RURAL DEPOPULATION: THE PLANNING IMPLICATIONS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF URBAN LAGOS.

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the challenges posed by cities in developing countries, particularly Lagos urban area otherwise called Lagos megacity against the backdrop of rural and even urban exodus from different parts of the country into it. Using mainly secondary data, the paper x-rayed the genesis of rural–urban migration and rural depopulation and implications to planning and managing a typical large urban city in developing countries such as Lagos megacity. The impacts of the growth of Lagos and other cities on rural areas were also discussed. The paper observed that Lagos was not prepared for its status as a megacity in terms of planning frameworks, institutional apparatus, infrastructure level, and indeed on all aspects that make a megacity to be an engine of growth for its immediate areas and the country as a whole, apart from its sheer huge population. Following the demographic trends, it is suggested that a thorough hierarchical organization of human settlements in the country is made and a deliberate planning and management policy to guide the development of the different level of human settlements. The paper finally submitted that there is need for proper understanding of concepts and rigorous analysis of the challenges, appropriate technologies and relevant information, political will, cooperation and sundry participation to be able to manage the Lagos megacity.

KEY WORDS: Urbanization, Depopulation, rural, urban, megacity, Planning, Management

INTRODUCTION

The process of urbanization continues to be more rapid and massive, challenging and affects a greater part of the world than ever before. The move from mainly rural society to an urbanized world has also impacted on all aspects of human lives. In 1950 less than one third of the human race were living in cities, but by 2025, it is expected that two-thirds will live in cities and 90 percent of this will be living in the cities of developing countries (Kante, 2004).

The migration of hundreds of millions of rural folks to cities in these still predominantly agrarian countries is the result of both institutional and structural changes caused by economic growth and this is revolutionizing the life of humanity just as are the other major aspects of economic and social modernization. This rush to the cities, caused in part by the attraction of opportunities for wealth generation and economic development, has created the phenomenon of 'megacities' that have a population of over 10 million. This incredibly rapid growth of megacities causes severe ecological, economical and social problems. It is increasingly difficult to manage this growth in a sustainable way. It is recognised that over 70% of the growth currently happens outside of the formal planning process and that 30% of urban populations in developing countries live in slums.
or informal settlements, where vacant state-owned or private land is occupied illegally and used for illegal slum housing (Kelly, 2011).

Indeed, leaders in developing countries see urbanization as a product of distorted policies that favour city growth and produces ‘urban elites’ thereby encouraging excessive migration to the cities, and in the process creating an army of unproductive and underemployed informal workers (Yunusa, 2011). The unprecedented rates of over-all population growth due to natural increase, rural-urban migration and city expansion are helping to swell the populations of individual cities more than ever before as a result, significant social, cultural, economic, and political problems are being created in the cities. This is because, where urbanization in the developed countries went hand in hand with infrastructure development, economic growth and improved welfare, this is not the case with developing countries, where rapid urban growth in these countries is both a problem for both cites and depopulating rural areas (Kante, 2004, Nanavati, 2004).

Currently, about 48% of Nigerians live in urban centres (FGN, 2010). Modern urbanization in Nigeria has been dominated by the growth of a single primate city, the political and commercial hub of the nation, Lagos. Rural - urban migration from other parts of the country into Lagos has been the major determinant for this high rate of urban population growth resulting in proliferation of slums and squatter settlements, high rate of unemployment, etc. It is estimated that between 20 and 80 % of urban growth in developing countries is informal, usually inhabited by the low-income people (Nwanna, 2012). Without secure access to land and the means of production, the paradigm of daily survival compels the poor, due to circumstances beyond their control or influence, to live within short- term horizons that degrade resources and fuel a downward spiral of poverty. These informal settlements have over time evolved informal systems of land tenure relations and management in spite of the state -sponsored land tenure law in Nigeria.

In the particular of Lagos area in Nigeria, it is evident that the promising geographical location of the region for games, fishing and farming; the security provided by the creeks, swamps and lagoons; and the prosperity which the road and water networks promises all made the progenitors of the various migrating groups to make Lagos their last resort (Ajetunmobi, Osiyale and Omotere, 2013) and form the basis of what Lagos is today.

AIM AND OBJECTIVES
This paper is an attempt at understanding the challenges posed by cities in developing countries, particularly Lagos Megacity. The paper shows:

a) How the rural regions affect the sustainable development of cities through migration and in retrospect also ruin their own virility and prospect of sustainable endeavours and

b) Some models to use in generating a solution to the issue – to create a balance in urban and rural development for sustainability at both ends.

METHODOLOGY
The research method adopted involves qualitative analysis of archival materials, publications of the Lagos State Government and its agencies, and other secondary data related to Lagos State, including Nigeria National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) and the United Nations-Habitat. In addition, primary data were obtained through participant-observation; the researcher purposely observed and recorded the state and quality of physical and social infrastructure, these were reinforced by residual memories of experiences derived from an early childhood in the Lagos and rural areas in Kwara state of the 1960s.
These research techniques were complemented by a review of literature on urban growth, development and mega-cities as well as rural-urban migrations. The analysis of this body of data provides the evidence that justify the conclusion and recommendations

OVERVIEW OF RURAL DEPOPULATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES
For many years, rural-urban migration was viewed favourably in the development literature. Although Internal migration involves rural to rural, urban to rural, rural to urban and urban to urban migrations, however, rural to urban migration is the most significant (Olajuyin, 2002). Reasons for this movement include; employment, social amenities and other opportunities as a result of attraction of the cities, as well as other push factors. This movement was also thought to be a natural process in which surplus labour was gradually withdrawn from the rural sector to provide needed manpower for urban industrial growth process. This was deemed socially beneficial because human resources were being shifted from locations where their social marginal product was often assumed to be zero to places where this marginal product was not only positive but also rapidly growing as a result of capital accumulation and technological progress. The major interest of the pro-migration school of thought was with policies that would release labour to increase the flow. Indeed, one of the reasons given for trying to increase productivity in the agricultural sector was to release sufficient labour for urban industrialization (Nanavati, 2004). Paradoxically, increase in rural productivity is also meant to discourage rural–urban migration.

