when a member of the council vacates his seat as follows:

- a. When he becomes a member of another legislative house other than the council into which he was elected; or
- b. On the date when his letter of resignation takes effect; or
- c. If he becomes president, vice president, governor, deputy governor or a minister of the government of the federation or a commissioner of the government of a State; or
- d. Being a person whose election was sponsored by a political party and he resigns from that party or becomes a member of another political party before the expiration of the period for which the local government council was elected; or
- e. If he becomes a member of a secret society or does any other thing disqualifying him for holding the office of the councillor under the law.

- **Functions**

- a. Legislative Functions:

The council by virtue of Section 38 of the Local Government Law is empowered to perform legislative functions. The legislative function is exercised by way of bye-laws passed by the council. The council, just like any legislative, is saddled with the responsibility of approving budget estimates and even amending them to suit the goals of the local government.

- b. Authorization of Public Funds:

Section 41 (3) of the Local Government Law provides that no money shall be withdrawn from the Public Funds unless authorized by the council. This provision is aimed at guaranteeing probity and serving as a check to the excesses of the legislative arm of the local government.

c. Overseeing functions:

The councilor's role as an overseer involves monitoring and evaluating council's policies, programmes and services. It extends to ensuring that the council and its staff are doing the right things towards actualizing councils set goals. The overseer role can be summarized as assessing whether or not the local government is operating effectively and efficiently. The role of a councillor as an overseer can be discussed under the following headings:

i. Overseeing Policy Development:

It is the duty of the councillor to ensure that policies and programmes being initiated by the council are tailored towards the need of his community and the council's capacity.

The role includes

- a) Meeting the needs of the people ; and
- b) Meeting the capacity of the council

ii. Overseeing Implementation:

Overseeing policy implementation implies that the councilor is saddled with the responsibility of policy monitoring and evaluation. This role involves taking stock of what is on board to determine its efficiency and effectiveness. This is done through policy monitoring, evaluation and review.

Other Officers of the Local Government Council

Apart from the foregoing, there are other council officials who assist in the day to day running of the affairs of the local government. A brief discussion of them is made below:

1. The Secretary

The secretary runs the day-to-day administration of the local government. He is the secretary of the local government executive council. He also keeps records of the council. The secretary may be a career civil servant or in some cases, a political appointee. The functions of the secretary include:

- i. He shall attend and serve notice of meetings with the chairman and councilors when the need arises.
- ii. He shall interact with the councillors through correspondence and meetings.
- iii. He liaises with the secretary to the government of the State where the local government is situated.
- iv. He shall perform any other duty that is assigned to him by the chairman of the local government.

2. The Treasurer

A comparatively senior officer is usually appointed the treasurer of the local government. He usually should have had adequate financial training and experience to handle the delicacy of the post. He organizes the financial and accounting duties of the local government and directs the staff of his department. Apart from this, the functions of local government treasurer include the following:

- i. To tender financial advice to the council;
- ii. To keep proper accounting record of all revenue and expenditure;
- iii. To verify the correctness of all accounting records;
- iv. To receive and disburse funds;
- v. To ensure compliance with all instructions or law for the safe custody of public funds;

- vi. To ensure that vouchers are correctly made and funds are available to meet expenditures;
- vii. To render necessary returns to the state and federal government;
- viii. To ensure that policies and expenditures are carried out with regards to economy and efficiency;
- ix. To maintain effective and stated financial operations;
- x. To make recommendation to the council in his official capacity as financial adviser.

4.1.3 The Department of the Local Government

The local government works through its departments, like a State Government working through its ministries. A department of a local government is a specialized agency of the local government. It handles a particular aspect of the local government's job. The work of all the departments put together makes up the work of the local government. It will be difficult to say that one particular department is more important than the other because the failure or inefficiency of one department can easily affect all other departments adversely. Therefore, one department is as important as the other as long as each department performs its duties diligently.(Gboyega,A;1989)

Before the introduction or the application of the 1988 Civil Service Reforms into the Local Government Service, the departments of the local government were many. A local government may have as many departments as possible. But now, the departments are limited to only six and others have been grouped as sections or units under the broad main department.

The present groupings of the departments and sections look like this:

1A. Department of Personnel Management

- i. Department of personnel management
- ii. Internal audit
- iii. Information section
- iv. Community development section
- v. Legal section
- vi. Drivers and plant operators section.

1B. Judiciary

2. Department of Finances, Supplies, Planning, Research and Statistics

- i. Treasury department
- ii. Rates and revenue section
- iii. Planning and budgeting section
- iv. Trade, industry and commerce section

3. Local Education Authority

- i. Education department
- ii. Primary school section
- iii. Library section

4. Agriculture and National Resources Department

- i. Agricultural department
- ii. Livestock and fishery section
- iii. Forestry unit

5. Department of Works, Housing, Lands and Surveys

- i. Works department
- ii. Town planning section
- iii. Estate and valuation section

6. Medical and Health Department

- i. Primary health care department
- ii. Medical section
- iii. Health section

It should be noted that the secretary's department has been turned into a political office under the presidential system of government. A critical discussion of each of the departments highlighted above follows.

Department of Personnel Management

This department is an off-shoot of the former administration department. In fact, the officers who headed this department in the local government, immediately on the introduction of the presidential system of government to the local government, were the substantive and functioning local government secretaries. They were each immediately converted to the post of Director of Personnel and Head of Department of Personnel Management of the local government. This department apart from handling all personnel matters serves as the general administration department of the local government. It renders supporting services to the local government secretary and the chairman. The secretary has to rely on this department for most of his administrative advice and support, and for the coordination of the works of the other

departments. This is the department that keeps the main files of the local government and it also runs the main registry.

The head of the department is supported by a deputy and also by a team of officials drawn from the cadres of the personnel officers, (former administrative officers), personnel assistant (former executive officers and clerical officers), confidential secretaries, typists and messengers.

Under the new dispensation, the Director of Personnel who heads this department is also the clerk to the local government's legislature which now consists of only elected councillors who select a leader as chairman from among themselves. The elected chairman of the local government is no longer regarded as a member of the legislature council. Instead, he constitutes his own executive council consisting of himself, his supervisors, and the local government secretary functioned as secretary to that body. Until June 1992 when the Director of Personnel took over his assignment following a federal government directive this was his role. (Materu,J.S;2002)

The department of personnel management, in consultation with the other heads of department, shall deploy the staff available for the local government to the departments where they are to work. The department endeavours to meet the establishment needs of every department as much as possible within the limit imposed by the available number of staff.

The major functions of the department of personnel management of a local government include:

a. **Establishment of an Office Registry:**

Since the bulk of the work of the department of personnel management borders mainly on administration, the department must always endeavour to have an efficient registry. A

comparatively senior staff usually heads the registry and its staff are properly trained in their jobs. Efforts are usually made to ensure that the registry, being the largest registry of the local government, functions as the most efficient. The registry also keeps proper records not only of files but also of documents and other statistical data.

b. Taking Minutes of Meetings:

The department of personnel management also has and trains a number of officers and clerks who should be able to write minutes of the meetings of the legislative and executive councils and of the various committees. The department organizes its duties so that minutes of meetings are produced promptly by senior officers before final copies are produced.

c. Treatment of Correspondence:

The department established a regular order for the treatment of correspondence. Its schedule of duties usually indicates which matters should be finalized by each of the senior officers of the department and which should necessarily get to the director and secretary respectively. The work of the department, like that of any other department, is organized in such a way that the director, who is the head, delegates certain functions to his immediate subordinates.

d. Addressing the Public:

In the course of the day-to-day administration of the affairs of the local government, the chairman and other key officials of the local government have to address groups of people formally. On such occasions, written speeches are usually read. In most cases, these speeches are to be written by officials of the department of personnel management to be moderated by the director, if not written by him. Advanced copies are given to the chairman or other officer needing the address so as to get him properly prepared for the occasion.

e. **Administration of Marriages Under the Law:**

The administration of marriages under the law is being handled by the department of personnel management. The department's registry is responsible for issuing relevant forms to prospective couples and for filing every legal notice relevant to marriages under the law. A senior officer of the registry is charged with this responsibility. Besides, the director or his deputy has to take up the final duty of joining couples in holy wedlock on the wedding day. Records of marriages so registered are to be properly kept and returns sent to appropriate authorities regularly.

Apart from the aforementioned functions, the department of personnel management also performs the following functions:

- i. Administering the department,
- ii. Treating issues relating to personnel matters of the local government including issues of employment, discipline, intergovernmental transfer, promotion and retirement of staff,
- iii. Implementing the decisions of the council and of executive committee of the local government including the communication of such decisions to other departments where implementation is the responsibility of such departments;
- iv. Initiating actions on bye laws and perfection of actions on bye laws where other departments initiate action;
- v. Taking steps to acquire lands where the council of the local government so decides;
- vi. Entering into contract agreement with contractors of the local government whenever jobs are authorized to be given out;
- vii. Bonding of local government employees who handle cash, stores or other valuables of the local government;

- viii. Selection of an officer to function as secretary to the traditional council where that council has no secretary of its own;
- ix. Servicing the council and committees of the local government;
- x. Performing any other administrative duty that crops up in the discharge of the local government's function.

Internal Audit Unit

The internal audit department of a local government is the financial watch dog of the local government. For purposes of financial accountability, every local government should have a virile, purposeful and efficient internal audit department. The benefits to be derived from an efficient internal audit department far outweigh the cost of properly staffing the department. The mere existence of the department is a sort of deterrent to fraudulent people. It is a common saying that an auditor is first and foremost an accountant. This is also because someone who is to audit an account must himself understand accounting and should know how the record he is to audit is built up.(Bello-Imam,I.B;1986)

The internal auditor should be a senior officer. His rank should not be less than that of the deputy treasurer, if he is to be effective in the discharge of his duties. He should be assisted by officers from the Accounting Assistant (Formerly the executive and clerical), typist and messengerial cadies in the performance of his duties. If he has no vehicle of his own, a local government vehicle should be allocated to him for effective performance of his duties.

Among the duties of the internal auditor and his staff shall be:

a. **Prevention of Errors or Frauds:**

One main assignment of the internal auditor is to prevent the commission of accounting errors and frauds. To do this, he must organize proper, regular and adequate checking of the accounting records of the treasury. He must in particular, check on all revenue collectors regularly to ensure that they pay all funds collected to the cashier regularly.

He must also check the treasury store-keeper and his receipts book register properly so as to ensure that exhausted receipts are return to the store regularly. He must also check all the treasury clerks and officers to ensure that all treasury records are kept up to date and accurately.

b. **Detection of Fraud and Errors:**

No matter how he tries, the internal auditor may not be able to prevent all errors and frauds. But he has to work to detect errors and fraud whenever they occur. To do this, he must, in addition to all points stated under prevention above, organize his staff so that the receipts issued to all revenue collectors shall be checked whenever each of them shows up for checking. He shall also check that all exhausted receipts are entered in revenue collectors cash book and money collected within these receipts are paid to the cashier before the receipts are returned to the store.

c. **Pre-payment Audit Vouchers:**

The internal auditor or his immediate assistant must check all payment vouchers and pass them before payment are made. Apart from ensuring that provisions are available in the annual estimates for the expenditure, he must ensure that the expenditure is proper, reasonable and supported by necessary authority.

d. Audit of Treasury Records:

The internal auditor also finds time to audit, through his staff, the receipt and payment vouchers, after payment, and ensure proper entries into the cash book. He should also check entries into the subsidiary and main ledgers and other financial records, including the treasury store records.

e. Audit of Other Records:

The internal auditor must audit the store records of all the departments of the local government including the treasury, the works, the medical, the health, the agriculture, the town planning, the personnel management and the secretary's department. He also looks into the bonds of all staff and the bonds register periodically.

f. Appraisal of Work:

The internal auditor shall study and appraise the working methods of every department and offer advice. He must study the schedule of duties and the organization chart of every department and offer advice on the sustainability of the documents.

g. Conduct of Special Investigations:

The internal auditor can be used to conduct special investigations or enquiries especially those relating to financial management, loss of funds or stores, frauds or embezzlement.

h. Audit Working Programme:

The internal auditor also takes on the preparation of audit working programmes for use in conducting his audit assignments of the treasury and all other departments of the local government. He also prepares the audit working papers to be used in compiling various audit reports.

i. Rendition of Periodic Reports:

The internal auditor should check the treasury monthly records and issue monthly reports of his checking to the treasurer. His reports should highlights errors he wants the treasurer to correct and similar other issues. Copies of such reports may be forwarded to the chairman as well.

The internal auditor should also prepare quarterly reports to be presented to the council for consideration. The council may take any rational decision on the report. The executive council of the local government may consider such reports and use it as a guide in the execution of its duties.

The internal auditor may be required to send copies of such reports to the department of Governor's office responsible for local government matters and to the director of local government audit of the state.

Apart from the monthly and quarterly reports, the internal auditor may issue rept any time and forward such reports to the appropriate authorities.

Information Section

In view of the importance of information dissemination and public relation affairs to the modern local government in the country, local government are now setting up information departments to enhance good projection of their public image. The department should normally be staffed by information officers, information assistants, confidential secretaries, photographers, video-graphers and clerical and messengerial staff. The department is often headed by a senior information officer.

This department organizes ceremonial occasions for the local government. It handles periodic issuance of releases to members of the public. It also links up the local government with the types of media houses. It makes necessary contacts with the Federal and State Information Ministries or Departments. The department also services the secretary and personnel management departments respectively in organizing tours of the local government area by the chairman and other political functionaries as well as by the Federal and State Government political office holders and other visitors to the local government.

The department should also maintain a main library where documents of information dissemination are kept. These include the daily newspapers, periodical government gazettes, occasional reports and returns of the local government that are of public interest and the local government bye-laws.

Community Development Section

This is a department which takes care of the motivation of the community for self-help projects. It performs its functions in close collaboration with the secretary's and personnel management department. The department is headed by a senior community development officer and supported by other such officers including youth officers, cultural officers (occasionally adult education officers), clerks, typists and messengers. This department is basically a field department since, most of the time, its staff have to go out to meet the people.

Among the functions of this department are:

- i. Organizing communities into functional groups such as community development councils, youth clubs, elders council and such other groups;

- ii. Holding meetings and consultation with various groups of the community with a view to making them their direct cooperative efforts to productive ventures;
- iii. Organizing youths into youth clubs for social and educational pursuits;
- iv. Organizing adult literacy classes with a view to wiping out illiteracy;
- v. Organizing local leadership training programmes for various sections of the community;
- vi. Assisting members of various communities to embark on self-help projects such as the construction of deep wells, community halls, maternity centers, dispensaries, roads, bridges, culverts and such projects that will improve the living standard of the community;
- vii. Organizing the staging of local festival of arts and taking care of local participants at the State and National festivals;
- viii. Organizing local competition among youth clubs on educational and social cultural activities.
- ix. Organizing local games and sport competitions, including football competition among schools, youth clubs and other social groups;
- x. Organizing activities relating to the national day celebrations, children's day celebrations and other similar celebrations;
- xi. Assisting the handicapped, the destitute and the infirm to attract state attention, including getting them suitable training to make them useful to themselves and to the community at large;
- xii. Undertaking other programmes that can assist in developing the community, especially the rural community, so as to enable them improve their lots;

- xiii. Taking care of matters relating to organization and of participation of the local government in Local, State or National Trade Fairs in collaboration with other relevant departments.
- xiv. Handling matters relating to women organization such as the Better Life for Rural Women Programme and Family Support Programme.

Thus, the community development department is the link between the various communities in the local government area, on the one hand, and local government and its various departments, on the other hand. If, for example, a community wants the road leading to it graded, it is the duty of the department to contact the heads of works department on behalf of the community. Members of the department, who are efficient and dedicated, are usually very popular among the community. (Ola, R.O.F; 1988)

Legal Section

This department is headed by a senior lawyer who is assisted by other lawyers in professional execution of the department's duties. In the administrative aspect, he is assisted by officers in the personnel assistant cadre as well as those in the secretarial cadre, such as g. typists, clerks and messengers.

The department is responsible, among other things, for the following:

- i. Offering legal device to the local government and its organs;
- ii. Drafting of legal documents;
- iii. Drafting of bye-laws;
- iv. Processing of land acquisitions by the local government;
- v. Prosecuting persons on behalf of the local government;

- vi. Appearing in courts to defend the local government in legal cases;
- vii. Bonding of local government staff and keeping custody of bonds and legal documents of the government.

Drivers and Plants Operators Section

Every local government has a number of vehicles, tractors, graders, bulldozers, pail-loaders and other road plants and equipment. It is mandatory upon each local government therefore to have in its employment, a number of drivers, driver-mechanics, and operators of all the road plants and equipment. In the past, particularly before the major local government reforms of 1976, many local government had very few vehicles each, some as few as one to four. Some did not even have a tractor or a road grader. The few that such local governments had were used for the services of all the departments of the local government.

But in modern times, the tendency is for every local government to have many vehicles. Apart from allocation of vehicles to each key political office holders, vehicles are allocated to every head of department, group of political office holders such as the legislators, and the supervisors also have vehicles allocated to them. Besides, for operational purposes, the agricultural department has tractors while the works, housing, land and surveys department make use of graders, bulldozers, pail loaders, low loaders and other equipment.

Thus, drivers and plant operators are attached to their vehicles and plant respectively. For effective administration of this group of workers, a sectional head is appointed for them. He is usually the most senior driver-mechanic. He is to coordinate the activities of all the drivers and operators generally. He is to ensure the smooth operation of vehicles and plants and report the needs of the staff under him, particularly with regards to their vehicles and plants. He also

allocates vehicles to drivers and ensures that, for emergency calls, the right types of vehicles are allotted. He is usually consulted on matters relating to vehicles and plants and those affecting the drivers and operators.

The Judiciary: Customary/Area Courts

The customary or area courts of a local government constitute its judicial department. In a sense, the local judiciary is independent of the local executive. This is because the members of a customary court are appointed by the State Government organ and not by the local government. The members are free to hear and determine cases brought to them according to their personal sense of judgment. They are guided in the dispensation of justice by the area or customary court laws and rules. In effect, like the Federal and State judiciary, the local government judiciary is an independent arm of government.(Enemuo,C.F;1999)

To ensure that the judgment of the judges of the local courts are free and fair, aggrieved persons are given rights of appeal against the courts judgment to higher courts, even up to the Supreme Court. The power of the local court over both civil and criminal cases is limited by law and as such, cases left for the local courts are the simple and minor. This is probably because legal practitioners are not allowed to appear before the court, except those of them that are presided over by legally qualified president, who themselves have wider powers than the other lower courts.

The local judiciary has power to do the following:

- i. Hear and determine all cases relating to and arising from all the bye-laws and adoptive bye laws of the local government ;

- ii. Hear and determine all cases relating to the state laws where such laws specifically state that local court shall have such powers to hear and determine them;
- iii. Hear and determine minor critical cases, as allowed by law, such as assaults and offences against environmental health law;
- iv. Hear and determine cases relating to marriage under native law and custom;
- v. Issue summons and warrants as necessary in pursuance of the duties of the court and serve such summons and warrants;
- vi. Hear and determine land cases where the value of the land is not more than the limit allowed by law;
- vii. Hear and determine cases of debts within the limit of the court as imposed by law;
- viii. Take evidence in open court on oath or affirmation;
- ix. Examine witnesses in cases before it and admit exhibits tendered if the court feels that such is necessary or vital to the cases being tried;
- x. Receive fees and fines as well as deposits from plaintiffs and defendants as the case may be and pay such fees and fines to the local government and deposit to whoever the court orders to receive them;
- xi. Keep proper records of civil criminal cases in the court record books;
- xii. Hear and determine cases relating to judgment summons and interpleaded summons;
- xiii. Order the attachment and sales of the property of judgment debtors and use the proceeds to pay judgment creditors;
- xiv. Issue, at the request of judgment creditor, a committal warrant to commit judgment debtor to prison for a period permitted by law;

- xv. Issue writ of possessions at the request of a judgment creditor on a land case for him to take possession of the land;
- xvi. Issue orders to enforce the judgments of the court at the request of the judgment creditors.

It can be seen from the above that, apart from the administration of justice, the local court in no way interferes with the local government administration. Also, no arm of the local government in any way influences or interferes with the administration of justice by the local court.

Department of Finance, Supplies, Planning, Research and Statistics under the Local Government Treasury

The life wire of any local government is the treasury. This is because there is no establishment in the world that can function without funds, and the treasury of the local government is the department that is responsible, among other functions, for collection of revenue for the local government. This is why it becomes necessary for any local government authority to give adequate support and encouragement to the treasury so as to be able to perform its duties properly. (Bello-Imam, I.B; 1986)

The treasurer is the head of department of the treasury. In this capacity, he performs the duty of the former Permanent Secretary, and now the Director General for the Ministry of Finance, as well as the functions of the Accountant General of the local government. He is also the head of the treasury administration, supervising both the accounting and revenue collection departments of the local government. In addition, he functions as the commercial and industrial officer of the local government when the local government cannot appoint such officers for one reason or the other.

The functions of the treasury department of a local government, apart from the normal administration of the department, consist, among others, of the following;

- i. Collection of revenue from all sources to the local government covers;
- ii. Making payments for recurrent and capital expenses of the local government;
- iii. Keeping of account of revenue and expenditure of the local government;
- iv. Keeping of main and subsidiary ledger accounts;
- v. Preparation of annual estimates (or annual budgets);
- vi. Preparation of annual financial policies, and execution of approved financial policies;
- vii. Preparation of draft development plans;
- viii. Formulation of financial policies, and execution of approved financial policies;
- ix. Procurement and keeping custody of revenue receipts and monitoring of usage of the receipt;
- x. Offering financial advice to the local government;
- xi. Performing the function of commercial and industrial departments where the local government has a small commercial or industrial establishment such as a poultry farm, block-molding industry, and similar others, for which a full time commercial or industrial officer cannot be appointed.

Rates and Revenue Section

This is the department that is generally responsible for the collection of all sorts of revenue of the local government. It works under the general directives of the treasurer. The rate officer is the head of this department. All officers responsible for revenue collection in the rates and other

departments work under his supervision. He is supported by officers in the other cadres that support the treasurer.

The collection of all internally generated revenue is the responsibility of this department. It collects, among other types of revenue;

- i. Tenement rate and all other general and specific rates;
- ii. The flat rate tax or the minimum income tax and the cattle tax;
- iii. Fees relating to licences issued by the local government such as hackney permit fees, bicycle license fees etc;
- iv. Fees relating to commercial services rendered by the local government to various groups of people such as market and motor park fees;
- v. Any other revenue of the local government that might have been levied on people generally or might be chargeable for specific purposes such as development levies, ceremony fees and local crafts or trade licences.

Apart from all these, the rates officer and his men keep records of collection of various types of revenue. They have to render periodic returns of revenue collection from their record.

The Library Section

It is one of the duties of the local government to provide library services to the people. This aspect of the local government duty is taken care of by the library section of the education department, which is headed by a senior librarian and supported by other professional and clerical staff.

Among the functions of the library section of the local government are the following:

- i. Managing the local government public libraries and reading rooms;
- ii. Supervising school libraries in the local government area;
- iii. Advising the local government as to which type of books and periodicals are to be provided in the libraries;
- iv. Taking proper care and custody of all library books and magazines;
- v. Maintaining library building, furniture and other equipments;
- vi. Advising the local government on where to provide library buildings and which type to provide;
- vii. Linking up the local government library service with the State and Federal Government library authorities and other national and international bodies interested in the local government libraries;
- viii. Lending out books to readers and making adequate security arrangement to secure the return of such books and ensuring that the books are not damaged or lost;
- ix. Making adequate arrangement for readers comfort in the libraries .
- x. Ensuring that readers and borrowers of library books do not mutilate such books;
- xi. Keeping custody of Federal and State Government gazettes for use as reference by readers;
- xii. Keeping copies of the local government annual estimates, annual financial statements as well as the monthly and annual reports of activities and other periodic returns and reports;
- xiii. Custody of copies of the minutes of the local government council, of the executive council and of other committees of the council for reference purpose.

However, for some time now, local governments seem not to pay enough attention to the provision of library services. Where it is provided, adequate staff and books are not available.

Local Education Authority

Before the establishment of this authority, the education departments of the local government in many States had been taken over by the State Governments. The local governments were made to contribute to the running of primary schools in their local government by paying from their subsidiary allocation from the Federation Account to the State Government purse. In many cases, these were deducted en-bloc by a State Government before the balance is shared among the local governments within the State. However, this department is made up of three sections as discussed below:

Education Unit

Under the present system, the local education authority has an education committee headed by the chairman of the local government with other interest groups having representative members in the committee. The committee is solely responsible for the general administration of education within the local government areas including the running of primary schools. The committee meets to deliberate and the discussions on matters discussed at the meetings are not subject to ratification by any other authority.

Primary School Section

The local education authority of every local government is responsible for all matters relating to all primary schools in the local government area. These include matters of recruitment of teachers and provision of equipment as well as and the general welfare of the pupils and teachers

in the school. It may also include provision of buildings either single-handedly or in conjunction with the local government and other bodies.

Teacher's welfare including payment of salaries and allowances is treated in this section. The provision of supervisory staff for school's performance as well as the monitoring of schools activities generally and the rendition of necessary reports are handled by this section.

Trade Industry and Commerce Section

When a local government has established considerable trading centres, industries or commercial activities which cannot be reasonably managed by the department of finance, supplies, planning, research and statistic, a separable section has to be established. The trade, industry and commerce section to take full charge of all these activities.

Competent industrial and commercial officers are employed to man this section to be supported by accountants, store officers, technicians, salesmen, clerks, typist and allied staff. This section should be fairly independent so that it can perform more commercially and operate at profit. This is why adequate feasibility studies should precede the establishment of this section and the establishment of every trade, industry or commercial venture to be embarked upon at any time. If there is no hope of making profit, this section should not be established and the activities it could engage in should be left to individual businessmen.

Planning and Budgeting Section

In very large local government, the planning and budgeting department is an arm of the treasury department. It functions like a section of the treasury and takes over from the main treasury, the issue of planning and budgeting. The department is headed by a planning officer and is

supported by other officers in the planning and accounting section, such as personnel assistant, typists, clerks and those in the messenger cadres.

Among the duties of this department are

- i. Preparation of development/rolling plans;
- ii. Evaluation of progress of development/rolling plans;
- iii. Preparation of annual estimates;
- iv. Preparation of annual financial statements;
- v. Keeping of statistical data; and
- vi. Rendition of returns.

The head of this department works in close collaboration with the treasurer. He also makes use of the treasury records in drawing up his plans and budgets. He links up with other departments, particularly the works department in monitoring activities of the development plans.

Agriculture and Natural Resources Department

All local governments have been encouraged to establish the department of agriculture to handle matters relating to agriculture and natural resources within each local government area. The department is headed by a senior agricultural officer who is supported by other officers in other areas of agricultural matters and other professional and clerical assistants

The department handles all matters relating to agriculture and natural resources including the following:

Agricultural Section

- i. Establishing cash crop and food crop farms for the local government including running of vegetable and fruit farms;

- ii. Constructing and maintaining soils and other food storage depots;
- iii. Assisting farmers by offering advice on agricultural related matters;
- iv. Assisting the farmers to procure farm equipments and inputs on behalf of the local government;
- v. Taking charge of the local government agricultural machinery equipment, inputs and chemicals;
- vi. Offering advice to the local government on the local government farms and on mode of handling farming activities within the local government in general;
- vii. Formulating the agricultural policy of the local government and presenting same for consideration by the local authority; and
- viii. Implementing all approved agricultural policies of the local government and documenting problems and prospects of the policy so that these could be incorporated in subsequent reports to be made to the local government authority.

Livestock and Fishery Unit/Section

- i. Establishment and running of animal husbandry including poultry rabbitry, piggery, etc; as well as
- ii. Establishment and running of fish ponds as well as rearing of snails etc.

Forestry Unit

- i. Establishment and maintenance of firewood plantation; and
- ii. Encouragement of tree planting habits.

Department of Works, Housing, Lands and Surveys

This is one of the two major departments which portray the physical achievement of the local government to the members of the public. The other department is the medical. The works

department either undertakes capital or minor jobs on behalf of the local government or supervises the execution of such jobs when given out on contract.

The department is headed by a senior man in the engineering cadre. Where an officer in the engineering cadre is not available, a senior man in the technical cadre heads the department.

The duties performed by the works department of a local government are listed below:

- i. Construction and maintenance of roads;
- ii. Construction of bridges, culverts and retaining walls;
- iii. Construction and maintenance of public buildings;
- iv. Construction of other public utilities;
- v. Maintenance of plants and vehicles;
- vi. Survey of lands and drawing of plans;
- vii. Preparation of job specification and estimates;
- viii. Offering of technical advice;
- ix. Maintenance of stores; and
- x. General supervision of works.

The Town Planning Section

The planning and the development of towns within the local government area can be handled in two ways. The first method is to appoint a committee to be responsible for town planning matters within the local government. The membership of the committee may be composed of non-councilors, or it may include a number of them depending on the policy decision of the government.

Going by the second method, the planning committee is made a totally independent body. It may even be named a town planning authority to indicate its autonomy. Members are appointed by the government.

However, by whatever method the planning body is set up, it performs the following functions, in addition to the normal administrative duties:

- i. General planning of the towns in the local government area including citing of schools, market, recreation centres, places of worship, cemeteries, roads, roundabouts, parks, gardens and other structures;
- ii. Preparation of topographical and other surveys of places within the local government area;
- iii. Approval of layout plans;
- iv. Approval of building plans;
- v. Inspection of sites of buildings and of layouts to ensure compliance with approved plans;
- vi. Drawing of master plans of towns;
- vii. Acquisition of lands for development into residential, commercial and industrial areas;
- viii. Allocation of residential, commercial and industrial plots;
- ix. Regulation of land developments;
- x. Construction and maintenance of roads and sanitary structures within layout areas.

