



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

COURSE CODE: PAD 874

**COURSE TITLE: ADVANCED THEORIES OF LOCAL
GOVERNMENT**

COURSE GUIDE

PAD 874

ADVANCED THEORIES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Course Team

Dr. Maryam O. Quadri (Course Developer/Writer)
- UNILAG
Prof. C. P. Maduabum (Course Editor) - NOUN
Dr. C. I. Okeke (Programme Leader) - NOUN
Mrs. Martha Oruku (Course Coordinator) - NOUN



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

National Open University of Nigeria
Headquarters
14/16 Ahmadu Bello Way
Victoria Island, Lagos

Abuja Office
5, Dar es Salaam Street
Off Aminu Kano Crescent
Wuse II, Abuja

e-mail: centralinfo@noun.edu.ng
URL: www.noun.edu.ng

Published by
National Open University of Nigeria

Printed 2013

ISBN: 978-058-160-X

All Rights Reserved

Printed by:

CONTENTS	PAGE
Introduction.....	iv
Course Aims.....	iv
Course Objectives.....	iv
Course Materials.....	v
Study Units.....	v
Assignments.....	vi
Tutor-Marked Assignment.....	vi
Final Examination and Grading.....	vi
Summary.....	vi

INTRODUCTION

PAD 874: Advanced Theories of Local Government is a three credit unit course and it is compulsory for students studying Public Administration and related programmes in the School of Management Sciences.

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

THE COURSE AIM

The course is aimed at acquainting you with the advanced knowledge in the world of local governments. The course is designed to update your knowledge on the shifting role of local government in the contemporary world. To ensure that this aim is achieved, some important background information will be provided and discussed. These include the following:

- Conceptualisations of local government
- Primary purposes of local government
- Theories of local government
- Local government autonomy and finance
- Democracy and local governance
- Decentralisation and local governance
- Local government and Intergovernmental relations
- Local government and popular participation
- Comparative study of local government
- Networked community governance

THE COURSE OBJECTIVES

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

1. Discuss the main justifications for local government and explain the basic theories that underpin the existence of local government;
2. Discuss the concepts of democracy, popular participation and local governance;
3. Explicate the link between local government and Intergovernmental relations;
4. Discuss the nature of local government in some countries;

5. Examine the shift in the role of local government in the contemporary world.

COURSE MATERIAL

The course material package is composed of:

- The Course Guide
- The Study Units
- Self-Assessment Exercises
- Tutor-Marked Assignments
- References/Further Reading

THE STUDY UNITS

The study units are as listed below:

Module 1

Unit 1	Introduction to the Study of Local Government
Unit 2	Local Government Framework
Unit 3	Local Government Autonomy
Unit 4	Local Government Finance
Unit 5	Local Government or Field Administration

Module 2

Unit 1	Local Governance
Unit 2	Democracy and Local Governance
Unit 3	Decentralisation and Local Governance
Unit 4	Local Government and Intergovernmental Relations
Unit 5	Local Government and Popular Participation

Module 3

Unit 1	Comparative Study of Local Government
Unit 2	Local Government in France
Unit 3	Local Government in the United States
Unit 4	Local Government in Great Britain
Unit 5	Local Government in Switzerland
Unit 6	Local Government in Australia
Unit 7	Local Government in the four Nordic Countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden).

Module 4

Unit 1	Developments and Trends in local Governments in Nigeria
Unit 2	Local Government Reforms in Eastern, Western and Northern Nigeria – 1950s
Unit 3	The 1976 Local Government Reforms in Nigeria
Unit 4	Local Government Since 1985

Module 5

Unit 1	Networked Community Governance
Unit 2	Local Government or Local Governance
Unit 3	Issues in local Governance in Developing Countries

ASSIGNMENTS

Each unit of the course has a Self-Assessment Exercise. You will be expected to attempt them as this will enable you understand the content of the unit.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

The Tutor-Marked Assignments at the end of each unit are designed to test your understanding and application of the concepts learned. It is important that these assignments are submitted to your facilitators for assessments. They make up 30 per cent of the total score for the course.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

At the end of the course, you will be expected to participate in the final examinations as scheduled. The final examination constitutes 70 per cent of the total score for the course.

SUMMARY

PAD 874: Advanced Theories of Local Government is very relevant in the discourse on contemporary local governance. It will enable you come to the knowledge of the changing roles of local government and sensitise you to the demand for the shift from local government to local governance. The shift is not only on service delivery but also on local policy objectives and the role of actors involve in the implementation.

MAIN COURSE

CONTENTS	PAGE
Module 1.....	1
Unit 1 Introduction to the Study of Local Government.....	1
Unit 2 Local Government Framework.....	9
Unit 3 Local Government Autonomy.....	14
Unit 4 Local Government Finance.....	18
Unit 5 Local Government or Field Administration.....	22
Module 2.....	25
Unit 1 Local Governance.....	25
Unit 2 Democracy and Local Governance.....	30
Unit 3 Decentralisation and Local Governance.....	35
Unit 4 Local Government and Intergovernmental Relations.....	42
Unit 5 Local Government and Popular Participation.....	48
Module 3.....	53
Unit 1 Comparative Study of Local Government.....	53
Unit 2 Local Government in France.....	57
Unit 3 Local Government in the United States.....	61
Unit 4 Local Government in Great Britain.....	65
Unit 5 Local Government in Switzerland.....	69
Unit 6 Local Government in Australia.....	72
Unit 7 Local Government in the four Nordic Countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden).....	76
Module 4.....	81
Unit 1 Developments and Trends in local Governments in Nigeria	81

Unit 2	Local Government Reforms in Eastern, Western and Northern Nigeria – 1950s.....	88
Unit 3	The 1976 Local Government Reforms in Nigeria.....	95
Unit 4	Local Government since 1985.....	99
Module 5.....		105
Unit 1	Networked Community Governance.....	105
Unit 2	Local Government or Local Governance.....	109
Unit 3	Issues in local Governance in Developing Countries.....	113

MODULE 1

Unit 1	Introduction to the Study of Local Government
Unit 2	Local Government Framework
Unit 3	Local Government Autonomy
Unit 4	Local Government Finance
Unit 5	Local Government or Field Administration

UNIT 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT**CONTENTS**

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Local Government – Definitional Issues
3.2	Primary Purpose of Local Government
3.3	Features of Local Government
3.4	Theories of Local Government
3.4.1	Democratic- Participatory School of Thought
3.4.2	Efficiency-Services School of Thought
3.4.3	The Holistic Integrationists School of Thought
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you are presented with the basic idea about local government. You will come across various definitions of local government, purpose of local government as well as the features of local government. You will also gain an insight into the main theories that underpin the existence of local government. These are issues that form the foundation of the course. You will build on the knowledge of these basic issues for a better understanding of the discussions of various aspects of this course in subsequent units.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define local government

- discuss basic purposes of local government
- examine the main theories of local government
- discuss the main features of local government
- explain different dimensions of local government.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government: Definitional Issues

What is Local Government?

Local government is a formal structure of governance at the local level. A local government usually has a specified territory, population, institutional structure and autonomy. It is usually established by legislation promulgated by the upper tier of government but is allowed a reasonable latitude for initiative.

There are various definitions of local government as given by different scholars and institutions.

Local government is the lowest unit of administration to whose laws and regulations, the communities who live in a defined geographical area and with common social and political ties, are subject (Orewa, 1991).

Barber (1974) says where a local authority has a legal personality with sufficient but limited powers of control over its staff, finances and functions devolved upon it by the central government; it can conveniently be called a local government.

The 1976 *Local Government Reform Hand Book* defined local government as: Government at the local level exercised through representative councils established by law to exercise specific powers within defined areas. These powers should give the council substantial control over local affairs as well as the staff and institutional and financial powers to initiate and direct provision of services and to determine and implement projects so as to complement the activities of the state and federal government in their areas, and to ensure, and through devolution of functions to these councils and through the active participation of the people and their traditional institutions that local initiatives and responses to local needs and conditions are maximised.

The United Nations defines local government as a political sub-division of a nation (or in a federal system) or state which is constituted by law and her substantial control of local affairs including the power to impose taxes, or exact labour for prescribed purposes. The governing body of such an entity is elected or otherwise locally selected.

The *International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences* (1976), defines local government as a political sub-division of national or regional government which performs functions which nearly in all cases receive its legal power from the national or regional government but possess some degree of discretion on the making of decisions and which normally has some taxing powers.