In contrast to the pro-migration viewpoint, research and experience have made clear that rates of rural-urban migration in developing countries have greatly exceeded rates of urban job creation and overwhelmed the absorptive capacity of both formal-sector industry and urban social services. Migration can no longer be casually viewed as a beneficent process necessary to solve problems of growing urban labour demand. On the contrary, migration today remains a major factor contributing to the phenomenon of urban surplus labour; a force that continues to exacerbate already serious urban unemployment problems caused by the growing economic and structural imbalances between urban and rural areas in developing countries. Migration exacerbates these rural-urban structural imbalances in two direct ways (Todaro, 1997 as cited by Nanavait, 2004):

First, on the supply side, rural - urban migration disproportionately increases the growth rate of urban job seekers relative to urban population growth. Their presence tends to swell the urban labour supply while depopulating the rural countryside of valuable human capital. Second, on the demand side, urban job creation is generally more difficult to accomplish than rural job creation because of the requirement of skills and adequate training needs and other complementary resource inputs for most jobs in the industrial sector. Moreover, because of paucity of development resources, especially funds, the attention given to the emerging towns meant the neglect of larger section of the country. The intolerable difficulty and poorly managed school system and low productivity of farms informed a push of rural inhabitants to the urban areas. Thus creating a higher concentration of people in already over- burdened cities, like Lagos and over stretching the available infrastructure, facilities and services. In Lagos and other major Nigerian cities, inadequate housing, water supply, transportation, etc. are the rule (Otto, 2008).

Indeed, unprecedented depopulation of rural communities and rural to urban migration are both direct results and drivers of poverty, hunger, health crisis, and violence that threaten our world. Furthermore, rural to urban migration has had drastic and dramatic effects on environmental health and, consequently, the sustainability of our planet. Hope for a sustainable and peaceful future depends upon the health of rural communities (Catis, 2011). Moreover, worldwide, rural communities - particularly indigenous and peasant communities of developing countries are disintegrating at an alarming pace. Collapsing ecosystems, eroding cultural and social support
systems, displacement of local economies, lack of government services and support, and rising violence continues to force huge numbers of rural people to abandon their homes and livelihoods for greener pasture in urban centers. In addition, globalization and market liberalization have induced mass migration from rural areas to cities and from the interior to coastal regions destinations like Lagos Urban area.

The above accounts show that rural–urban migration poses more challenges than the opportunities it seems to create for migrants, their families and the host communities on which they tend to reside. These problems are of greater dimension and more severe in the African cities, where the provision of public infrastructure lags several times behind the growth of population. Hence, Africa cities, like Lagos are not fulfilling the promise of raising the living standards of their inhabitants. According to Yunusa (2011) “they are more easily seen as homes of the poor and deprived, islands of desperation and degradation for large contingents of people and the sites and sources for environmental pollution and degradation as well as social anomie, exclusion, crime and insecurity”, She further opined that urbanization is linked to a pathological process that perpetuates poverty in both urban poor neighbourhoods and rural areas. Governments in developing countries seem to have come to the conclusion that urban problems are primarily rural, and for a long time now have shown their bias for rural development. Yet with the investments in agriculture and general rural development, rural-urban migration continued unabated (Yunusa, 2011). This is to suggest that urbanization is unstoppable in cities and the rural area must be given attention for a sustainable overall development.

In essence, the objective of this paper is to explain the challenges of rural–urban migration in Nigeria with respect to the growth and development of urban Lagos or what is now Lagos Mega-City. The paper will also discuss the motivating factors forcing the movement of the rural people into the urban settlements, particularly urban Lagos and the implication of this for planning purposes. The study expects to discover higher negative consequences including but not limited to unemployment, the growth of slum, and overcrowding and general unliveability of the city. Finally, the paper will make suggestions that will touch on general population and urbanization policies with a view to easing the management of Lagos megacity.

THE GENESIS OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN NIGERIA
There is no doubt that rural areas in Nigeria are engulfed in chronic and endemic crisis. The background to this crisis dates back to the colonial era. It has its roots in colonial exploitation of resources of rural areas thus increasing levels or degrees of rural poverty and changing the entire structure of the rural economy. This commercial interest largely, explains the pattern of urbanization and city development in the colonial era. Trade in agricultural produce and valuable minerals between Nigeria and the western world was encouraged (Otto, 2008). Railways, roads and other relevant social infrastructure to achieve the goal of colonialist were put in place, primarily to link areas of rich agricultural produce and mineral production. As a result two parallel rail-lines were constructed straight from Pot-Harcourt harbour to Kano and another from Lagos to Kano to Lagos ports. In addition, the colonial administration provided other infrastructure to facilitate ease of administration and accommodation for its officers within and in the immediate neighbourhood of the areas of their operation. The towns with these initial advantages attracted people from the farm and rural areas to participate in the international trade to the detriment of farming in rural areas.

With Independence in 1960, and the reign of power securely with indigenous elites, development policies on poverty reduction, elimination of ignorance and diseases culminating in industrialization by import substitution, promotion of education and improved health, all these further encouraged rural-urban migration (Mabogunje, 1980).
Further impetus to rural-urban migration came from creation of more states in Nigeria, from initial 3 or 4 regions to twelve states, then Nineteen, 21 and currently thirty six with the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja, complemented by 774 Local Government areas (LGAs). All these creations attracted people to one State capital or Local headquarter or the other as growth point. In deed, it is estimated that rural-urban migration accounts for over 60 percent of urban growth in Nigeria (Otto, 2008). In all these migrations, it on record that Lagos as a city or state, and a primate city in Nigeria, benefited more than any town or city as trend in population growth shows in Table1 below.

The first assault in rural areas was on the nature of land holding which subsequently affected the nature and system of social production and productivity, the social and physical provision of infrastructure, the ecology and labour force recruitment as well worsened the overall poverty level amongst rural residents (Mabogunje, 1980).

The nature and extent of problems in rural areas are immense and numerous, including; low productivity, food shortages, particularly for the urban dwellers, and low income, which, no doubt, manifest a serious crisis of poverty, apathy and despair within the rural communities. Rural problems and poverty in Nigeria became heightened with the advent of oil and it has persisted despite the fact that the country is richly endowed in oil and other mineral resources (Karl, 1997), even with efforts at the development of Agriculture and cottage industry in the rural areas (Yunusa, 2011).

Jamal and Weeks (1993) have noted that before the discovery and production of petroleum, Nigeria was a State characterized by a relatively narrow rural-urban gap. But with the emergence of oil as the mainstay of the economy and the subsequent projects and developments associated with oil wealth, urban oriented economy swiftly characterized the socio-economic and political landscape and the public policy orientation (Karl, 1997). Urban privileged groups quickly monopolized and benefited from whatever gains that came along with oil (Jamal and Weeks, 1993). Indeed, vast rural poor and increasing urban poor and a tiny group who are opulently rich today characterize Nigerian population.

The proportion of population distribution in Nigeria today, shows that urban areas now have a slight edge over rural areas (State of Lagos Megacity Report, 2004). However, the trend in the Nigeria’s oil economy is still characterized by rural exodus, rural economy in agricultural pursuits is undermined by migration due to continued urbanization process in Nigeria and globally.