Estate and Valuation Section

In a fairly large local government, there is usually an estate and valuation department as a separate department of a local government. This is headed by an estate and valuation officer. However, when this department is not separate as a unit, its duties are taken over by the works department. Among the duties of the department are:

- i. Valuation of tenements for the purpose of assessments;
- ii. Preparation of estimates and drawings for buildings and other construction works for the local government;
- iii. Taking charge of the local government staff quarters and other buildings let out on rent to the staff and other officials; and
- iv. Taking care of capital assets, including those of industrial or commercial ventures of the local government.

Primary Health Care Department

The medical and health departments as described below now constitute the primary health care department of the local government, following guidelines on health care delivery issued by the Federal Government. Under this system, all officers and workers of the medical and health department work together as a team. They are headed by a medical officer.

The primary health care department operates a system of grassroots participation known as district health zonal system. To operate this system, a district health zone is created to cover a local government ward. The purpose of district health zone is to get the members of the public involved in public health matters of their areas. Representatives of the various communities are appointed into the district health zonal committee with which the officials of the primary health care department in their various zones work. They hold regular meetings to take decisions not only on the running routine health matters of the zones but also on issues relating to the establishment and maintenance of health institutions or amenities for the zones. The activities of all the district health zones are coordinated and supervised by the head of the primary health-care department.

Medical Section

This is one department which members of the public regard as giving them tangible services. This is because it caters for curative as well as maternity health services of the people. Basically, the head of this department is a medical officer who also heads the preventive health services department. However, at present not all local governments have medical officers.

The main functions of the medical section, apart from the normal administration of the section, include the following:

- i. Diagnosing and treatment of minor ailments such as malaria, dysentery, pains, cough etc;
- ii. Giving first aid treatment to accident victims;
- iii. Treatment of cuts, wounds, ulcers and minor fractures;
- iv. Taking care of pregnant and nursing mothers;
- v. Taking deliveries of pregnancies;
- vi. Giving health education to pregnant and nursing mothers;
- vii. Keeping of medical and financial records;
- viii. Mixing of medical compounds to produce medicines for the treatment of minor ailments;
- ix. Making requisition for drugs and dressings and taking custody of such drugs and dressing when not in use;
- x. Making collection of medical revenue;
- xi. Effecting immunization of children and pregnant women against a number of deadly diseases that afflict babies and children.

Health Section

This department undertakes mainly the environmental sanitation service of the local government.

The staff of this department are at present drawn from the health superintendent cadre now known as environmental health officer. Some of the functions of the health section, apart from the administration of the department by the head of department, include:

- i. Ensuring that the local people keep their environment clean;
- ii. Ensuring that every house builder makes adequate provision for ventilation, bathroom, kitchen, and toilet in the house;
- iii. Ensuring that every household has toilet facilities and refuse bins;
- iv. Vaccinating and inoculating the public against various endemic and communicable diseases;
- v. Ensuring that any dead animal (or persons), known as carcasses, found in public places including highways are promptly and properly removed for burial;
- vi. Ensuring that the local government makes available, adequate dumping ground for refuse disposal;
- vii. Ensuring that the sources of drinking water of the people are clean and that people have access to either clean treated pipe borne water, well water or boiled water;
- viii. Ensuring that sellers of consumable articles, including food sellers do not expose their products to contamination;
- ix. Ensuring that the industries within the local government area are adequately maintained for clean environment and for proper disposal of their waste products;
- x. Ensuring that adequate steps are taken to prevent or remove air and water pollution in the local government area.

4.2 FUNCTIONS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

We have discussed the structure and composition of the local government and the functions it performs under the various systems. However, no matter how a local government is constituted, it performs certain duties and functions. Given this structure, the local government is statutorily mandated to carry out certain functions;

Maduabum (2006:355) argues that the following are the functions of a local government:

- i. **Protective:** They offer protection to individuals within their domain from various dangers arising from health hazards, through refuse disposal, food inspection, sanitation etc.
- ii. **Social Services:** These are provided for the benefit of all. Among such services include provision of roads, water, electricity, hospitals etc
- iii. **Personal services of local administration:** They provide direct assistance to individuals in the area of education, and other welfare services. For example, aid to the disabled and less privilege people in the society.
- iv. **Economic services:** They provide markets, parks, public transportation facilities etc.

The Fourth Schedule of the 1999 Constitution states the following functions to be performed by the local government:

1. The main functions of local government councils are as follows:
 - a. The consideration and making of recommendations to a State commission on economic planning or any similar body on:
 - i. The economic development of the State particularly in so far as the areas of authority of the council and of the State are affected, and

- ii. Proposals made by the said commission or body;
- b. Collection of rates, radio and television licenses;
- c. Establishment and maintenance of cemeteries, burial grounds and home for the destitute or infirm;
- d. Licensing of bicycles, trucks (other than mechanically propelled trucks), canoes, wheel barrows and carts;
- e. Establishment, maintenance and regulation of slaughter houses, slaughter slabs, markets, motor parks and public conveniences;
- f. Construction and maintenance of roads, streets, street lightings, drains and other public highways, parks, gardens, open spaces or such public facilities as may be prescribed from time to time by the House of Assembly of a State;
- g. Naming of roads and streets, and numbering of houses;
- h. Provision and maintenance of public conveniences, sewage and refuse disposal;
- i. Registration of all births, deaths and marriages;
- j. Assessment of privately owned houses or tenements for the purpose of levying such at rates as may be prescribed by the House of Assembly of a State; and
- k. Control and regulation of;
 - i. Outdoor advertising and hoarding
 - ii. Movement and keeping of pets of all description,
 - iii. Shops and kiosks
 - iv. Restaurant, bakeries and other places for sales of food to the public,
 - v. Laundries, and
 - vi. Licensing, regulation and control of the sales of liquor.

2. The functions of a local government council shall include participation of such councils in the government of a State as respect the following matters:
- The provision and maintenance of primary, adult and vocational education;
 - The development of agriculture and natural resources other than the exploitation of minerals;
 - The provision and maintenance of health services; and
 - Such other functions as may be conferred on a local government council by the House of Assembly of the State.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN NIGERIA

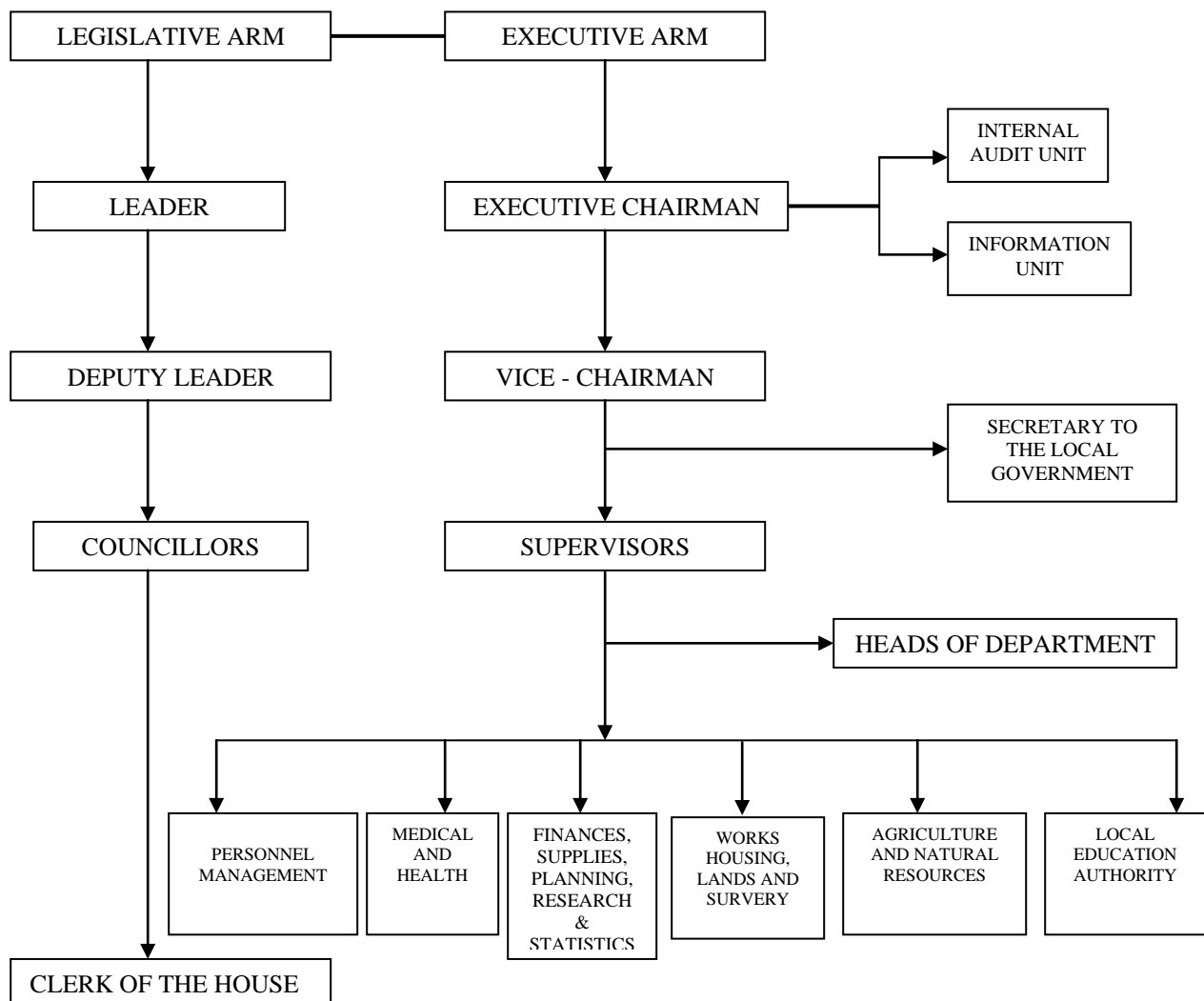


FIG 1: Organizational Structure of the Local Government System in Nigeria

4.3 LOCAL GOVERNMENTS AND INTEGRATED COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

Local governments play an important role in promoting and enhancing community development in Nigeria. Local authorities are responsible for providing infrastructure and amenities the grassroots communities require. Local governments are also situated to avoid, remedy or mitigate the potential socio-economic and biophysical effects at the rural area. Local governments exist in a single tier across all States. In Nigeria, there are 768 local government authorities and six area councils in Federal Council Territory (FCT), totalling 774 authorities (LGAs) and area councils. The funds raised through taxes are collected by all levels of government responsible for collecting licence fees haulage, trade and motor vehicles. The all-time functions of local government include pre-school, primary and adult education, public health, town planning, roads, transportation and waste disposal. The question is “What have they been able to deliver and what have been the obstacle in the attempt to deliver these?”. This chapter provides an x-ray of the local government system in Nigeria in an attempt tries to unravel the problems facing it as it struggles to impact the community and its dwellers. Using secondary data in its methodology, it found that the major challenges bedevilling the third tier of government in Nigeria in general and Lagos state in particular are institutional, political and societal problems. Nevertheless, it concludes that though the effects of these challenges are not salutary to the Local Governments with respect to their performance in the area of community development, local government remains the closest entity to widespread consultation and participation.

Nigeria is a Federal Republic with a bicameral national assembly; with 37 Federal assemblies (36) for its Federal States plus one for the Federal Capital Territory (FCT). The Head of State

and government is the President who is directly elected for a maximum of two four-terms. The national assembly comprises an elected House of Representatives and an elected Senate. The House of Representatives has 360 members elected to represent single member constituencies using the first-past-the post system. The Senate has 109 members, three elected from each of the thirty-six States and one elected from FCT. The president appoints a cabinet known as the Federal Executive Council (FEC), which must draw at least one member from each of the thirty-six States and is subject to approval of the Senate. The constitution guarantees a system of local governments run with democratically elected councils, (Oyeyipo, E.A.; Odoh,A. 1990). The Constitution requires all state to enact legislation providing for the establishment of structures, composition, finance and functions of local government councils. Each of the States has enacted its own legislation. While core functions of local governments are defined in the Constitution, individual State may augment their responsibilities through legislation (Akpan, 1984).

Local governments are created by State legislation with the endorsement of the National Assembly. All local governments are on a single tier and there is no difference between urban, rural or municipal councils. At the State level a relevant Ministry of Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs of Bureau of Local Governments is headed by a Commissioner (State-level minister) of Local Government. The Commissioner is responsible for the administration of the State level Acts governing local government. In several States, elected Councillors and Chairmen of the local governments have been suspended by the State Governors or State Assemblies without due process of law or allowing the Councillors to exercise their role. In such cases, the Governors had appointed caretaker committees to replace them. Legislation requires government to establish committees, but their limits are not specified. The executive committees are constituted by the chairperson with responsibilities determined by State Government legislation.

However, there is an extensive network of traditional leaders in Nigeria and their relationship with the local government varies from State to State. As legislation varies across the States, there is no uniformity in tenure or timing of local government election. Councillors and chairpersons of councils are elected directly by universal adult suffrage using the first-past-the-post system, usually for three year terms of office. The local government is divided into wards across all States of Nigeria and each ward elects a single member of its local council. Councils range in size from ten to thirteen councils depending on the number of wards. An elected council is made up of an executive chairman, vice chairman and councillors. Councillors represent the legislative arm of the local council. Women represent less than 10% of elected local government councillors. Advocacy and awareness raising initiatives are being implemented to encourage the participation of women, (Odoh, 1990). There is currently no legal framework but awareness is being raised to address this. Community involvement is being achieved through a range of civil society actors including traditional rulers, community-based and cooperative organisations, NGOs and youth and women's development programmes.

The Association of Local Government of Nigeria (ALGON) is the representative body for local governments and has the additional role of providing services to its members. It is funded by membership subscriptions. The Association is registered under the relevant laws of the Federation but its existence is not established under any statute of Constitution. Most inter-governmental interaction is between States and local governments, mediated by the individual State-level Minister of Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs and coordinated by a commissioner for local government. The Secretary to the Government of the Federation and the designated Permanent Secretary of the Presidency hold discussions on inter-governmental relation and local government issues. These relations are not formally structured and meetings

deal primarily with State – Federal matters. On discussions of matters of concern to local governments, ALGON is frequently invited to participate. Each State has an Auditor-General to whom local authorities must submit their annual accounts. The State Assembly exercise oversight functions on the activities of local government. Federal and State governments are responsible for raising and collecting taxes such as those for haulage, hawking, and markets as well as motor and commercial drivers' levies. Local governments receive funding from the Federal Account Allocation (FAA) and the state Governments. The federal account distribution is split approximately as follows: Federal Government 52.68%, State Governments 26.72%, and Local Governments 20.60%. Lobbying is on-going to reduce the allocation of the Federal Government and increase it for the States and local governments. However, council chairpersons serve full-time and are remunerated accordingly. Remuneration is set by a federal agency, the National Revenue Mobilization and Fiscal Committee. Senior staffs are recruited by the Local Government Service Commission, a State body, while junior staff are hired by the individual local governments. These bodies have the authority to hire and discipline staff. Federal government does not deploy any staff to local government. But local authority is required for a Director of Administration who is the Head of the paid Service.

The core functions of the local government are defined in the Fourth Schedule of the Constitution. They include: pre-school, primary and adult education; public health (including primary care and health protection); town and regional planning; roads and transportation; refuse collection and disposal; cemeteries and crematoria; environmental protection, sports; leisure space and religious facilities.

In Nigeria, the military paid more attention to local governments during their tenure. There was an attempt at one stage or the other to make the institution autonomous and viable. It got to a

stage where people started questioning the efficiency of party politics in turning local governments around. In a study carried out in 1989/'90, people started having more faith in the performance of local government under military administration than those under civilians (Odoh, 1990). To make matters worse for the advocates of local governments as a tool for democracy, 62% of the people claimed that party politics was undesirable in local governments because of its divisive nature. To them, it creates, problems for communities which had lived peacefully before and breaks the peace of communities.

This chapter takes a cursory look at the local government system as a third tier of government in Nigeria and tries to underscore the myriad of challenges militating against its service delivery to the grassroots to ensure development. This is coming amidst calls, in some quarters, that the local government system in Nigeria is not measuring up to its noble objectives and therefore should be discarded. Others are of the opinion that more funds need to be allocated, and lots more. The questions remain, “what have the local governments in Nigeria been able to deliver and what have been the obstacles in the attempt to ensure effective and efficient integrated service cum development”.

4.4 THE NEED FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT RE-STATED

The need for local government as a third tier of government may be stated specifically as follows:

- a) It is more democratic; this is referring to the fact that it increases the scope for citizenship participation in the government of their locality.
- b) It provides valuable political education. This type of education exposes citizens to power and authority – its acquisition, its use, and its risks.

- c) It trains people for higher public offices. Local governments become a platform or springboard for acquiring experiences for higher career in government.
- d) Local knowledge is brought to bear on decisions by the local government.
- e) It is more sensitive to local opinion. Councillors and representatives are closer to the people and respond much easily to their demands or to be voted out.
- f) Local initiatives can easily be identified and taken on-board especially in mobilising community to gain local support for projects.
- g) Power is more widely dispersed which is a safeguard against tyranny. The local government system protects citizens against this.
- h) Local variations and needs in service provision can better be handled by local the government since it understands the needs of its locality.

4.5 EMERGING ROLES OF THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

The roles of the local government are in some way similar to those of a central government. Central governments exist to provide for developmental services for the people and provide security for the citizenry and ensures participation of the citizenry in government, (Akpan, 1984). To some extent, the local government performs such roles even though with some varying degree of intensity. These roles could be classified into two, Viz:

1) Political Role

Local governments are veritable and appropriate institutions for promoting democracy at the local level. They are well placed to mobilise the people politically through political education, political enlightenment and political actions. The local government has become a very useful

tool for the conduct of elections at all levels of government. With such, the political recruitment is institutionalised and the institutions can then help train people for higher responsibilities. Another political role is that of maintenance of law and order. Local governments have the instrumentality of the police at their disposal and therefore have its leadership at the local level to enforce law and order and maintain security.

Moreover, certain committees such as the security committee, police committee and others can initiate such exercises. Furthermore, to enhance responsive governments serve as a two-way channel of communication between the government and the governed. Just as it transmits the decisions of governments to the local people, it also channels or conveys their demands and feedback on policies to government (local or central).

2) Socio – Economic Role

The exercise of democracy and human rights can only be meaningful if demands and policies can only be translated into physical development including the provision of basic socio-economic services. Services of local governments are primary or basic in nature as reflected in their functions. Some of these are basic health, basic education, agriculture, revenue raising and regulatory functions. People expect such services to be delivered to meet the dividend of democracy and bureaucracy at the local level. The services delivered also depend on the nature of the local government – whether it is a municipal council, the complexity may depend on the level of urbanization or the availability of funds (Aliyu, 1980). Similarly, in providing socio-economic services, the local government has to work with community groups and citizenry to harmonise community energies and inputs into development. A greater part of the initiatives and effectiveness in local government is a function of community development and self-help groups (Ola, 1984: 6).

4.6 LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND THE CONCEPT OF DECENTRALIZATION

The Local government is a decentralized political entity. The concept of decentralization refers to the transfer of government power and functions to both agents and units in a given government in a given country. What makes this term or concept important to local government is its types. There are two types of decentralization, viz: deconcentration and devolution. Deconcentration is the delegation of authority adequate for the discharge of specific functions to staff or central departments who are situated at the headquarters. Alderfer (1967) adds that it is the transfer of power to subordinate authorities, whether offices, individuals, or field units.

Devolution is a legal instrument conferring power to discharge specified or residual power upon formally constituted local authorities (Ola, 1984). The local government can therefore be classified as a deconcentration (i.e. deconstrated units) or devolution (units with substantial powers). Local governments that enjoy devolution of powers are likely to be more autonomous (or exercise greater power over its local affairs) than local governments that are deconcentrated.

Nevertheless, local governments that enjoy devolution are likely to exhibit the following characteristics:

- I) Its existence is constitutionally guaranteed.
- II) It also has constitutional backing to perform certain statutory functions
- III) Exercise power or control over policies, budget preparation, its revenue or its staff.
- IV) The council is democratically constituted and therefore accountable to the people (i.e the people become primary source of power).

On the other hand, a deconcentrated arrangement denies local governments of the power enjoyed especially over control of policies, budget preparation, revenue and staff

Some scholars argue that local governments exist essentially as a democratic institution and their job is to foster representative and participatory democracy at the local level. Yet other scholars feel local governments should focus more on service delivery of those tangible things communities required. The various arguments are further discussed below:

I) Democratic – Participation School

The influence of this school has been largely the work of John Stuart Mills, especially his work on utilitarianism, Liberty and Representative Government. In it, he claims that the good form of government is representative government because it promotes liberty, equity and fraternity, made men look beyond their immediate interest and recognise the just demands of other men; promote political education, participation and communication.

Furthermore, he asserts that the local government is a prime element of democracy and demonstrates the intrinsic values of democracy irrespective of the services it provides. Government is truly representative when all types of people can take part. The local government level offers the closest thing to widespread consultation and participation.

II) Efficiency Service School

The advocates of efficiency services believe that the idea of democracy advocated by Mills and Bricks above do not apply to different political system in the same manner especially in the face of modern realities. The crux of their theory is that the main purpose of the local government is to provide services to the local people.

Foremost among the advocates is the French scholar Langood (1953) who claims that democracy is the affairs of the nation state as a whole. Issues of majority rule, equity and uniformity are the norm. Local self-government by contrast was parochial and concerned with local difference and

separation. The two are opposed and it was only a historical accident that they had developed together in the 19th century. He claims further that it is equally false to see the local government as a setting for political education and democracy. To him the local arena has only succeeded in breeding few national leaders. Local politics is more likely to enforce narrow sectional interest than an appreciation of democracy. The citizen is more likely to learn about democracy from national politics and national issues.

By and large, local governments have become training grounds for political elites for higher level of government. Studies have been carried out to buttress this position. For example, Keith Lucas in an English study concludes that the number of British members of parliament who had served on local government demonstrated the importance of local government as a recruiting ground for the British Parliament. Specifically, David Butter found out in the 1964 general elections that 53% of the Labour Party who are members of Parliament and 45% of the defeated members had been local government councillors; the figure is 29% and 40% respectively for the Conservative Party.

This point on Parliamentarians benefiting from political apprenticeship at local government level is replete in the advanced democracies as confirmed by Mackenzie (1954) in his work entitled ‘‘Local Government in Parliament’’.

Accordingly, a very important element of this democratic role is the opportunity it creates for political activity and social interaction. Such a forum helps to inculcate the ideals of democracy like election or selection of local government committees and boards, public debates, pressure and interest group activities, and community mobilization. Local governments must continue to buttress democracy through these ideas.

Arguing, in the same vein, Olowu (1982) points out that the local government is so restricted while national goals are wider in scale. Local experience and knowledge is hardly appropriated to national affairs. Sharpe (1970) provides a very strong case for local governments on the ground that it is the most efficient agent for providing those services that are essentially local. He suggests that the efficient performance of these services is so compelling that if the local government does not exist, something else will have to be created in its place; meaning the institution is indispensable. Even a decentralized form of national government cannot play the role because of the level of coordination local governments can forge cannot be undertaken by such an alternative. The main functional responsibility of local governments is to efficiently carry out local duties allocated to it, at the highest efficiency rate.

According to Mendes (2008:3), community development should be seen as the employment of community structures to address social needs and empower groups of people. He suggests that the current trend away from individualistic practice and toward structural, systematic, and person-in-environment practice is a good match for the emphasis of community development theory and practice. Paiva (1997) calls the theories tenets structural change, socio-economic integration, institutional development and renewal. Pandey (1997) refers to the strategies of community development as distributive, participative, and human development. Schiele (2005) summarizes the work of community development as collective problem solving, self-help, and empowerment.

4.7 LOCAL GOVERNMENTS AS AN INSTRUMENT OF DEVELOPMENT

At the grassroots level, people are more interested in imperial development that is, what they can use in institution to enhance their living standard, and that is why the service delivery argument is compelling (Hill, 1974).

In assessing the role of local governments in development, we are interested in physical development especially of a socio-economic nature. Likely, this boils down to the projects which their general functions can be broken down into, or those programmes and projects contained in their plans and budgets which they had hoped to deliver to communities within a given period of time. The question is what have they been able to deliver and what have been the obstacle in the attempt to deliver basic facilities?

Development is supposed to tackle the obstacle caused by human and physical environment, conquering this means making progress. Overall, development should be improving the content and quality of life of individuals or group or the community as a whole. In local governments, such areas where such improvement is required are infrastructure like roads, markets, water, health, and service areas like education, health, sanitation, works, etc. These are the breakdown of local government functions. What is required of the local government is how to plan for resources mobilization (both funds and community resources) and translate these into services. The importance of planning for development therefore is that the plan states its objectives in relation to development, the activities to be engaged in and how they are arrived at, the cost of the activities or project and the strategies for implementing the activities. It is these activities that translate into policies, programmes, sub programmes, and projects in the local government.

These are concretely conveyed or elaborated on by a local government budget where concrete plans for the year is drawn and concrete projects and services are itemized, including their cost. The approval of this, kick-starts their implementation. It is the implementation of these that translate into infrastructural and other and other socio-economic development in the local government. When a particular development in the plan cannot be executed in a given year, it is rolled over into the following year.

However, it is very difficult to put the achievements of a local government in a project form. Nevertheless, there are different ways of assessing achievement or physical performance. One way is to look at the schedule of the local government and measure to what extent each has been performed. Another way is to look at the plans of the local government and assess them in terms of the implementation according to the time frame of the project.

Yet another way is to look at the local government capital budget and assess how much of the project and services that were targeted have been implemented. One can also look at chairman and annual address on achievements in his local government and get a feel of what the local government has been able to do.

4.8 CHALLENGES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AT THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEVEL

- Finance
- Personnel
- Politics and Leadership
- Community Attitude
- Intergovernmental relation
- Planning and Ideology

Finance:

This the main stay of the local government development (Olowu, 1982).

Too much money is spent on recurrent budget, sometimes up to between 80 – 90%, leaving a smaller percentage for social and economic services. This is not helped by low internal revenue capacity of local governments which amount to, in average cases, not more than 10% of the total

local government revenues. Overdependence on statutory allocation has made the prospects of social and economic development painfully slow in local governments. Coupled with this, leadership is slow to explore alternative sources of revenue in local governments.

Despite the low level of finance, massive corruption takes place in local governments. Both administrative and political officials are involved. Contracts are issued even to council staff and politicians see council as a place for rehabilitation and service to the community. Evidence of corruption surfaces from inspectors' report and probe panels into local government activities. In short, moneys that would have been channelled into projects find their way into private pockets. The masses end up losing out.

Personnel and Competence:

A survey in 1997 by the United Nation Development Program (UNDP) shows that the planning and research unit of local governments has been under-staffed and staff who manage these units of the local government do not receive any special training to prepare themselves for the job. One also hardly finds an economist or statistician or a social scientist in this department. Many of the staff in the health offices are community health staff. Medical doctors are hard to come by. Agriculturists are largely those who have gone for one diploma course or the other. The import of all this is the fact that planning for development is handicapped in local governments because of the dearth of appropriate staff. Plans therefore become an incremental thing – a traditional manoeuvring rather than an objective and data-fed document.

Professional advice to politicians too suffers as a result of the quality of intellectual weight brought to bear on the exercise. In summary, local governments lack the executive, technical and professional competence to formulate good plans and to implement them.

Politics and leadership:

The attitude of politicians to development may not coincide with established ways to doing community needs assessment by the local government bureaucracy. Some projects are outrageously cited even without assessing their utility (Galadim, 2002). Political criteria override data-based evidence. The politician imposes his will partly because of the impulse driven by his constituency needs and because of his party manifesto. More importantly is his perception of the community and the going-on the other tier of government. Therefore, because corruption is fashionable and politics has become an avenue for enrichment, the politician sees his period in power as his own opportunity to amass wealth. So, the fragile resource of the local government is illegitimately depleted leaving crumbs for developmental purposes. This is the problem of development today.

Governing has become a reward system for contractors and party supporters. There is a large retinue of local supporters who has to be catered for from the lean resources base of local government. Doing this is definitely at a cross purpose with physical development.

Again, the communities often feel marginalised in development, local government plans and execution of them. Even community development efforts are not adequately supported by the local government. Even where intervention occurs, it is not done in a partnership manner. The net effect of this is that the community feels marginalised from development programmes and efforts. The more programmes and projects are community driven and participatory, the more the community would want to own and sustain the programme. Most scholars believe that this is a far cry from what happens at the local level (Akpan, 1984; Odoh, 1990; Gboyega, 1987; Olowu, 1982). This is why a community is not bothered when a health centre is burgled or the roof of a

primary school is blown off; they see themselves removed from the process as the initiation and the execution was all done by the government.

Inter-governmental relationship:

Intergovernmental relationship in Nigeria is usually associated with control. Too many things are being controlled, Viz: Personnel, Finance, guidelines for administrative practices, budgets, projects, e.t.c. Control may be functional but to the extent that it facilitates the activities of government in an efficient and effective manner. It has been identified, moreover, that the control in most cases impede development. Control of finance such as revenue and disbursement, has hampered development in the past. When money is centrally paid into a joint account for local governments, State Government tamper with this, thus reducing the volume of funds coming to local governments for development.

Furthermore, in Nigeria, many State Governments do not remit their 10% Statutory Allocation of their internal revenue to local governments. Worse still, local governments keep getting circulars and directives from the State, that amount to extra budgetary commitment.

Planning and Ideology:

Local government plans in a Nigeria are supposed to feed into State and national plans. In the 1975 Plans, the Federal Government came up with very catchy phrases that define the objective of the Plan such as ‘a just and equalitarian society, a land full of opportunities, etc. These were also supposed to serve as the ideology of the plan. Since then subsequent plans built their overall objective around these.