Local government has also been defined as the level of government below the central government in the case of a unitary state, or below the regional, provincial or state government in the case of a federation, which is obliged to provide a range of services set out by law, to its communities and has legal authority to do this (Orewa, 1991; 24).

We can deduce from these definitions that local government is the lower level of government in a modern state which has the power to make bye-laws and regulations binding on the population within its jurisdiction. It also has the power to raise revenue and undertake assigned responsibilities as stipulated by the constitutions, statutes and laws establishing it. We can also infer from the foregoing that local government is a multi-dimensional concept.

The dimensions as provided by Adetoritse (2011: 1-6) are the following:

Social Dimension

From the social dimension, local government is basically a social institution. It is an organised social entity based on the feeling of oneness. Local government provides a platform for people in a locality to express and fulfill their human urge to interact and in the process of interaction, the feeling of convergence bring to the fore the commonality of basic needs of the people in the neighborhood of food, shelter, clothing, water, etc. It is these facets of their feeling of oneness that are a binding force not only among themselves but also between the local authority and the local people.

Economic Dimension

Local government is basically an economic institution with a foremost role to play in promoting the economic well-being the people of the locality. The economic dimension of the concept of local government relates to its economic viability. Thus, revenue generation becomes a primary function of local government. A local government that is not economically viable cannot do much to improve the economic conditions of the people in the locality.

Geographic Dimension

Local government also has a geographic dimension. From the perspective of a specific and defined territorial jurisdiction over a particular human habitation, the local government may be conceptualised in geographic terms. The geography of local government, which includes physical, demographic and economic features, has its impact on its policies, administration and law. The geography of local authority offers an important dimension to the concept of local government. Its impact on local people and, therefore on local law, politics and administration can be all pervading. Hence, the decision makers need to have adequate acquaintance with local geo-demographic variants for rendering meaningful services to the local people.

Legal Dimension

Local government is a legal institution in the sense that it is established by law of a competent and higher authority. This makes local government a miniature body-politic and a body corporate. In its former capacity, it is the agent of the state and, as such, represents public interest. In that capacity, it exercises a part of the powers of the state legally delegated to it within specified geographical boundaries.

Political Dimension

Local government is also a political institution. Local government is basically a political mechanism for governance at the local level. Conceptually, local government is an integrant of democracy. When local government loses its democratic feature, it degenerates into local administration. When local administration imbibes democratic character, it then becomes local government. Without democratic norms there can be no self-governing institutions.

Administrative Dimension

Local government has an administrative dimension. It has its local bureaucracy like other higher levels of government. They are basically of two types. There is the Unified Service which is region-wide or state-wide and managed by a single Local Government Service Commission. There the localised service which is restricted the individual local governments. Thus, local government is operationally an administrative organisation with the confluence of politics and technology. The degree of confluence in the local government is of a unique character. Sometimes, one cannot make out when the political, organisational and technological processes begin and end and how they intermingle.

3.2 Primary Purpose of Local Government

The unique needs of local populace which also justify the existence of local government are the following considerations:

1. To address the basic and unique needs of the people within a particular locality.
2. Local governments are supposed to serve as a two-way channel of communication between the local population and the upper tiers of government (state and federal).
3. The existence of local governments permits the officials of state at the centre the time to concentrate on vital and complex national issues, leaving the local issues with the local officials.
4. Local governments are supposed to mobilise the local people and resources for national development.
5. Local governments exist to encourage greater public participation in governmental activities.

3.3 Features of Local Government

The essential features of local government according to Olowu (2000) are as follows:

1. A local body should exist which is constitutionally separate from government and is responsible for a significant range of services.
2. It should have its own treasury, a separate budget and accounts, and its own taxes to produce substantial part of its revenue.
3. It should have qualified staff, with power to hire and fire, though there can be some officers seconded from government to fill top positions initially.
4. There should be decision-making on policy and procedures in the hands of a council which genuinely represents and is accountable to all parts of the local community;
5. Central government administrators are to serve as external advisers and inspectors, but have no role either as councillors or officers of the local authority.

3.4 Theories of Local Government

A theory is a set of interrelated concepts, definitions and propositions which present a systematic view of phenomenon by specifying relationship among variables with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomenon. Theories of local government attempt to provide the justifications for the establishment of local government as a tier of governance.

There are three basic propositions equivalent to a rationale for local government. The first is the Democratic-Participatory School of Thought; the second is Efficiency-Services School of Thought and the third, the Integrationist School.

3.4.1 Democratic-Participatory School of Thought

The Democratic-Participatory School of Thought is of the view that the existence of local governments is basically for the purpose of promoting democracy and participation at the grassroots level, thereby bringing government nearer to the people. This position is premised on the attempts to justify the existence or need for local government on the basis of its being essential to a democratic principle or for practical administrative purposes like responsiveness, accountability and control (Gboyega, 1987). Local government is perceived as a free institution that provides political education for those who participate in the act of decision-making. However, whether or not local government will promote sectional interest, political education as well as accountability will depend largely on the nature of the political arrangement within the political system.

3.4.2 Efficiency-Services School of Thought

The Efficiency-Services School of Thought locates the rationale for local government in the provision of special services. This school of thought premised its arguments on the notion that some services such as defence and external affairs are provided by the central government for the purpose of maintaining common nation standards or because they are of immediate or of direct interest to the ordinary citizen.

It is argued that there are certain concerns or interests which only a section of the community has in common and it is convenient as well as advisable that only those who share this community of interests should administer them. Some interests are peculiar to some localities; those interests will be best managed if they are under the purview of the people in those localities (Gboyega, 1987).

3.4.3 The Holistic Integrationists School of Thought

The argument of the holistic-integrationist school is that local government, if well nourished is in a far better position than the national government to stimulate initiatives, inculcate the feeling of national consciousness and encourage drive and experimentation in the people.

This is because it can more easily identify available local skills, interests and available capabilities and capitalise on them (Ola, 1988).

The following holistic-integrationist functions to be performed by local government were suggested by Sady in Ola (1988:65):

1. Decongesting government at the centre thereby freeing national leaders from onerous details and unnecessary involvement in local issues
2. Increasing people's understanding and enlightening people about economic (community) development
3. Making programmes to foster social and economic betterment at the local level more realistic and lasting
4. Training people in the art of self government.
The argument is that local government exists in this holistic-integrationist model, chiefly, for these purposes. It can help to reduce congestion in the centre by being involved in implementing socio-economic programmes of the central government either as agents or as bodies to which these functions are delegated.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Discuss the main purpose of local government.
- ii. What are the various dimensions of the conception of local government?

4.0 CONCLUSION

As we can see from the discussion, local government means authority to determine and to execute matters within a restricted area inside and smaller than the whole state. It involves administering of services on a local basis by local bodies. Local government therefore, is a form of governance at the local level. However, while it is agreed that the concept of local government connotes "local self government", the contrary opinion is that, since local governments are not independent

bodies and derive their powers and functions from the higher authorities, they cannot be considered self and autonomous bodies. Autonomy of local government becomes an issue.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that local government is the lower tier of government. It exists for certain purposes and performs some functions and responsibilities. You have also gained an insight into the theories of local government.

This unit ends with the summation of Gboyega (1987:3), local government, it is claimed, enables services of local importance only to be locally administered, provides education in citizenship, provides training in political leadership, makes available to the central government information about localities which is essential for adequately meeting their needs efficiently, and minimises concentration of political power by diffusing it.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. What is local government?
- ii. Discuss the main features of local government.
- iii. Examine the relevance of the propositions of the three schools of thought for the understanding of local government.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Adetoritse, T.D. (2011). "Conceptualising Local Government from a Multi-Dimensional Perspective." *Higher Education of Social Science*, 1 (1), 66-71.
- Barber, M.P. (1974). *Local Government* (3rd ed.). London.: Macdonald and Evans Ltd.
- Gboyega, A. (1987). *Political Values and Local Government*. Lagos: Malthouse Press.
- Ola, R.O.F. (1988). "Some Thoughts on the Role of Local Government in Developing Countries (Nigeria) in Adamolekun, L. Olowu, D, and Laleye, M. (Eds). *Local Government in West Africa Since Independence*. Lagos: University of Lagos Press.
- Orewa, G. O. (1991). *Principles of Local Government*. ASCON Local Government Series. ASCON Publication.