The depopulation of rural areas has affected the areas so much that the peasants have failed to produce enough food for subsistence, let alone produce for sale or export. Thus, food shortages, lower productivity, lower income and increased poverty have ravaged rural Nigeria. These are partly and directly due to the inability of the peasants to have access to fertilizer for the predominantly fertilizer-responsive High Yielding Variety (HYV) crops, inputs and other infrastructural facilities (Abass, 2004). However, high marketing costs, labour shortages due to rural-urban drift, infertile soils, and pests, diseases due to increased use of organic chemicals on the soil and mechanization of agriculture as well as poor infrastructure like roads, storage facilities etc. have produced further impetus to rural migration (Martinussen, 1988 as cited by Abass, 2004).

What further bedevils the rural setting is the wrong diagnosis to the problems of rural areas. As wrong solutions are being applied, they in turn produce wrong results due to the faulty understanding of the problems. For example, the so-called traditional farm management is adduced to be the causal factor for the so-called technical backwardness, caused by the vicious
circle of inputs scarcity and the ageing farm population without giving further impetus to the young in agricultural pursuits (Ajeagbu, 1976). In addition, Mabogunje (1980) observed that efforts at rural development in Nigeria have not been fruitful principally because appropriate scenes for the working of the strategies were not set. According to him, there is the need to recognize the important role which spatial organization albeit settlement size and distribution and integration should play in the effective workings of any strategy that is supposed to bring cumulative development to the rural areas.

Consequently, rural environments have become highly characterized by low or under-investment of resources. The result of this has invariably caused serious scarcity of credits; bringing about low farm prices sequel to, among others, the vacillating price policies and unfavourable terms of trade between rural and urban sectors. However, the huge marketing costs, caused by inadequate rural infrastructures, have made further assaults on rural condition of living. The worsening of rural socio-economic condition is not only a crisis affecting it but also the national economy as well.

Public policies overtime, have brought about a plethora of issues militating against rural society. These include the discriminatory public policy attention paid to rural small-scale peasant farmers, particularly in irrigated project sites, which place too much emphasis and dependence on public investments with large-scale enterprises and urban capitalist farmers being the central focus. The rural economy of course entails and transcends farming and even agriculture; it is broader and includes agriculture, industry and social services. Within this diversity of activities in the rural society, Mortimore (1989) observed, “It often seems to be assumed that a decline in rural non-agricultural activity will accompany urbanization and the transformation of agriculture. But such an assumption does violate the multifaceted structure of rural economies.

Although, farming practice and mode of production in the rural areas are outdated and conservative, as it cannot make any dramatic change and increases in production and productivity, it is equally true that modern technology is highly inappropriate to the state of affairs of the rural realities or indigenous farming systems. In other words, the technology is highly inappropriate for the rural farming system, values and orientation. The dependency nature of rural environment on urban policy and bureaucratic tangling has, however, produced undesirable constraints on the efficiency of labour and other productive processes (Abass, 2004).

It is an established fact that public policy on agriculture has by and large shown great bias against the small scale farmers; particularly those in rural areas, as the inputs, credits and other facilities concretely show its bias in favour of the large scale urban arm-chair farmers at the expense of the predominant peasant population. Thus, the improvement of the peasantry is, any way, an inevitable historical outcome of the intrusion of mechanized or large scale farming into the countryside under colonial and post-colonial conditions (Watts, 1983).

Rural development is imperative. However, a subtle manipulation by politicians who for only political gains are harping on the sentiments of rural development to appease the mostly illiterate rural folks and added to this, is the genuine need to improve poverty situation in the rural areas. All these have helped to call attention to rural development, but despite all the seeming attempts to alleviate rural poverty by both the state and international agencies through many ambitious programmes either through agriculture or industrialization, they have nevertheless failed to transform rural life. In addition, Yunusa (2011) sees attempts at stopping or curtailing rural-urban migration as unnecessary and an opportunistic effort that is cashing in on the uncertainty of the boundaries of planning as a ploy for continuing to ignore the urgency of the urban challenge. She
asserts that the issues related to sustainable human settlements development require an integrated approach and a strong and deliberate mention in the governments’ strategic plans.

To be able to actively participate and benefit from the wide range of agricultural activities and other non-agriculture related livelihoods in the rural areas by women, the youth and the unemployed, there is need for policies and programmes that will educate, train and facilitate their access to opportunities and success in these ventures (Onyebinama, 2010). Such policies and programmes must also of necessity encourage the development of the entrepreneurial capacity of farmers, with the prerequisite technical and managerial competences for innovation, identification of investment opportunities, selection of particular opportunities for exploitation, promotion and establishment of the business enterprise, organization and management of human and material resources for the attainment of the objective of the enterprise, risk bearing and innovation (Onyebinama & onyebinama, 2010).

THE LAGOS URBAN AREA
Lagos or generally Lagos State lies approximately between longitudes 2° 42’E and 3° 42’E and latitude 6° 22’N and 6° 52’N. Lagos state has the following characteristics;
A) The smallest but most populace city in Nigeria (figure 1)
B) Stretches 180km along the Atlantic Coastline. At the Northern and Eastern sides lies Ogun State and the Western side is bordered by Republic of Benin. Lagos State is perhaps the smallest state in Nigeria in term of land area with only 0.4 percent of the Nigeria land space and account for about 9.7 percent of national population.
C) Increasing rate of population growth of over 9% per annum, resulting to additional 1.4 million persons per annum and about 4,000 people per day
D) Her population density of one person per square kilometer is about 16 times the national average
E) 17% of the total land area of Lagos is made up of Lagoons and water
F) A population projected to be in excess of 20 million today (see table 1) and account for nearly 50% of the total value added by the manufacturing sector of Nigeria and increasing capital intensive than other parts of the country.

Population growth in Lagos has been phenomenal since 1950 (Table 1). Population figure of Lagos in 1850 was about 20,000. Based on the 1952 census, the population of Lagos numbered 680,000. Eleven years later, the 1963 census put the population at 1,135,805. In 1973, the population figure was 2.47 million. By 1990, Lagos population had reached 5,726,000 million. In the 2006 census, the Lagos State Government claimed that the population of those residing in Lagos reached 17,552,942 (Bamgbose, 2009) as against the population figure of 9,013,534 by Federal government of Nigeria (National Bureau of Statistics, 2007). This phenomenal population explosion is attributable to significant economic, commercial and political changes that made Lagos the fastest growing city in Nigeria. The high urban rate of Lagos is accounted for by both ‘push’ factors (land degradation, low incomes, low productivity, etc.) and ‘pull’ factors (the glamour of urban areas, higher incomes, services, clean water, electricity etc.). Most people migrated in search of employment opportunities that are often not available. They, therefore, engage in irregular, low-income employment making them poor that they cannot afford conventional housing. They live in sub-standard housing. Indeed, there is no doubt about man’s survival ethics or behaviour. In the absence of “rules and regulations backed by serious enforcements”, man desperately search for survival and the building of livelihoods to reduce, mitigate and cope with shocks and risks to his survival also poses great challenges for entire communities and cities. Certainly, these are evident in many of the known cities in developing countries—they are characterized by uncontrolled growth and build environments expansions, congestions and poor sanitation, commonly called blighted area (Diko, 2013).
The rate of population growth is about 600,000 per annum with a population density of 20,000 per sq km (Lagos State Government, 2010). As the pace of urbanization and urban growth speeds up, Lagos State government’s capacity to manage the consequences of undesirable urban trends decreases due to inadequate spending on human and institutional capacities, services delivery, adequate and affordable housing and job opportunities. The social, economic and environmental effects of these failures fall heavily on the poor, who are excluded from the benefits of urban prosperity. Among the symptoms of over-urbanization in Lagos are slum and squatter settlements proliferation, high unemployment rates, social polarization and crime, rural depopulation, which all result from systemic governance failure and unequal distribution of urban or national wealth (Nwanna, 2012).