However, the implementation of plans since 1974 – 1980 has not demonstrated any systematic effort to achieve the objectives. Instead plans have become more and more meaningless because they become mere documents of intentions rather than document of commitment.

Discussions

After a careful perusal of extant literature on the challenges confronting local government on the issue of development as revealed above, there is the need for further explication of the various points enumerated above.

When it comes to implementation of development plans at the local level, it is replete with same old stories. Targets and standards in plans may suffer as a result of paucity of professional requirements and competence. Even where there are qualified staff to do the job, they will still fall victim of the corruptive influence of society brought to bear by either the contractor or politician or community pressure. Local governments lack professional competence to formulate good plans and to implement them.

It has been said that attitude of politicians to development may not coincide with established ways of doing community needs assessment by the local government bureaucracy; suffice it to say that it is the excessive bureaucracy and patronage in the name of democracy and participation that inform people's low emphasis on democratization at local level and a high emphasis on the service delivery school of thought. The cost of democracy and leadership is high and the higher this is, the less emphasis on efficiency service. Moreover, instability in leadership at the local level threatens the flow of development.

Each time there is a change in leadership, the new leadership does not believe in the programmes and plans of the out-going leadership. There is therefore a disjuncture in development policy, plans and objectives. This is a big problem.

Similarly, the community attitudes also reinforce the corruptive attitude of the politicians. Instead of demanding for accountability from politicians who amass lots of public wealth, they rather desire to part-take in their ill-wealth. They end up saying “this is his time”. The actor who does not seize such an opportunity is branded as a “fool”. Going into politics means going to cut one’s cake from the government. This is a very negative attitude to anti-corruption and development. Where politics stops at primitive accumulation without results, development hardly becomes an objective. Furthermore, core circular from the ministry at the beginning of the budget exercise restricting the expenditure of the local government and allocation to certain areas or sectors hinders expenditure and is not healthy for local government development. Development ought to be based on needs assessment of local communities. This function should be performed by operational department in the local government and with ready-made data from extension workers.

Such imposition does not also augur well for the political agenda of elected officials who want to deliver in their promises.

Inter-governmental relations and politics also demoralize the local government development effort. Sometimes some State chief executives impose candidates on local governments or communities the time the candidate gets to power, he sees himself as more accountable to the State rather than the people. Sections of the community avoid his administration and refuse to be drawn into mere participatory overtures. The rapport between the communities and such chief executive cannot, suffice, it to say create the necessary environment for development. Normally,

politics is like that – a particular part of the community wins and the other loses. But this can be aggravated if the invisible hand of the State aggravates the situation through unfair means.

State policies on personnel may also end up being detrimental to development in a way. Certain personnel of local governments are key to development efforts some of these personnel insist on the right thing. For example, the internal auditor may insist on following procedure or the head of personnel may insist on standard before approvals are given and cheques released. The impatient local government chairman may consider this as an affront, or politicalize these actions and brand these personnel as enemies of his administration. He liaises with State officials at the Service Commission and ministry and effects such officer's transfer. Pliable officers replace them and that will be the end of efficiency and quality projects in that local government.

Associated with the above is the way inspectors' reports are treated at the State level. Many of their reports (which if acted upon would have checked one or two malpractices and free money and energy for development) are politically treated rather than given the administrative consideration they deserve. This "democratizes" these inspectors and some of them "get to join them" in the nonchalant or corruption game they play at this level. All these are not conducive to effective service delivery at the local government. This attitude has spilled over to the State and local governments. State Governments have not demonstrated any leadership planning neither have they showed any commitments. If plans are the instruments for development (which they are), the lack of commitment to them means lack of systematized development. The type of development that takes place at the State and the local government levels are impulsive, haphazard and uncoordinated. We cannot see the cumulative effect of a plan neither can we see evidence of a phased development.

It is obvious that planning is muddled up by local government officers in their haste to deliver social facilities; such planning has not benefitted the rural population much. The state and local governments are satisfied with the provision of social services and rural infrastructure. Their hope is that this will always stimulate the rural economy. There is no direct concrete attempt on their part to intervene in real economic development. Attempts have stopped in either agriculture or building or rural markets. Agriculture production is not enough to stimulate the rural economy. Even then it is bedevilled by many problems; markets can be seen as mere social and commercial entities that facilitate trade, the real problem is in the area of production.

Agricultural production alone cannot improve the economy. Therefore, local government officials should also establish small scale industries of agrarian nature relevant to the community resource. Such direct interventions are lacking and until more investment is planned in employment generating venture in rural communities, the standard of living of the rural person would not appreciate. This is really the challenge for local government and other tiers of government as they plan for rural development. The capitalist ideology which operates at the national level must also start penetrating the rural areas for concomitant development.

All this will require a more positive, dynamic and even selfish attitude to development on the part of leadership than we have now. This is because substantial capital outlays and sustained monitoring and interaction with local communities will become inevitable.

On a final note, the threat to development, even in the whole country, has been that of attitude. It has become the malaise of politicians and career civil servants. Both parties cooperate to channel resources away from planned activities and starve the development process. The bureaucrats do the paper work and cover up. Despite all the accounting measures, loopholes are still opened by

those who should close them. The value system of the society has to change for any meaningful development to take place at all levels of government.

Development in local governments may not be straight forward to report. This can however be done by looking at functions, projects, plans and budgets and the physical or actual projects on ground. To be meaningful, the financial allocation to these projects and services will allow one to appreciate the nature and quality of such programmes. The clue to understanding development at the local level is the capital budget; the amount allocated to this vis-a-vis the recurrent expenditure is indicative of development potential and attention.

Local governments tend to perform more of concurrent functions than the exclusive ones. This is because it is less painful to spend than to generate revenue. The statutory allocation encourages them to spend without recourse to their internal source which reveals lack of attention to the resources. The items of expenditure of local governments remain very basic, yet local governments find it difficult to implement them. The difficulty in providing services is as important as the level of services that has been delivered. Be that as it may, development is supposed to tackle the obstacles caused by human and physical environment; conquering this means making progress. Overall development is by improving the content and quality of life of individuals or group or the community. The services or infrastructure delivered should be such that will impact directly on the living standards of the citizenry. Development does not occur without a meaningful and tangible change in general living standard especially in the socio-economic sphere. It should at least cover basic things like education, roads, water, markets, sanitation amongst others.

Again, the importance of planning for development cannot be overemphasized, indeed, the plans should state the objectives in relation to development, the activities to be engaged in and how they are arrived at. Planning should be data-based and not muddled up. Planning should cover estimated cost of projects and/or programmes and strategy for implementing activities; since it is this activities that translate into policies, programmes and projects in local governments, they should be elaborated on by the local government budget when concrete plans for the year is drawn. Thus, there should be periodic assessment of achievements of local governments. One way of achieving this could be looking at the physical performance, or implementation according to time frame or by evaluating chairman's annual report.

However, there should be a drastic reduction in the amount spent on recurrent expenditure; more funds should be channelled towards capital expenditure in an attempt to bring about socio-economic transformation. In addition, local governments should increase its internal revenue generating capacity in order to raise funds for developmental activities instead of relying solely on statutory allocation from the central government. The joint account with the State government should be jettisoned; since most State Governments usurp the money in the joint account, thus starving the local government of necessary funds, the account should be separated.

Nevertheless, staff of the local government should be granted access to training and retraining programmes. In fact, there should be a minimum qualification for all levels of employees and professional hands should be hired according to areas of specialisation as these will reduce dearth of appropriate staff and planning for development should not be handicapped. However, this will provide local executive with technical and professional competence to formulate good plans and to implement them.

Similarly, there is an urgent need for attitudinal change among politicians and community dwellers. Corruption should be dealt with and made unattractive rather than a fashionable thing. The fragile resources of the local government should be judiciously used rather than be depleted. The people in power should not see it as their opportunity to amass wealth but should be held accountable for their actions. Governing should no longer be a reward system for party supporters and contractors. Henceforth, the community should be carried along in every developmental drive of the local government in addition to huge government support on community developmental efforts. Government interventions should be done in a participatory manner and projects are to be cited on needs basis. Such project should be made to be owned and sustained by the community. Benefitting communities should be made not to see themselves as removed from the process as they will be involved from the initiative to the execution of the projects.

Furthermore, the existing control system in the local government should be revisited. In fact, it should be relaxed because excessive control impedes development. State Governments should be made to abide by the existing guidelines on inter-government relations and to live up to their expectations. There should be co-operation and harmony in the scheme of things at all tiers of government. The autonomy and increased funding of local governments should be upheld.

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CHAPTER FIVE

PROFILES OF NIGERIA AND LAGOS STATE

5.1 *Geographical, Historical and Political Profiles of Nigeria*

Nigeria is a famous country with more than one hundred and forty million populations. It is located in West Africa. The tropical land, the natural resources, geo-strategic location has given a special place to Nigeria. The first section of present chapter discusses geographical characteristics including the location, areas and climate and other features. The second part of this section presents a demographic profile that covers themes related to the size of population, ethnic groups and distribution of population in 36 States. In subsequent overview, the second section discusses political history in Nigeria after independence in 1960 and also shortly before independence. This chapter illustrates the features and events of Nigerian governments during 1960 till now.

5.1.1 *Geographical location of Nigeria*

Bordered by Benin, Cameroon, Chad, Niger and 853km of coastline on the Gulf of Guinea, the Federal Republic of Nigeria covers 923,768 square kilometers of land in West Africa. Northern plains contrast with lowlands in the southwest, mountains in the southeast, and central hills and plateaus (CIA 2009a). Abuja, the capital of Nigeria, is located in the country's center, while Lagos, which was Nigeria's capital until 1991, sits on the coast. The latter city remains the country's economic and financial capital, as well as a major port city. It is also Sub-Saharan Africa's most populous city, and projected to surpass Cairo as Africa's most populous city by 2025 (United Nations Population Division 2008).

The geographical location of the Federal Republic of Nigeria is on the Gulf of Guinea in Western Africa. It is between Benin in the West and Cameroon in the East. In the North are Chad (NE)

and Niger (NW). (Douglas; 2004, Achebe; 2000), The lower course of the Niger River flows south through the eastern part of the country into the Gulf of Guinea. Southern lowlands are created by swamps and mangrove, forests on the Southern coast. These low lands are mountainous in the South east and plains in the North. There are hardwood forests in the inland territory.

Area and Five Regions

While the country is divided into three geographic regions by its two major rivers, the rivers Niger and Benue, the more determinative divisions may be those shaped by rainfall, which is heavier and lasts longer in the south than the north. The ecology shifts along with decreasing annual rainfall, from coastal mangrove swamps in the south (2500mm to 4000mm) to rainforest (1500mm to 2500mm), to Guinea savannah (1200mm to 1500mm), to Sudan savannah (760mm to 1020mm), and to Sahel savannah in the north (380mm to 700mm). Nigeria relies most heavily on the Guinea savannah for food production, though both its north and the Sudan savannah's south produce cereals for livestock and human consumption. Savannah land further north constitutes the primary grazing zone, while cash crops like cocoa and rubber play a key role in rainforest agriculture in the region just south of the Guinea savannah. The coastal mangrove swamps support fishing, when not inhibited by pollutants (Fasona and Omojola 2005).

The area of the country is 923,768 square kms of which the water bodies have covered about 13,000 square kms. (*Nigeria Fact Sheet* ;2001), There are five major geographical regions in Nigeria. The first region is a low coastal zone along the Gulf of Guinea. The second is the zone of hills and plateaus north of the coastal zone. The third is the Niger-Benue river valley. The fourth region is a broad stepped plateau stretching to the Northern border with elevation exceeding 1200 meters. The fifth region is a mountainous zone along the eastern border, which

includes the country's highest point, Chappal Waddi, which is 2,419 meters high(Douglas; 2004)

Diversity of Climate

The diversity of climate observed in Nigeria is aridity in the North, tropical in the centre and equatorial in the South. The three variations are equatorial, tropical and arid in Southern, central and Northern parts respectively. These variations are governed by the interaction of moist South-West monsoon and dry North-West winds. The maximum temperatures are 30 to 32 degree celsius in the North. In the South there is high humidity during the months between February and November.⁵ In the North, high humidity is in the months from June to September. In the dry season, there is low humidity. Annual rainfall is more in the Southern part and less in the Northern part. In the Niger Delta, the average annual rainfall is more than 3500 millimeters. The rainfall ranges from 2000 millimeters in the Southern coastal zone to 500 – 750 millimeters in the North. The capital of Nigeria is Abuja which is located at the centre of Nigeria. Its population is 6 millions. Lagos, Ibadan, and Kano are the other cities. There are a number of cities in Nigeria with a population of over one million. In transport sector, the network of roads is 194,394 kilometers. Railways are spread over an area of 3,557 kilometers.(Douglas;2004)

5.1.2 The Demographic Profile of Nigeria

There are 36 States in the country of which (Table1) seven States are located in the most populated North-West zone which has the population of 35, 786, 944. The South-West zone is the next most populated zone with six states having the population of 27, 266,257. The six states in the South-South zone have the population of 21,014,655. The seven states in the North-Central zone including the Federal Capital Territory of Abuja (1,405,201) have the population of

20,266,257. The six states of North East zone have the population of 18,971,965. The five states in the South -East zone have the total population of 16,381,729.7 (Nigeria *Fact Sheet* ;2001), Kano state has the highest population of 17,000,682 followed by Lagos – 9,013,534. Kaduna; Katsina, Oyo, and Rivers are the four states having the population of more than five millions. The population of states like Nasarawa (1,863,275) and Bayelsa (1,703,358) have a population below 2 millions.

5.1.3 History of Nigeria before Independence

In order to understand the current Nigerian politics and society, three dominant characteristics need to be taken into account. First, the spread of Islam began a millennium ago, predominantly in the North but later on extended to South-Western Nigeria. The creation of Sokoto Caliphate extended Islam within the area of present day Nigeria. This history helps account for the dichotomy between North and South and the divisions in the North that have been so pronounced. (*Country Profile: Nigeria*, 2008).

Second, the slave trade had a profound influence on virtually all parts of Nigeria. The transatlantic trade accounted for the forced migration of about 3.5 million people between 1960s and 1980s. Within Nigeria, slavery was widespread. Its social implications are still evident. Conversion to Islam and the spread of Christianity were intricately associated with issues relating to slavery and with efforts to promote political and cultural autonomy (Falola;1999). Third, the colonial era was relatively brief. It lasted for only six decades or so depending on the part of Nigeria. Yet it brought many rapid changes. The impact of the colonial period is still felt in the contemporary period.

The earliest culture in Nigeria is identifiable by the distinctive artifacts of the Nok people. These skilled artisans are ironworkers that flourished between the fourth century B.C. and the second

century A.D. in a large area above the confluence of the Niger and Benue rivers. The Nok were quite advanced as is evident from the relics left from their ironwork and terracotta artwork. With the disappearance of the Nok, things seem to fall silent for the next thousand years. Little information exists on this “silent millennium” in Nigeria’s history (Falola;1999).

Long before 1500, various rich and powerful kingdoms emerged within the region. These formed the roots of some of the cultural groups existing in Nigeria today. These early states induced the Yoruba kingdoms in Yoruba and in South-West Nigeria, the Edo Kingdom of Benin, the Hausa Fulani cities and Nape. The earliest of the Nigerian Kingdoms, Kanem and Borno were located near Lake Chad in North-East Nigeria. The king of Kanem adopted Islam as the religion of his kingdom(Abdullahi ;1996), The Kanem – Borno Empire fell apart in a civil war in the late fourteenth century. Later, Borno became an independent State.

In the fifteenth century, the Portuguese initiated the transatlantic slave trade. By the end of the sixteenth century, the Dutch challenged the Portuguese influence in the region and in the slave trade. French and British competition later undermined the Dutch position. Britain became the dominant slaving power in the eighteenth century. By the end of the eighteenth century, the area that was to become Nigeria was far from a unified country. Furthermore, the orientation of North and South was entirely different. In the first decade of the 19th century, two developments brought a change in virtually all of the area that is now Nigeria .(*Country Profile: Nigeria*, 2008).

First between 1804 and 1808, the Islamic holy war of Usman dan Fodio established the Sokoto center in North-Western Nigeria. By the middle of the nineteenth century, it comprised of 30 emirates. All the important Hausa emirates including Kano were directly under Sokoto.

Second in 1807, Britain declared the transatlantic trade to be illegal. It was at this time that Britain was responsible for shipping more slaves than any other country. Although the transatlantic slave trade continued till the 1860s, other commodities such as palm oil gradually replaced it. The shift in trade had serious economic and political consequences (Falola; 1999)

This had led to increasing British intervention in the affairs of Yoruba land and the Niger Delta. At the Berlin Conference in 1885, the European powers attempted to resolve their conflicts of interest in Africa. The conference accepted the principle known as the “dual mandate” that the interests of both Europe and Africa could best be served by maintaining free access to the African continent. Britain’s claims to a sphere of influence in the Niger Basin were acknowledged formally. Only effective occupation would secure full international recognition. In order to establish effective British occupation two protectorates were created in Northern and Southern Nigeria.

Lord Frederick Lugard was the high commissioner of the Protectorate from 1900 to 1919. His objective was to conquer the entire region and to obtain recognition. He systematically subdued local resistance. His success was due to his policy of indirect rule. He called for governing the protectorate through the rulers who had been deposed. His successor High Clifford (1900 to 1925) introduced a diametrically opposite approach emphasizing Western values. He restricted the power of the emirates by sending back indirect rule. (Kane, ; 2003),

British colonialism created Nigeria, joining diverse people and regions in an artificial political entity with little sense of Nigerian nationality. British policy has some inconsistencies. These reinforced the cleavages based on regional affiliations. They attempted to preserve the indigenous cultures of each area. At the same time, they introduced modern technology and Western political and social concepts (Horton; 1985)

5.1.4 History of Nigeria after Independence

Nigeria became an independent country within the Commonwealth on October 1, 1960. In 1960 Nigeria became a republic within the Commonwealth. Nnamdi Azikiwe became the republic's first president. The first parliamentary elections were held in December 1964. The nation's leadership was determined by coup, not by election and by military rather than civil government. One of the developments during the 1960s was the declaration of independence by the Eastern Region in 1967 (McCaskie, 1988). It was followed by a 30-month civil war. Ultimately, on May 30, 1967 the independent republic of Biafra was proclaimed. An estimated one to three million Nigerians died of hostilities, disease and starvation during the civil war and more than three million Igbo became refugees (Falola and Ihonvbere, 1985). Finally in January 1970, Biafran resistance collapsed and the Federal military Government reasserted its authority over the area.

In 1960 the first republic was headed by Tafawa Balewa. This regime could not uphold fair political practices and vital moral principles. Ethnic hatred was widespread in the divisive regions of the North and the South of Nigeria. Economic crisis deepened and political instability was experienced. Major Kadan Nzeogwu in 1966 terminated the regime of Nnamdi Azikiwe who had assumed power from 1963. Nzeogwu's regime marked the emergence of the military influence in Nigeria's political developments (McCaskie, 1988). This regime caused destruction of ethnical and social balance in the state of Nigeria. It caused the breeding of mistrust among the different ethnic groups, in particular it caused mass-scale killings in the Northern region. The Nzeogwu regime failed. Another military leader General Aguiyi Ironsi emerged as the head of the state. The regime could not prevent the decline of ethical political culture in Nigeria. Ironsi was killed. (McCaskie, 1988). The Biafra crisis, the continuous civil

strife between 1967 and 1979, the Nigerian membership of OPEC (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries) and successive military takeovers have marked the political development in Nigeria from 1960 to 1999. The country was involved in civil and ethnic strife for a period of more than 35 years after becoming independent in 1960 (Falola and Ihonvbere ;1985).

In the postwar period, all significant political power remained concentrated in the Federal Military Government. The influence of Yakubu Gowon, who had come to power in a 1966 coup, depended on his position as Chairman of the Supreme Military Council, which was created in March 1967(Luckham ;1971), The regime ruled by decree. In October 1970, Gowon announced his intention of staying in power until 1976, the target year for completion of the military's political programme and return of elected civilian government. Many Nigerians feared that the military had planned to retain power indefinitely (Ajayi and Crowder;1985). In 1972, Gowon lifted the ban on political activity that had been in force since 1966 in order to permit a discussion of a new constitution that would pave the way for Civilian rule. However, the debate that followed was ideologically charged and Gowon abruptly terminated the discussion.

The Gowon regime came under fire because of widespread and obvious corruption at every level of national life. Inefficiencies compounded the effects of corruption. Crime also posed a threat to national security and had serious negative impact on efforts to bring about economic development. The political atmosphere deteriorated to the point where Gowon was deposed in a bloodless military coup in July 1975(Ajayi and Crowder;1985).

Brigadier (later General) Murtala Ramat Muhammad, a Muslim Northerner succeeded Gowon but was assassinated during an unsuccessful coup in February 1976. In a short period, his policies had won him broad popular support. His decisiveness elevated him to the status of a national hero. He had sought to restore public confidence in the federal government, reduce

government expenditure on public works and encourage the expansion of the private sector. He also set in motion the stalled machinery of devolution to civilian rule by a commitment to hand over power to a democratically elected government by October 1979.

Lieutenant General Olusegun Obasanjo, a Yoruba, succeeded Muhammad. Keeping the established chain of command in place, Obasanjo pledged to continue the programme for the restoration of civilian government in 1979 and to carry forward the reform programme to improve the quality of public service. In 1979, under Obasanjo's leadership, Nigeria adopted a constitution based on the constitution of the United States that provided for a separation of powers among the executive, legislative and judiciary branches. The country was ready for the local elections to be followed by the National elections that would return Nigeria to civilian rule. Obasanjo indicated plans to move the federal capital from Lagos to a more central location in the interior at Abuja(Falola and Ihonvbere ;1985), Ultimately, Abuja became the country's capital in December, 1991.

In 1979, five revamped parties competed in national elections marking the beginning of the Second Republic. Alhaji Shehu Shagari succeeded Obasanjo as the president of Nigeria after election. It was the first peaceful transfer of power since independence. Nigeria's second Republic was born amidst great expectations. Oil prices and revenues were on the increase. It appeared that unlimited development was possible. Unfortunately the euphoria was short-lived. The second Republic was beset by many weaknesses. The coalition that determined Federal policies was not strong. In effect the victorious National Party of Nigeria (NPN) led by Shagari governed as a minority. There was a lack of cooperation between the NPN dominated Federal Government and the 12 states controlled by opposition parties. Most importantly, the oil boom

ended in mid-1981; precisely when the expectations of continuous growth and prosperity were at a height. The ensuing recession put severe strains on the Second Republic.

On December 31, 1983, the military seized power once again, primarily because there was virtually no confidence in the civilian regime. Allegations of fraud associated with Shagari's re-election in 1983 served as a pretext for the takeover, although the military was in fact closely associated with the ousted government. Ominously, the economy was in chaos. The true cost of the failure to use earlier revenues and foreign resources to good effect now became apparent. The leader of the coup was Major General Muhammad Buhari, a Hausa whose background and political loyalties tied him closely to the Muslim North and the deposed government. The military regime tried to achieve two goals. It attempted to secure public support by reducing the level of corruption. It demonstrated its commitment to austerity by trimming the federal budget. In a further effort to mobilize the country, Buhari launched a war against indiscipline in the spring of 1984((Philip ;2001), This national campaign which lasted for 15 months, preached the work ethic, emphasized patriotism, decried corruption and promoted environmental sanitation. However, the campaign achieved few of its aims.

The economic crisis, the campaign against corruption, and civilian criticism of the military undermined Buhari's position. In August 1985, a group of officers under Major General Ibrahim Babangida removed Buhari from power. The Babangida regime had a rocky start. A counter coup in December 1985 failed but made it clear that not everyone in the military sided with the Armed Forces Ruling Council which succeeded the supreme Military Council. The most serious opposition centered in the labour movement and university campuses. There was considerable controversy over Nigeria's entry into the Organization of the Islamic Conference (OIC), an international body of the Muslim states in 1986. Buhari's regime had initiated the application,

which Babangida allowed to stand. The strong reaction among many Christians proved to be an embarrassment to the regime (Forrest ;(1992),

Babangida addressed the worsening recession through the structural adjustment program of 1986. However, despite 42 billion US Dollars of support from the World Bank and rescheduling of foreign debt, the recession led to a series of currency devaluations, a decline in real income and rising unemployment during the second half of the 1980s. Babangida remained in power until 1993, when he ushered in an Interim National Government under the leadership of Chief Ernest Shonekan. This step followed the military's annulment of election results in 1993

(*Nigeria, Country Profile* ;2008),

In November 1993, General Sani Abacha seized control from the caretaker government and served as military dictator until his death in 1998. During his rule, Abacha suppressed dissent and failed to follow through with a promised transition to civilian government. In 1995, as a result of various human rights violations, the European Union, which already had imposed sanctions in 1993, suspended development aid and Nigeria, was temporarily expelled from the Commonwealth. Corruption flourished and Abacha was later found to have siphoned off oil revenues into personal bank accounts in Switzerland. In 2005, Nigeria began to recover 458 million US dollars of illicit funds deposited in Swiss banks during the Abacha regime.

Upon Abacha's death in June 1998, his chief of defense staff, Major General Abdulsalami Abubakar assumed control. He began to release political prisoners, including the former leader Obasanjo. Local government elections were held in December 1998. State legislative elections followed in January 1999. Federal legislative and presidential elections completed the transition to civilian government in February 1999.("*Nigeria in Political Transition*";2006) Obasanjo was elected as a president of Nigeria. His party the People's Democratic Party (PDP) won

majority of seats in both the Senate and the House of Representatives, amidst every present allegation of election irregularities. Fifteen years of military rule had come to an end. Nigeria entered the longest period of civilian rule since independence.

Obasanjo succeeded in establishing civilian rule based on a multi party democracy. He launched a campaign against corruption. Despite a surge in oil revenues that buoyed the federal coffers, his administration faced a number of serious challenges.

In 2000 religious tensions spiked following the imposition of sharia or Islamic law in the Muslim dominated 12 Northern states. These tensions hindered cooperation between the President and the national Assembly, among the States and between the states and the federal government. (*Strategic Conflicts Assessment Nigeria* ;2002) In 2004, religious strife forced the government to declare a state of emergency in centrally located Plateau state. Ethnic strife complicated matters. In 2001, tribal warfare broke out in the South-Eastern state of Benue. In the oil rich Niger Delta, the Ijaw tribe continues to conduct an insurgency against international energy facilities and workers. (African Peer Review Mechanism 2008)

Following his re-election in 2003, it was speculated that Obasanjo might seek a constitutional change that would permit him to run for a third term in 2007. However, in May 2006, the Nigerian Senate rejected a constitutional amendment that would have permitted a third term. Umar Musa Yar'Adua of the PDP, won the presidential election held in April 2007 and succeeded Obasanjo(*Final Report Gubernatorial and State Houses of Assembly Elections*, 14 April 2007)The election of 2007 was condemned by the international community as massively flawed. The elected President got 70 per cent of the votes. Jonathan Goodluck was elected as a Vice president. As vice president, Jonathan engaged in efforts to negotiate with militants in the Niger delta, who were fighting against petroleum companies operating in the delta region, but

otherwise he largely remained in the political background. . In the year 2009, the President Umar Musa Yar Adua was required to go out of Nigeria for health reasons. In his absence the Vice President looked after the affairs of the state. His profile rose considerably in early 2010 when Yar'Adua's extended absence from the country for medical treatment made many Nigerians anxious and generated calls for Yar'Adua to formally transfer power to Jonathan. As concerns mounted and there was no word from Yar'Adua on the request to transfer power to his vice president, members of Nigeria's National Assembly took matters into their own hands and on Feb. 9, 2010, voted to have Jonathan assume full power and serve as acting president until Yar'Adua was able to resume his duties. Jonathan agreed and assumed power later that day, but it was unclear whether the assumption of power was constitutional. When Yar'Adua returned to Nigeria on Feb. 24, 2010, it was announced that Jonathan would remain as acting president while Yar'Adua continued to recuperate. The next month, Jonathan asserted his power by replacing Yar'Adua's cabinet. Yar'Adua, who never fully recovered, died on May 5, 2010, and Jonathan was sworn in as president the following day. Jonathan vowed to continue his involvement in the Niger delta peace negotiations and declared his intentions to reform the country's oft-criticized electoral process as well as tackle corruption and deal with the country's energy problems. There was much speculation as to how Jonathan's unexpected term as president would affect the PDP's unofficial policy of rotating the presidency between candidates from the predominantly Christian south and the predominantly Muslim north. Jonathan's declaration in September 2010 of his intent to stand in the 2011 presidential election immediately generated controversy, as many argued that the northerners were still owed another term in office. In the PDP's January 2011 primaries, Jonathan was elected to be the party's candidate for the presidency. His overwhelming victory showed that his candidacy had considerable support—in the north as well as the south—

even though it was a departure from the unofficial north-south rotation policy. Jonathan was also victorious in the country's presidential election, held on April 16, 2011. He won about 59 percent of the vote, securing an outright victory and avoiding the need for a runoff election. Reforming Nigeria's electoral process had been one of Jonathan's goals, and international observers praised this election as being largely transparent, free, and fair.