UNIT 2 LOCAL GOVERNMENT FRAMEWORK

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Structure of Local Government
 - 3.1.1 Size of Local Council
 - 3.2 Functions of Local Government
 - 3.2.1 Determinants of the Functions of Local Government
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we discussed the basic ideas about local government. These ideas we said earlier will form the foundations of the subsequent discussions in this course. What you will learn next in this unit is the structure of local government. You will also know the basic functions that local government as the third-tier of government performs generally.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- describe the structure of local government
- discuss the functions of local government
- discuss the determinants of the size of local council.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Structure of Local Government

A structure is an arrangement through which an organisation fulfills its goals. Since local government is an organisation, it becomes important to know the structure through which it performs its functions. More important also is the fact that the administrative structure of local government is the framework within which public policy is determined and implemented.

Talking about the structure of local government anywhere, the size is always an issue to be considered. The issue has to do with determining the appropriate size of the local government. In determining the size, there at least two values involved.

- The issue of how small local government should be, and
- The issue of how large a local government should be.

These two become issues because local governments are also economic proposition. This is because in the designing of local government, we must also take into consideration the viability of such local government.

The last consideration has to do with the issue of contiguity – (historical affinity which creates a sense of community). People who constitute local government must share something in common – (common culture, belief, customs and so on).

The structure of local government could provide for either a single tier or multi-purpose local government.

Single-tier Local Government

Under the single-tier structure, all functions that are assigned to a local government within its area of jurisdiction are performed by one local government council. In other words, a single-tier local government takes full responsibility for all functions and powers which the local government Act or Law assigns under the country's or states' constitution to the local governments in the territory.

The local government plans, executes and manages all local services and projects in its area. This facilitates the coordination of the human and material resources for the delivery of different services.

The Multi-tier Local Government

The Multi-tier structure is one under which two or more local councils share responsibility for providing a range of services to the citizens in a defined local area. This means that local government functions and powers as they relate to a particular area are distributed among two or more layers called “tiers” of local government.

The multi-tier system brings local administration closer to the people and gives them a sense of belonging. This is particular so in the local government areas with a wide geographical spread or difficult terrain – mountainous and riverine area (Orewa, 1991, pp. 30-43).

3.1.1 Size of Local Council

The size of a council depends on:

- The size of the local government
- The functions the local government performs; and
- The jurisdiction of the local government.

In order to decide how local communities are represented in the council, the size of the council has to do with the size of the local government itself. The size also has to do with the functions it performs as well as its area of jurisdiction.

3.2 Functions of Local Government

What justifies the performance of functions and services by local government is the fact that local governments as a result of being the closest to the “grassroots” population are capable of understanding as well as identifying local conditions. Thus, local governments are in the best position to solve the identified needs of the local populace.

1. Local government’s responsibility has to do with the identification and coordination of local needs. Local governments are in the best position to perform this function because of their closeness to the local populace.
2. Local government helps to establish priority among those identified by local government.
3. Local government serves as training ground in civil education and agency for providing democratic culture, leadership recruitment. It is the responsibility of local government to muster local resources towards the fulfillment of local needs.
4. It is also the responsibility of the local government to involve the citizens in participating in the various local projects and programmes.

3.2.1 Determinants of the Functions of Local Government

If local government is considered an imperative as a result of the functions it performs, then we should be able to examine some determinants of these functions, that is, the nature and extent of the functions. Below are the two main determinants of the functions of local government.

- **The Constitution**

The first determinant of the functions of local government is the constitution. The constitution specifies the area of jurisdiction of the local government.

Local government in the minimum condition is to be allowed to function exclusively in the area delineated by the constitution. For example, the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 in the Fourth Schedule states the functions which local governments in the country perform.

- **Fiscal Arrangement**

Fiscal arrangement also delimits what local government can do. This is also because the constitution or the statutes that established local government also specify the nature and/or type of fiscal arrangement between local government and the other tiers of government. For example, there are certain taxes which local government cannot impose on the populace.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. a. Briefly discusses the structure of local government.
- b. Examine the functions performed by such structure.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has attempted to examine the structure of local government. We noted that the structure of local government could provide for all purpose single-tier or for a multi-tier local government. We also considered the size of the local council as well as explicating those factors that determine the size of a local council. Since local governments are established by laws and statutes, certain functions are to be performed by them as stipulated by those laws and statutes.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt about the structure through which the local government performs its functions. You were made to understand that issues of size and contiguity of local government are crucial in the discussion of the structure of local government. Also you have learnt that the constitution and fiscal arrangement can and do determine the functions that local governments perform. Subsequent units will expound more on these issues.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. What justifies the performance of certain functions by the local government?
- ii. What are the determinants of the functions of local government?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Enemuo, F.C. (1999). "Decentralisation and Local Government: Models, Principles and Purpose" in Anifowose, R. & Enemuo, F. (Eds). *Elements of Politics*. Lagos: Malthouse Press Ltd. pp 226-237.
- Gboyega, A. (1987). *Political Values and Local Government*. Lagos: Malthouse Press.
- Orewa, G. O. (1991). *Principles of Local Government*. *ASCON Local Government Series*. ASCON Publication.

UNIT 3 LOCAL GOVERNMENT AUTONOMY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government Autonomy
 - 3.2 Typology of Autonomy
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor -Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You will recall that in one of our previous discussions on the theories of local government, one of the schools of thought justifies the existence of local government on its imperative of democratic regime. The extent to which local government can be justified based on this theory is to see whether the autonomy of the local government is guaranteed. So in this unit, you will be introduced to the concept of autonomy. Different types of local government autonomy will also be discussed.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the concept of autonomy examine different forms through which autonomy can be described
- explain the extent to which a local government can be classified as being autonomous.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government Autonomy

The primary condition on which local government could promote democracy is “autonomy”. Autonomy of local government is what ensures its democrateness. What is important to know in local government is the extent to which it is democratic. Local government cannot be considered in an absolute sense. The reason is that local governments are mandated on constitutions or statutes. The constitution specifies what the local government can do within the area of operation allotted to it.

If local governments are mandated on the constitution, there are two minimum conditions within which they can act. One of the conditions is for local government to act within constitutionally defined limit. The local government could be considered as being autonomous if in fact it is allowed to act independently within that defined limit.

The second minimum condition appears to be financial. Local government should have control over revenue generating sources from where the higher tiers of government already source revenue. Constitution defines mode of sourcing revenue for local government (both internally and externally). If local government is to be autonomous, then it needs to have the power of sourcing revenue independently.

3.2 Typology of Autonomy

Clark (1984) identifies four types of local autonomy:

- Type 1 Initiative and immunity
- Type 2 Initiative and no immunity
- Type 3 No initiative and immunity
- Type 4 No initiative and no immunity

Type 1 autonomy could be characterised as complete or total autonomy.

Type 2 autonomy allows local governments complete authority to regulate and legislate in their own interest, but makes every decision subject to review, modification, or outright negation by higher tiers.

Type 3 autonomy provides no power of local initiation, implying that whatever local governments do, their agendas, regulations, or even actions are set by higher tiers of the state.

Type 4 autonomy could be characterised as absolutely no local autonomy.

Clark described each type in detail by paying attention to how each can be justified and what its relationships are to more general normative conception.

A **type 1** locality, characterised by both the power of initiative and immunity from higher tiers of the state, could be described as autonomous city-state. Higher tiers of the state are irrelevant both as institutions defining the arena of local autonomy and, as watchdogs over the legitimacy of local actions. Local officials have discretions in how they act. The limits to action are imposed not by other institutions but by

the local population. Hence, legitimacy derives from local citizens who have significant power.

The ideal **type 2** can be described as decentralised liberalism. Local governments in this model decide their own agendas, functions and actions. They are democratic, although this is not required for the model to function. All that is required is that initiative rests with the local government. But discretion is not complete, lack of immunity means that local actions are closely scrutinised and reviewed. Autonomy therefore is limited, but in a way different from the representative autonomy model. Legitimacy resides with the local government; its actions can only be constrained, and in this manner legitimacy flows from “bottom-up”

The ideal **type 3**, immunity but no initiative, is related to the bureaucratic apparatus model of local autonomy. With no power of initiative, this model must respond to centrally defined functions and orders. Local residents cannot mandate specific tasks to be carried out by the local government. Although it cannot choose what to do, once given a specific task, it can implement it in any way thought consistent with its tasks. Thus, to the extent that local constituents have power to affect the implementation practices of local government, there may be significant differences among localities in how they implement tasks assigned by a higher order.