Other problems of rapid urbanization in Lagos are: increasing concerns over inadequacy of basic infrastructures, congestion, urban decay and urban governance challenges, which contributes to the invasion of urban spaces resulting in the loss of land and natural resources (Olajide, 2010). In view of the implications of the increasing urban population for sustainable development, the 2002 Johannesburg’s World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) called on all governments to address the overwhelming challenge of provision of urban basic services especially decent
houses, water and sanitation for the teeming people where the quality of life is appalling (Ajetunmobi, Osiyale and Omotere, 2013)

Table 1: Lagos Population Trends (1985-2015)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population (million)</th>
<th>Global Ranking</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>31st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>22nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>10.28</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>13.42</td>
<td>6th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>16.86</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>20.19</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>3rd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UN-Habitat, State of Lagos Megacity Report, 2004

Otokiti (2008) described Lagos urban area “as a dynamic centre of resource neutrality and optimality, from all indications, Lagos is not just a resource centre, it is dynamic in nature and her capacity increases in response to increased requirement for knowledge, improved arts and information technology, and expanding science of mental revolution”. He emphasized that; the Lagos urban area resource drive can change in response to changing individual wants and social objectives. Lagos resources have been defined as the means of attaining given ends. These resources must reflect every change in the purpose, value to evaluator needs by the appraisers, the participants and the institutions must incorporate proximate and ultimate requirements, yet, and corporate organizations institutions etc. must be geared to responsive awareness, mission and objective implementation.

Indeed, various stakeholders within Lagos urban area or megacity must see resources as the basis of the economic prosperity of the nation and must strive to collectively explore and develop it as it is with the urban areas or megacities of the developed countries. However, in most parts of Africa, including Lagos urban area, nature has been overgenerous in terms of endowments, but development of resource to match city growth as in Lagos has failed as major parts of Lagos lack resource consciousness to turn potentials to active developmental resources (Otokiti, 2008).

As far as Nigerian nation is concerned, the vibrancy, economic growth and posterity of people in Lagos and Lagos itself reflect what Nigeria nation is like, according to Otokiti (2008), “even when the physical universe may be seen as partially constant, Lagos resources is ever changing in reflection to national needs and possibly changing according to capacity and focus”.

How did Lagos metamorphosed from a farmstead to a megacity?

LAGOS: FROM A FARMSTEAD TO A MEGACITY.

Lagos is older than most people think. In 1982, Lagos (Eko) became five hundred years old and today, it is 532 years old. The city is made up island and the mainland. Historical accounts show that the indigenous populations that formed the various communities in Lagos were the Awori, Ijebu, Egun and Ilaje. These groups of people came into Lagos as a result of series of migrations from the West African sub-region and Yoruba hinterland, particularly Ile-Ife (Ajetunmobi, 2012).

The nucleus of development on the Lagos Island in terms of human habitation began in Isheri, where many Awori moved first to Iddo and later to the Island. The present palace of Oba of Lagos at Iga Idiganran was first to be habituated by Aromire. This inspired other Awori groups.
who subsequently settled in other parts of the Lagos Island such as Iru, Ikoyi, and other Lagoon areas of Lagos. The Aworis also founded Isheri, Otto-Olofin, Iddo, Ebute-Meta. Apa, Ibereko, Ojo, Itire, Mushin, Iba, Oto-Awori, Ijanikin, Ilogbo-Elegba, Ilogbo-Eremi, Iworo, Agbara, etc.

As early as 1600, the Ijebus, who were basically traders, had settled at Idumagbo where they traded with the Europeans at the coast. Meanwhile, majority of their settlements such as Eko-Epe, Ikorodu, Ibeju-Lekki, Makun Omi, Ketu were founded during the trans-Atlantic slave trade in the 18th century. The Yoruba internecine of the 19th century also resulted in the formation of Ajegunle, Ebute-Meta, Okokomaiko and Idi Araba; fleeing Egba Christian converts and European merchants also settled at Ebute-Meta as a result of persecution from the Egba people. Other eighteen and nineteen century’s migrants to Lagos are the fishermen and Ilaje speaking people from the riverine areas of Ondo State. They established their homes in Ilubirin and Ijeh areas of Lagos Island. The next group, Egun people who are largely from Whidah, Allada and Weme in the present day Republic of Benin founded Badagry and other Ogu towns during the Dahomey wars and trans-Atlantic slave trade in the 18th and 19th centuries. The Ilaje were also among the early immigrants to Lagos and are mostly found in present day Badagry, Ikorodu, Ojo, Itasin, Ajegunle, Ijora and Owode (Ajetunmobi, 2003).

Danmole (2008) insisted that internal migration resulting from Islamic revolution in Hausaland to the far north, the crisis in Old Oyo Kingdom in the then immediate Lagos hinterland as well as the abolition of Slave Trade by the British all helped to swell the population of Lagos in the eighteen and nineteen century. Freed Slaves that were initially captured in Yorubaland and later resettled in Free-town, Sierra Leone subsequently returned to Lagos and were settled in Olowogbowo area of Lagos Island, while their counterparts brought from Brazil and Cuba also settled at Popo–Aguda. These repatriates were not accorded rosy welcome, especially by royal elites, who saw them as threats to their authorities. With time however, the expertise brought by the repatriates as artisan, craftsmen and harbingers of Western education and culture, and their contributions to the growth of anti-British sentiments endeared them to the earlier settlers.

Moreover, Lagos also attracted a number of conquering immigrants. Indeed, Ajetunmobi, Osiyale and Omoterem (2013) observed that the conquerors were largely responsible for the rise of Lagos as an urban settlement. Between 1578 and 1606, two paramount rulers from Benin Kingdom in the present day Edo State initiated an expansionist activities along the coastal zone of Yorubaland that eventually made Eko (a local name for Lagos) a Benin military base and colony. Their warriors and people eventually settled in Ebute-Meta in the mainland, Ebute-Ero and Enu-Owa in the island, and other parts of Lagos. Another conquering immigrants came from Dahomey (Benin Republic), its southward expansionist policy led to mass movement of its people as refugees into nearby towns including Badagry in Lagos State. The third and perhaps the strongest conqueror was the colonization by the British.