.(<http://www.foxnews.com>, [Date accessed 7 May 2013])

President Goodluck Jonathan administration has been contending with a serious security challenge called Boko Haram. Boko Haram's four-year-old insurgency has pitted neighbour against neighbour, cost more than 4,000 lives, displaced close to half a million, destroyed hundreds of schools and government buildings and devastated an already ravaged economy in the North East, one of Nigeria's poorest regions. It overstretches federal security services, with no end in sight, spills over to other parts of the north and risks reaching Niger and Cameroon, weak countries poorly equipped to combat a radical Islamist armed group tapping into real governance, corruption, impunity and underdevelopment grievances shared by most people in the region. Boko Haram is both a serious challenge and manifestation of more profound threats to Nigeria's security. Unless the federal and state governments, and the region, develop and implement comprehensive plans to tackle not only insecurity but also the injustices that drive much of the troubles, Boko Haram, or groups like it, will continue to destabilise large parts of the country. Yet, the government's response is largely military, and political will to do more than that appears entirely lacking. (Africa Report, No. 216, 3 April, 2014)

5.2 Geographical, Historical and Political Profiles of Lagos State

5.2.1 History of Lagos State

Prior to the Portuguese name of Lagos being adopted, Lagos was originally called Eko, which stems from either Oko (Yoruba: "cassava farm") or Eko ("war camp"), by its Bini conquerors. History has it that the Oba of Bini sent various trade expeditions to Ghana where spices were traded and one of his traders complained about the way she was being treated by the Awori's. The Oba of Bini then sent a trade expedition by sea. Ironically, the leader of the expedition arrived in the evening at a time when the people who were predominantly fishermen were either wading into the water or getting into their boats to gather their catch. He declined to engage them further and returned to what is now called Benin City where he reported to the Oba of Bini that they were attacked. This prompted the Oba of Bini to constitute a war expedition led by Ado, a Bini Prince to go to Lagos and demand an explanation. This was over 650 years ago. However, on getting there, they were well received. The people were so enamored with Ado they asked him to stay and lead them. He agreed on the condition that they surrendered their sovereignty to the Oba of Bini to which they agreed. The Oba of Bini was told this and he gave his permission for the expedition to remain. The Oba of Bini later sent some of his chiefs including the Eletu Odibo, Obanikoro and others to assist Ado in the running of Eko. Till today, the Oba of Lagos is the head of all the Kings in Lagos State and his status is different from other Oba's most of whom were later given back their crowns and staff of office only within the last 40 years and have various classifications. Suffice it to state that those who got their crowns back were the original land owners. These were Olofin's children. Moreover, modern day Lagosians have so intermingled that no single tribe or people can claim it even though the predominant language is

Yoruba. The present day Lagos state has a higher percent of this sub-group who allegedly migrated to the area from Isheri along the Ogun river.

History has it that the Awori were actually from Ife the cradle of Yorubaland. The Awori people are a peaceful people initially not taken to warfare. Due to war, those from the hinterlands, like the Ekiti ran towards Isheri which at that time had more than one Olofin (Alafin) who were heads of probably respective settlements about 1400AD. With the fleeing people from the hinterlands most of them scattered again to different places, some to Iro, to Otta, Ado, others to Ebute Metta i.e three landing places - Oyingbo, Iddo and Lagos Island (Eko). The Olofin that brought those who went to Ebute-Metta was Ogunfunminire later known as Agbodere. With the full commencement of the war about 2000 moved to the nearest island of Iddo, others to Otto Awori or Otto Ijanikin towards modern-day Badagry. Those from Ekiti Aramoko came to Ebute-Metta, Iddo and then Ijora. The Olofin was said to have 32 children. His own known children are Olumegbon, Aromire, Oloto, Oluwa, Oniru, Onisiwo, Onitoolo, and Elegushi. Ojora, Onikoyi and Mogiso were not his biological children. After the demise of Agbodere, the name Olofin became the name used to remember him while a title of Oloto was given to his seccessor. With one of his sons becoming the Oloto his other children parted ways to what is known as visible settlements in the present day Lagos. Aromire whose name means *defeated the river or became the river's friend* is likely to be the first to cross being said to have swam across the river. It is possible that his real name is not Aromire but due to the feat he became known as such.

Until the coming of the Bini's, Lagos's geographic boundary was what is known now as Lagos Mainland. Lagos Island, the seat of the Oba of Lagos then consisted of a pepper farm and fishing posts. No one lived there though. The name Eko was given to it by its first King Oba Ado during

its early history, it also saw periods of rule by the Kingdom of Benin.[1] Eko was the land area now known as Lagos Island where the king's palace was built. The Palace is called Iga Idunganran which, translated means Palace built on the pepper farm. Oba Ado and the warriors from Benin as well as some of the indigenous people who sought safety settled down in the southern part of Eko called "Isale Eko", Isale literally meaning bottom, but must have been used to indicate downtown (as in Downtown Lagos).

(Source: www.lagosstate.gov.ng)

Geography and climate

Lagos is the biggest and most important city in the Federation of Nigeria. The country, which is located in the coast of West Africa, consists of 30 states. Nigeria shares borders with Benin, Cameroon and Niger. Lagos is the main city of Lagos State, which is situated in the southwestern coast of Nigeria. The Metropolitan area of Lagos takes up to 37 per cent of the land area of Lagos State and houses about 90 per cents of its population (Unicef 1995, Aina 1990a).

The area of Lagos constitutes of two major regions: the Island, which is the original city and the Mainland, which is made up by rapidly growing settlements. The climate in Lagos is tropical, hot and wet. The environment is characteristic as coastal with wetlands, sandy barrier islands, beaches, low-lying tidal flats and estuaries. The average temperature in Lagos is 27 °C and the annual average rainfall 1532 mm (Aina 1994, Peil 1991).

Economy

Lagos was until 1991 the capital of Nigeria. Nowadays Abuja is country's administrative and political capital but Lagos is still Nigeria's industrial, commercial and financial center. Lagos is

estimated to count for over 60 per cent of nation's industrial and commercial establishment, 90 percent of foreign trade and controlling about 80 per cent of the total value of the imports of the country. It benefits Nigeria's oil, natural gas, coal, fuel wood and water. Also about 70 per cent of the national industrial investment are in the Metropolitan Lagos (Aina 1994, UN 1995, McNulty 1988).

Population

Urbanization

The population in Lagos started to grow since 1970 due to migration from rural areas and high fertility rate. Even the fertility rate is lower in Lagos than in the countryside, in the future the city population tends to grow more than the population in rural areas. Also migration to the city does not seem to decrease, rather increase. The population growth in the last ten years was highest than ever and the growth in the future is estimated to be even higher.

Lagos is the biggest city in West Africa. It was the first city in the continent to become one of the world's ten largest cities. At the moment the population is about 14 million but the city is projected to be one of the world's five biggest cities already by 2005. Population in the city is expected to grow at the annual rate of 4 per cent for the next 20 years, reaching 24 million people by 2015. Then it is expected to rank third among the world's cities. The population density was 20 000 persons per km² already in 1988, but it has increased a lot from this in the past 13 years (Bilsborrow 1998, Peil 1991).

Migration

The total population growth rate is much higher in Lagos than the national average. Between 1953 and 1980 the annual growth rate was 9.4 per cent which from, net migration rate was 5.4

per cent. Also at the moment migration takes the biggest part of the population growth in the city and it is estimated to even increase from the past (Bilsborrow 1998b, McNulty 1988).

Because Lagos is smallest state in Nigeria, the government has tried to change the capital to central Nigeria, Abuja. This is one way to control the enormous migration and urbanization in Lagos. Although, the population in Lagos is growing all the time and the pull factors of the city are high, even higher than Abuja's (UN 1995).

Push and pull factors

Lagos is a unique national center for trade and commerce in Nigeria so the pull factors of the city are evident. The main motivation for migration to Lagos is economic. Income levels are higher in Metropolitan Lagos than in other regions of Nigeria. Many people come to Lagos in search for a job and most of these migrants tend to work within the informal sector (Kuvaja 2001, McNulty 1988). The main push factors to Lagos are poverty, too small arable land areas per persons, big family sizes and worse soil quality. Due to these factors many rural people do not have other choice than to move to the city and try their luck. Fortunately the nepotism is so strong that immigrants are often welcomed to live in the houses of their relatives and often the first job is household work in their relatives' houses. (Rinne 2001)

Water resources

Water supply

Water supply to Lagos comes from surface and groundwater sources. Water losses caused by leaking and illegal use are considerable and due to this the water supply of the city is inadequate. It is estimated that only about 85 per cent of households in Lagos have access to safe water. In Lagos 12 percent of population use piped water, 33 per cent public taps, 35 per cent hand pumps, 11 percent ponds, 2 per cent wells, and 3 percent other sources. The distance to water source in

Lagos is for 11 per cent of the population more than one kilometer and for 89 per cent less than one kilometer. In Lagos male, female and children participate in fetching of the water (Unicef 1995, Aina 1994, Uduku 1994).

Demand of water

The demand of water in Lagos is much bigger than the supply. Many people use too small amount of water because they either do not have access to water or they have to carry it from far away. In the city only 216.000 cubic meters of treated water is available. The reliability and quality of water supply is often not adequate and sometimes inhabitants have to survive without water for couple of days. In this case residents have only two opportunities, buy water from vendors with very high price or steel it from neighbors well. Often the quality of water bought by vendors is insufficient and people get illnesses, like diarrhea from it. The price of the bought water from vendors in Lagos is normally 4 to 10 times higher than the water got from piped water supplies (Harday et.al.2001, Rinne 2001).

Wastewater treatment and sanitation

Wastewater treatment in Lagos is almost non-existing; only few per cents of it is treated. Also the sewage systems of the city are poor, the only conventional sewerage system is in the metropolitan area of Lagos, Victoria Island, which is the first commercial area in the city. Due to an inadequate sewerage, much of the excreta and sullage is disposed of by the drainage of rainwater through open ditches. During the dry season, when the flushing action of rainfall is not existing, drainage channels become blocked with solids, creating stagnant pond of contaminated water. Some people even use this water for household purposes (UN 1995).

About 94 percent of the population in Lagos have access to sanitary toilets, 56 per cent of population use sewage toilets, 33 percent of pit latrines and 4 septic tanks. The rest of the population uses pail, bush, river/stream or other kind of unconventional toilets. Likewise most of these sanitary toilets are water closets only by name. It is quite normal than water doesn't run in these toilets or water is wastewater from other households (FOS 1997, Aina 1994, Unicef 1995).

Water quality

Sources of pollution of the Lagos estuary includes breweries, food processing industries, chemical industries, solid wastes from houses, sawmills and domestic sewage. The estuary is a sink for disposal of liquid, solid and gaseous wastes for the entire city. Sawdust from the sawmills is very harmful because it causes silting, eutrophication, and harm the lives of fishes by clogging their gills. Contamination of groundwater in Lagos is sometimes evident due to flooding which carries sewage to the wells. Likewise seepage from industrial storage systems is normal. Contamination of pipe water sources in Lagos is also common. This is either result of inadequate functioning of treatment plants or lack of treatment. Contamination can also occur due to water tankers, through pipe or storage systems (Aina 1994). In piped water *Escherishia coli*, *Salmonella*, *Streptococcus* and *Bacillus* are normal contaminants. This indicates to faecal pollution of human and animal origin. This impurity leads to diarrhea, guinea worm, cholera and typhoid. Malaria, respiratory illnesses and measles are also normal diseases in the area. In general Lagosian people do not boil the water they drink, they either buy pure water from vendors or clear the water with aluminum. The visible clarity is more important to Lagosian than microbiological clearance. Filters are not often used (Rinne 2001, Aina 1994). Flooding

Flooding is a big problem in Lagos, even during the mild rainfalls streets are flooded and many times water rises to house levels. Intensity of rainfall in short period, in rainy season, leads to extremely high runoffs and floods. Lagos is partly extremely flat which makes the situation even worse and prevents the water discharge to the sea. Due to poor soil infiltration only a small proportion of rainwater seeps into the ground (Aina 1994).

Due to bad infrastructure planning, buildings often block natural watercourses and canals are too narrow to convey rainwater away from the area. Roads are often unpaved and the hard rain makes them muddy and bumpy. Inhabitants of the city wish to have expanded canals, paved roads and better drainage to prevent flooding of homes and other problems during the rains (Nwangwu 1998, Rinne 2001).

Environment

Lagos has often been referred to as the dirtiest, most disorganized, and the most unsafe megacity in the world. Lagos is seen as an intolerable place, which offers minimum resources for a healthy, safe, and productive life. The problems in the city are similar to all the other megacities; traffic jams make transportation inefficient, waste management is malfunctioning leaving tons of waste on the streets, water resources are overused or polluted and inadequate housing, as well as slums, are becoming reality for an increasing number of inhabitants. It has been estimated that the infrastructure of Lagos is able to fulfill the needs of 300.000 people, although the population nowadays is 14 million. Due to this it is clear that the infrastructure is not sufficient. (Kuvaja 2001).

Solid wastes

About 66 per cent of the solid wastes in Lagos area are disposed. Waste is either disposed through private or community efforts or left at various illegal dumps. The disposal is hardly ever done properly; garbage is being dumped in valleys or swamps or untreated industrial waste is dumped to public drains or surface water bodies. The solid waste problem is huge in Lagos with mountains of garbage and hardly bearable stench. The estimated amount of generated solid wastes is almost million tons per year (Aina 1994, Ogu 2000).

Housing

The lack of housing facilities in Lagos is enormous. Even the middle-income people have to live in very crowded accommodations. It is normal that the size of the family is five or more persons and they all live together in the small room, average on 4.30 m². Most of the houses are in poor conditions and the facilities in them are shared. The poor condition often includes lack of basic services, serious flooding and bad house conditions. Most of the people live in the compounds, face-to-face-facilities. Even in the better houses water often has to be carried from the backyard. Sewage systems are non-existing, only in some high-income areas sewage is served (Aina 1990).

Traffic

The traffic congestion is a fact of everyday life also in Lagos, where it takes almost three hours to travel a mere 10 to 20 kilometers. The motor vehicle fleet is very old and most of the cars are in bad shape. Even public transportation is quite comprehensive it is very overcrowded. Buses and taxis are both in poor condition and they pollute a lot. Traffic congestion is common in Lagos and because of high crime rate, robberies may occur during the peak period. The quality of air is bad due to traffic and industries like in any other mega-city (UN 1995, Rinne 2001).

Crime

Crime is common in Lagos, especially robberies. Due to violence in the area, robberies often end up to a murder. Police cannot do anything for the mushrooming criminality, so people have taken law in to their own hands and they do punish the criminals straight away. This has led to murders because robbers do not have anything to lose even they kill people or not. Robberies are normal in traffic and even inside houses (Rinne 2001).

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CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

In this study, we employed a case study research design. A case study research design is simply a qualitative technique that seeks to bring out the elements and characteristics of a phenomenon under study. Anikpo (1986) stated that it is concerned with collection of data for the purpose of describing, interpreting and explaining conditions in the prevailing practices, beliefs, attitudes, on-going processes and trends that are developing. Basically it is employed to enable us to carry out a critical study of local government and the challenges of community development in some selected Local Government Areas of Lagos State between 1999 – 2012. A Qualitative descriptive analysis and documentary methods were adopted for the study.

6.2 POPULATION FOR THE STUDY

The population for this study consisted of 1,661,110 people from the selected five local government areas and community-based agencies/organizations and institutions relevant to local government administration in Lagos State out of which it is estimated that fewer than 500,000 would be informed and experienced individuals. The table overleaf shows distribution of the population of the study.

Table A: Distribution of the Population for the Study.

S/N	Local Government Area	Populations
1	Epe	187,409
2	Ikorodu	535,619
3	Amuwo – Odofin	318,116
4	Lagos mainland	317,720
5	Ikeja	313,196
Total		1,661,110

Source: Census, 2006

6.3 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

Sample size consists of one hundred (100) people as representing cluster of groups selected out of the estimated fewer than 500,000 informed and experienced individuals in the selected five local government areas for the study through purposive or judgmental sampling technique. Twenty (20) people including traditional rulers, clan heads, local council officials, community based-organizations, men and women market leaders, religious leaders, professional groups such as NURTW, NULGE, NUT officials etc. Youth leaders, NGOs present, International organizations such as FADAMA project officials, Landlord Associations, Community Development Associations (CDAs), Community Resident Associations (CRAs) were selected from each of the selected five local government areas under the study. The five local Governments were based on the five administrative divisions of Lagos State. The local governments selected under each division was arrived at by simple random selection through balloting.(See Appendix V : Map of Lagos State Showing the Study Local Government Areas

(LGAs)) The table below illustrates the distribution of the sample selected based on the five divisions of Lagos State:

SHORT PROFILES OF THE RESPONDENTS

Nigerian Bar Association (NBA)

The Nigerian Bar Association (NBA) is a non-profit, umbrella professional association of all lawyers admitted to the Bar in Nigeria. It is engaged in the promotion and protection of human rights, the rule of law and good governance in Nigeria.

It has an observer status with the African Commission on Human and People's Rights, and a working partnership with many national and international non-governmental organizations concerned with human rights, the rule of law and good governance in Nigeria and in Africa.

Nigerian Medical Association (NMA)

The Nigeria Medical Association (NMA) is the largest professional organisation of physicians in Nigeria and in Africa. The NMA has more than 35,000 members from 36 state branches and the branch from the federal capital territory, including those registered in the diaspora. NMA's membership spans all six major specialties of Internal Medicine, Surgery, Obstetrics and Gynaecology, Paediatrics, Public Health and Laboratory Medicine/Pathology. The NMA was established in 1951 and is located in Abuja with over 30 branch offices throughout Nigeria.

National Association of Nigerian Students (NANS)

National Association of Nigerian students (NANS) is a body covering all higher institution in Nigeria, protecting the interest of all student before the institutions, government, stake holders and even other countries policies.

Civil Servant

A civil servant or public servant is a person in the public Sector employed for a government department or agency. The extent of civil servants of a state as part of the "Civil Service" varies from country to country. In the United Kingdom, for instance, only Crown employees are referred to as civil servants whereas county or city employees are not.

Motor Cyclist Association

This is an umbrella that comprises a collection of commercial motorcycle riders which serves as an avenue through which the riders present a common and united front against unfavourable government policies and also ensures the safety and protection of the motor cycle operators in the course of their operation through the encouragement and facilitation of their adherence to safety rules and policies that guides their operation.

Politician

Someone who is active in government, usually an elected official occupying a political position who can influence public opinions. He could also be a seeker or holder of public office who is more concerned about wining favour or retaining power than about maintaining principles. He seeks personal or partisan gain often by scheming and maneuvering. He is also someone who skilled or experienced in the science or administration of government.

The Nigeria Automobile Technicians Association (NATA)

The Nigeria Automobile Technicians Association (NATA) is a national professional body of the micro, small and medium scale auto-repairers in the informal economy. Members include artisans without formal schooling and technicians with average formal education and belong to such sub-trade groups like vulcanising, auto-electrical repairing, panel fixing, auto-body building, motor engine repairing and servicing, welding and iron bending, auto-spraying and other auto related works. It is registered with certificate number RC 4596 by the Federal Government through the Corporate Affairs Commission (CAC)

Traditional Rulers

Traditional rulers are rulers and leaders of independent states or communities and they often derive their titles from the recognition and acceptance of their rulership by the people of the local communities that existed before the formation of the modern state. Although they do not have formal political power, in many cases they continue to command respect from their people and have considerable influence.

Clan Heads

It should first be recognised that a clan or family is a recognised group, which has a corporate identity in the same way that a company, club or partnership has a corporate identity in law. A clan or family is a "noble incorporation" because it has an officially recognized chief or head who being a nobleman of confers his noble status on the clan or family.

Local Council Officials

Local government officers are responsible for assisting in the development of council policies and procedures and ensure they are put into practice, making sure that local services are delivered effectively.

Men and Women Market Leaders

It's a portfolio/post that provides a leader the ability and the power to be in charge of duties in the market square, they also are in position to promote the welfare of the people in the market based on their brands, products, which allows the market leader dominates its competitors, customer loyalty, distributions coverage, image, perceived value, price profit and promoting spending.

Religious Leaders

They are God fearing people who are recognized by a religious body, every religion in the world has individuals or group who are there to guide followers through trapping of faith. Their primary rules are similar performing the ceremonies that a particular religion requires, such as birth rituals, coming of age rituals, death rituals, and also keeping of religion traditions and they are also moral leaders and teachers of the word.

National Union of Road Transport Workers (NURTW)

It's a trade union affiliated with NLC Nigeria Labour Congress which is aimed at promoting the economic and welfare of its member, NURTW also promotes activities, that helps the members participate in program on road safety, immunizations, mass transit, implementation, HIV/AIDs

are currently implementation an on-going road accidents, a scheme that provides first aid for accident victims in times of accidents.

National Union of Local Government Employees (NULGE)

It's an umbrella organization championing the cause, welfare and interest of all employers employed in local government in Nigeria, it aims at organization of workers who are qualified for membership and establishment and maintain of just and proper hours of work, rates of payment. The aims are high standard of workmanship and professional practice, advancement of the education and training of members and employees of the local government, welfare of members.

Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT)

It's a trade union which was formed to create a united front for practitioners of the teaching profession within the country at large. And it major aim of the union is the improvement in economic condition of teachers, an avenue for bringing forth ideas about the educational development of the country from the perspective of teachers and general economic security for teachers in the country.

Youth Leaders

They are people that are active in youth field, which is a community support activity aimed at older children and adolescent depending upon the culture and the community which also exist for a purpose, a programmed designed for the purpose of aiding and enhancing the personal and social development of young persons through voluntary participation

FADAMA

It's a project that's based on irrigable lands that are usually low lying plains and building in the success of a community and also increases the incomes of users of rural land and water resources on a sustainable basis. It also increases income in fadama users, thereby reducing rural poverty, increasing food security, and contributing significantly to the achievement of a key millennium development goal (MDG) objectives.

Landlord Association

It's a non-profit organization that is aimed at helping landlords in a commercial way that is based on helping other landlords to make success of their lettings, by offering ongoing support to help secure people house for letting and also create an avenue to make progress around the constituency.

Community Development Association (CDAs)

Its an association that's is based on promoting active and enabling all community members to meaningfully influence the decision that affect the lives, they also learn and understand community issues, and economics, social, environment, political, psychological, and other impacts associated with alternatives courses of action, also they work actively to enhance the leadership capacity of the community members, leaders and group with the community.

Community Resident Association (CRAs)

It is a private, non profit organization that uses surplus revenue to achieve its goal rather than distrusting theme as a profit or dividends which are set by developers and paid for by contributions from residents of housing communities to provide them with public service by the

government to the people living or its jurisdiction, either directly or by financing private provision of services. Which are additionally provided by local governments/authorities.

Table B: Distribution According to Sample Across Each Division in Lagos.

S/N	Division	Local Government Area	Sample Size
1.	Epe	Epe	20
2.	Ikorodu	Ikorodu	20
3	Badagry	Amuwo-Odofin	20
4	Lagos	Lagos Mainland	20
5	Ikeja	Ikeja	20
Total			100

6.4 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Two(2) sources of data collection were employed in this study. They are secondary and primary sources. Whereas the secondary sources comprises data obtained at secondary level of research via, books, journal articles, policy documents and other published works, the primary source was undertaken by direct contact with the subject of study. Here, in-depth interviews were carried out and complemented with the Focused Group Discussion (FGD). It should be emphasized that information obtained from the secondary source after an extensive literature survey in chapter 2 was used as a basis for designing the interview guide.

In the exercise, six (6) research assistants were engaged for purposes of recording, and note-taking at each interview and Focus Group Discussion sessions (FGDs)

6.5 INSTRUMENTS FOR DATA COLLECTION

In-depth interviews and focus group discussions were used to elicit information from the respondents. In-depth interviewing is often described as unstructured interviewing. It is a type of interview which researchers use to elicit information in order to achieve a holistic understanding of the interviewee's point of view or situation; it can also be used to explore interesting areas for further investigations. A focus group, on the other hand, is defined as a group discussion session, or an in-depth chain in which a small number of people, usually six to twelve, under the control of a moderator, talk about topics that are of importance to the investigator (Isiugo-Abanihe, 1995). The focus groups were used for highlighting the range of opinions and ideas within the community in terms of beliefs, experiences, attitudes, practices, conceptions and misconceptions.

For the in-depth interview, an in-depth interview guide which is attached as appendix 1, was designed. It comprises of these sections. Section A seeks to identify the respondents with regards to his/her local government and community of domicile, Section B seeks to obtain information on the demography of the subject such as age, ethnic group, village etc. Section C is on substantial issues. Hence 29 questions on wide range of issues relating to the research question were asked.

While twenty interviews were conducted in each selected local government area and three focus group discussions were organised in each local government area selected. For the in-depth interview, an in-depth interview guide which is attached as appendix I, was designed. It compares of these sections. Section A seeks to identify the respondents with regards to his/her local government and community of domicile, Section B seeks to obtain information on the

demography of the subject such as age, ethnic group, village etc. Section C is on substantial issues. Hence 29 questions on wide range of issues relating to the research question were asked

6.5.1 Administration of Research Instrument

A total of 100 In-depth Interview (IdI) and fifteen (15) Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) conducted in five local government areas of Lagos State, namely: Amuwo-Odofin, Epe, Ikeja, Ikorodu and Mainland local government areas. The instrument was administered on representatives of various professional bodies that were interviewed in one local government area were also the same across other local government area that served as the study locations. Some of the professional bodies interviewed comprised of National Union of Local Government Employees (NULGE), National Union of Teachers (NUT), National Union of Road Transport Workers (NURTW), Community Development Committee (CDC), Local Government Chieftains, Heads of Clan, Youth Leaders, Religious Leaders and the General Public. Three out of all the bodies mentioned above were used as the FGD groups in all the five local government areas. These three are: Youth leaders, religious leaders and heads of clan. Three FGDs were conducted in each of the local government areas, one of each of the bodies selected. In all, a total of fifteen FGDs were conducted in the five local government areas used for the study.

Also, twenty In-depth Interviews were conducted in each of the five local government areas. For the six remaining bodies, three In-depth Interviews were conducted on each one of five bodies while the general public being the sixth body had five interviews. This is not unconnected to the fact that the general public are more populated than the other bodies.

The administration of research instrument started and ended within the time space of eighteen days, with the assistance of five research assistants (RAs) and two supervisors. That is, there is disparity in the days spent on each of the five local government areas.

Limitation of the Study

There is no doubt, a study of this nature and magnitude will always have its inadequacy, which in any case, limits the scope of the study, as well as slows the time space or duration within which the study has been slated to end. Also for this study, problems were encountered which demanded urgent resolution for the study to continue. Thus, it is believed that highlighting these problems would be of immense benefit to potential researchers who may want to dwell in the area of local government and community development.

The very first problem encountered on the field was that of the refusal of some of the respondents to speak. Even some of them that out rightly agreed to speak refused speaking through the tape-recorder (it took the team of our well trained research assistants, as well as the supervisors to convince the respondents that the purpose of the study was strictly academic. However, the resolution of this problem was not without its spill-over effect, because of the serious delay in the space of time originally planned for the completion of the study as some of these respondents were initially left only for our research assistants to go back to persuade them the more. This, however, made our team of research assistants to dwell in one local government area for more days than necessary, as uniform days had been planned for the five local government areas.

Another, problem encountered was that of finance. This is because the incidence of the extra days spent on the field caused huge financial problem, as it was not the budget originally planned

that was eventually executed. This is as a result of the additional transportation cost, to and from these local government areas, since the days planned for were increased eventually. Also, on the part of the research assistants and supervisors alike, there was additional money added to their honourarium, as a result of the additional days added.

Lastly, time factor could also be said to be a problem. Because, were it not for the delay caused by some of the respondents, which eventually led to extra days being added, the out-come of study would have been turned out before now. Moreover, the time available for the completion of the study was also a limitation to the study, as the scope of the study would have been made wider, given enough time.

6.6 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENTS

To increase the reliability and validity of the content analysis instruments, the interview question guide was pilot-tested to twenty people in Somolu Local Council Development Area of Lagos state. All the information gathered was recorded, transcribed and coded. Two other coders were engaged using the same procedure and conceptualization to code and compare with those of the researcher. The outcome revealed that the interview question guide is highly reliable and valid.

6.7 DATA ANALYSIS METHOD

Information generated through recording and note-taking at interviews and focus groups discussions session were transcribed, coded and content-analyzed. For easy analysis, simple percentages were used to arrange the data collected for the study. The main concepts or themes elicited from the content analysis were matched with similar concepts or themes that were coded and categorized in a systematic and replicable manner.

The data gathered from both documentary/library researches, the in-depth interviews and focus group discussions were analyzed qualitatively. In analyzing the data, different questions were treated under the relevant research questionnaire and the similarities and differences were brought out.

Focus groups solicit input from community members on broad, open-ended questions such as:

- What do you like about your community?
- What concerns you within your community?
- How would you improve your community?
- What changes do you foresee/fear/want to see in your community within the next 10 years?

Questions such as these can help target potential strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and needs for change or growth. With the targeted objectives discovered in the focus group, the community needs assessment survey can be created and dispersed.

Leaders of the community needs assessment can then summarize the data through computer analysis programs such as Access or SPSS. The results are then brought to the community through a public forum.

Public forums are the place where the information collected through the survey, the identified strengths, weaknesses, and concerns of the community are presented for open public discussion.

Finally, the results of the focus groups, survey, and public forum present a direction which the final report can detail. Action groups are formed and solutions and guidelines are enacted to ensure the changes desired are realized.

For the purpose of the study, fifteen (15) Focused Group Discussions (FGDs) were conducted in the study areas. These include Ikorodu, Epe, Ikeja, Amuwo-Odofin and Mainland. Three separate groups consisting, at least, 8 to 10 participants were selected from members of the community. The groups were divided into adult males, females and young adults in the community. The groups were made up of both Muslims and Christians. Majority of the participants in the adult male and female group were traders, retiree, and civil servants. The ages of the adult male and female group were 40 and above. The youths were students, graduates and few who were yet to be gainfully employed. The ages of the youths ranged from 18 years to 30.