The local state is representative of higher-tier interests and is responsive to local concern regarding appropriate forms of implementation. Legitimacy in this type of system is predominantly “top-down”; that is higher tiers have ultimate responsibility for the actions of local governments. To the extent that local governments respond to these interests, local governments will be legitimated and protected by state legislatures.

In **type 4** model, the local state with no initiative and no immunity must be described as having no autonomy. Its agendas, actions and responses are set by higher tiers, and its compliance with instructions is continually monitored. Such local governments are essentially administrative arms or apparatuses of the higher tiers of the state. Such a local state will have no discretion; could not initiate legislation and would act according to received instructions.

Both authority and responsibility for local actions are centralised. In this respect legitimacy devolve from higher tiers to lower tiers, and depends on the extent to which lower tiers of the state faithfully carried out their instructions. The fact that local citizenry have no direct say in the affair of the local state does not necessarily mean that such system is

undemocratic; it may simply be that political discourse is conducted at the higher tiers. The local state in such a system is simply a convenient vehicle for carrying out instructions.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Examine in detail the various types of local government autonomy you have studied.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Local governments, as we have observed earlier in the discussion are mandated on constitutions or statutes. The constitution specifies what a local government can do within the area of operation allotted to it. Thus, the critical issue is autonomy. Autonomy guarantees the effective performance of local government allotted functions and responsibilities. The extent to which local government will perform effectively will depend on the kind and the degree of autonomy it has.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that for a local government to be able to function effectively, autonomy of such a local government must be assured. We also identified different types of autonomy and how local government is conceived within each of the typology. We observed in the discussion that local governments are mandated on the constitution. The constitution defines the limit of local governments not only in terms of what they can do, but also as it concerns revenue generation. These are issues that are very germane in considering whether a local government is independent or not.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Demonstrate your understanding of the term “local autonomy.”
- ii. What does the autonomy of local government involve?

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Clark, G.L. (1984). A Theory of Local Autonomy. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, (74)2, pp 195-208.

UNIT 4 LOCAL GOVERNMENT FINANCE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government Finance
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor -Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will learn about local government finance in general. The unit will focus on different forms of local government finance. You need to recall here that in one of our previous discussions, we observed that local government can only perform functions that are defined constitutionally. Some of these functions however, require that local government raises money and resources in order to perform them. The constitution also defines the mode of sourcing revenue by the local government. This unit will examine various ways in which local government gets its revenues.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- examine the various ways of revenue generation for local government
- discuss different types of grants available to local governments.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government Finance

There are four major sources of local government finance. These are:

- Local taxes
- User fees
- Intergovernmental grants
- Loans

Local Taxes: A local tax is generally seen as:

- A tax whose base is determined by the local government
- A rate that is decided by the local government.

Its collection is undertaken by the local government and the proceeds accrue to the local government. Examples of such local taxes include property rates, business taxes, and community or poll tax.

User Charges: A user charge is a fee paid in exchange for a service provided by a local government. Such taxes include payment made for stalls in markets built by local councils, fares in local government buses, fees for using local government car parks and recreation centres.

Intergovernmental Grants: These are funds which the higher levels of government allocate to local government. The grants take several forms depending on the objectives which they are meant to attain. Below are the main forms of grants available to local governments:

- **Block Grants** – The block grant is an annual payment made by the central government to its local government on a basis related to the number of persons or tax payers resident in each local government area and in some cases, the rateable value of property in the area. The payment here is meant to enable the government provide the basic services to its communities.
- **Equalisation Grant** – this is a grant meant to provide funds for the less economically privileged local governments.

One of the benefits of the equalisation grant is that it regards the country as a unit, the various components of which have to achieve reasonable standards of local services. For countries which have had a tradition in this grant system, the principle is that on the basis of a national average of rate per capita a local government which owing to its rural or depressed nature cannot raise to that level, will be entitled to an equalisation grant which is based on that shortfall.

Equalisation grant seems to foster even development of basic infrastructures which encourages the dispersal of industrial and other employment generating projects. In this manner local government are placed in a position to support the spread of gainful employment in both the urban and rural areas and between viable industrial and the depressed areas.

- **Percentage Grant** - A percentage grant is usually paid for a specific service to encourage a local authority to provide the

service or facility at a nationally acceptable standard. It is of particular interest to the countries with young local governments.

- As a matching grant, it encourages the local government to invest more in the development and improvement of services. One way of achieving this is to raise more revenue internally as this is the only elastic source of funding improved services. The block or unit grant is usually fixed over a period of four to five years. In the interval, the local government can only attract more percentage grant by increasing its internal revenue and hence improving the existing services.
- Unit Grant - A unit grant is paid for each unit of a project or a service. It may be for a clinic or a kilometer of road constructed, in the case of capital grant, or a primary school pupil or on per attendance at a dispensary or child welfare clinic. It is suitable for encouraging local government and communities to embark on capital projects for such new programmes of national importance, such as education or health service.
- Ad-Hoc and Special Grants – The central government may give an ad-hoc grant to support the local government concerned to ameliorate the hardship imposed on its citizens. Special grants could also be made for important national economic and social programmes to be handled by the local government. These grants are desirable provided the projects are properly costed before the level of the grant is determined. This makes for certainty as to the cost of the programme and to the levels of the grants.

Loans: Local governments are empowered to borrow, usually to finance capital projects undertaken by them. The loans can be raised either from private institutions or specialised municipal credit agencies.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What are the major sources of finance of local government?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In Unit 1, we identified some functions that the local government performs. Some of these functions and responsibilities have to do with the identification and coordination of local needs. It is the responsibility of local governments therefore to muster resources towards the fulfillment of these local needs. Major sources of finance available to local government are the ones we have discussed in this unit. The ability

of local governments to raise funds will determine how effective such local governments will be in performing its functions.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have come to terms with the ways local government generates revenue to meet its responsibilities. You have learnt that there are four main sources of local government finance. You are now familiar with different types of grants that are available to local government. These grants in the main are the type of funds which the higher levels of government can and do make available to local government to meet its obligations to the citizens at the local level.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Discuss the various grants available to local governments.
- ii. What are the major differences between Equalisation and Percentage Grants?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Enemuo, F.C. (1999). "Decentralisation and Local Government: Models, Principles and Purpose" in Anifowose, R. and Enemuo, F. (Eds). *Elements of Politics*. Lagos: Malthouse Press Ltd. pp 226-237.

Orewa, G. O. (1991). *Principles of Local Government*. ASCON Local Government Series. ASCON Publication.

UNIT 5 LOCAL GOVERNMENT OR FIELD ADMINISTRATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objective
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government or Field Administration
 - 3.2 Field Administration–What does it Mean?
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In previous units, we came across the basic ideas about local government. From the various definitions we considered, we arrived at the conclusion that, local government is the lower level of government in a modern state which has the power to make bye-laws and regulations binding on the population within its jurisdiction. It also has the power to raise revenue and undertake assigned responsibilities as stipulated by the constitutions, statutes and laws establishing it.

We also learnt that local governments are mandated on constitutions and statutes. The constitution states the limits of local government and guarantees its autonomy, and, for local government to be able to function effectively, autonomy of such local government must be assured.

With the basic knowledge about local government, we should be able to differentiate between local government and field administration. In this unit therefore, we are going to consider the differences between local government and field administration.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

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

- differentiate between local government and field administration.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government or Field Administration

A comprehensive definition of local government by Orewa (1991) is worth considering here. According to him, local government is defined as the level of government below the central government in the case of a unitary state, or below the regional, provincial or state government in the case of a federation, which is obliged to provide a range of services set out by law, to its communities and has legal authority to do this. It also has legal powers to enforce its executive and regulatory decisions on its citizens without resorting to social pressures to achieve this. Its area of authority and the basis of representation on its political leadership platform are defined by its instrument. This definition encompasses all we have discussed on local government in the previous units. It has its own staff and revenue. The question we need to ask is in what way(s) is this different from field administration?

3.2 Field Administration–What does it mean?

Field administration is a deconcentrated form of management of local affairs. Deconcentration is defined as the arrangement under which the central government assigns responsibility for the collection of revenue and provision of services at the local level to an agency appointed by the government. This agency could be a Sole Administrator, A Local Authority, or a Committee of Management. To enable the organisation perform the function assigned to it, the law and instrument establishing it define its functions, its area of authority, its powers, including those of imposing rates and fees and raising funds from other sources.