In 1851, the British proclaimed a consulate over the city of Lagos and due to the ambitious business interest of the British in West Africa, Lagos was eventually annexed in 1861. According to Danmole (2008), “the annexation of Lagos had serious implications not only for the city but also for the whole of what became Nigeria in the second decade of the twentieth century”. As a small settlement only a century ago, was not only becoming larger with some physical development, it was also fast becoming a centre from which events in future Nigeria was determined.

Lagos therefore became a base from which the British furthered their business interests by exploiting and exploring the resources of Yorubaland and further north. In doing this, the British administration in Lagos recruited many people, mostly Hausas into their Royal Constabulary
Force and later the West African Frontier Force. This is the basis for the preponderance of many Hausa settlements in Obalende on the island and Okokomaiko till today (Danmole, 2008).

The annexation of Lagos also paved way for the influx of Europeans in Lagos. Many British officials were posted to Lagos for the administration of the new colony. The diversification of the population of Lagos which started with the location of military camps populated by the Hausas in Obalende and Okokomaiko among others, continued with influx of European merchants to explore and exploit for raw materials and other natural resources of the Lagos hinterland. This is the beginning of Lagos becoming cosmopolitan in outlook. Many European firms dotted the Lagos Marina in the closing years of nineteenth and the opening years of twentieth century, economic activities in the Lagos Marina, with its lagoon view, impacted so much on the inhabitants of Lagos which further served as magnet of attraction to people in other areas of what is now known as Nigeria. Indeed, the important position that Lagos occupies in today’s Nigeria in terms of the economy began before the birth of Nigeria as a country (Danmole, 2008).

While religion, especially Islam and Christianity as well as local partisan politics became veritable tools of education and other socio-economic enlightenment in Lagos, the colonial administration were not found wanting in the physical development of Lagos. As a seat of the colonial state, infrastructure facilities to improve the living conditions of the people were put in place. General hospital, police station and law courts were put in place as early as 1930. Market facilities were built in many places e.g. Kayero markets in Sabo, Yaba and Jankara market on the Lagos Island. The level of economic activities that the markets generated resulted in the continued flow of migrant settlers to Lagos. Furthermore, the formal sector of the economy, such as banking, shipping, import and export trade, provided employment opportunities for a large number of people flocking into Lagos.

As the population continued to swell, Lagos witnessed several suburban expansions into the countryside from the central core, an area of 70 sq km, encroaching and absorbing other fringe settlements. Expansion of the city into the countryside was a difficult and costly exercise (Olokesusi, 2011). The site of Lagos, inundated with many creeks, lagoons and mangrove swamps, posed several constraints to physical development. Spatial expansion of the city was accomplished through several land reclamation schemes, which took place in three main periods. The first period was from 1900-1929 by the colonial administration in Obalende – Ikoyi-victoria Island. The second phase was between 1930- 1950 by the Lagos Executive Development Board (LEDB). The third phase was between 1951-1970 by the Federal Government of Nigeria when land reclamation was first extended to the mainland in Iganmu area. Through this process, the land area of the metropolis was greatly enlarged as it engulfed several small neighbouring areas, such as Mushin, Somolu- Bariga and other places that were part of the old western Region. These settlements were the first stopping points of many Lagos- bound migrants (Olokesusi, 2011).

Further urban growth further annexed more settlements up to Ikorodu and Epe in manner that brought home the meaning of urban sprawl and urban agglomerations. In the more recent past, till present Lagos state government in collaboration with private property development and construction firms have been reclaiming lands for provision on housing for middle class and upper class Nigerians in Dolphin and Eko Atlantic projects.

The post independence policies of the indigenous leaders did helped to promote internal migration especially to Lagos and between rural and other urban centres. According to Mabogunje (1980), efforts at rapid development of the country and to directly touch the lives of the citizen saw the establishment of various projects aimed at: eradicating ignorance (education), diseases (health), and poverty (import substitution industrialization) in the land. Unfortunately, all
These efforts led to rural exodus to the cities, swelling the population of the cities and putting heavy pressure on public utilities and services. Increase in the urban population thus resulted in the proliferation of slums and informal peri-urban settlements otherwise known as shantytowns (Lawanson, 2008). In these shantytowns, residents lived in squalid and congested environmental condition. Poverty, underemployment and unemployment became widespread. In general, many urban residents lacked access to adequate health services, portable water, good roads and electricity. Crime rates became high and residents lacked security with regards to their lives and properties. All these posed major urban planning and management problems for governments and urban managers till date (Ibrahim et al., 2011).

The new wave of migration to the city coupled with rapid industrial growth made possible by the oil boom of the 1970s, led to the enlargement of built-up areas through government and private initiatives. Since economic consideration is an important determinant in migration to Lagos, the city continued to be attractive to people from all works of life, consequently Lagos metropolis continued to encompass new areas. Therefore, the megacity that Lagos has become is the handiwork of Nigerians who have made Lagos their home. Even with the transfer of Administrative Capital of Nigeria, effectively to Abuja in December 1991, Lagos with its natural endowments and its industrial cum commercial development has up to this day remained the economic capital of Nigeria.

Today, Lagos is one of the highly urbanized cities in Africa. It has transformed from a farming/fishing village settlement of merely 3.8sq km in 1881 to a huge metropolis of over 1, 183 sq km and to a Mega City, making it the hub of economic activities and the most densely populated city in Africa. Although the mega-city occupies only 37 percent of the land area of Lagos State, it accommodates nearly 90 percent of the population. The average population density within the Lagos Megacity Region (LMCR) is about 20,000 persons per square kilometre, compared to the national average of only 1, 308 persons (Ilesanmi, 2010). Inadequacy of decent housing has resulted in the Lagos state section of the LMCR recording 42 slum areas in 1985 and over 100 in 2006. Almost 70 percent of Lagos’ populations consequently live in slums (FRN, 2006).

Located between latitude 6 40’N and longitude 3 27’E, Lagos State is bounded in the west by the Republic of Benin, in the east by Ondo State, in the north by Ogun State and in the south by the Atlantic Ocean (figure 1). In its over five hundred years of existence, Lagos has passed through a gradual but steady process of urbanization and social change.

Moreover, the growth of Lagos is seen as avenue for development of its hinterland region in many ways. Such urban growth can: (1) create employment opportunities for rural commuters; (2) create new opportunities for firms to locate in nearby small cities and rural areas to serve Lagos markets; (3) lead to greater congestion in large cities that may push firms to locate in nearby smaller towns and rural communities. In Canada, Partridge et al., (2007) found that urban-led growth can extend out 200 kilometers into the countryside, lifting the rural economy. However, In Lagos, as in most other Nigerian cities, city growth is a parasite on the countryside.