For the selection of FGDs participants, the CDA chairman from the local government helped in getting vibrant community members out of which some are executive members in their communities. Yoruba, Nigeria Pidgin and English languages were used in conducting the Focus Group Discussion (FGDs) among the participants. Notes were taken at each of the sessions by the note taker. It allowed participants to discuss and express freely their opinions and understanding of the subject matter since they were told that there were no wrong or right answers.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

7.0 INTRODUCTION

The views expressed on a specific issue are presented in the findings below.

Assumptions

1. It is assumed in the study that frequency counts with which an attribute appears in the content analysis is a valid indicator of its importance or intensity.
2. It is also assumed that each unit of content concepts or themes should be given equal weight with every other unit, permitting aggregation or direct comparison.

Result:

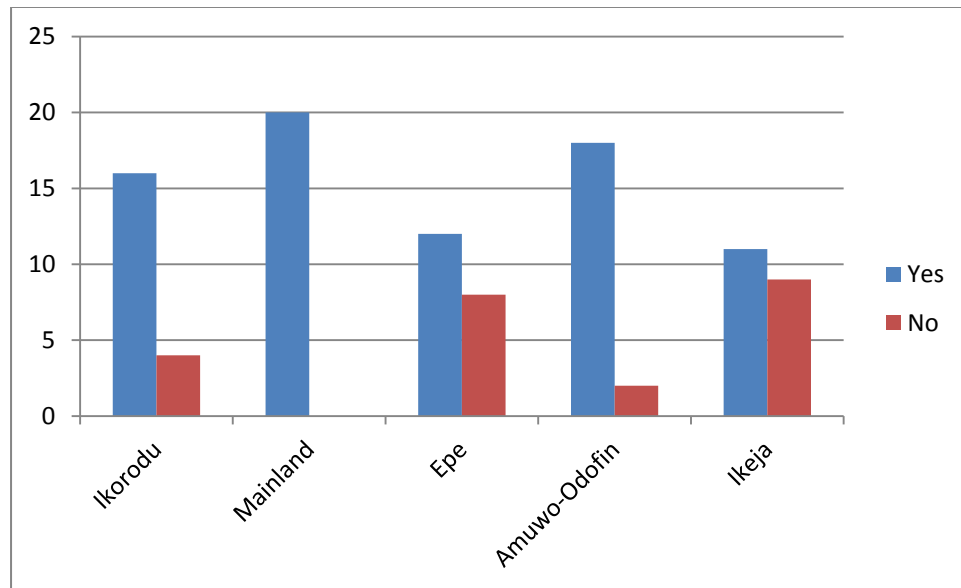
The result of documentary, interview, and focus group discussions (FGD) are presented in line with the research questions.

7.1 CONTENT ANALYSIS

Table 1: Effectiveness of Local Government in provision of infrastructure (employment, skill acquisition, healthcare delivery, education, security, portable water, and recreation centres etc)

LGA	Yes	%	No	%	Total no of interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	16	80	4	20	20	100
Mainland	20	100	-	-	20	100
Epe	12	60	8	40	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	18	90	2	10	20	100
Ikeja	11	55	9	45	20	100
total	77	77%	23	23%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



As presented in the table above, in all the LGs, sampled, over 70% of all the IDI(interview) respondents acknowledged that the local government (LGA) was effective in community development. This was the response most especially in mainland LGA, where 100% is recorded of the total interviews conducted in the LGA. Amuwo-Odofin and Ikorodu LGAs recorded 90% and 80% respectively while Epe recorded 60% of the total interviews conducted in the LGA. However, it is important note that the proportion of respondents that acknowledged the effectiveness of government (LGA) in their community development is over 55% in Ikeja, compared to other LGAs. This is an indication that their perception or thinking about the effectiveness of local governments in community development is low. A statement that backs this assertion is the one made by a female youth leader in Ikeja LGA: “The local government of Ikeja has not been functioning in the realization of specific indicators of development in the communities”.

Also, a statement made by the chairman of a community in Ikeja LGA stated that

The local government is trying, but much has not been done in the area of health care delivery, education, primary school especially. We do not also have enough secondary schools in this community. Also, we do not have fields for agriculture within Ikeja local government. Food is important and this will also provide job for the youths.

Meanwhile in the statement of a male 70 year-old Chairman Landlord Association in Amuwo-Odofin LGA who is also the chairman of a landlord association: “The existence of LGA facilitates close contact between government and the grassroots people, most especially in the area of sanitation. The community and LGA monitor the sanitation activities every month in every community”

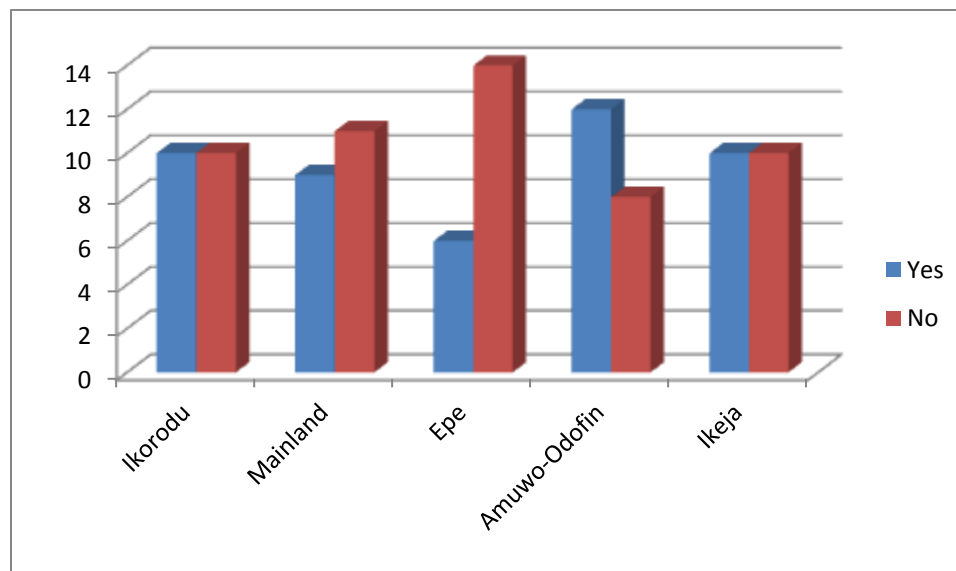
A youth leader in Amuwo-Odofin also stated that: “The LGA meet with CDA leaders and youth leaders to deliberate, on one-on-one basis, the needs and requests of the people in the community. Indeed, the LGA tried in terms of health care services and sports”.

All in all going by the table (1) above, based on the responses of the overwhelming majority, the conclusion that would be reached here is that the LGA is effective in community development, even though this assertion is of different proportions in local government areas where the interviews were conducted. However, the importance of this table is seen in its revelation that the perceptions of people being not on the same in proportion is an indication of the fact that some local government areas are working more assiduously to impact development in their various communities than the others. The table also addresses one of the fundamental objectives of the study which is to determine the effectiveness of local governments in provision of specific indicators of community development.

Table 2: Ability of Local government to meet with indices of community development (employment, skill acquisition, healthcare delivery, education, security, portable water, and recreation centres etc)

LGA	Yes	%	No	%	Total no of interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	10	50	10	50	20	100
Mainland	9	45	11	55	20	100
Epe	6	30	14	70	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	12	60	8	40	20	100
Ikeja	10	50	10	50	20	100
Total	47	47%	53	53%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



The interpretation of the table above shows that over 50% of the respondents for the IDI acknowledged that the local government has not met with the indices of community development. The table indicates that, of those that said local government is yet to meet with the indices of development, Epe LGA recorded 70%, Mainland 55%, Amuwo 40% and Ikorodu and

Ikeja recorded 50% respectively. It is clearly indicated in the table that Epe LGA has recorded more failures in meeting with indices of community development than the other LGAs. This is instructive of the activities of the local government authority towards community development.

A statement by a 45 year-old female Civil Servant in Epe LGA confirms this: “they have done nothing except for the jobs done by the Jakande administration”.

To buttress this assertion, the statement an official of the Nigeria Medical Association (NMA) in one of the communities in Epe is given as follows: “I would not say yes because most of the chairmen are there just for themselves and not for the people. They are not living up to expectations, with over 75% of the projects not being done”

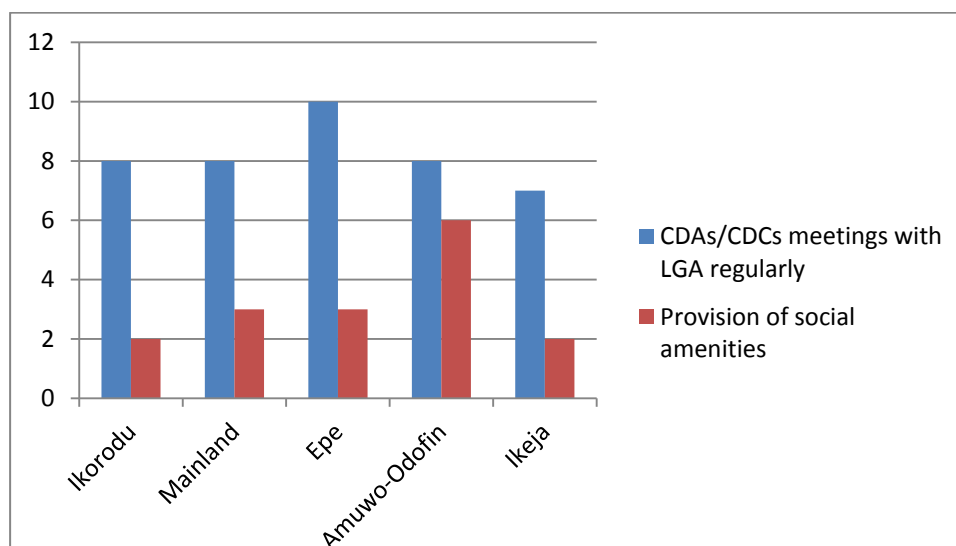
However, in Amuwo-Odofin, majority of the respondents claimed that the local government has met with the indices of community development. This is indicated by 60% of the respondents of the total number of interviews conducted in the LGA. A statement made by a member of the Community Resident Association (CRA) in Amuwo-Odofin LGA confirms the assertion above: “though they have not met with all indicators, but averagely they are doing their best, compared to the former government”.

The table above, in its analysis, indicates that the local governments (LGAs) have not met with the indices of development in their various communities. The conclusion is subject to the responses of majority of the respondents. However, there is a need to state here that the table is supposed to confirm the effectiveness of local government towards the provisions of the specific indicators of community development.

Table 3: Administrative strategies adopted in community development

LGA	CDAs/CDCs meetings with LGA regularly	%	Provision of social amenities	%	No strategies	%	No of interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	8	40	2	10	10	50	20	100
Mainland	8	40	3	15	9	45	20	100
Epe	10	50	3	15	7	35	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	8	40	6	30	6	30	20	100
Ikeja	7	35	2	10	11	55	20	100
Total	41	41%	16	16%	43	43%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



As presented in the table above, the responses of the respondents show that 43% acknowledged that the local government does not have any administrative strategy being used to ensure development within the community while the respondents who acknowledged that the administrative strategy in use by the local government is by a regular meeting with the CDAs and CDCs, organized by the local government while those who said there are strategies used in provision of social amenities which satisfy people's wants constitute 16%. Once again, Ikeja is

noted as constituting the highest respondents of those that said there was no strategy in place with 55% of the total interviews conducted in the LGA (Ikeja).

Again, it is obvious that local government impact is not felt adequately in Ikeja. A member Nigerian Bar Association (NBA) in Ikeja asserted in his statement as follows: “There has not been any strategy being used by the local government aimed at community development”.

In contrary, the respondents that acknowledged that there were strategies used constitute overall majority. That is, those that acknowledged regular meetings with the CDAs and CDCs and those that acknowledged provision of social amenities constitute 57% of the entire respondents. While Amuwo-Odofin is noted to have second highest number of respondents among those that acknowledged regular meeting with the CDAs and CDCs, it constitutes the highest among those that acknowledged provision of social amenities. This indicates that in community development, Amuwo-Odofin LGA is in top-gear.

A 22 year-old female undergraduate in Amuwo-Odofin states as follows: “The major strategy in use by Amuwo-Odofin Local Government to ensure the development of its various communities has been through the CDCs and CDAs members and executive”.

Also, a youth leader (female) in one of the communities responded that: “Cooperation and communication between the (LGA) and CDC, CDA and youth leaders has been the major strategy used by the local government to drive the process of community development in our area”.

In conclusion, the overall assessment and analysis of table (2) above can be interpreted to mean that all the local government authorities have one form of administrative strategies or another

being used to ensure adequate development within the various communities, but the method and application vary from one local government to the other.

The table also addresses the second objective of the study which is to examine the contributions of local government administrative strategies towards community development.

Table 4: Augmentation of CDAs on CDCs in Local Government Effect

LGA	Passing information across to LGA	%	Self-sponsored projects	%	No of interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	17	85	3	15	20	100
Mainland	19	95	1	5	20	100
Epe	18	90	2	10	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	13	65	7	35	20	100
Ikeja	14	70	6	30	20	100
Total	81	81%	19	19%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

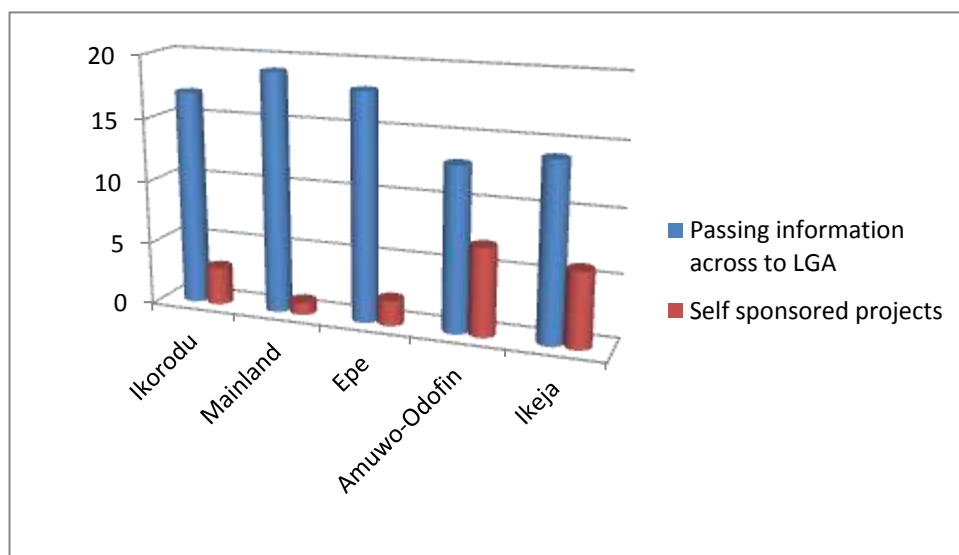


Table (4) above sought to know the distribution of the respondents based on their opinion on ways through which the CDAs and CDCs have helped the efforts of the local government in ensuring community development. The outcome of the table shows that 80% of the respondents acknowledged that the CDAs and CDCs have helped the efforts of local government authorities by a way of passing information across to the local governments on the needs of the various communities. On the other hand, 19% of the respondents acknowledged self-sponsored projects. That is, they emphasized that the CDAs and CDCs taxed themselves in order to get some projects completed. It is observed that the highest number of respondents from the group is from Amuwo-Odofin LGA. The logical interpretation that can be given to this activities of the CDAs and CDCs of the local government, is that, they are being proactive in developmental issues by encouraging themselves.

A statement by a 27 year-old NURTW official goes: “the CDAs and CDCs tax themselves by ensuring the proper monitoring of all projects, especially the monthly environmental sanitation” The activities of the CDAs and CDCs in the statement above are more of complementing the efforts of local government than entrusting the entire task to them.

Also, Mainland Local Government Area recorded the highest number of respondents among those that said the CDAs/CDCs pass information across to the LGA with 99% of the total interviews conducted in the area. A statement by a 53 year-old NULGE official in Mainland LGA is made thus: “Yes we have CDAs here and they are very effective in doing their duties by helping to ensure that all the dirt and filth are adequately packed and taken away by the mobile bin.

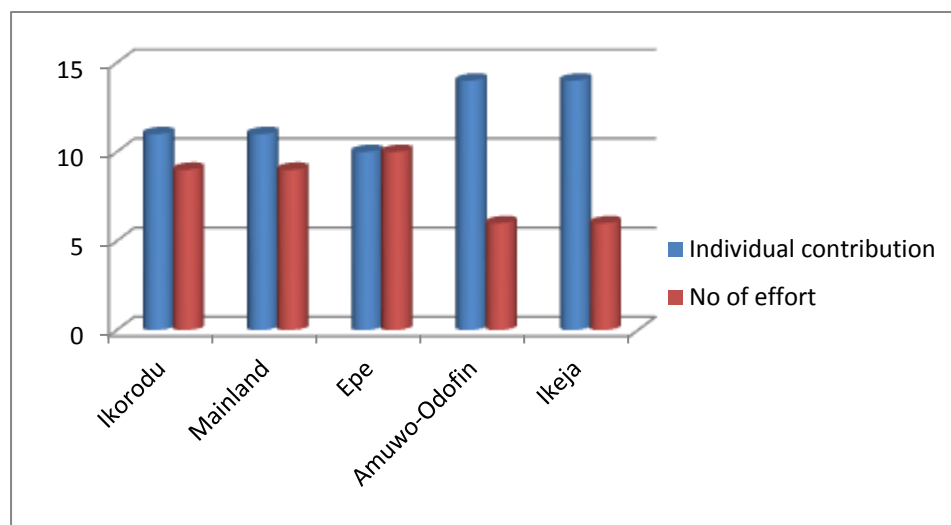
As revealed by the table above, the conclusion that can be drawn is that the CDAs and CDCs have participated effectively in the efforts of local government to ensure community development either by passing information across to LGA on the needs of the communities or by embarking on self-sponsored projects.

The table also complements the second objective of this research regarding the strategies being used by LGA to ensure development within the community.

Table 5: Contribution of individuals to Community Development

LGA	Individual contribution	%	No of effort	%	Total no of interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	11	55	9	45	20	100
Mainland	11	55	9	45	20	100
Epe	10	50	10	50	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	14	70	6	30	20	100
Ikeja	14	70	6	30	20	100
total	60	60%	40	40%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



The table(5) above reveals the distribution of respondents based on efforts made by community members towards the development of the communities in the LGAs. The respondents that said the community members made individual contributions constitute 60% while those that said that community members did not make any effort constitute 40%. Among the respondents that acknowledged individual contributions, Amuwo-Odofin and Ikeja LGAs constitute 70% each while Ikorodu and mainland LGAs constitute 55% each, with Epe LGA constituting 50%. The statement of a female community leader goes thus: “The youths of Amuwo-Odofin have helped in the maintenance of the facilities provided and, if there are any damage, we notify the CDAs and they tell the local government when and what to do”.

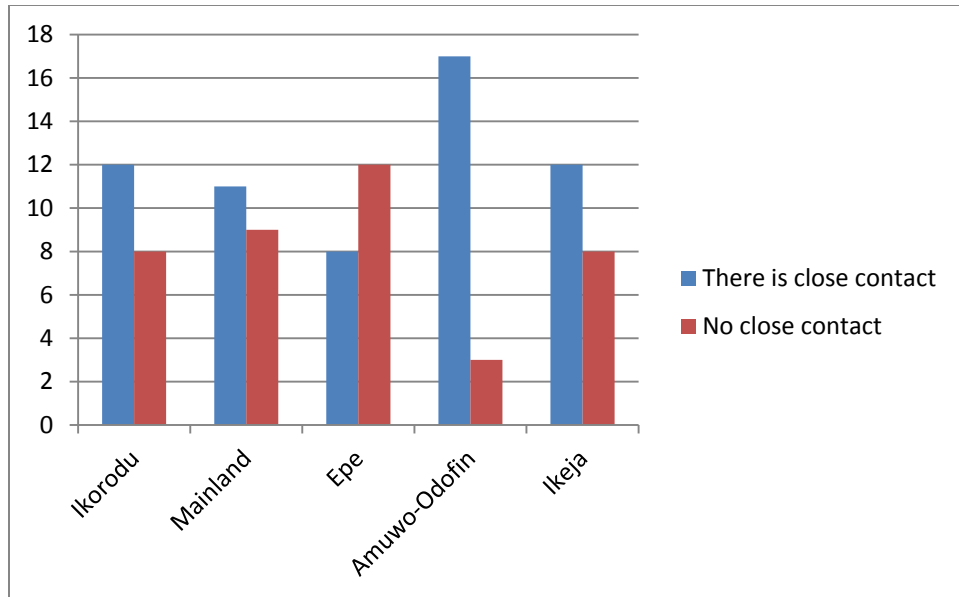
Contrary to this, a statement by a 43 year-old religious leader goes thus: “there has not been personal efforts by community members, but all ideas are being passed across to the LGA”.

The conclusion from table (5) above, based on responses of majority of the respondents, is that the community members also complement the efforts of their local governments by contributing their individual effort towards ensuring community development. Also, it can be observed that this effort is more in one LGA than the other.

Table 6: Maintenance of close contact by LGAs with the Community members

LGA	There is close contact	%	No close contact	%	No of interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	12	60	8	40	20	100
Mainland	11	55	9	45	20	100
Epe	8	40	12	60	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	17	85	3	15	20	100
Ikeja	12	60	8	40	20	100
total	60	60%	40	40%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



As presented in the table above, in all the LGA samples, on whether local government facilitates close contact with community members, 60% of the respondents acknowledged that LGA facilitates close contact with community members as in Amuwo-Odofin with 85%, Ikorodu and Ikeja 60% each, mainland 55% and Epe LGAs 40%. This brings us to the observation that the proportion of the respondents that affirmed this is low in Epe LGA, compared to other LGAs. This is an indication that there is low rate of close contact being facilitated between the LGA and community members in Epe.

In the statement of a 48year old traditional ruler in Epe LGA: “They may be doing it elsewhere, but in this local government, I doubt it”.

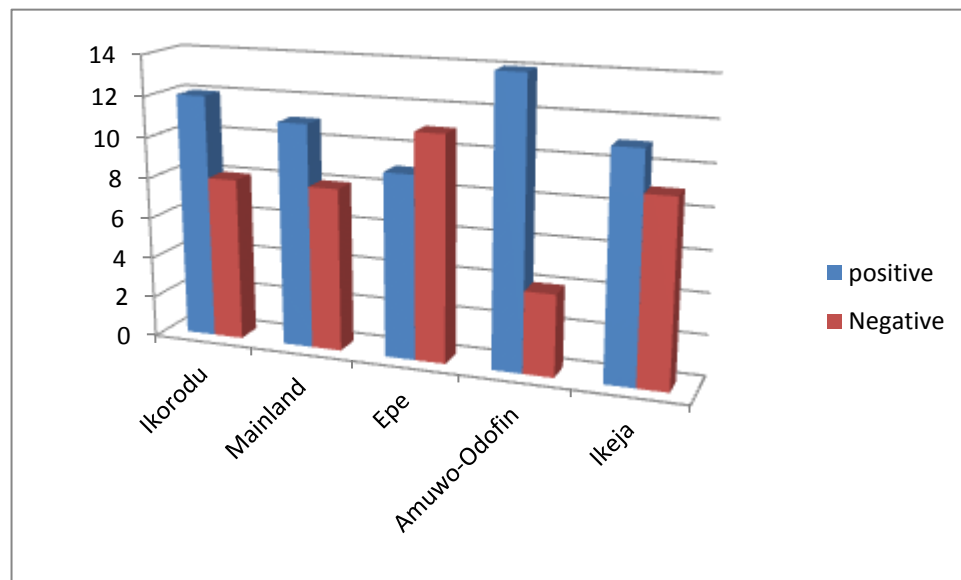
A youth leader (male) in Epe LGA stated something similar thus: “actually the local government is to facilitate close contact, but as it is, most chairmen are not living up to their responsibility”.

The interpretation of table 6 above can be summarized to mean that LGAs facilitate close contact with the community people. However, the proportion of the closeness defers.

Table 7: Assessment of local government administrative efforts

LGA	positive	%	Negative	%	Total no of interviews	percentage
Ikorodu	12	60	8	40	20	100
Mainland	11	60	8	40	20	100
Epe	9	45	11	55	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	14	80	4	20	20	100
Ikeja	11	55	9	45	20	100
Total	60	60%	40	40%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



The outcome of table (7) above shows that six of the respondents acknowledged that the assessment of local government administrative effort is positive. That is, the local government administrative effort is good in terms of good service delivery, which entails provision of social amenities and creation of conducive environment for the community. It is worthy of note also that of the respondents that acknowledged that the administrative efforts of the local government is positive, Amuwo-Odofin recorded 80%, Ikorodu and mainland LGAs 60% each, Ikeja LGA

recorded 55% and Epe LGA 45%. This is an indication that while the administrative efforts of local government is high in Amuwo-Odofin LGA, it is low in Epe LGA. Scoring the LGA by percentage, respondents scored Epe LGA as low as 10%, 25%, 30%, 35% etc. In the opinion of a 48 year old traditional leader in Epe LGA, “they have underperformed”.

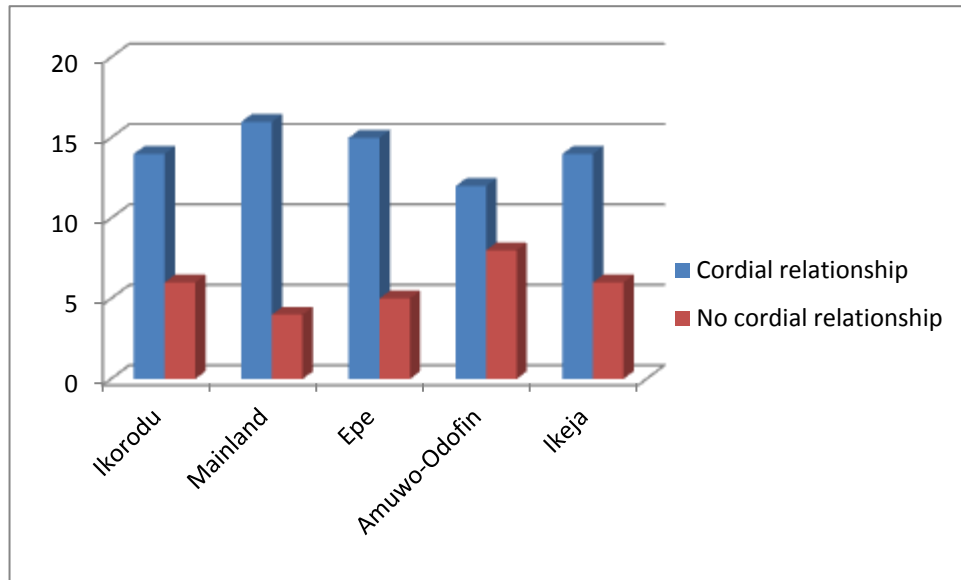
Contrary to this, in Amuwo-Odofin LGA, the scoring of the assessment, based on percentage, has been as high as 65%, 75%, 90% and 99% while the legal adviser to the chairman of Amuwo-Odofin LGA commented thus: “Amuwo-Odofin LGA just received a merit award from the Lagos State Government of 100% in each category of the best LGA in environment and health care delivery”.

In conclusion, it is obvious that the assessment of the administrative efforts of some LGAs is higher than the others and that those LGAs with higher administrative efforts are more than the ones with lower or average administrative efforts, by the assessment of the respondents. Also, the table is in line with the objective number 2 of the study which is to assess the contributions of local government administrative strategies to community development.

Table 8: Inter-governmental Relationship between LGs and State Government

LGA	Cordial relationship	%	No cordial relationship	%	Total no of interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	14	70	6	30	20	100
Mainland	16	80	4	20	20	100
Epe	15	75	5	25	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	12	60	8	40	20	100
Ikeja	14	70	6	30	20	100
total	71	71%	29	29%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



The interpretation of table (8) above can be given as 71% of the respondents acknowledged that there is cordial relationship between the local government and State government. This is an overwhelming majority as opposed to the 29% recorded for the respondents who demean the relationship existing between the LGA and the State Government. Of the respondents that acknowledged cordial relationship, Mainland LGA recorded the highest (80%). Epe 75%, Ikorodu and Ikeja 70% each and Amuwo-Odofin LGA recorded 60% of the total interviews conducted in each of the LGAs.

In the statement of the chairman CDA Amuwo-Odofin LGA: “the local government has enjoyed cordial relationship and adequate support, in the areas of security, roads and transportation.

Also, a 45year-old official of the Nigeria Automobile Technicians Association (NATA) in Ikorodu affirmed that: “Part of what we can see is in the aspect of education, by giving free exercise books and subsidizing school fees”.

In contrary, some of the IDI respondents noted that there was no cordial relationship between the LGAs and the State Government. For example, a clan head (male) in Amuwo-Odofin LGA

stated thus: “I think Amuwo-Odofin is not enjoying cordial relationship and adequate support of the State Government. As you can see, the roads are bad, and no availability of portable water”.

The conclusion of the table (8) above is that there exists cordial relationship between the LGAs and State Government. This analysis is based on the overwhelming majority of the IDI respondents acknowledging to the fact that there was cordial and adequate relationship and that this relationship perhaps yielded a lot of benefits for the LGAs in terms of roads repairs, education, health care delivery etc. It is also noteworthy that the table above also addresses one of the fundamental objectives of this study, which is to determine the effect of intergovernmental relations on local government efforts in community development.