Field administration is distinct from local government in the following respect:

- It does not enjoy autonomy like local government. As we discussed earlier, autonomy of local government guarantees its effectiveness.
- The instrument setting it up spells out the membership of the political leadership. The members are generally appointed by the Central government, to whom they are accountable.
- The field administration is empowered to collect rates, fees and other revenues prescribed by the law setting it up to finance its services and programmes. However, not being a body corporate, it cannot raise loans on its own independent of the central government.
- Field administration normally operates within the context of the regulation made by the central government for application to its

area specifically or to the areas of the various local administration units in the territory in general. Since it is not a local government, it cannot make its own Bye-laws (Orewa, 1991: 22-29).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What is field administration?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Local government is different from field administration in a number of ways. The main focus of local government is on decentralisation of public administration. Local government enjoys a reasonable degree of autonomy in the exercise of its power and functions. It does not have to seek formal approval from the central government to exercise its rights in these respects unless the law so provides. In the case of field administration, it is mere deconcentration of management of public affairs to a unit or arm of the central government as a convenient vehicle for delivering services to the people at the local level. Its powers do not approximate that of the local government that enjoys certain degree of autonomy.

5.0 SUMMARY

What we have done in this unit is to differentiate between local government and field administration. Though the two are synonymous with service delivery at the local level, however, we have been able to identify certain factors which make field administration distinct from local government. Two terms (decentralisation and deconcentration) we came across in the discussion in this unit shall be elaborated on in subsequent units for a full understanding of their meanings.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

How would you differentiate field administration from local government?

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Orewa, G. O. (1991). 'Principles of Local Government.' *ASCON Local Government Series*. ASCON Publication.

MODULE 2

Unit 1	Local Governance
Unit 2	Democracy and Local Governance
Unit 3	Decentralisation and Local Governance
Unit 4	Local Government and Intergovernmental Relations
Unit 5	Local Government and Popular Participation

UNIT 1 LOCAL GOVERNANCE

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Governance – Conceptual Clarification
3.2	Local Governance-What Does it Mean?
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Until recently, academics have studied local government, but there is the argument that the vast shifting map of local agencies makes it possible to treat local government as single organisation. Because of the externalisation of many services, the centralisation of others and the creation of new quangos (a quasi nongovernmental organisation), local government is only one actor among a network of agencies. Local governance describes the way these agencies interact at local level (Goss, 2001).

In this unit, you will come across the concepts “governance” and “local governance”. Attempt will be to explain the changing role of local government within the context of governance.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the term “governance”
- discuss the changing role of local government
- identify and discuss the principles of good local governance.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Governance - Conceptual Clarification

Governance comprises the mechanisms, processes and institutions, through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences. Governance at the local level could be termed local governance and at best local government. It is at this level that development objectives can be best evaluated for their effectiveness since development is about people (Yaquib, 2003).

Today, the role of the government in the process of governance is much more contingent. Local, regional, and national political elites alike seek to forge coalitions with private businesses, voluntary associations and other societal actors to mobilise resources across the public- private border in order to enhance their chances of guiding society towards politically defined goals (Pierre and Stoker, 2002).

Governance is a multifaceted compound situation of institutions, systems, structures, processes, procedures, practices, relationships and leadership behavior in the exercise of social, political, economic and managerial/administrative authority in the running of public or private affairs. Governance in this sense encompasses not only government, but also private sectors, systems, processes and procedures that are put in place for planning, management and decision-making (Kauzya, 2002).

With this conceptualisation, local governance can be referred to as exercise of authority at the local level.

Pierre and Stoker, (2002) delineate the tasks of government within governance in consensual terms.

- The first task, (de)composition and coordination, requires government to define the situation, identify key stakeholders and develop effective linkages. The key issue is how to establish a “shared vision”. At the local scale, community planning is an example of this role.
- The second task is calibration and steering. This involves government influencing and steering relationships to achieve ‘desired outcomes’.
- The third task for government is integration and regulation. This role demands the establishment of mechanisms for ‘effective coordination’.

3.2 Local Governance – What does it mean?

The concept of “good governance” at local levels denotes the quality, effectiveness and efficiency of local administration and public service delivery; the quality of local public policy and decision-making procedures, their inclusiveness, their transparency, and their accountability; and the manner in which power and authority are exercised at the local level.

Local governance according to Kauzya refers to a situation where whatever governance actor (an international NGO, a central government institution, a local government agency, or a private sector enterprise) does is planned, implemented, maintained, evaluated and controlled with the needs, priorities, interests, participation and well being of the local population as the central and guiding consideration. What is local about local governance need not be the actor but rather the needs, interests, priorities, participation, control and well being of the local.

We should note that, what determines whether governance is local or not is essentially the extent of involvement of the local populace in the determination of their local needs, problems and priorities. Hence, governance is not just a matter of government alone, but also a situation of multiple inter-linkages and relationships in which different actors, and civil society at local, national and international levels play different roles which may be mutually conflicting or mutually reinforcing and complementary with the sole aim of satisfying the interests of the local community.

- Local governance is believed to enhance both the legitimacy of government (by strengthening participation and accountability in policy-making) and the efficiency of public service delivery (by improving information, input and oversight).
- Local governance contributes immensely to democracy. The contributions, as Dahl points out include:
 1. the reduction of the national government’s workload;
 2. the lessening of conflict at the national level;
 3. the reinforcement of political pluralism;
 4. the expansion of the opportunities for learning and practicing in the way of democratic government.

Local governance requires some degree of participation and enhances the opportunities for such. It encourages political participation, production and service delivery by reducing the gap between service producers and consumers as well as allowing the private sector and non-governmental organisations to engage in service production and provision.

Adedeji (2000: 2-7) provides the six fundamental principles of good local governance system:

1. The first is popular participation, which in essence is the empowerment of the people. "Popular participation centres on effective participation, not just involvement, in the decision-making processes at all levels, in the formulation of policies and programmes, in the allocation of resources, in the execution of projects and in the monitoring of performance."
2. The second is the principle of subsidiarity and solidarity. Subsidiarity means decision being taken close to the grassroots. Solidarity requires that the vulnerable and the impoverished..., the rural poor and the urban poor and every group and individual in society who are in some way disadvantaged, must be given paramount consideration.
3. The third principle is that local system of governance must adapt to their social, political, economic and cultural environment. They must draw strength from grassroots institutions in the locality and become a symbiosis of the traditional and modern systems of governance that will bring together, in the formal structure of local government, popular and participatory grassroots organisations and the traditional institutions of governance in each community.
4. The fourth principle states that policies of restitution must become the foundation on which future systems of local governance are built.
5. The fifth principle stresses the imperativeness of protecting local governance from the divisive and corrupting influence of partisan politics. As long as democracy at the grassroots is seen not as a means of uniting the people through their social organisations so that they can be fully devoted, committed and involved in ensuring a system of good governance but as instead perceived as the competitive struggle for people's vote, so long will the responsible people in the community wash off their hand from local politics.
6. The sixth principle states that centre-local relationships must be based on the principles of self-reliance and self-sustainment. In other words, local government must be self-sustained, and that sustainability must derive from fiscal autonomy and responsibility as guaranteed by the constitution.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the main advantages of local governance.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The traditional functions of local government have widened to incorporate other actors in the process. Different actors and civil society at local, national and international levels now play different roles in the network governance. These roles we should note may be mutually conflicting or mutually reinforcing and complementary with the main goal of addressing the interests of the local populace.

Local governance is the exercise of authority at the local level and it involves the participation of different stakeholders in the process of governance at the local level.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we discussed the feature of the changing nature of local government. We examined different conceptualisation of “governance” and “local governance.” The objective is to understanding the changing nature of governance at the local level. We discovered that governance is not just a matter of government alone, but also a situation of multiple inter-linkages and relationships involving various actors.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Demonstrate your understanding of the term “governance”
- ii. Discuss Adedeji’s six principles of good local government system.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Adedeji, A. (2000). “Renewal of the Search for Systems of Local Governance that can serve the Common Good” in Adedeji, A. & Ayo, B. (Eds). *People-Centred Democracy in Nigeria? The Search for Alternative Systems of Governance at the Grassroots*. Ibadan: Heinemann Educational Books (Nigeria). Plc.
- Kauzya, John-Mary (2002). “Local Governance Capacity Building for Full Range Participation: Concepts, Framework and Experiences in African Countries” Paper presented at the 4th Global forum on Reinventing Government. New York, United Nations.
- Pierre, J. & Stoker, G. (2002). “Toward Multi-level Governance”, in *Developments in British Politics*. Dunleavy, P., Gamble, A., Heffernan, R., Holliday, I. and Peele, G.(Eds). Basingstoke: Palgrave.