Consequent, on migration and population growth in Lagos, evidence shows that the average of residents in the city is 26 years. The population pyramid of the residents of Lagos and Male/female proportion as represented in figure 2a &2b indicate the bulge in the youth-adult cohort. The implication of this is the likelihood that population increase by natural increase may be high, complementing high immigration.
Figure 2: Population Pyramids for Total and Migrant Population, Lagos, 2005

Indeed, the history of Lagos in the last two decades of the 20th century has been marked by severe deterioration in quality of life: high level of poverty; proliferation of slums; environmental degradation; dilapidated and congested road system; massive flooding; disrupted sewerage network; and increasing crime rates (George, 2010 in Ilesammi, 2010). In terms of spatial expansion, from its original lagoon setting, the sprawling city has engulfed a vast expanse of surrounding areas including over 100 different slums (Figure 3). Abiodun (1997) affirms that the vitality of Lagos’s economy and its nodal position in the national economy and transport networks explain its growth, despite the breakdown of many basic infrastructure services and the difficulties caused by this for both economic enterprises and individual residents (Ilesanmi, 2010). In spite of this, Lagos remains the economic and financial hub of Nigeria as more than 60 percent of total economic activities take place in Lagos State (Adejana, 2008). The idea is to transform this burgeoning mega-city into a viable and sustainable urban scheme – without inflicting injuries on its social, cultural and ecological dimensions – rather than allow it to degenerate into a mega-slum of despair.
Figure 3: Slum communities in Lagos

THE PROBLEMS OF LAGOS MEGACITY DEVELOPMENT

The problems associated with cities, the size of Lagos in a developing country is multifarious, multi-sectoral and affects all aspect of living and development. Specific problem includes: high urban densities, transport, traffic congestion, energy inadequacy, unplanned development and lack of basic services, illegal construction both within the city and in the periphery, informal real estate markets, creation of slums, poor natural hazards management in overpopulated areas, crime, water, soil and air pollution leading to environmental degradation and poor governance arrangements. Accordingly Otokiti (2008) problems associated with Lagos megacity development include “the possibility of increasing differentiation of various economic activities necessitating needs for increasing traffic flow, rising ecological burdens, pollutant burdens, overspill of more or less monotonous suburbs, modern communication technologies for alternatives traffic policy, now and in anticipation of sharp increase in volume of traffic”.

Source: Adapted from Ilesanmi, A. O. (2010)
Land issue is another major challenge. Lagos has only 0.4 percent of the Nigerian space but 9.7 percent of its population. With over 4000 persons/hectare, land availability for individuals and corporate institutions is perhaps the most vexed issue in Lagos. In Lagos, land is gold. Landed issues around Lagos area, particularly and more importantly with respect to properties owned and abandoned by federal government when it moved to Abuja, all these must be resolved. Competition for resources and development finance between the state and local investors, between Federal and other stakeholders, all these tend to affect primarily the natives of Lagos urban areas and the emerging ones (Otokiti, 2008).

The nature of industrial establishment and facilities provision is a problems and constraints on development in Lagos urban areas. Some of these problems are national, while others are specific to Lagos urban area. Studies of industrial establishments in Lagos by Otokiti (2008) show that between 91 percent to 100 percent unsatisfactory situation of electricity supply, telecommunication, and public water supply, as shown in table 2. In addition, access roads, drainage, waste disposal, security, fire service and public transport are also in a very poor state (see table 2).

### Table 2: Problems of industries in Metropolitan Lagos

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Services</th>
<th>No. of Establishment Reporting</th>
<th>%Complaining of Unsatisfactory Service</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electricity supply</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunications</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Water supply</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access Roads</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drainage</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waste Disposal</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fire Service</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Transport</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Otoikiti, 2008.

In a similar study about problems facing city administrators in Lagos, Hong Kong, Tokyo, Seoul, Istanbul, London and New York, the International Federation of Surveyors (FIG) (2006) found that not only are underlisted problems present in Nigeria, but at a very high level.

- Informal Settlements (Land tenure, development approval, building control)
- Traffic management
- Natural hazards (floods, fires)
- Unclear responsibilities and mandates (within or between administrations)
- Uncoordinated planning
- Water management (fresh water supply and waste–water disposal)
- Provision of continuous electric power
- Visual pollution and garbage disposal
- Air and water pollution control
- Population growth

Other problems associated with Lagos megacity include:

- High urban densities, limited green areas and buildings reflecting local cultural heritage, of local historic or architectural value
- Informal development, insecurity of tenure, informal real estate markets, illegal construction both within the city and in the periphery; dilapidated city centres, creation of
slums

- Unsustainable land use
- Commuting problems, traffic congestion
- Food, water and energy insecurity
- Lack of basic services such as public transportation, fresh water, parking areas, waste management, sanitation and public toilets
- Poor natural hazards (floods, fires, earthquakes) management in overpopulated areas
- Crime, increase of inequalities
- Water, soil and air pollution; environmental degradation
- Climate change
- Inefficient administration, poor governance

Moreover, Lagos megacity is continuously increasing in aerial size, extending the boundaries of the city. Thus urban planning is experiencing a crisis with myriad of problems as identified above. In the particular of Lagos Megacity, Gbadegesin and Aluko (2010) identified such problems as including; decay, slum, overcrowding, lawlessness, invasion of peri-urban spaces, causing the loss of land and natural resources. The basis of the crisis lies in the dimensions and expansion (or nature and pattern of urbanization (Olokesusi, 2011)) of the megacity where these problems become even more severe. For instance 42 slum communities or blighted areas were identified in Lagos metropolis in 1981 by World Bank Urban renewal project (Atere, 2001). The number of slums in the city is estimated to have increased to about 100 (The State Urban Renewal Board) due to the inadequacy of private public institutions to provide housing the increasing population (Adelekan, 2004). Figure 4 shows the temporal changes in Lagos slum population.

Inadequacy of basic infrastructures in the Lagos Megacity for many years, poor urban planning together with other urban governance challenges contribute to making Lagos slum dwellers works at risk. For example, housing in Lagos State is inadequate both in quantity and in quality due to ever increasing urban population. A 1970 Nigerian Government Urban Survey showed that 70% of the households in Lagos lived in one-room housing units (UNECA, 1989).
There was a deficit of 3 million houses in urban centres in 1987 (Syagga 1987). Construction has not kept pace with urban rapidly expanding populations leading to severe overcrowding and congestion particularly in Lagos Metropolis. For instance, average number of persons per room in Lagos State is 5.4 while four persons occupy a single room in metropolitan Lagos in housing units that lacked good sanitation and uninterrupted water supply (Nwanna, 2004, 2012). The majority of urban residents are crowded into these areas and other enclaves of low-income groups (Chatterjee, 1983). The problems within such settlements have continued to bother planners and administrators alike and have generated different responses. The main approach by Lagos State government in most cases is eviction of the residents, demolition or slum clearance and relocation (Nwanna, 2012).