Table 9: Support for Community Development

LGA	Financial and technical support	%	No support	%	Total no of interview	Total percentage
Ikorodu	19	85	9	45	20	100
Mainland	16	80	4	20	20	100
Epe	15	75	5	25	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	1260	8	40		20	100
Ikeja	12	60	8	40	20	100
total	66	66%	34	34%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

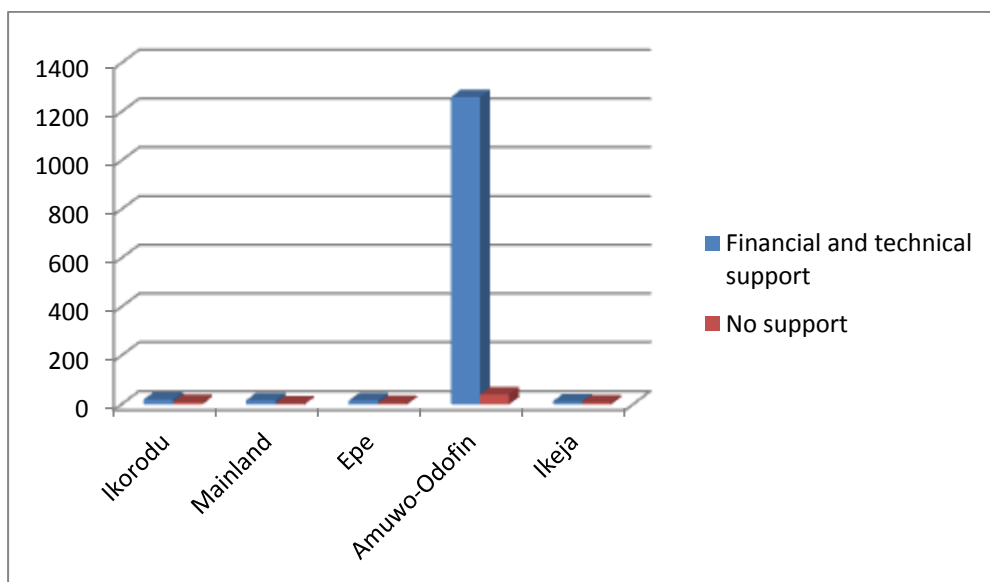


Table (9) above presents the responses of the IDI respondents on the nature of support the local governments enjoy from the State Government and its impact on community development. An overwhelming majority of the respondents (66%) acknowledged that the LGAs enjoyed financial and technical support from the State Government. Of this figure, Mainland LGA constitutes 80% of the total number of interviews, with Epe constituting 75%, Amuwo-Odofin and Ikeja LGAs 60% each and Ikorodu LGA constituting 55% of the total number of interview conducted in the LGAs. An observation that is worthy of note is the percentage recorded in Ikorodu.

Though, the percentage is above 50% but lower than those of other LGAs and the reasons that can be deduced for this is not other than the respondents acknowledging that there was not much support enjoyed by the LGA.

In a statement of a 70year old traditional leader in Ikorodu LGA: “On that issue (nature of support), they (LGA) are the only ones that knows if they are given support and whether they are using it to transform the community”.

Also, a youth leader in Ikorodu LGA commented thus: “The only support the LGA or community enjoys is through waste collection”. Statement of an executive in the CDCs in Mainland LGA was that: “actually, when the local government is incapacitated, they meet with the State Government and they come to their aid through the CDAs/CDCs”.

Also, an official Motor Cyclist Association (MCA) popularly called “Okada” in local parlance in Ikorodu LGA stated that: “They are supported through primary health care and, primary school that are being provided by the State Government”.

It has been explicitly shown in the (9) above that the responses of majority of the respondents is that the LGAs enjoy support from the State Government and that the impact of such support on community development has been enormous. The table also complements the objective (3) of the research that seeks to determine the effects of intergovernmental relations on local governments.

Table 10: Participant of Community in LGA Policy Making Procedure

LGA	carried	%	Not carried along	%	Total no of interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	12	60	8	40	20	100
Mainland	11	55	9	45	20	100
Epe	9	45	11	55	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	18	90	2	10	20	100
Ikeja	15	75	5	25	20	100
total	65	65%	35	35%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

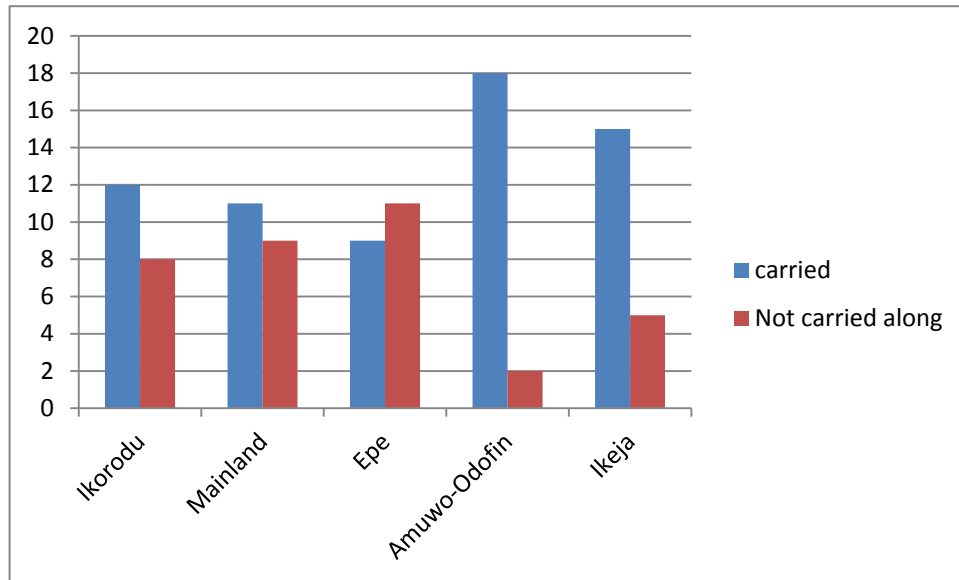


Table (10) above is the distribution of the opinions of the respondents in the IDI interviews conducted in the five LGAs. The outcome of their responses shows that over 60% of the respondents acknowledged that the community members are carried along in policy making, most especially in Amuwo-Odofin (90%) and Ikeja (75%). Also, it is of great importance to note that the proportion or percentage of respondents that stated this is low in Epe LGA(45%). The indication of this is that the rate at which community members are carried along in policy making in Epe LGA is low, compared to other LGAs. An inherent implication of this could result into a lot of abandoned projects within the LGA, since most of the time, community members are not carried along in the LGAs policy making.

A 58year-old (male) CDA chairman in Epe LGA affirmed that: “So far, this local government has not done that”.

Supporting the statement above is the statement of a 70year old land lord (male) in one of the communities in Epe: “It is only during election period or when they want to read budget that they invite only important personalities”.

Contrast, the opinion of one of the respondents in support of the LGA carrying members of the community along in policy making, a 70 year-old male Civil Servant retired male, who was also the chairman, Landlord Association in Amuwo-Odofin LGA was positive:

Yes, to some extent the members of Amuwo-Odofin communities are carried along in policy making. The local government has monthly meeting with community development council where they express their challenges progress and intensions.

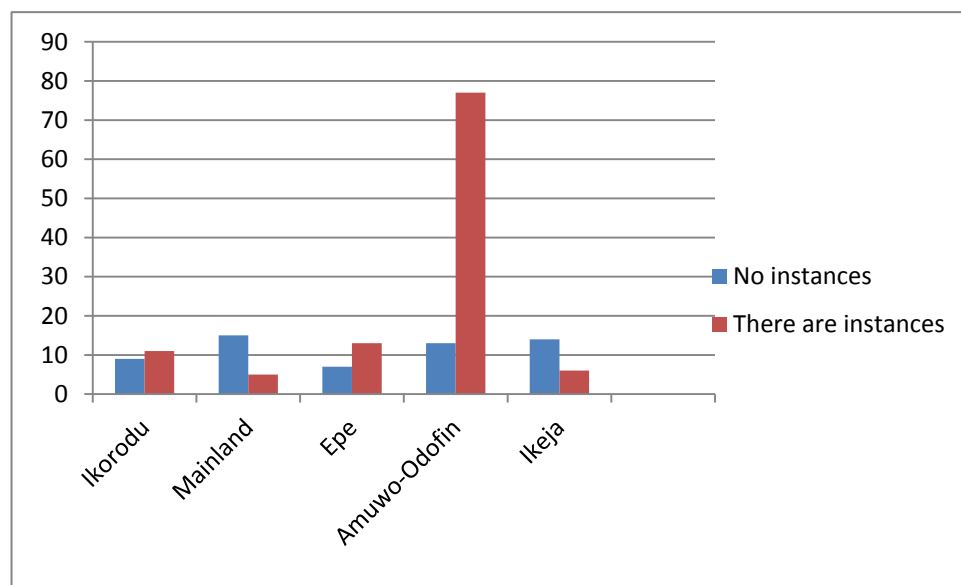
In similarly, the statement from a 26year old (male) youth corps member was also positive: “Yes, Amuwo Odofin Local Government do carry the community members along, hence most of the youth members of the local government area are cooperating with the council in all necessary respects”.

The general conclusion that may be reached here is that LGAs does carry along their community members in policy making, but proportionaly varies in all the LGAs. The outcome of which might result in lots of abandoned projects in the LGAs, since the members who would be making use of those projects were not consulted before implementing the projects.

Table 11: Cases of ineffective project execution

LGA	No instances	%	There are instances	%	Total no of interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	9	45	11	55	20	100
Mainland	15	75	5	25	20	100
Epe	7	35	13	65	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	13	65	77	35	20	100
Ikeja	14	70	6	30	20	100
total	58	58%	42	42%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



In table (11) above is the distribution of respondents' responses on whether there are instances where projects executed by LGAs did not serve the need of the community people. Over 55% of the respondents acknowledged that there was no instance where a project turned out to be abandoned as a result of not serving the need of the community people. Of this figure (percentage), Mainland and Epe LGAs are close to. While Mainland LGA recorded 75% of the

total interviews in their LGA, Ikorodu is another local government area where higher percentage of respondents acknowledged that there were instances of abandoned projects, due to inadequate planning and lack of consultation with the people of the community on their needs. This is constituted by 55% of the total interviews conducted in the LGA.

As it can be observed, there are no clear cut disparity between the overall percentage of the respondents who acknowledged that there were no abandoned projects (58%) and those who said there were instances of abandoned projects within the LGAs, but by virtue of higher proportion the conclusion from table (11) above is that there are fewer abandoned projects in the LGAs.

A 57 year-old market leader (female) in Ikorodu commented thus: “Yes, there are abandoned projects, there was a culvert that was done for over 10 years and they demolished it and the new one done has been a cause of problem during flooding”.

The activities of Mainland LGA was however supported by some of the respondents who said the LGA does not have any records of executing projects that later turned out to be abandoned.

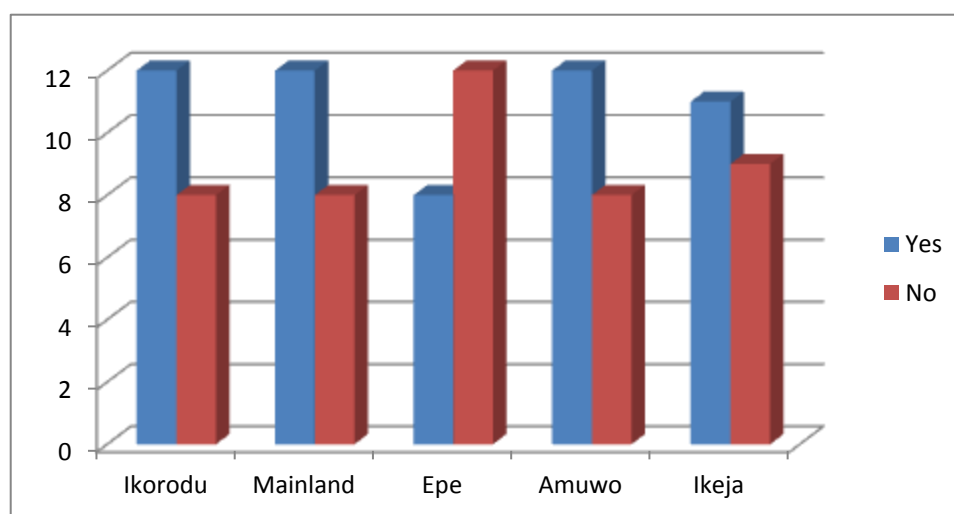
A 29year-old youth leader/CDA member in Mainland LGA said: “Presently there are no abandoned or useless projects in the community”.

Also, a 55year old NULGE member/ community executive (CDA) in Mainland LGA states that: “There is none because, before a project is carried out, the LGA asked community members to tell them their needs and it is implemented”.

Table 12: Efforts of local government towards mobilizing community members' zeal in development

LGAs	Yes	%	No	%	Number of interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	12	60	8	40	20	100
Mainland	12	60	8	40	20	100
Epe	8	40	12	60	20	100
Amuwo	12	60	8	40	20	100
Ikeja	11	55	9	45	20	100
Total	55	55%	45	45%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



Talking about development of the common types, it is important to know the efforts being made by the LGA towards developing the community. Thus, table (12) above addresses the outcomes of the respondents' responses on the efforts of local government towards mobilizing community members' zeal (interest) in development. Over 50% of the respondents acknowledged that the local government mobilized by a way of creating better and conducive environment through the

participation of the youth in all developmental activities within the local government through skills acquisition, regular meetings with other bodies and by organizing the people generally. Of the proportion that said this, Epe LGA is noted as having the least number of respondents (40%), of the total interviews conducted in the local government. This may point to an indication that community members were not encouraged or carried along in any developmental programme, a situation that could cause neglect of the local government activities by the community members.

This fact is expressed by a 36year-old market executive (male) in Epe LGA: “There is nothing like mobilizing people for development in our area, not even for educational purposes”.

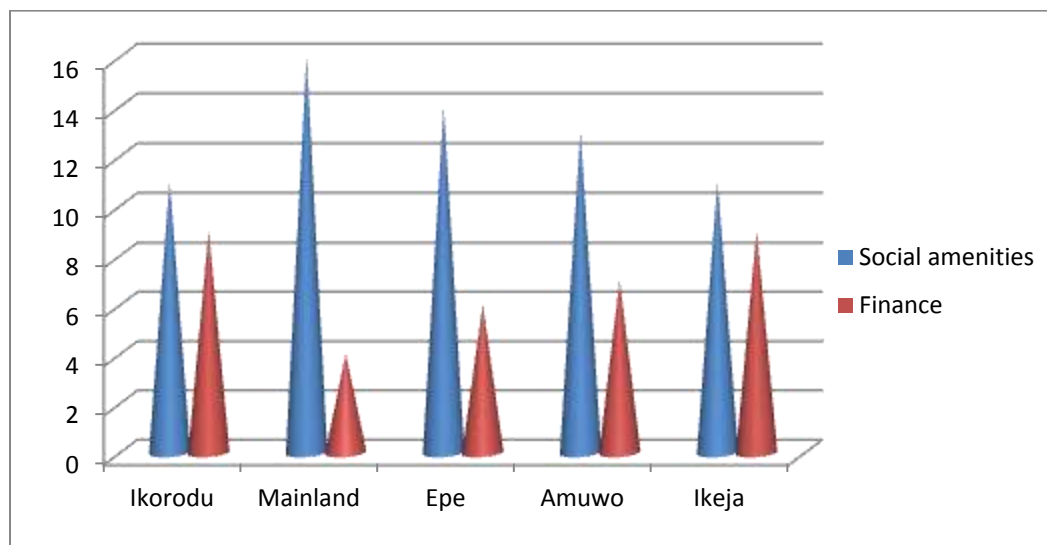
The statement made by the Chief Imam of Epe town, a 45 year old male is similar to that: “They mobilize or encourage community members only during environmental sanitation”.

In conclusion, the table acknowledged that LGAs mobilize community members’ zeal towards development. This is based on the proportion of the number of respondents that acknowledged this fact, even though it could be said that some local government areas’ activities towards mobilizing their community members are low.

Table 13: Area desirous of State intervention

LGAs	Social amenities	%	Finance	%	Total of no Interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	11	55	9	45	20	100
Mainland	16	80	4	20	20	100
Epe	14	70	6	30	20	100
Amuwo	13	65	7	35	20	100
Ikeja	11	55	9	45	20	100
Total	65	65%	35	100%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



In table (13) above, the distribution of the respondents based on their opinions on the problem areas of the local government that demand the intervention of the State or other bodies is shown. Over 60% of the respondents acknowledged that social amenities, in terms of portable water, health care delivery, development of markets and the rest were the problem areas of the LGAs. Of note are Mainland and Epe LGAs that recorded 80% and 70% respectively among the respondents in the total interviews. Implication of this is that the extent to which the community people (respondents) demanded for social amenities signifies the ineptitude of the local government areas. That is, the lesser the presence of adequate social amenities in the community the higher the demand for them.

A 52 year-old FADAMA official, who was also a member of CDA in Mainland LGA stated that: “The problem area is portable water, employment is another issue, as 98% of the youths are unemployed, coupled with insecurity”.

A similar statement was by a 56 year-old retiree/community leader in Epe: “There is no infrastructural development in place”.

Only 35% of the total respondents said finance is the problem area. That means there was, adequate funding. The significance of this is that there is adequate social amenities in place. Again, only Mainland and Epe LGAs recorded low (20% and 30%) respectively, in this category.

However, the overall summation of table (13) above is that more social amenities in terms of empowerment, health care delivery, security, roads and portable water are needed in all the LGAs. But, it may be observed that more social amenities are needed in some LGAs than the other.

Table 14: Expectations of LGAs in sustainable development

LGAs	Provision of social amenities	%	Carried community members along	%	Total no of Interviews	Total percentage
Ikorodu	14	70	6	30	20	100
Mainland	11	55	9	45	20	100
Epe	14	70	6	30	20	100
Amuwo	12	60	8	40	20	100
Ikeja	12	60	8	40	20	100
Total	63	65%	37	37%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

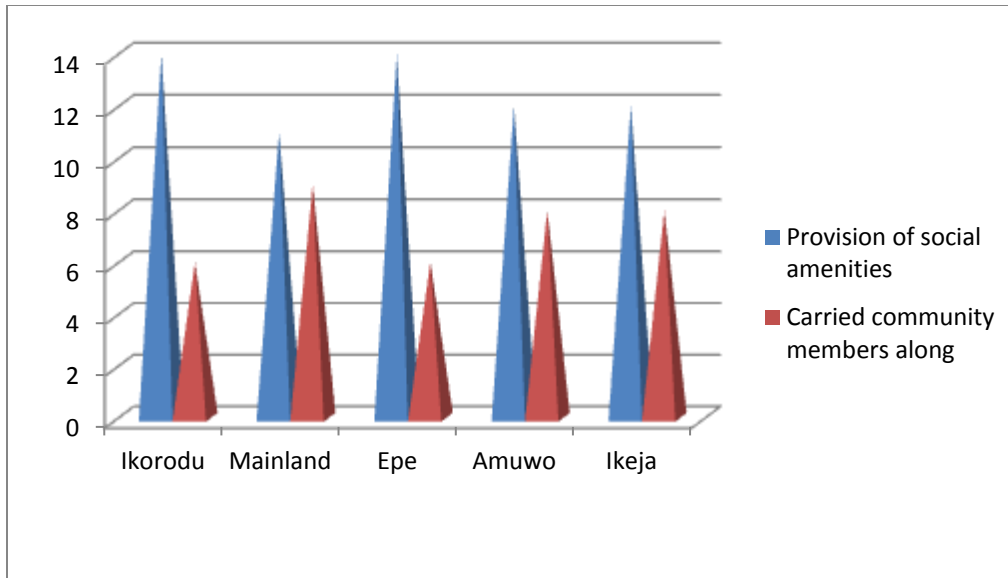


Table (14) above shows the distribution of respondents based on what is expected of the local government to ensure sustainable development and how to go about it. Over 60% of respondents acknowledged social amenities in terms of employment, provision of health centres and good markets. Of this group, Ikorodu (70%) and Epe (70%) LGAs recorded the highest production of respondents while Amuwo and Ikeja LGAs recorded 60% respectively. Only Mainland LGA records 55%.

The Chief Imam in Epe, talking about employment stated that: “Epe should ensure that there are at least three or more companies and they would bring about sustainable development”.

Similarly a 70 year-old traditional ruler in Ikorodu stated that: “This is in the duty. They seem to have forgotten us. There is no water, except for elevator pump that is not working. The environment is not conducive enough for our elderly. We need to monitor local government projects”.

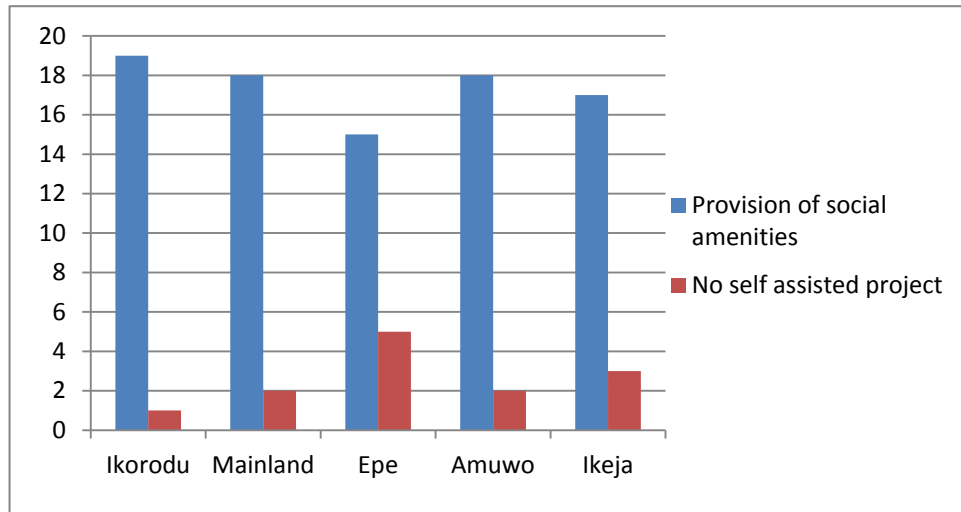
Only 37% of the respondents acknowledged that the local governments carried the community members along in their developmental activities.

On the overall, based on the higher number or proportion of respondents, the provision of social amenities of varying types is what is expected of the LGAs that would translate into sustainable development of the communities.

Table 15: Self Assisted Project embarked on by the community

LGAs	Provision of social amenities	%	No self-assisted projects	%	Total on of Interview	Total percentage
Ikorodu	19	95	1	5	20	100
ainland	18	90	2	10	20	100
Epe	15	75	5	25	20	100
Amuwo	18	90	2	10	20	100
Ikeja	17	85	3	15	20	100
Total	87	87%	13	13%	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

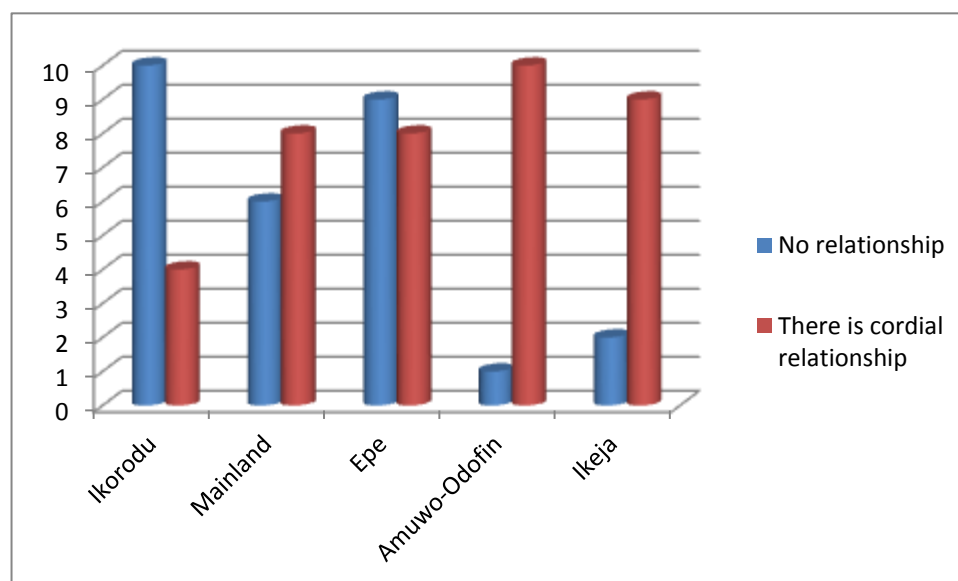


For those who seek development, there is the need to know the extent to which they seek this development. This is by a way of knowing what they, on their part, have done for themselves enough to attract other bodies to come to their aid. Table (15) above shows the distribution of respondents based on self-assisted projects the community has embarked on with relative success. An overwhelming majority (87%) of the respondents acknowledged that their various communities have embarked on self-assisted projects in the areas of boreholes donation to the community, building of drainages, periodic seminar presentations and trainings, environmental sanitation and general security of the community. Of this proportion, Ikorodu, Mainland and Amuwo recorded 95%, 90% and 90% respectively while Ikeja record 85% of the respondents in the total no of interviews conducted. Only Epe LGA recorded 75% of respondents in the interview conducted. Thus, it has become obvious that the community people have not totally left the responsibility of community development in the hands of the local government authorities. Thus it may motivate or encourage the local governments to come to their aid by complementing their efforts in providing adequate social amenities that will ensure sustainable development within the communities.

Table 16: Financial and technical relationship between non-governmental organizations and local governments

LGA	No relationship		Cordial relationship		Undefined relationship		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	10	50	4	20	6	30	20	100
Mainland	6	30	8	40	6	30	20	100
Epe	9	45	8	40	3	15	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	1	5	10	50	9	45	20	100
Ikeja	2	10	9	45	9	45	20	100
Total	28	28	39	39	33	33	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



According to table (16), 61% of the IDI respondents stated that there was no basic financial and technical relationship between non-governmental organizations and local governments while only (39%) of the respondents stated that there was a cordial financial and technical relationship between non-governmental organizations and local governments. The breakdown is as follows: 33% of the IDI respondents stated that the relationship that existed was undefined while 28%

stated that there was no financial and technical relationship between non-governmental organizations and the local governments. The breakdown, according to LGAs, reveals that 50% of the IDI respondents came from Ikorodu, 30% of the respondents from Mainland, 45% of the respondents from Epe, 5% of the respondents from Amuwo Odofin and 10% of the respondents for the IDI from Ikeja stated that there is no known financial or technical relationship between non-governmental organizations and their local governments. 30% of the IDI respondents came from Ikorodu, and Mainland respectively. 15% from Epe, 45% from Amuwo Odofin and 45% from Ikeja stated that the financial and technical relationship between non-governmental organizations and the local government was undefined. “A statement that backs this assertion is the one made by a 60 year old landlord from Lagos mainland”.

“The NGOs have not really helped in any way. We have not seen any of their contributions to the development of this community”. Also, according to a NULGE staff from Amuwo Odofin, “The NGOs are not supporting the local government; in fact, they are collecting from the local government”. However, some of the IDI respondents stated that they do not know if any technical and financial relationship exists as they were not at the realm of affairs. For instance, a traditional leader from Amuwo Odofin says “How would I know, the local government does not tell us if they are enjoying any financial or technical assistance from elsewhere”.

The opinion of 20% of the IDI respondents from Ikorodu, 40% from Mainland, 40% from Epe, 50% from Amuwo Odofin and 45% from Ikeja was however different. They stated that there was financial and technical relationship between non-governmental organizations and the local governments. The statements of some of the IDI respondents are as below: “According to the head of Department, Agric “The local government has enjoyed a lot from NGOs in terms of

financial and technical assistance, example is ICAN and FADAMA project by the World Bank in Amuwo odofin” According to the special adviser to the chairman in Amuwo-Odofin.”

“The local government has enjoyed a lot from NGOs due to the influence of the chairman who has been an active member of some of the organizations. Examples of such supports programmes are HIV Campaign and Awareness Programmes for youths and aged as well as Cancer Awareness Programme for women in the LGAs”.

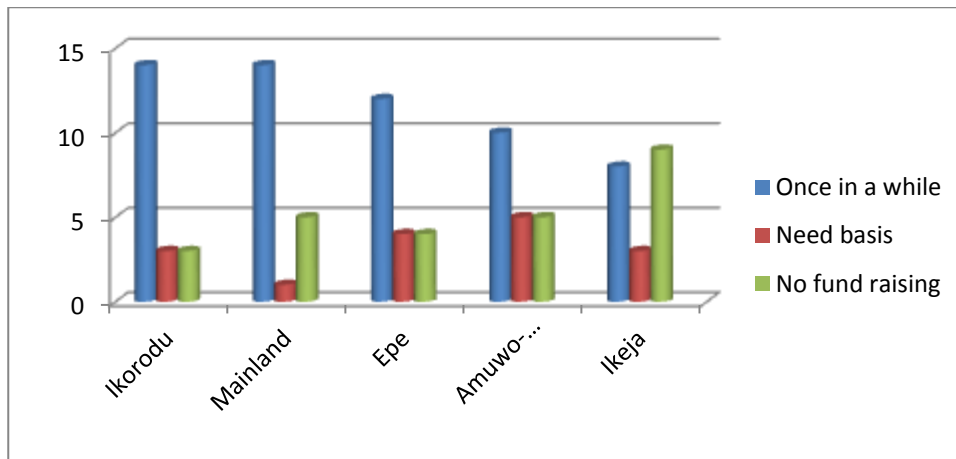
It was also confirmed in all the LGAs that financial and technical relationship exists between the LGAs and NGOs. However, this was majorly confirmed by executives or those working within the local governments.

In summary, the table depicts that the financial and technical relationship between non-governmental organizations and local governments was not strong enough to make impacts in the areas where some of these NGOs were. However, in a little way, some non-governmental organisations such as: the international agencies like FADAMA, a World Bank project, come to the assistance of the local governments, in the development of the various agricultural communities by sponsoring projects and seminar activities. In the case where individuals stated that there was no relationship, it was because community members were not aware it.