UNIT 2 DEMOCRACY AND LOCAL GOVERNANCE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Conceptualising Democracy
 - 3.2 The Democratic State
 - 3.3 Democracy and Local Governance
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You will learn about democracy in this unit. Recall the argument in one of the previous units that the existence of local government has been justified on the basis that it is a crucial aspect of the process of democratisation and intensification of popular participation in the decision-making process. In this unit, we shall further explore this argument. We shall explore the link between democracy and local governance.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the concept of democracy
- examine the link between democracy and local governance.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Conceptualising Democracy

The word democracy is coined from Greek words *demos* “people” and *kratos*, “rule”. The methods by which this rule is exercised, and the composition of the “the people” are central to various definitions of democracy, but the general principle is that of majority rule.

Democracy is one concept on which there is no agreement on definition. Bollen and Paxton (2000) define liberal as the degree to which a political system allows democratic rule and political liberties.

The first dimension, democratic rule exists to the extent that the national government is accountable to the general population, and each individual is entitled to participate in the government directly or through representatives.

The second dimension, exist when the people of a country have the freedom to express a variety of political opinions in any media and the freedom to form and to participate in any political group.

Schumpeter (1950) defines democracy as a system “for arriving at political decisions in which individuals acquire the power to decide by means of a competitive struggle for the people’s vote”.

Kaur (2002) defines democracy as a governmental system that involves the widest spectrum of participation, either through elections or through the administration of the accepted/adopted policies. Kaur elaborates more on this by stressing that democracy is a government founded on the principle of rule of law; is against arbitrariness, highhandedness and dictatorship/autocracy; is an antithesis of military governance or militarism; is associated with accountability and transparency.

3.2 The Democratic State

Philosopher Charles Blattberg states the following criteria that a state must have to be considered democratic:

1. That there is a *demos*, that is a group which makes political decisions by some form of collective procedure. Non-members of the *demos* do not participate. In modern democracies the *demos* is the adult portion of the nation, and adult citizenship is usually equivalent to membership.
2. That there is a *territory* where the decisions apply, and where the *demos* is resident. In modern democracies, the territory is the nation-state, and since this corresponds (in theory) with the homeland of the nation, the *demos* and the reach of the democratic process neatly coincide.
3. That there is a *decision-making procedure*, which is either direct, in instances such as referendum, or indirect, of which instances include the election of a parliament.
4. That the procedure is regarded as *legitimate* by the *demos*, implying that its outcome will be accepted. Political legitimacy is the willingness of the population to accept decisions of the state,

its government and courts, which go against personal choices or interests.

5. That the procedure is *effective* in the minimal sense that it can be used to change the government, assuming there is sufficient support for that change. Showcase elections, pre-arranged to re-elect the existing regime, are not democratic.
6. That, in the case of nation-states, the state must be sovereign: democratic elections are pointless if an outside authority can overrule the result.

3.3 Democracy and Local Governance

A feature of modern state administration is the need for closer contact between the individual citizen and officialdom. In other words, it is imperative for state administration to maintain a closer interaction with the citizen.

The complexity of administration in the modern states makes local government an imperative. Local government, as the smallest and most approachable unit in any system of public administration plays a major role in breaking down the barriers between the individual and society. Thus, local government plays a significant role in promoting democratic values (one of which is popular participation) at the local level.

Good (democratic) governance is public management that is characterized by the rule of law, justice, popular participation in decision-making, and transparency and accountability (Kiyaga-Nsubuga, 2003).

Bratton (2008:2) proposes three types of governance: **administrative**, **economic** and **political**.

The **administrative** dimensions of good governance concern:

- a. Legality (whether the government observes the rule of law);
- b. Transparency (whether government procedures are open for all to see); and,
- c. Honesty (whether government officials are free of corruption).

The **economic** dimension of good governance cover:

- a. Effectiveness (whether government is able to attain its stated policy goals);

- b. Efficiency (whether public goods are delivered on cost-effective basis); and,
- c. Equity (whether citizens enjoy equality of access to available public goods).

The **political** dimensions of governance consist of:

- a. Responsiveness (whether elected officials act according to popular priorities);
- b. Accountability (whether unresponsive public officials can be disciplined); and,
- c. Legitimacy (whether citizens willingly obey the government).

The concept of ‘good governance’ at local levels denotes the quality, effectiveness and efficiency of local administration and public service delivery; the quality of local public policy and decision-making procedures, their inclusiveness, their transparency, and their accountability; and the manner in which power and authority are exercised at the local level (Bonfiglioli, 2003). It is to be taken for granted that efficient local governance will engender popular participation at the local level.

The notions of “good governance” and democracy are now being pointed out as decisive factors for the success of economic policies and, more generally, for explaining national development levels. They are more than just instrumental (democracy contributes to good governance, which itself promotes growth and curbs inequality). They are constituent elements of the population’s well-being.

The consensus in development circles today is that promoting democracy at the local level holds the key to reducing poverty, improving service provision and successfully undertaking other initiatives that fall under the general rubric of development. However, the principles of democracy cannot be operational without effective participation of the people at the local. Development is about people and can be achievable when people participate in the process that will bring it about.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss Bratton’s three types of governance.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Governance at the local level requires some degree of participation and enhances the opportunities for such. It encourages political

participation, production and service delivery by reducing the gap between service producers and consumers as well as allowing the private sector and non-governmental organisations to engage in service production and provision. The notion of accountability and responsiveness as espoused by the idea of good governance when practiced can help reduce a state of alienation and enhance popular participation.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have come across the concept of democracy and how it can be operational at the local level. You have also learnt that development is about people, and popular participation can engender development. You have also gained an insight into the notion of local governance. However the discussion on local democratic governance is not exhausted in this unit. The next unit will further explore this concept and its significance for development.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. How will you conceptualise democracy?
- ii. Demonstrate your understanding of the concept of ‘local governance’

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Bollen, K. A. & Paxton, P. (2000). “Subjective Measures of Liberal Democracy.” *Comparative Political Studies*, Vol. 33 No. 1.

Kiyanga-Nsubuga, J. (2003). “Strengthening Democracy at the Local Level: A Survey of Some Critical Issues.” Fifth International Conference of New or Restored Democracies. 10-12 September. MONGOLIA.

UNIT 3 DECENTRALISATION AND LOCAL GOVERNANCE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Concept of Decentralisation
 - 3.1.1 Types of Decentralisation
 - 3.1.2 Characteristics of Decentralisation
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

We need to recall here what we learnt in one of the previous units on the basic ideas about local government. Our understanding of local government is that it is a lower tier of government with authority granted to it by higher government to allocate resources on a range of different functions. In this sense, local government can be referred to as a decentralised government. The point that is being raised again is that, a feature of modern state administration is the need for closer contact between the individual citizen and officialdom. In other words, it is imperative for state administration to maintain a closer interaction with the citizen. How this can be done depend on the accessibility of the government to the governed.

Arguments for decentralisation have been based on widely differing criteria, ranging from expected improvements in allocative efficiency, welfare, and equity, to increased participation, accountability, and responsiveness on the part of local authoritative. In this unit, you will be introduced to the concept of “decentralisation.”

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define the concept of decentralisation
- identify and discuss various forms of decentralisation

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Concept of Decentralisation

There is the argument that an over-centralised political and administrative system, where decision-makers and officials legislate and prescribe for a whole variety of situations, often without knowledge of local circumstances and conditions may not be effective or efficient.

The term decentralisation is used to describe a wide variety of power transfer arrangements and accountability systems.

Rondinelli (1981) defines decentralisation as the transfer or delegation of legal and political authority to plan, make decisions and manage public functions from the central government and its agencies to field organisations of those agencies, subordinate units of government, semi-autonomous public corporations, area-wide or regional development authorities; functional authorities, autonomous local governments, or non-governmental organisations.

Decentralisation is a relative, complex, instrumental and multidimensional process. It is relative in that it describes the distribution of state resources (responsibility, finance, personnel or discretionary authority) between various institutional actors within the state and/or society against some normative mode in space or time.