Slum clearance is not of a recent origin in Lagos. It dates back to 1920 when there was a demolition by the Lagos Executive Development Board (LEDB) now known, as the Lagos State Development and Property Corporation (LSDPC) in response to the outbreak of bubonic plague. This was followed by the pre-independence demolition, which resulted in the celebrated Isale-Eko clearance to give the visiting Queen of England a pleasing view of the area. The pre-independence and immediate post-independence clearances in Nigeria were marked by a series of evictions in the 1980s. A large-scale eviction took place in Maroko in 1990 where some 300,000 people were forcibly ejected (Agbola and Jinadu, 1997). Later, the area was transformed into a condominium known as Oniru Private Housing Estate beyond the reach of the urban poor (Nwanna, 2012).
Unemployment is a major challenge of Lagos urban area. Basic industries are contributing only about 10 percent to employment, while non-basic is contributing 90 percent (State of Lagos Megacity Report, 2004). This means non-basic activities serving the city are more numerous and employ more people and generate higher volumes of goods and services than basic activities. This is not expected of a city that is supposed to be the most populous in the world by the year 2020 (Yunusa, 2011). This is indicative of a city still at the early stages of economic development, rather than a city that is supposed to be an important player on the global level that Lagos ought to be in the 21st century and beyond. The problems of Lagos urban area is further compounded by “the downturn in the national economy and additional increase/expansion in the output of over 96 universities at national level about 20 in Lagos mega environment”(Otokiti, 2008).

Lagos, like most African cities, has potential to play the economic roles like prosperous cities in the advanced countries, by current trends, they are losing more than they gain because they are not yet engine of growth that they should be. Their connection to the global and the regional economy is still weak, limited and tenuous. According to Yunusa (2011) Lagos like other African cities are suffering from an unfavourable integration to the global market (via trade and investment) depending more and more on international assistance.

It is obvious therefore, that urbanization alone does not necessarily bring about economic prosperity, and in order to achieve economic development, the process of urbanization needs to be backed up with good governance, planning legislation and efficient administrative structure (Yunusa, 2011).

PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF LAGOS MEGACITY
Lagos urban area is already a megacity. The city became a megacity without the requisite preparations, weak urban economics and finance, and a very wide deficit of infrastructure to serve its teeming inhabitants. No wonder Yunusa (2011) observes that Lagos, like most African cities south of the Sahara, is not fulfilling the promise of raising the living standards of its inhabitants. It is a land of explosive population growth; alarming increases in poverty, massive inadequate infrastructure, poor and deficit telecommunication services, the increasing pressure of additional transportation needs (in the face of traffic hold ups and traffic jams), increase pressure on housing and land allocation, erratic energy supply, increasing environmental problems of pollution, and contamination and inadequate water supply.

The rapid population growth and development of Lagos, which is an epitome of Nigerian urbanization, faces three major challenges. The first is the mismatch between the level of urbanization and the level of resources to manage the city. The second is the mismatch between the spatial distribution of urban centre and the distribution of resources. Thirdly, there is the paradox that in most Nigerian urban centres, the modern and traditional sectors coexist side by side. The resources to manage the city, clearly does not match the ballooning population growth in Lagos. This mismatch between the level of population growth and of resources to cope is at the root of management of Lagos, ranging from overstretched and inadequate infrastructure to decaying city begging for urban renewal. To provide and maintain infrastructure in Lagos urban area requires about 50 billion dollars. This is clearly beyond the resources level of the Lagos state government. This explains why Lagos cannot boast of a sewerage system. This also explains the persistent of all other urban problems in Lagos and other Nigerian cities.

In addition to the mismatch between the level of urbanization and of resources, there is also the mismatch between the distribution of settlements in Nigeria and distribution of resources. Settlement pattern in Nigeria can be described as immature (Abumere, 1981). Lagos is clearly a
primate centre in Nigerian setting, this explains why socio-economic activities and population concentrates in it, so also are creations of states and LGAs, but lacks resources to meet the desires of every one. Clearly, Nigeria requires a conscious policy for spatial distribution of population away from Lagos and into other secondary cities. Relocation of Federal capital territory to Abuja is one of such policy, but more spatial policy is required to take advantage of Nigeria very large space. However, more is required beyond spatial policy, good governance and participatory democracy will complement and strengthened spatial policy.

The paradox of traditional and modern sectors operating side by side is another challenge of managing Lagos. This must be resolved and build a livable and functional city able to generate development for itself and the hinterland settlements.

Various approaches have been suggested to combat the challenges of development in Lagos urban areas. Otoikiti (2008) suggested a fundamental rethinking about the city-nation or city regional relationship. According to him, this will enable the nation or region draw maximum benefit from Lagos megacity and allow the city resolve successfully major developmental and planning problems. To plan the city for improved standards of living and development, planning structures and economic and social policies must aim to empower the population based on the nation’s resources and opportunities. The city and its regions must be taken as a contiguous whole in a symbiotic relationship, and investment policies designed to take advantage of the hierarchy and continuum of human settlements in geographic space. It is recognized that among other factors, globalization is a major factor for the rapid urbanization, leaving a dichotomy in development in which there is a wide inequality between the rich and the poor in the city and the nation generally.

To resolve this paradox, many issues have to be mixed together, as the solutions to the development of Lagos megacity are complex. Some solutions must urgently be put in place, such as efficient policy implementation, focusing on developing credit and capital, focusing on appropriate technology, encouraging community and local government participations, appropriate educational policy. Policy on developing more efficient systems such as creating effective financial reforms, facilitating entrepreneurial self-help activities, the removal of institutional barriers in property development, supplies of basic infrastructure, induction of more public–private interface, possibility of deregulating the eco-sectors within the limits that is not inhibitive to social stability and urgent harmonization of inter-industry relationship by ensuring efficient sub-contracting, franchising outsourcing and licensing agreement (Otokiti, 2008).

Drawing on the experiences of other megacities, it is submitted that appropriate technology is the key to solving problems and challenges of Lagos megacity. Quoting Bugliarello (1994), Otoikiti (2008) listed the possibilities of new issues and strategies to address the nature of Lagos megacity. According to him, one of such issues is the adoption of appropriate standards for safety and protection of consumers and other participants and that where such are imported; they must be compatible with local values and be accessible. Another way out is to take precaution on the adoption of new technologies that are no doubt necessary, but may not be appropriate. Necessary adjustment to such technologies must be rigorously made to obtain optimum and efficient results. In other words, locally appropriate technologies should be preferred to the imported ones.