Table 17: Fund raising for Community Development

LGA	Once in a while		Need basis		No fund raising		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	14	70	3	15	3	15	20	100
Mainland	14	70	1	5	5	25	20	100
Epe	12	60	4	20	4	20	20	100
Amuwo- Odofin	10	50	5	25	5	25	20	100
Ikeja	8	40	3	15	9	45	20	100
Total	58	58	16	16	26	26	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



From table (17) above, 70% of the IDI respondents from Ikorodu stated that community members raised funds once in a while for community development projects, 15% of the respondents explained that they raise funds based on the need of the community while the 15% stated that funds are not being raised for any community development projects.

This trend is similar in Mainland Local Government Area where 70% of the respondents stated that community members raised funds once in a while for community development projects, 5% of the respondents said that they raised funds based on the need of the community while the 25% stated that funds were not raised for any community development projects.

In Epe Local Government Area, 60% of the respondents for the IDI made it known that funds were contributed once in a while for development projects, 20% stated that funds contributed for development projects were need based while the remaining 20% said that funds were not contributed in the community.

In Amuwo- Odofin, 50% of the respondents explained that funds were contributed once in a while for community development projects, 25% said that fund was only contributed based on

the needs of the community while the remaining 25% of the respondents stated that they did not contribute for community development projects.

Forty percent of the respondents from Ikeja stated that funds were contributed once in a while for community development projects, 15% said that fund was contributed based on the need of the community while the remaining 45% stated that they did not contribute for community development projects.

Other opinions were expressed as follows: A 32 year-old male youth leader in Ikorodu said “funds are contributed once in a while especially when needed for a crucial or urgent project or special events.” This is supported by a 65 year-old man’s statement “we do contribute when there is an observable problem in the community, but we also contribute monthly. On the contrary, the H. O.D. agric said, “the community does not often raise funds to finance community projects because they depend on the local government”. A 62 year old male political leader from Amuwo Odofin also said, “the community development staff work closely with the community and channels their challenges to the local government.”

In Ikeja, a market woman said “we only raise funds for LAWMA for the sanitation of our market and security of goods and commodities.” The above is different from what the CDC chairman stated. According to him, “some part of the community do raise funds for community development projects but some are always unwilling to pay asking, why they should contribute money to do projects that local government is supposed to do.”

In summary, respondents explained further that funds were raised by community members through general contributions, donation and launching to finance community development. Some

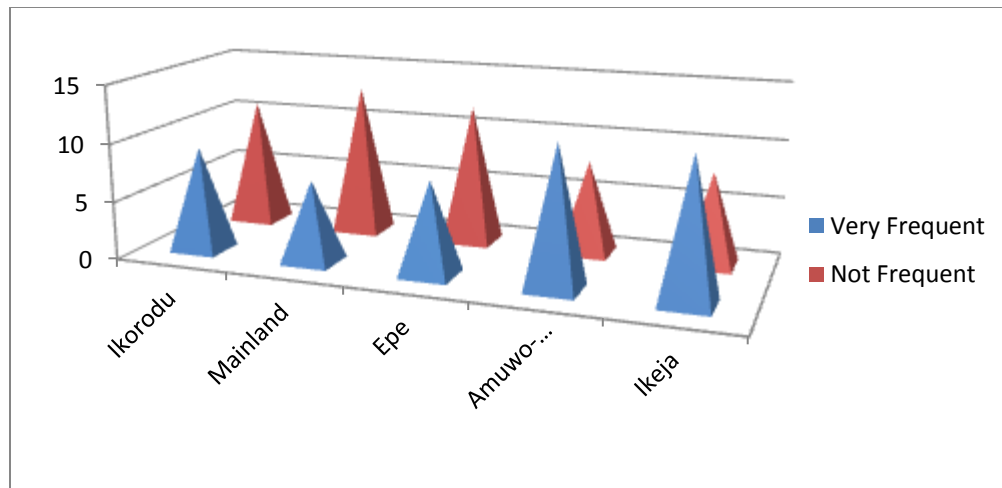
of the respondents who stated that they did not contribute funds for community development claimed that they depended largely on the assistance of the local government area for project development. Others explained that the community members raised funds based on the needs of the community, that is, based on how large the project was and how much it would consume.

Since an overwhelming majority responded to the fact that the community contribute in one way or the other towards community development, the summation of this analysis is that the community people raise fund towards community development, without waiting or relying on the local government to assist.

Table 18: Frequency of communication between the local government and the community in community development

LGA	Very Frequent		Not Frequent		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	9	45	11	55	20	100
Mainland	7	35	13	65	20	100
Epe	8	40	12	60	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	12	60	8	40	20	100
Ikeja	12	60	8	40	20	100
Total	48	48	52	52	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



The study also tried to find out whether the local government authorities intimate or unfold their plans, especially the ones concerning community development to the community people and the responses of the participants are summarized in the Table (18) above. As can be gleaned from the above table, about 48% participants, made up of 45% participants in Ikorodu, 35% participants in Mainland, 40% participants in Epe and 60% participants, each in Amuwo-Odofin and Ikeja LGA confirmed that local government authorities unfolded their plans to the community through the CDAs and CDCs representatives and other executive members of the community very frequently.

In another response, 52% participants, made up of 55% participants in Ikorodu, 65% Mainland 60% Epe LGA, 40% participants in Amuwo-Odofin and 40% participants in Ikeja LGA said the local government authorities did not unfold their intentions or plans to the community people frequently. “According to a male youth leader in Amuwo Odofin, “on regular basis, the local government unfolds their plans to members of the community particularly last Saturday of every month through CDC and CDA meeting. This is somehow different from what obtains in Ikeja Local government. According to a religious leader, “the LGA do not unfold their intentions to

members of the community always as expected.” This was also supported by the statement of a male elder in Ikeja, “not often, the local government do not unfold their intentions neither the intentions of the government to the people.” However, a CDA executive stated that “the local government unfolds their intentions through meeting with the landlords, CDA and political leaders”.

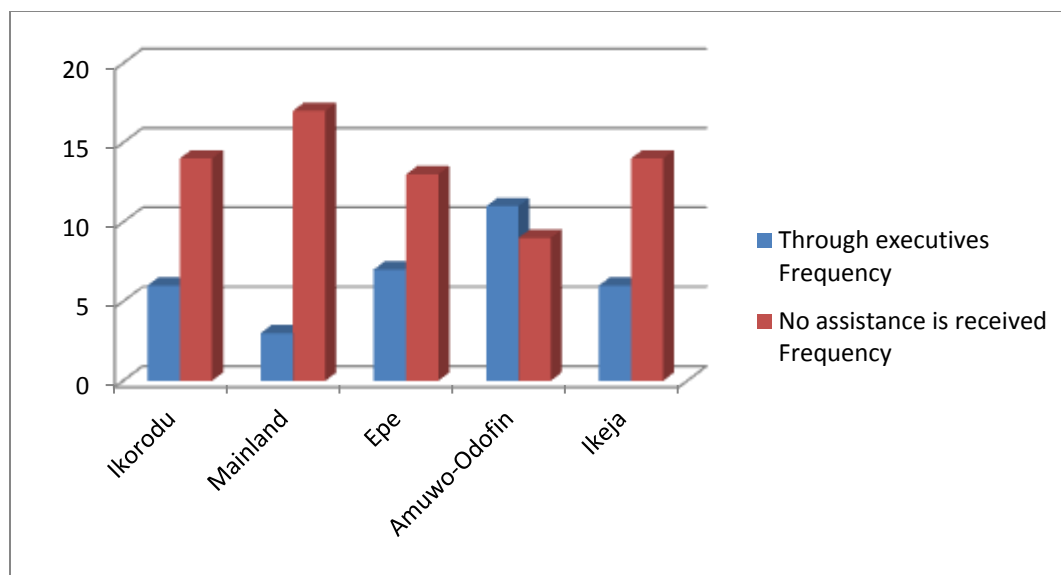
This is different from what is obtainable in Ikorodu LGA. According to a female youth leader, “government intentions are unfolded through the media, meetings and notice boards”.

In summary, there is a possibility that members of the community may not know if government unfolds their intentions or not especially, if they are not very active. But the CDAs, CDC executives and some active landlords would know about the activities of the LGAs. It therefore becomes the responsibilities of these active members to carry the people along. However, the data revealed that only few members of the community were being carried along.

Table 19: Medium through which assistance from government agencies reaches the community members

LGA	Through executives		No assistance is received		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	6	30	14	70	20	100
Mainland	3	15	17	85	20	100
Epe	7	35	13	65	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	11	55	9	45	20	100
Ikeja	6	30	14	70	20	100
Total	33	33	67	67	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



The responses of the participants show some split decisions. The conclusion of 33% participants over the issue of whether the assistance received from State Government by local government gets to the community people suggested that the local government ensured that the assistance received to the community people through the executives of CDAs and CDCs. These 33% participants comprise of 30% participants in Ikorodu, 15% participants in Mainland, 35% participants in Epe, 55% participants in Amuwo-Odofin and 30% participants in Ikeja LGA. But the conclusion of 67% participants, made up of 70% participants in Ikorodu, 85% participants in Mainland, 65% participants in Epe, 45% participants in Amuwo Odofin and 70% participants in Ikeja LGA suggests that they were not aware that the local government received assistance from the State Government or not and that if they do, it has not been felt by the community people. In most cases, they explained that the assistance rendered by the state government through the local government, does trickle down to the community people. The statement of a 60 year old female community leader from Epe goes thus: “Nothing has reached the target people except for the direct project from State government.” On another note a female youth leader stated that

“Amuwo Local Government goes through the chairman of the community and forward the assistance of government or any agencies to the targeted people in the community.

In Ikeja, NURTW secretary stated that: “Assistance gets to groups through their presidents or spoke persons”, this tallies with what the youth leader of Anifowose said.

Table 20: Determination of Feasible Projects

LGA	Determined by needs of the people according to priority		Determined by availability of funds and other resources		Determined by government without consulting the people		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	9	45	1	5	10	50	20	100
Mainland	9	45	3	15	8	40	20	100
Epe	5	25	1	5	14	70	20	100
Amuwo- Odofin	11	55	0	0	9	45	20	100
Ikeja	11	55	0	0	9	45	20	100
Total	45	45	5	5	50	50	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

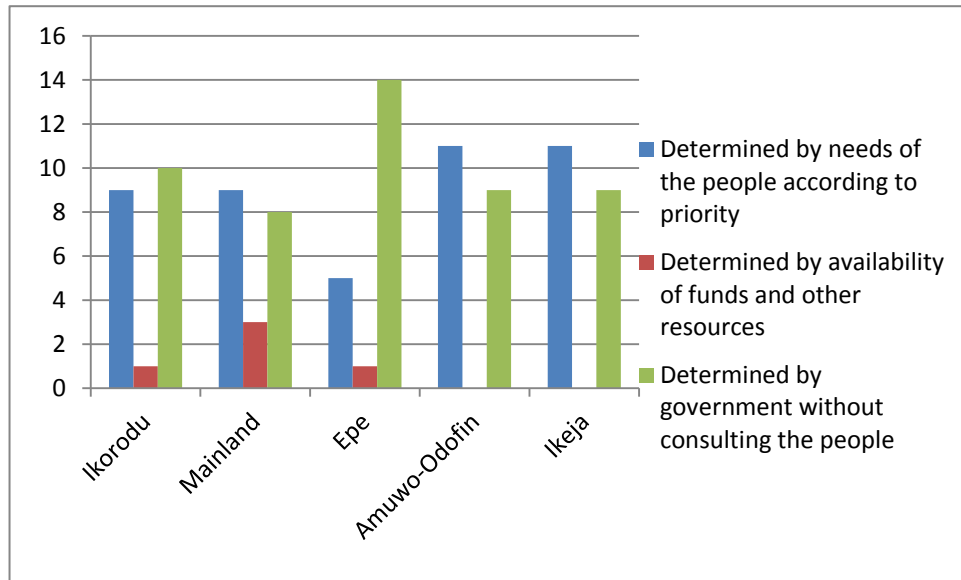


Table (20) above depicts the responses of the participants as regards how they would be able to recognize feasible developmental projects within their communities. 45% participants in Ikorodu and Mainland, 25% participants in Epe, 55% participants in Amuwo-Odofin and Ikeja stated that projects were determined by needs of the people according to priority due to the fact that there were lots of projects that need attention. According to NULGE secretary of Ikorodu Local Government area, “All needs cannot be met at the same time, so it has to be based on priority.” A forty year-old female who was a CDA member also stated that “All needs are interwoven, but the needs are arranged according to needs and are fulfilled according to priorities”

However, 5% participants in Ikorodu, 15% participants in Mainland and 5% participants in Epe, stated that the availability of resources was important to determine projects that were feasible, without which the projects, no matter how laudable, may not succeed.

In mainland, the CDA executive said “Though needs are arranged according to priority but the projects are done when fund is available”.

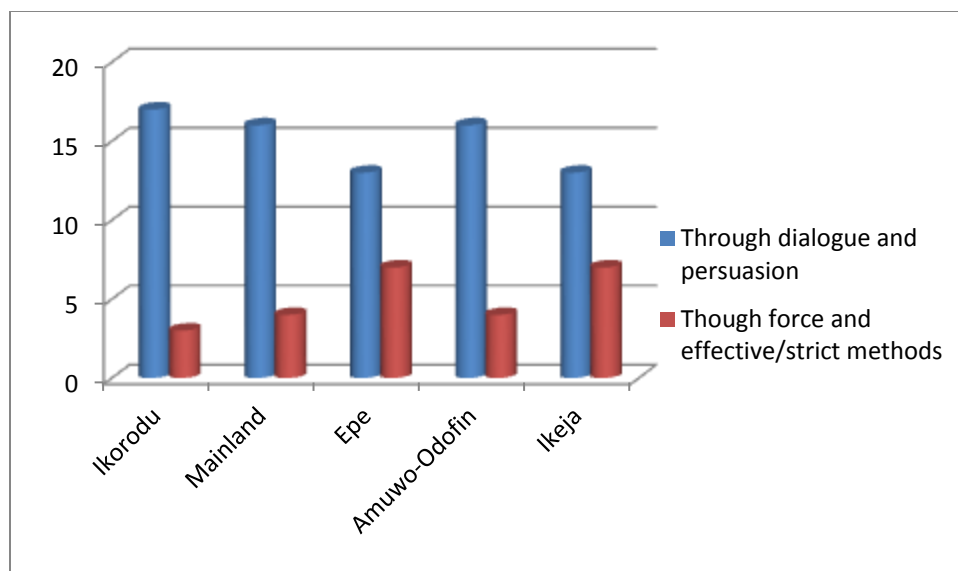
A twist in responses was recorded with 50% participants in Ikorodu, 40% participants in Mainland, 70% participants in Epe, 45% participants in Amuwo-Odofin and Ikeja stating that there was no such thing as feasible community development projects in their local government areas. According to IDI respondents,

we have not seen anything and this is also because government does not ask the community people of their needs before they start building a project or projects for them, which eventually turn out to be useless at the end of the day.

Table 21: Enforcement of law on tax rate payment

LGA	Through dialogue and persuasion		Though force and effective/strict methods		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	17	85	3	15	20	100
Mainland	16	80	4	20	20	100
Epe	13	65	7	35	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	16	80	4	20	20	100
Ikeja	13	65	7	35	20	100
Total	75	75	25	25	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



From the results of the survey, it appears that most participants in the study affirmed that enforcement of law on tax rate payment was through dialogue and persuasion. From the breakdown, 85% participants in Ikorodu, 80% participants in Mainland, 65% participants in Epe, 80% participants in Amuwo-Odofin and 65% participants in Ikeja LGA stated that enforcement of law on tax rate payment was through dialogue and persuasion.

The above statements are backed by the following assertion: of the Assistant to Oba in Mainland: “Government normally comes for collection of tax and it’s through persuasion and letters”.

According to a female councillor in Amuwo Odofin “We often enforce government laws either by gingles or public hearing, this is to keep the community alert of their responsibilities and we make sure we enlighten members as regards the importance of tax payment”.

But the conclusion of 15% in Ikorodu, 20% participants in Mainland, 35% participants in Epe, 20% participants in Amuwo Odofin and 35% participants in Ikeja LGA suggest that they

believed that the enforcement of law on tax rate payment was through force and effective but strict methods.

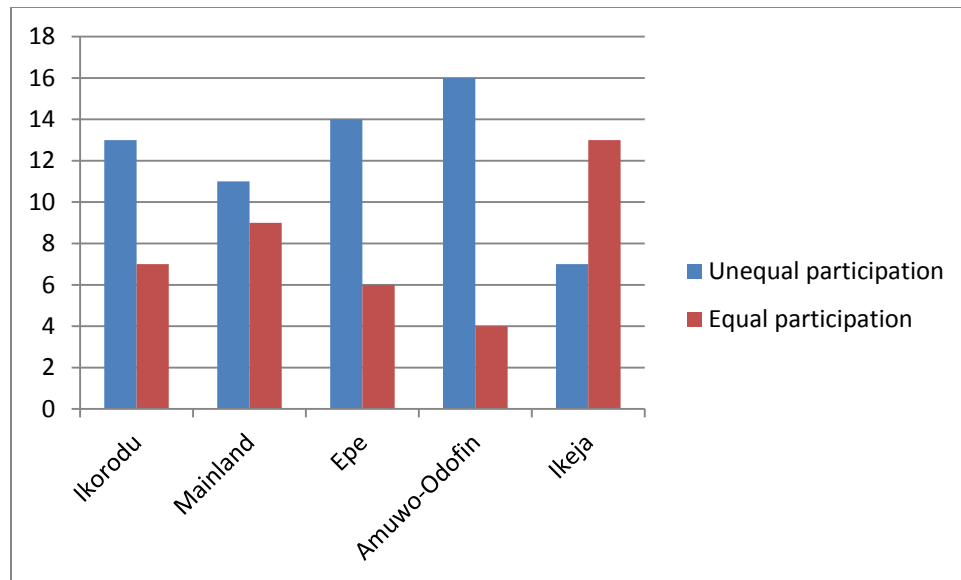
An Ibo NURTW male from Ikeja said: “Effectively and efficiently, the local government enforces government laws such as tax through enforcement”.

An Ekiti lady from Ikeja also said “The local government enforces law consistently to make community members pay their tax and if you refuse pay they will lock your shop.”

Table 22: Participation of stake holders in project initiation, development and implementation

LGA	Unequal participation		Equal participation		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	13	65	7	35	20	100
Mainland	11	55	9	45	20	100
Epe	14	70	6	30	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	16	80	4	20	20	100
Ikeja	7	35	13	75	20	100
Total	61	61	39	39	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



Attempts were made to find out from the respondents if participation of stakeholders in project initiation, development and implementation was equal. Their responses, according to table 22 indicate that 61% of the IDI respondents believed that the participation of stakeholders was not equal. In Amuwo Odofin a 32 year old female executive said “Yes! There are observable unequal participation of stakeholders in project initiation, development and implementation”. The legal adviser of Amuwo LGA, said: “Yes! There is unequal participation of stakeholders because not all the people contribute the same effort towards project initiation, development and implementation”.

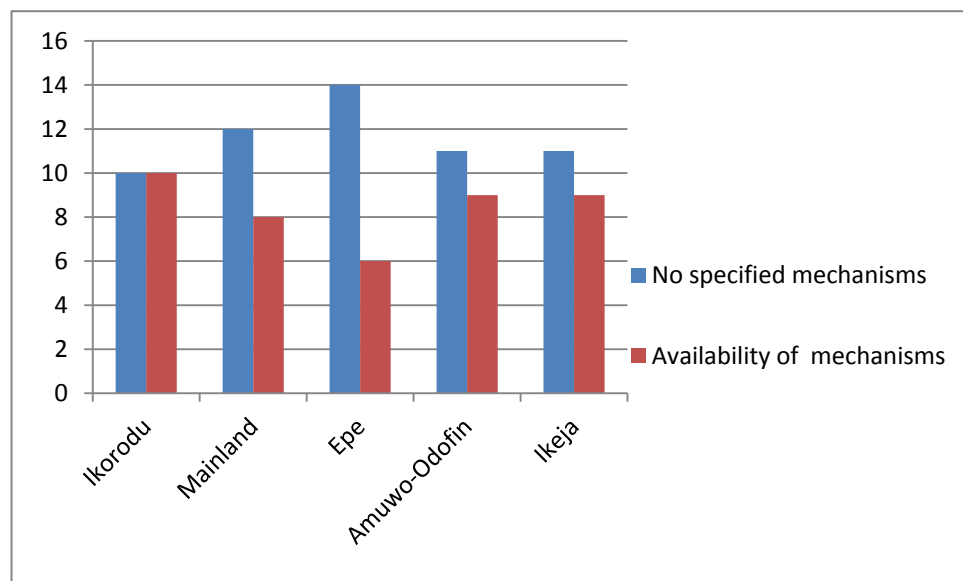
However, 39% stated that participation of stakeholders in project initiation, development and implementation were equal. In some, stakeholders are more carried along than others, either through politics and what the local government might to benefit from them.

In Ikeja, a youth leader said: “There is equal participation to a large extent as we have women representative, youth representative, male representative running the affairs of government together”.

Table 23: Control of local government officials and community leaders

LGA	No specified mechanisms		Availability of mechanisms		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	10	50	10	50	20	100
Mainland	12	60	8	40	20	100
Epe	14	70	6	30	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	11	55	9	45	20	100
Ikeja	11	55	9	45	20	100
Total	58	58	42	42	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



As can be gleaned from table (23) above, 58% of the respondents stated that there were no specified mechanisms for disciplining erring local government officials and community leaders, even if it existed, respondents believed that it might not be known to the common man who did not participate in their meetings.

This is contrary to the assertion of a religious leader in Ikeja. “No, there’s no appropriate and adequate mechanism for disciplining erring local or community leaders. If not, corrupt leaders will decrease”.

On the other hand, 42% stated that there were mechanisms for disciplining erring local government officials and community leaders. These according to further explanation include suspension from office, demotion at the level of CDAs or CDCs and removal from the post held. In most cases, this is done after a series of warnings. In summary most of these measures are done in-house except for serious cases, where law enforcement agencies intervene.

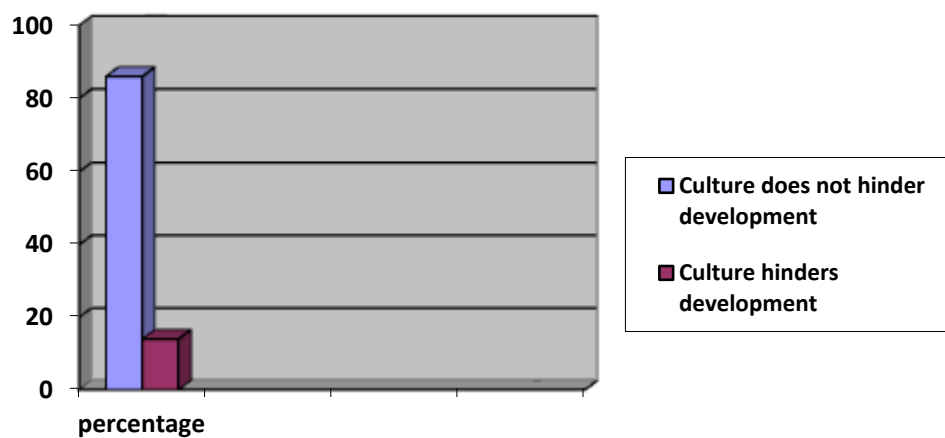
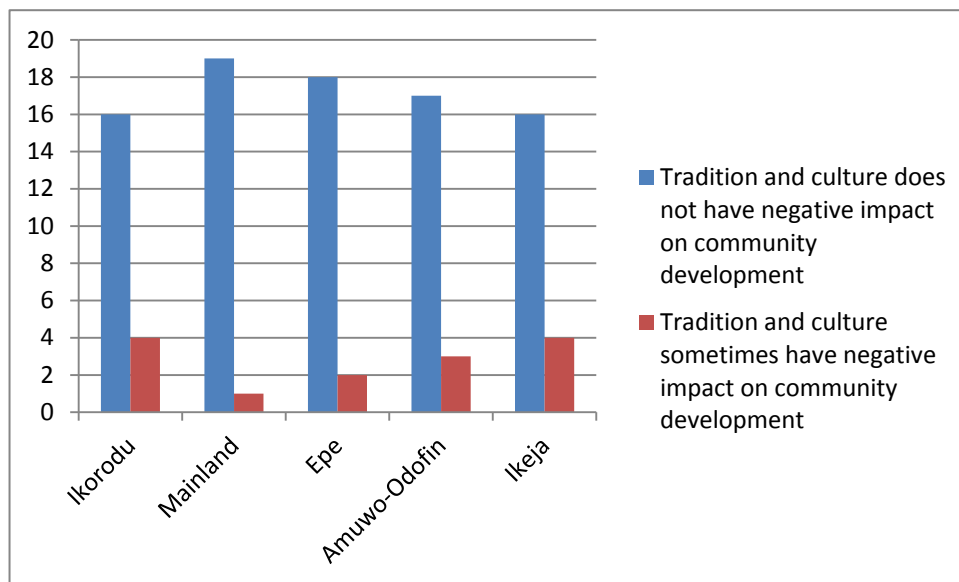
According to a woman leader:

Some of the executives are reported to their superiors who discipline them appropriately, but members of the community may not know about it. They may be deprived some privileges and rights. In some cases, they may not be arrested, but they are handed over to the council members.

Table 24: Relationship between the tradition and culture of the community and development efforts of the community

LGA	Tradition and culture do not have negative impact on community development		Tradition and culture sometimes have negative impact on community development		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	16	80	4	20	20	100
Mainland	19	95	1	5	20	100
Epe	18	90	2	10	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	17	85	3	15	20	100
Ikeja	16	80	4	20	20	100
Total	86	86	14	14	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



From the responses obtained from all the local governments, majority (86%) believed that tradition and culture do not have negative impact on community development. According to participants, there was no aspect of culture that impacted negatively on the development efforts made by the community.

A Yoruba male youth executive in Ikorodu said: “No! The traditions and culture of the people do not in any way impact negatively on the development efforts of the community”.

In Festac, a 33 year old journalist and the president of 777 CDA Resident Association said:

No culture can affect development in Festac. The only area I feel there may be problem is the Riverine areas. It's only State /Federal conflicts that can affect our development. Especially clashes on land development.

14% stated that tradition and culture sometimes had negative impact on community development. An example of this tradition according to respondent was ‘Oro’ which is capable of stopping all economic activities. That in itself hinders development.

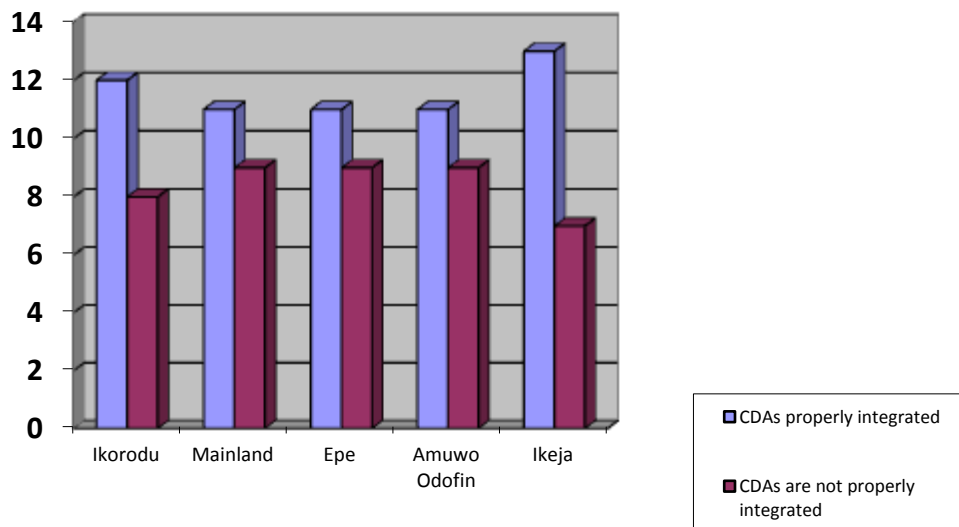
Table 25: Integration of CDAs into the programmes of extension under the local government

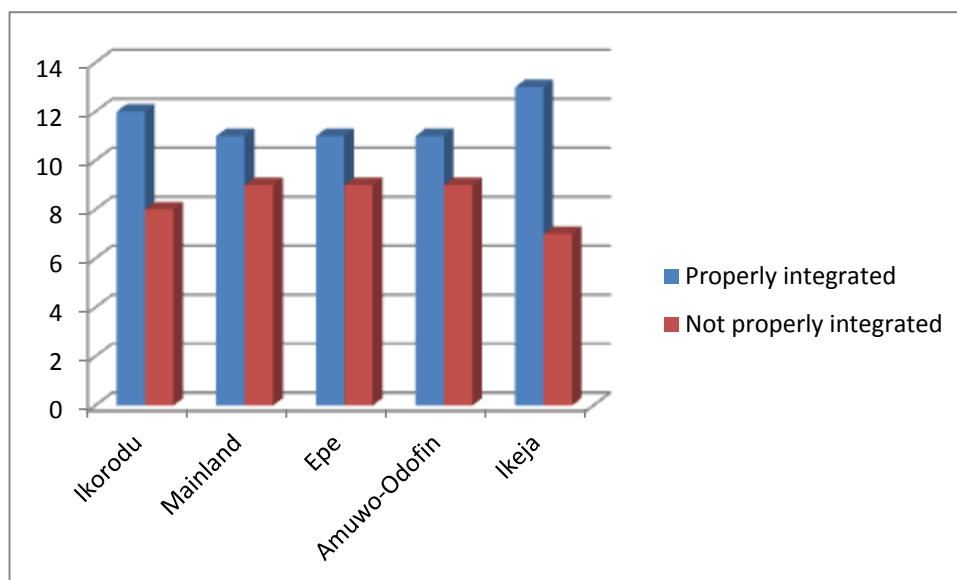
LGA	Properly integrated		Not properly integrated		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	12	60	8	40	20	100
Mainland	11	55	9	45	20	100
Epe	11	55	9	45	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	11	55	9	45	20	100
Ikeja	13	65	7	35	20	100
Total	58	58	42	42	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)

Data from the field revealed that 58% of the respondents in the examined Local Government Areas stated that CDAs were properly integrated into the extension services under the local government so as to facilitate productivity and overall standard of living in the community. This

includes programme like polio eradication exercise. The level of CDA integration, according to respondents was seen in their inclusion into other local government programmes and projects and for the fact that they had an office in each of the local government areas to keep them updated as regards the activities and projects of their various LGAs. On the other hand, 42% of the respondents stated that CDAs were not properly integrated rather politic (favoritism is the order of the day) and there were so many issues as regards community development they were not privy to.