It is complex in that it incorporates and is impacted upon by political, economic, institutional and cultural factors.

It is a multidimensional process which defines the distribution of power and resources between state and society, the executive and other branches of the government, at micro level between central and local governments, central government and their field administration, between central/local governments, and non-governmental entities as well as at higher levels between governmental units within a federal or international system (Olowu, 2001:2).

3.1.1 Types of Decentralisation

Different types of decentralisation should be distinguished from one another because they have different characteristics, policy implications, and conditions for success.

Rondinelli (1981) made distinction among three degrees of decentralisation; deconcentration, delegation and devolution.

Deconcentration involves the shifting of workload from central government ministry headquarters to staff located in offices outside of

the national capital. Although, it is argued that this form may not be “true” decentralisation as the authority to decide how functions are to be performed are not given to the staff. In other words, opportunities for staff to exercise substantial local discretion in decision-making are not feasible. Rondinelli however, emphasised the fact that, especially in developing countries where the governments are highly centralised, even the shifting of workload from central offices to staff outside the capital can have an important impact on development.

A greater degree of deconcentration can also be achieved through field administration. Creation of a system of field administration implies the transfer of decision-making discretion to field staff, allowing them some latitude to plan, make routine decision and adjust the implementation of central directives to local conditions, within guidelines set by the central ministries. Under a system of field administration, even though government officers are working within local jurisdictions that may have semi-autonomous or delegated powers, field staffs are employees of a central ministry and remain under its direction and control.

Another form of decentralisation is the delegation of decision-making and management authority for specific functions to organisations that are only under the indirect control of central government ministries.

Delegation implies the transfer or creation of broad authority to plan and implement decisions concerning specific activities or a variety of activities within specific spatial boundaries- to an organisation that is technically and administratively capable of carrying them out. Often, the organisations to which public functions are delegated have semi-independent authority to perform their responsibilities, and may not even be located within the regular government structure. Delegation of functions from central ministries to such organisations as public corporations, regional planning and area development authorities, multi-purpose and single purpose functional authorities, and project implementation units represents a more extensive form of decentralisation.

The most extreme form of decentralisation is the strengthening or creation of independent levels and units of government through devolution.

Devolution means the transfer of specific powers or functions from a superior to a subordinate government. The transfer is of constitutional magnitude even if not affected through a written constitution; it is ordinarily intended to be permanent; it surrenders all powers associated with devolved functions (namely, political, legislative, administrative

and fiscal); and it leaves the functional field vacant for occupancy by subordinate governments (Elaigwu, 2000).

According to Rondinelli, devolution has certain characteristics:

- Firstly, it requires that local government be given autonomy and independence and be clearly perceived of a separate level over which central authorities exercise little or no direct control.
- Secondly, the local units must have clear and legally recognised geographical boundaries over which they exercise authority and within which they perform public functions.
- Thirdly, local governments must be given corporate status and the power to raise sufficient resources to perform specified functions.
- Fourthly, devolution implies the need to develop local governments as institutions in the sense that they are perceived of by local citizens as organisations providing services that satisfy their needs and as governmental units over which they have some influence.
- Finally, devolution is an arrangement in which there are reciprocal, mutually benefiting and coordinate relationships between central and local government, in other words, local government has the ability to interact reciprocally with other units in the system of government of which it is a part (Rondinelli, 1981).

The argument however is that, the specifications for devolution may be valid from a western theoretical or legal perspective, in most developing nations actual requirements are less stringent. Devolution is usually seen as a form of decentralisation in which local government units are given responsibility for some functions but in which the central government often retains some supervisory powers and may play a large financial role.

Even where most of the western theoretical conditions are met, central government in developing nations often attempt to make local governments act inconsistently with national development policies and plans in the performance of their functions and certain formal or informal controls are often maintained to accomplish that goal.

The fourth form of decentralisation is privatisation

Privatisation refers to the transfer of authority and responsibility from central government agencies to private entities. The government and private sector may start public – private partnership. The functions that had been exclusively the responsibility of the government are allowed to be performed by the private enterprises, community groups,

cooperatives, private voluntary associations, and other non – governmental organisations.

Privatisation according to Neven (Green World Research) can include;

1. allowing private enterprises to perform functions that had been previously been monopolised by government
2. contracting out the provision or management of public services or facilities to commercial enterprises
3. financing public sector programs through the capital market (with adequate regulation or measures to prevent situations where the central government bears the risk for this borrowing) and allowing private organisations to participate; and
4. transferring responsibility for providing services from the public to the private sector through the divestiture of state – owned enterprises.

3.1.2 Characteristics of Decentralisation

Below is a cluster of characteristics of decentralisation by Mawhood (1983)

Characteristics	Typical signs
A decentralised local body should have its own budget...	Balance estimates of revenue and expenditure. A separate bank account, with the cheque-book held by an employee of the local authority (not a central civil servant).
A separate legal existence...	Corporate status, often with a common seal. Power to sue and be sued. Power to hold land and property as its own (not the government's)
And the authority to allocate substantial resources...	Quantity of finance handled. Numbers and qualifications the staff employed. Power to decide over expenditure. Power to vary revenues. Decisions over the staff--appointments, promotion, discipline.

On a range of different functions...	The functions can vary widely, but a single-purpose local body is not 'local government'
The decision being made by representatives of the local people.	Different forms of election or appointment may serve, provided that people feel the policy-making body is really representative of them.

The impact of decentralisation will differ depending on what type of decentralisation is taking place, (the political, fiscal and administrative arrangements which characterise the decentralisation), and what the objectives and conditions of decentralisation are.

SELF-ASSESSMENT-EXERCISE

What is decentralisation?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Decentralised government as has been defined earlier is a semi-dependent organisation. It has some freedom to act without referring to the centre for approval, but its status is not comparable with that of a foreign state. Mawhood states that the local authority power's, and even its existence, flow from a decision of the national legislature and can be cancelled when that legislature so decide.

Decentralisation is often driven by politics, and the argument is that as practiced in countries, a big difference is often observed between formal arrangements for decentralisation and what actually happened. The focus of analysis of decentralisation therefore must first be on the formal arrangements (i.e constitution, laws, regulations and policy discussions) but at the same time focus on the actual practices of decentralisation.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we learnt different conceptualisations of decentralisation. We know that decentralisation can assume different forms (Deconcentration, delegation, devolution and privatisation). We also learnt the major characteristics or the main features of decentralisation. No matter what forms it takes, the whole idea of decentralisation is to decongest the inefficient centralised state and to encourage efficient service delivery to the local populace.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Differentiate between deconcentration and devolution of powers in a federal state.
- ii. Discuss the major characteristics of devolution.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Elaigwu, J.I. (2000). "Devolution of Powers in a Federal State: Some Preliminary Observations". Keynote Address in Babawale, T. and Olasupo, B. (Eds). *Devolution of Powers in a Federal State*. A Publication of the Friedrich Ebert Foundation.
- Mawhood, P. (1983). *Local Government in the Third World: the Experience of Tropical Africa*. New York: John Wiley and Sons. pp 1-25.
- Olowu, D. (2001). *African Decentralisation Policies and Practices from 1980s and Beyond*. Netherlands: ORPAS- Institute of Social Studies.
- Rondinelli, D.A. (1981). "Government Decentralisation in Comparative Perspective Theory and Practice in Developing Countries." *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, Vol. XLVII, No.2.

UNIT 4 LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objective
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Federal System
 - 3.1.1 Characteristics of a Federal State
 - 3.1.2 The Prevailing Schemes of Sharing Power in a Federation
 - 3.1.3 Division of Functions between Levels of Government
 - 3.2 Intergovernmental Relations - Meaning
 - 3.2.1 Features of Intergovernmental Relations
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Local government exists within the jurisdiction over which some other levels of government have supervisory power. They therefore operate under the ambit of that level of government. This raises the issue of Intergovernmental Relations (IGR). IGR is an attribute of federalism. We cannot talk about Intergovernmental Relations without talking about federalism. In this unit therefore we shall discuss what federalism is all about and then examine the concept of Intergovernmental Relations.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the term ‘‘federalism’’
- effectively discuss the concept of ‘‘Intergovernmental Relations’’
- examine how local government operates within an intergovernmental arrangement.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Federal System

Federalism is a common feature of contemporary nation-states.