On transportation, a new strategic solution must be sought that will efficiently marry the old technology and the new method of transportation now befitting the new status of a megacity. This new thinking must properly network the various modes of transportation available such as waterways, rail support scheme, and must involve joint efforts between Lagos megacity and emerging cities of Ibafo, Mowe, Agbara, Sango-Ota (all in Ogun state) to solve their common
problems that transcend the capacity of a single isolated megacity. Of note in this direction is the Bus Rapid Transit in Lagos, which is a standard for urban transport in Africa (Yunusa, 2011). There is also the 65 kilometres, 12-lane road with light rail in between that is on-going in the Badagry corridor. Indeed, there are flurry of activities and projects in and around Lagos that is meant to face the challenges of the new status of a megacity.

There is also the need for a coordinated policy formulation for implementing strategies concerning the various action plans in the various sectors of urban Lagos, such as transportation, education, health, security, basic infrastructure like, water, energy, and roads. For these to materialize, the institution of local governance and local government in the country as a whole must be reviewed. Local governance of urban centres for at least the cities with 1 million populations and above must be reviewed. Given the demographic trends in Nigeria, “the challenge of governing large rapidly expanding settlements will require the development of systems of metropolitan governance that effectively mediate between the needs and interests of diverse actors at different scales” (Friedman, 2007 as cited by Yunusa, 2011).

The practice of balkanizing large urban areas like Lagos into several Local governments is not healthy for socio-economic and overall development. Such urban area is better managed under one Metropolitan Development Authority, with a Mayor (or other designation) in-charge. There are lots of benefits in this. According to Yunusa (2011), the absence of such institutional framework to manage our cities in its regional context is what is holding back Nigerian cities from speaking with a competitive voice within the global body of Mayors.

Moreover, Local governments are supposed to be closer to the people and problems centers activities, they are thus in the best position to foster socio-political integration and the transformation of government policies to meet the yearnings of the residents at the local levels.

To effectively manage the Lagos megacity, the assistance and cooperation with the Federal government is indispensible, both in direct assistance and formulation of appropriate population, urban and economic policies. First, Lagos state government must pay attention to other settlements and towns that are not directly within the orbit of the megacity structure such as Badagry, Ikorodu, Epe and their various hinterlands. They must adequately be catered for in policies and infrastructure development. Secondly, special federal aids and supports must continue to flow into the former federal capital of the country and arguably the most important urban area in the country. In addition, the Federal government must urgently put policy in place to plan for other cities that are on the threshold of being a megacity including such cities as Ibadan, Kano, Port Harcourt and Abuja. This will ensure that they are prepared for, before attainment of megacity status. Still, other small and medium towns and the rural settlements should also be well taken care of to control population movement and enhance their capacity to be able to accommodate more people and cater for their welfare.

The Federal government must also quickly embark on other policies to discourage migration to Lagos urban area and other big cities; this would involve unbalance development approach for key regions of the country, including the rural areas.

There is the need for good urban governance, transparent and efficient and effective provision of basic infrastructure such as education, adequate credit availability, transportation, optimality and quantity of basic data for planning and other services that will make residents both individuals and corporate institutions of Lagos urban area to have sense of place and willingness to participate and perform their own civic responsibilities cheerfully. According to Yunusa (2011), planning and management of Lagos megacity must be mindful not to perpetuate exclusion, indeed
planning should be deliberate to create inclusive pattern, which create access and promote cohesion and cross fertilization of opportunities’.

In summary, key tools needed to address megacity problems include:

- Strengthening planning laws to cover not just the planning process, but the monitoring and implementation of the laws and to ensure that the planning process is guided by economic and environment development strategy.
- Planning and development control over water catchments and other sensitive areas affecting the city.
- Improved governance to provide good communication between all city units and strong partnerships between the city administration and agencies at other levels of government, especially in infrastructure development and maintenance.
- Coordinated planning and implementation involving transportation, utilities and other infrastructure providers.
- Working with the private sector to ensure financial and property markets have the capacity to meet current and future needs for jobs and housing.
- A strong focus on disaster management, including coordinated planning, preparation, response and recovery operations.
- In the developing world, a stronger focus was needed on good governance, institutional development and capacity building.

Indeed, a number of sustainable control measures to check population growth and enhance the development of Lagos include:

- **Land Use:** In growing cities, it is important to control the rate of growth. Land allocation should be well managed by limiting residential construction in the city to certain level of allotments per year.
- **Transportation:** have enormous effects on housing, employment, environment and social equity. Achieving sustainable urban accessibility is important for improving the urban environment and maintaining the economic viability of cities. To achieve sustainable urban transport, viable alternatives to driving need to be provided through promoting a variety of transportation choices, including mass transit, biking, and walking. There should be focus on reducing traffic congestion and air pollution through parking management and car pool incentive packages.
- **Affordable Housing:** An important part of any urban sustainability strategy is to ensure that a range of housing options is available for a variety of people with different income levels.
- **Economic Development:** The type and composition of a local economy can play a critical role in achieving urban sustainability goals. Local economic policies have a significant effect on various aspects of cities, including land use, transportation, environment, health, social equity and education. Therefore, each local government area in Lagos needs an integrated approach to local economic policies.
- **Environment (Air Quality):** Lagos should adopt Air Quality Program to reduce air pollution emissions by making manufacturing firms to develop pollution prevention plans and goals, and provide the city with reports on their efforts to reduce pollution.
- **Waste Management:** Local governments in Lagos State have created various methods for the management of solid waste. In particular, many communities to reduce waste and conserve natural resources have adopted the Pay-As-You-Throw (PAYT) system. Under this system, residents are asked to pay for each container of waste they generate. However, efforts should be made in educating residents on the economic and ecological benefits of waste management.
- Energy. Traditional, non-renewable energy sources such as oil and coal harm the environment in their extraction, processing, and use. They cause air, water, and soil pollution and contribute to global warming. Instead, renewable energy, which comes from the sun, wind, and water, the burning of organic matter, and the heat of the Earth, is sustainable and should be actively exploited.

CONCLUSION

There is no doubt, urbanization and the growth of large cities is the present paradigm and this will continue into foreseeable future. It is indeed, a necessary human and socio-economic organization that is indispensible if the battle against poverty, inequality, insecurity and climate change is to be achieved. It is the future of humanity. City is a product of intelligent human calculation, manifestation of man’s natural progression from simplicity to sophistication in production, consumption and resulting relations.

However, all the benefits that are traceable to urbanization and the growth of large cities have continued to elude people and nations in developing countries due to lack of vision, planning, good governance, transparency and accountability. As a result, urban and rural poverty and other indices of backwardness are the rule rather than exception in urban Lagos and other cities in developing countries.

From the foregoing, there is the need for robust and pragmatic policies and implementation procedures at the Federal, State and Local government levels in our countries. There is need for proper understanding of concepts and rigorous analysis of the challenges, appropriate technologies and relevant information, political will, cooperation and sundry participation to be able to manage the Lagos megacity and other cities and for the cities to perform their roles optimally as the engine of development. Fortunately, Lagos is receiving a deserved attention at present, it is hoped that in a not too distant future, the birth of a truly Mega city will be in place.

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