The following statements from the IDI respondents back the assertions above.

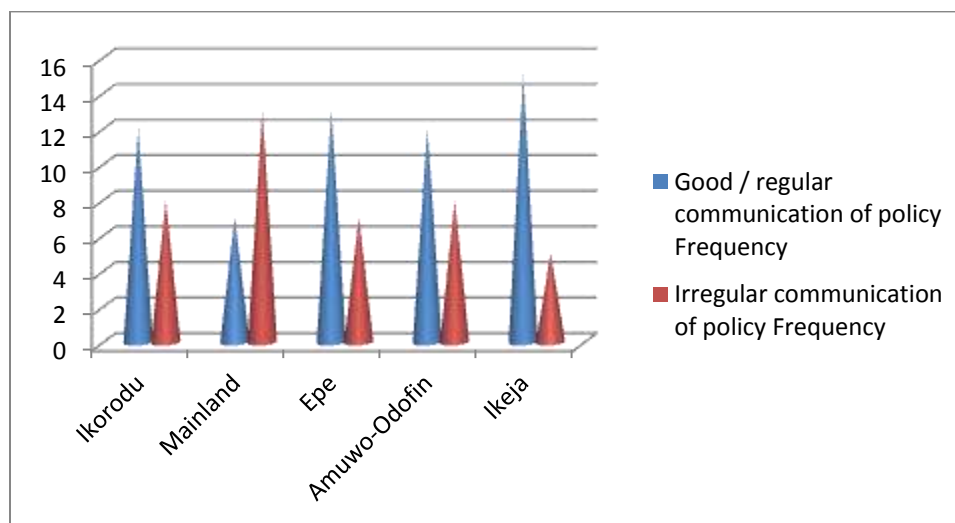
In Ikeja a 33 year old CDA executive said: “Very well and often the CDAs are formally integrated into the programme of extension under the local government.” A female market leader said “very efficiently, the CDAs are formally integrated into the programmes of extension under the local government.

The only few who were against it stated clearly that they had never benefited from anything of such even if there was any kind of integration.

Table 26: Input of CDAs in Policy Making Level of Government

LGA	Good / regular communication of policy		Irregular communication of policy		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	12	60	8	40	20	100
Mainland	7	35	13	65	20	100
Epe	13	65	7	35	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	12	60	8	40	20	100
Ikeja	15	75	5	25	20	100
Total	59	59	41	41	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



A close analysis of the field data reveals that most (59%) of the IDI respondents acknowledged that there was good and regular communication of policy as regards lives, capabilities, attitude and cultural characteristics of the people in the community while 41% opposed this statement. 60% of the IDI participants in Ikorodu agreed to the fact that there was good and regular communication of policy while 40% opposed. Thirty five percent agreed to the above statement in Mainland while 65% participants stated that policy communication, as regards lives,

capabilities, attitude and cultural characteristics of the people in the community was irregular. In Epe, 65% participants, in Amuwo-Odofin 60% and 75% participants in Ikeja believed that there is good and regular communication of policy as regards lives, capabilities, attitude and cultural characteristics of the people in the community while 35%, 40% and 25% from Epe, Amuwo Odofin and Ikeja respectively opposed the statement as it was not easy for community leaders to influence the decisions of the policy makers.

The statements below support the above assertions:

According to a female NULGE officer in Lagos Mainland, “there is regular policy communication because the local government makes law for members of the community and most times, political leaders are involved.” on the other hand, a 36 year old religious leader from the same LGA stated “I do not think there is good policy communication, however if it exists, I do not know because the gesture from the local government official is poor.

In Ikorodu, a 43 year old male who is a council executive said: “The community and the local government communicate together depending on the nature of the issue or matter on ground”.

The same trend was also echoed at Amuwo Odofin where a male youth leader said: “very often and well, the CDA communicates with the policy making levels of the government about the welfare of the community”.

In Ikeja, A CDA secretary said:

on regular basis, we the CDA communicate to the policy makers, informing them about the welfare, lives capabilities, attitudes and cultural characteristics of the people in the community, we have meetings and at the meeting, we discuss issues related to the community people.

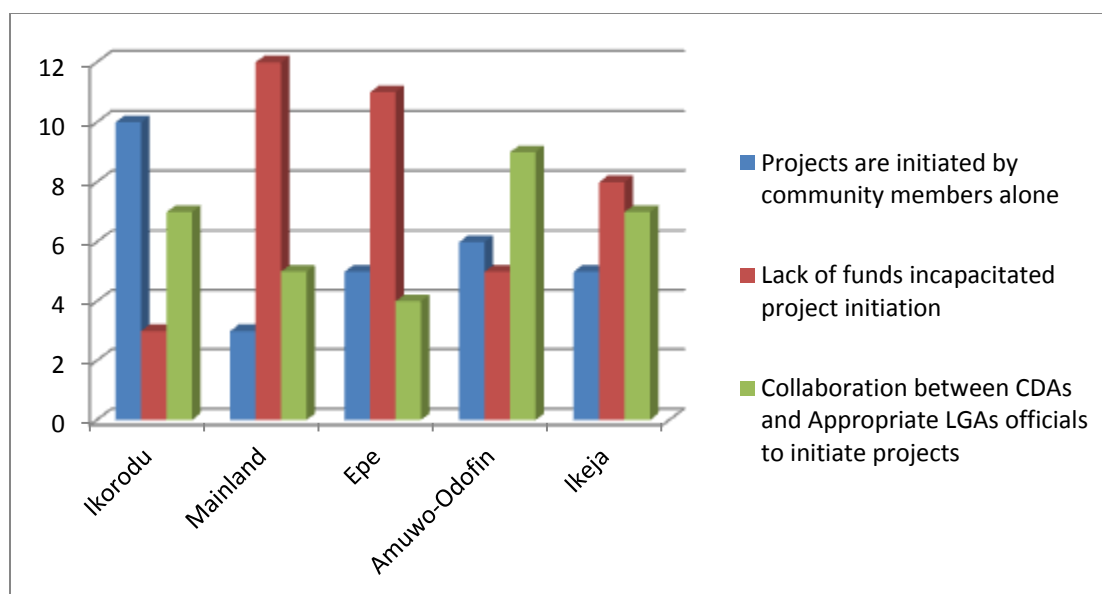
In most of the communities, the summary was that:

the policy makers only communicate with their fellow politicians who may not even be representing the interest of other members of the community. In summary, communication exists in all the local government areas but it could be difficult for community members to know as this mostly occurs within those in power.

Table 27: Initiation of community projects with the appropriate local authorities

LGA	Projects are initiated by community members alone		Lack of funds incapacitated project initiation		Collaboration between CDAs and appropriate LGAs officials to initiate projects		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	10	50	3	15	7	35	20	100
Mainland	3	15	12	60	5	25	20	100
Epe	5	25	11	55	4	20	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	6	30	5	25	9	45	20	100
Ikeja	5	25	8	40	7	35	20	100
Total	29	29	39	39	32	32	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



The table (27) above revealed that 29% of the IDI respondents acknowledged that projects were initiated by community members alone while 39% explained that lack of funds in most cases incapacitated project initiation and, in conclusion, 32% were of the opinion that CDAs and appropriate LGAs officials collaborated to initiate community development projects. The respondents made it known that some CDAs initiated community development projects within their various communities without LGAs assistance. Such projects included boreholes, obtaining new transformer from PHCN, school projects etc. to ameliorate the conditions of living of their community members. In some cases, LGAs intervened in complex projects so as to encourage the community.

A statement to back this assertion was made by a male youth leader in Ikorodu: “The local government is really trying in its own little way; they help in the issue of security, drainage and electricity.” A NULGE executive in the same LGA stated that CDAs are invited at the beginning of the year to submit their budgets and needs. In Amuwo, a 35 year old landlord stated that “the CDA has not really initiated projects alone rather projects like boreholes, public toilets and social waste collection are done in collaboration with the local government”.

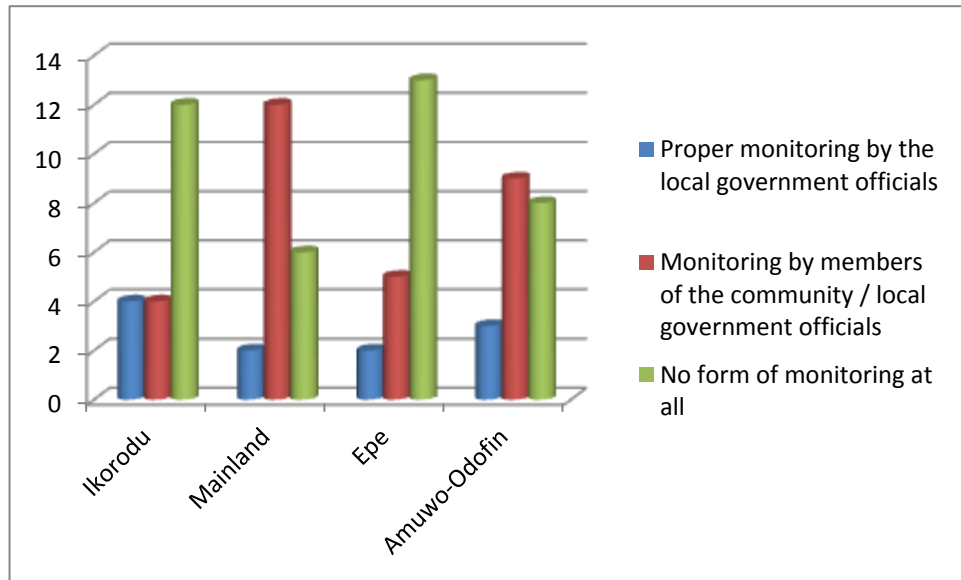
In Epe, a landlady expressed her grievance by saying that: “All we hear is that there is no fund to execute projects. This is really bad as we still need to improve in so many areas.

These responses depict that the effectiveness of CDAs and CDCs can help members of the community to benefit even when help from the local government is not forth coming. As a participant said during the FGDs “*omo to sipa ni iya e ngbe*” meaning that the communities that had effective CDAs were likely to attract the LGAs assistance through what they themselves were doing as their own developmental efforts.

Table 28: Proper monitoring of the community projects by the local government officials and community members

LGA	Proper monitoring by the local government officials		Monitoring by members of the community / local government officials		No form of monitoring at all		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Ikorodu	4	20	4	20	12	60	20	100
Mainland	2	10	12	60	6	30	20	100
Epe	2	10	5	25	13	65	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	3	15	9	45	8	40	20	100
Ikeja	3	15	8	40	9	45	20	100
Total	14	14	38	38	48	48	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



The issue of monitoring, according to the data gathered on the field, is pertinent to the maintenance and sustainability of any project within the community. 20% in Ikorodu, 10% in Mainland and Epe, 15% in Amuwo Odofin and Ikeja stated that proper monitoring was done by local government officials. Respondents further stated that the monitoring team was headed by a supervisory councillor, who also did evaluation of projects. In many cases, budget and planning department are in charge of projects and project monitoring and evaluation within the LGA. On the other hand, 20% In Ikorodu, 60% in mainland, 25% in Epe, 45% in Amuwo Odofin and 40% in Ikeja stated that monitoring was done by members of the community and local government officials while 60% in Ikorodu, 30% in Mainland, 65% in Epe, 40% in Amuwo Odofin and 45% in Ikeja stated that there was no known form of monitoring at the local government.

A 44 year old market woman leader in Amuwo Odofin said: “I think the community monitors projects with local government officials.” This was buttressed by the 777 Resident Presidents “There is proper project monitoring on the part of the CDAs, we have various committees who after acting, submit their reports to the council officers”.

This is similar to what the CDC chairman said in Ikeja, only that he added that: “Monitoring is done by the head of department from the local government but the community is not deprived of monitoring their own projects the way they desire”.

In Ikorodu a landlord said: “projects are not being supervised and to a large extent, it affects our maintenance culture”.

7.2 DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS

Table 29: Summary of the Audit Review of Revenue and Expenditure of LGA between 2009-2010

GA	Statutory & Internal Generated Revenue (N)	Total expenditure (N)	Balance (N)
Lagos Main land	1,46,242,887.38	885,694,118.34	577,730,769.04
Epe	468,452,869.61	899,696,118.34	-431,243,223.31
Ikorodu	425,733,093.30	410,491,379.88	15,241,713.42
Amuwo Odofin	1,440,013,928.34	1,283,448,521.35	156,565,406.99
Ikeja	870,877,169.28	722,906,750.84	147,970,418.44

Source: Lagos State Audit Report, 2010

Table 29 above shows that Lagos Mainland LGA had a balance of N577,730,769; Epe LGA required N431,243,223.31 to meet up with community projects and expenditure, having spent all that was budgeted to them, moreover, they were indebted; Ikorodu LGA had a balance of N15,241,713.42; Amuwo Odofin had a balance of N156,565,406.99; while Ikeja LGA had N147,970,418.44 balance. Most times, these balances were not often used appropriately to meet some financial responsibilities which could enhance community development such as: the job

creation for unemployed youth, portable water in every street, scholarships, health service and security for the people.

Table 30: Analysis of the Influence of Intergovernmental Fiscal Relations on Local Government Development Activities in the Community

L.G.A	Statutory Allocation from FG (₦)	Statutory Allocation Received by LG (₦)	Change Figure (₦)
EPE	2,017,501,953.96	468,452,869.61	1,549,049,084.35
Amuwo-Odofin	2,173,075,638.36	1,440,013,923.34	733,061,715.05
Ikorodu	2,569,532,635.08	425,733,093.30	2,143,799,531.78
Lagos Mainland	2,163,223,439.40	146,242,887.38	2,016,980,552.02
Ikeja	2,150,407,223.88	870,877,169.28	1,279,530,054.60

Source: Office of the Accountant – General of the Federation

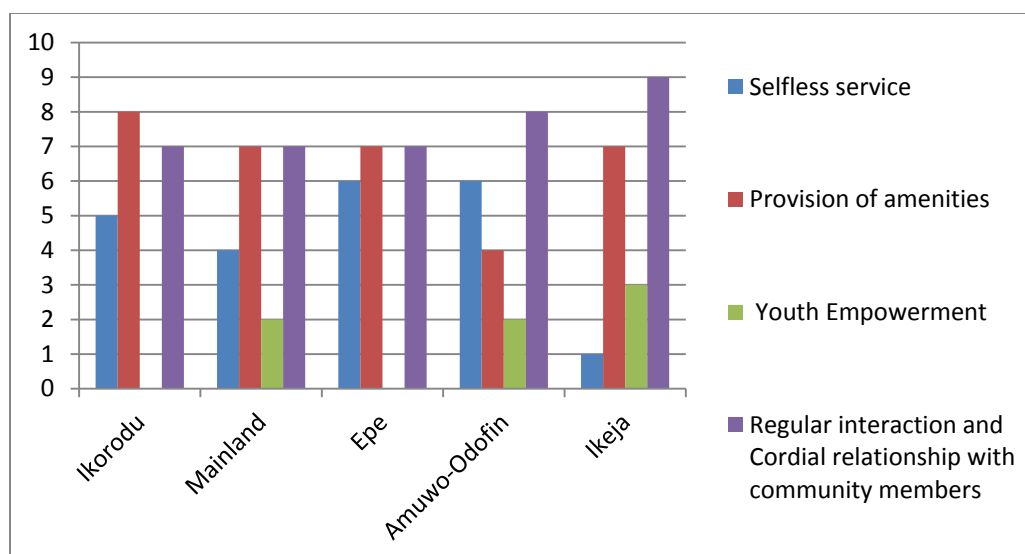
Table 30 above shows the intergovernmental fiscal relations on local government efforts in community development. Out of N2,017,501,953.96 budgeted for Epe LGA, they only received N 468,452,869.61, which was used for community development; N2,173,075,638.36 budgeted for Amuwo-Odofin LG.A, the Local Government received N1,440,013,923.34; for community development; N2,569,532,635.08 was budgeted for Ikorodu LGA but only N 425,733,093.30 was received for community development; N2,163,223,439.40 was budgeted for Lagos Mainland Local Government, the local government was given N146,242,887.38 for community development; N2,150,407,223.88 was budgeted for Ikeja, only N870,877,169.28 was given to the local government for community development. This reveals that local governments often get certain amount for the year allocated to them to carry out some development projects and programmes in their local government areas. However, there are many observed leakages from

the Federal Government office where the money is budgeted and released to the local government office where the money is needed for community development. Table 30 above shows that about N1,549,049,084.35 leaked from the Epe LGA allocation; N733,061,715.05 disappeared from Amuwo-Odofin LGA allocation. Ikorodu LGA allocation fell short by N2,143,799,531.78; while Lagos Mainland allocation fell short by 2,016,980,552.02; and 1,279,530,054.60 disappeared from Ikeja LGA allocation. All these leakages often make local government handicapped in achieving all their community development projects and, at times, due to this, some of them use sub-standard materials to do some of the projects which in turn cause threats to life of the people of the community. The leakages in terms of fiscal intergovernmental relations is a pointer to the fact that there is high level corruption within the system.

Table 31: Suggestions of respondents for sustainable community development

LGA	Selfless service		Provision of amenities		Youth Empowerment		Regular interaction and Cordial relationship with community members		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%		%
Ikorodu	5	25	8	40	0	0	7	35	20	100
Mainland	4	20	7	35	2	10	7	35	20	100
Epe	6	30	7	35	0	0	7	35	20	100
Amuwo-Odofin	6	30	4	20	2	10	8	40	20	100
Ikeja	1	5	7	35	3	15	9	45	20	100
Total	22	22	33	33	7	7	38	38	100	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2011)



In summary, table 31 shows that 22% of the respondents across the examined local government areas suggested that selfless service on the part of the community members was very crucial in the process of bringing an effective, efficient and sustainable community development. According to them. “Community members should be proactive and not wait for local government interventions that may not come”.

In other words, selfless commitment towards community development project by the community will enhance rapid development in the community.

The table also reveals that, in totality, 33% of the respondents across the local governments suggested that: “Provision of amenities will bring about an effective, efficient and sustainable community development”.

Respondents explained that if these amenities were provided by local government authorities, it would serve as the hall mark of trust and confidence repost in them.

In addition, 7% suggested that: “The local government authority should look more towards youth empowerment programmes, which will eradicate idleness and criminal activities within the local government area”.

In conclusion, 38% of the respondents were of the opinion that:

Regular interaction and cordial relationship between community members and local government executives through an open door policy and provision of funds will go a long way in bringing about effective, efficient and sustainable community development.”

7.3 COMMUNITY NEEDS ASSESSMENT AND FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION (FGD) REPORT

7.3.1 Community Needs Assessment

A community needs assessment is a combination of information gathering, community engagement and focused action with the goal of community improvement. A community needs assessment identifies the strengths and weaknesses (needs) within a community. Community leaders, local government, advocacy groups or a combination of these then address these identified needs through policy change or development.

The goal of a needs assessment is to identify the assets of a community and determine potential concerns that it faces. A straightforward way to estimate the needs of a community or neighborhood is to simply ask residents their opinions about the issues and problems they are dealing with.

A community needs assessment can be broadly categorized into three types based on their respective starting points: First, needs assessments which aim to discover weaknesses within the community and create a solution (Community Needs Assessment I). Second, needs assessments which are structured around and seek to address an already known problem or potential problem facing the community (Community Needs Assessment II). Third, needs assessments of an

organization which serves the community (domestic violence centers, community health clinics etc.) (Community Needs Assessment III).

Community needs assessments are generally executed in four steps: planning and organizing, data collection, coding and summarizing the needs assessment results, and sharing the results with the community to facilitate action planning. During the planning and organizing phase, stakeholders are identified, local organizations and/or local governments begin to collaborate. Depending on the type of needs assessment being conducted, one can tailor their approach.

Types of Community Needs Assessment – Strategies for Planning and Organizing

Community Needs Assessment I – This type of needs assessment seeks to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses within a community and create or improve services based on the identified weaknesses. Organizing this type of needs assessment is primarily structured around how to best obtain information, opinions, and input from the community and then what to do with that information. This process may be broken into targeted questions which can direct the project overall. The following are sample questions taken from “A Community Needs Assessment Guide” from The Center for Urban Research & Learning:

- Define goals for the needs assessment.
- What is the specific purpose of the needs assessment?
- How will the data from the community be used to set a new agenda, support a new program or support new changes in service delivery or policies?
- What is the timeline for the needs assessment?

- If applicable, identify the target population. How will a sample from the population be chosen? Are there any special considerations which need to be given in the most effective way to approach/obtain information and cooperation from the said population?

Community Needs Assessment II – This type of needs assessment is constructed around a known problem or potential problem facing the community for example, disaster preparedness, how to address an increase in violent crime etc. This type of community needs assessment centers less around the direct involvement of the community but rather the governing entities, stakeholders, businesses, advocacy groups and organizations which will be potentially affected or can contribute to the community need. Potential organization questions could include:

- Identifying relevant stakeholders. This includes stakeholders affected by the problem or stakeholders of the program/or solution being addressed. The program staff, the funders, and the consumers of the program.
- Learn more about the community and its residents.
- Review already existing material regarding the community problem or potential problem.
- Sharing expectations, goals, and approach regarding the needs assessment with the other partners.
- Discuss and identify potential users of the agenda/solution likely to be generated by the needs assessment process.

Community Needs Assessment III - This final type of needs assessment is based within an organization which either serves the community at large, is currently addressing a need within the community, or is dedicated to an under-served population within the community. This type of

needs assessment centers around improving the efficiency or effectiveness of such organizations.

Potential organization questions could include:

- Learn about the organizational culture and its philosophy by interviewing staff, including the executive director.
- Review existing materials regarding the community need and the organization.
- Tour the community and learn more about the target population or problem the organization serves.
- Conduct a literature review to see what the recent research has to offer, review relevant archival information and what previous needs assessments by the organization have found.
- Where is the programme in terms of the implementation and development of service delivery?
- What current resources do the organization and its programmes offer?
- Identify and learn about the programme that would most benefit from a needs assessment.

Implementing a Community Needs Assessment – The exact methodology for implementing a community needs assessment is partially determined by the type of assessment that is being performed (discussed above). However, general guidelines can be proposed.

1. Use of focus groups **2.** Creating a needs assessment survey **3.** Collecting and analyzing data **4.** Community public forums **5.** Producing a final report and planning action committees

Selecting members of a focus group first requires choosing a target community, population, or demographic which will structure the community needs assessment. This information guides the selection process for a focus group. The principle of the focus group is to select members who are diverse yet share a degree of commonality. This may sound paradoxical yet it is not necessarily. Generally speaking, the commonality between focus group members is a vested

interest and stake in their community. Thus, focus group members might include: local politicians, business owners, block club leaders and community activists. Another focus group would consist of adult resident of the community; and a third consisting of youth residents of the community.

The participants expressed their opinion as regards the relevance of local governments in the provision of adequate indicators of community development. The FGD participants stated that the local government was relevant but were are handicapped by lack of funds.

The group was asked what they saw as the most important needs of the community and they mentioned the issue of security, drainage, employment for young people within the community, health care services, water, flooding and better accommodation. These needs were peculiar to all the communities where the FGD took place. `

The conclusion reached from the FGD is that the needs of the people have been partially met. But there is the need to provide more amenities that will ensure community development. The local government through the CDC and CDA are closer to community members (grassroots) and the CDA help pass down information from the local government to the grassroots. Participants also acknowledged that the assessment of local government administrative effort was seen from its effort on ensuring good service delivery but they could since there allocation was small. The corrupt nature of some of the leaders may also affect their ability to provide social amenities that will help to ameliorate the condition the grassroots.

The FGDs report also shows that local government had not encouraged the community towards participating in development. The local government had not mobilised community member's

zeal in development especially when the community members initiate projects that would serve them in the community for example drainage, bore hole, repairing of roads and many more.

The conclusion of the FGDs also suggested that in order to have sustainable community development, there should be provision of social amenities like health centre and good market, which they believe will go a long way in bringing sustainable community development.

As regards the needs assessment, participants stated that they were hardly carried along in the policy making and implementation of policy. This, according to them led to abandonment of some projects within the community as the community members might not see the project as theirs.

In conclusion, participant said that the local government were trying. However, they needed to do more by involving non-governmental organisations, private organisations and community members to ensure adequate provisions and sustainability of social amenities.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Based on the results of this study, a major finding is that Lagos State local governments have not met the needs of the local populace in terms of development and the creation of opportunities .

Other findings include.

1. Involving community members as stakeholders in project initiation and implementation will make them appreciate the impact of any project being implemented in their various communities as they are key in the development process of their community.
2. Effective communication between the local government authorities and the community members is very crucial for the achievement of community development goals.
3. Community development associations, if properly engaged, can be veritable tools for the speedy achievement of adequate provision of basic amenities for the rural populace.
4. Corruption inhibits development at the local government level and therefore an appropriate mechanism should be put in place to checkmate the excesses of corrupt officers and community leaders.
5. Culture and tradition of the community members do not in any way inhibit the development of the community.

8.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

- a) Local government should provide opportunity for the local community to determine their own political, economic and social needs and satisfaction, that is, determination of needs (Needs Assessment) through participatory collaboration.
- b) Similarly, since alienatory policies cannot ensure community development, efforts should be made by local government authorities towards mobilizing the community members' efforts in the development of the community.
- c) Related to this is the fact that community members need to be involved in project initiation, development and implementation as they are to be the beneficiaries of such projects and they know the best areas of priority. Community people should be able to contribute, if not determine, the method and process by which values are allocated in their area.
- d) There should be avenues to create financial and technical relationships between non-governmental organisations and Local Governments.
- e) Enforcement of law on tax/rate payment should be through dialogue and persuasion, in order to ensure that all qualified tax-payers in the various local communities perform their civic duty.
- f) An operational mechanism should be put in place to checkmate the excesses of erring local government officials and community leaders.
- g) The Community Development Associations should be integrated into the programmes of extension under local government so as to facilitate productivity and overall standard of living in the community.

- h) Proper planning process should be ensured so that the projects would serve the needs of the people.
- i) The issue of monitoring is pertinent to the maintenance and sustainability of any project within the community. Thus, there should be an introduction of community project monitoring and evaluation committee to ensure completion of projects and adequate utility by community people.
- j) Good governance should be institutionalized as it is an indispensable and surest cornerstone of every developmental agenda at all levels.
- k) Intergovernmental relations should be purposefully embraced as this will enhance participatory governance devoid of marginalization and exclusion.

8.3 CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE

- The study shows that the promotion of localism, fairness, freedom and responsibility has the potential to effectively deliver not just social and economic, but also environmental benefits at local levels.
- The study exposes the anomalies that had characterized the Nigerian local government administration over the years and posits that strict adherence to democratic ethos and principles are *sine qua non* to cohesion and development of local community.
- The study indicates that development is lacking at the community level because the instrumentality of local government is not being properly utilized.
- It exposes the link between socio-political cum economic deprivation and participatory inadequacies of the people at the grassroots and provides the platform on which it can be systematically resolved.

8.4 AGENDA FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The major contribution of this study is the revelation of the ineffectiveness of the local governments in enhancing community development in a stable democratic Republic in Nigeria. This position is based on the fact that advancing sustainable community development is anchored on the efficiency of the local government as the third tier of government in Nigeria. This study is restricted to cover only five of the twenty local governments in Lagos State, Nigeria. Consequently, the findings could be a partial view of the problem. Extending this study to other local governments in Lagos State and other States in the federation will provide more comprehensive picture with regards to the subject of study. In the same vein, the findings and conclusion of the present study may no doubt be reinforced by a more coverage of other local government in the federation.

8.5 CONCLUSION

The study ascertained the challenges of local government in community development in Lagos State, Nigeria between 1999 to 2012. The respondents identified incompatibility of government policies with community needs, insufficient sources of funds, poor implementation of programmes and lack of effective mobilization drive, among others, as the major constraints that limit local governments from achieving results in community development in their areas.

The identified constraints need integrated approach in providing solutions by all stakeholders in local community development including extension workers, professional groups, community leaders influential people in the community, government and non-governmental organizations, charity organizations and the international donor agencies.

It is viewed through this research that meaningful community engagement and involvement will be essential in identifying actual needs and agreeing the services to be delivered. It is vital, therefore that the bottom-up approach, with a focus on targeting those most in need and facilitating meaningful citizen participation, is embedded as integral part of the planning and decision making process as well as in the delivery of service.

While some data on community development was identified during this research a better understanding of what is taking place nationally is needed. Surveys of practice, documenting the experiences of community development practitioners and the impact of community consultation on strategic planning were suggested as other areas where research could inform practice.

Local Governments in Lagos State have been paying little attention to how to involve the communities more directly in planning and decision making. While representative democracy is the basis of the legitimacy of local government, there has been a growing recognition that the conventional participatory method of community development is not being explored by most councils in Lagos State.

There is a need for a continued focus on training senior council staff and elected representatives in community development principles and practice within the context of leadership training, allied with other initiatives as suggested.

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