To federate is to come together. A state is not just one entity, but the union of discrete entities. The union may be genuine, planned consciously for a particular purpose.

There is no one single definition of federalism. However, we shall look at some of the definitions and conceptualisation of federalism by some authors.

The classical formulation of federalism is that given by K. C. Wheare. According to him, “by the federal principle I mean the method of dividing powers so that general and regional governments are each within a sphere, coordinate and independent.”

Federalism to Jinadu (1979) is usually viewed as a form of governmental and institutional structure, deliberately designed by political “architects”, to cope with the twin but difficult task of maintaining unity while also preserving diversity.

The federal principle according to Wheare includes the following:

1. The division of powers among levels of government;
2. A written constitution showing this division; and
3. Coordinate supremacy of the two levels of government with regards to their respective functions.

The key factor for the existence of federalism is the maintenance of a constitutional arrangement in which both the federal and the state governments are responsible for particular spheres of constitutional activity, or the exercise of political discretion by two levels of government (Fatile and Adejuwon, 2008).

We can identify the main features of a federal state from the definitions above.

3.1.1 Characteristics of a Federal State

1. There are two levels of government; the centre and the states.
2. Constituent states are autonomous within constitutional limits.
3. Division of power of jurisdiction is via the constitution.
4. Two levels of government are co-ordinate.
5. There is the supremacy of the constitution.

A federal state is a government of coalition of separate entities, each faced with a problem which they cannot solve alone. We can observe from the characteristics the notion of division of power between the

federating units. We may however, ask the question: **How is power divided between the levels of government?**

There are three prevailing schemes for sharing power amongst the units:

3.1.2 The Prevailing Schemes of Sharing Power in a Federation

- 3 List System – Exclusive federal, state and concurrent
- 2 List System – Exclusive federal + concurrent jurisdiction, residue to state

The Single List System – Exclusive federal, residue to state.

The 3 List System: This is a situation where the powers of government are divided between the two levels of government; the federal and the state using a three point list.

The first list consists of the exclusive federal list which enumerates all of the powers that the constituents units concede to the federal or the union government.

The second list is the residual list. This enumerates all of the powers which are assigned to the states.

The third list is the concurrent list which states the powers that may be exercised by both the union/federal government and the states. A principle of flexibility is manifest in the area of the concurrent list which permits either of the government to operate.

The 2 List System: The two list system usually takes the form of an exclusive federal list which enumerates all of the powers allocated to the federal and the area of concurrent legislation. All the powers that are not so allocated are left to the states.

The Single List System: Under this scheme, the powers of the federal government are enumerated in specific terms. Whatever is not assigned to the federal government is the responsibility of the state.

What we need to know further about a federal system is how responsibility defined as functions are shared between the levels of government.

3.1.3 Division of Functions between Levels of Government

Division of functions in a federal system is effected on the basis of a number of principles which include the following:

1. Whatever concerns the nation as a whole belongs to the federal state (for example, defence, foreign relations, international trade etc.). Whatever is local or regional in nature goes to the unit governments.
2. Responsibility should be assigned to the government that is most capable of administering it.
3. Functions which are similar should be assigned to the same government.

3.2 Intergovernmental Relations – Meaning

The term Intergovernmental Relations originated (in the 1930s) and evolved to encompass several facets of governance that are different from and supplemental to federalism (Wright, 1995).

Intergovernmental relations involve the patterns of cooperation among various levels of government in a federal government system. These patterns of relationship which may be vertical or horizontal are instrumental to the development of high level of coordination among the various layers in their efforts towards the implementation of the national goals, policies and programmes (Fatile and Adejuwon, 2008).

We observed earlier that Intergovernmental relation is an attribute of federalism. It is also much about transactions relations between and among governments in a federal polity. When we talk of federal relations, what we mean is the relations/ transactions between federal, states and local government.

There are six types of relations that are possible in a federation.

- Federal-State Relations
- Federal-State-Local Relations
- Federal-Local Relations
- Inter-State Relations (State-State Relations)
- State-Local Relations
- Inter-Local Relations (Local-Local Relations).

These categories of relationships suggest that there are different transactions in a federal system.

What are the objects of these relationships?

Object of relationship between and among government is the purpose of the state and government.

There are specific focuses of Intergovernmental Relations.

- Financial relations
- Personnel exchange
- Technology transfer
- Joint ventures

3.2.1 Features of Intergovernmental Relations

Amongst the main features of Intergovernmental relations are the following:

- Prominence of policy (rather than mainly legal issues);
- Inclusion of all governmental entities – local units in addition to national-state (federal) relations;
- Importance of officials attitudes (perspectives) and actions;
- Regular, continuous day-to-day interactions among officials; and
- Inclusion of all types of public officials – especially administrators in addition to elected officials (Wright, 1995).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the three prevailing schemes of power sharing in a federal system.

4.0 CONCLUSION

A federal society is by and large a society that is plural in nature (culturally heterogeneous) where the formation of one government is likely to excavate social tension. The federal political arrangement therefore becomes a means of avoiding such conflicts. We have observed that the desire for unity and autonomy is the reason for federalism. We can however, see these as a paradox that people seeking autonomy are also seeking unity (they want to be separate and united). Federalism is thus seen as the reason for this unity. It is a form of arrangement that can guarantee the two desires. The way the two desires are approached in the federal state is via the division of authority, division of functions and the division of judicial and financial power. Intergovernmental relation is a concept that deals with how these are achieved in a federal state.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have learnt that Intergovernmental Relation is an attribute of a federal polity. It specifically relates to different transactions and

relations between and among governments in a federal polity. There are different patterns of these relationships that exist in a federal system. We identified six patterns of relations of Intergovernmental relations in a federation. You have also learnt about how powers are shared in a federal system.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. What is federalism?
- ii. Discuss the concept of Intergovernmental relations and enumerate the patterns of relations discussed.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Fajonyomi, S.B. (1997). *Governing the Grassroots – An Analysis of Decision-Making in Nigerian Local Governments*. Ibadan: Olu-Akin Publishers.
- Fatile, J.O. & Adejuwon, K.D. (2008). “Intergovernmental Relations in Nigeria: An Appraisal of the Involvement of Local Government in the Constitution.” A *Journal of Constitutional Development*. pp 83-102.
- Jinadu, A. (1979). “A Note on Theory of Federalism” in Akinyemi, A.B., Cole, P.D., & Ofonagoro, W. (Eds). *Readings on Federalism*. Lagos: Nigerian Institute of International Affairs (NIIA). pp 13 -25.
- Wright, S.D. (1995). “Democracy and Federalism in the United States: Intergovernmental Patterns, Policies, and Perspectives” in Aborisade, O. & Mundt, R.J (Eds). *Local Government in Nigeria and the United States: Learning from Comparison*. Ife: Local Government Publication Series, pp 99-174.

UNIT 5 LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND POPULAR PARTICIPATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government and Popular Participation
 - 3.1.1 Types of Participation
 - 3.2 Popular Participation
 - 3.2.1 Obstacles to Popular Participation
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will learn about local government and popular participation and how this fosters democracy at the local level. It has been argued that public participation is seen as a means to (i) enhance development and service delivery, (ii) improve governance and (iii) deepen democracy. What we shall be doing in this unit therefore is to explore the concept of popular participation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the concept of popular participation
- examine types of participation
- discuss various obstacles to popular participation.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government and Popular Participation

Popular participation is the empowerment of the people to involve themselves in creating structures and in designing policies and programmes that serve the interests of all and contribute optimally to the development process.

Participatory development or what is sometimes referred to as popular participation may be defined as a process by which people take an active and influential hand in shaping decisions that affect their lives.

Through empowerment, participation can also lead to changes in knowledge, skill and the distribution of power across individuals and communities thus improving social equity (Development Cooperation Guidelines Series, 1995).

Participation derives from an acceptance that people are at the heart of development. Development can only be meaningful to people when it is conceived by them or they are part of the conception. This however can only be achievable where there is genuine participation by the people. This is because participation means different things to different people.

Participation has a wide range of meanings:

1. Firstly, participation must be active. The implication of this is that mere receiving of services does not constitute participation.
2. Secondly, participation involves choice, the right and the responsibility of people to make choices and therefore, explicitly or implicitly, to have power over decisions which affect their lives.
3. Thirdly, choice must have the possibility of being effective that is, mechanisms are in place or can be created to allow the choice to be implemented (Rifkin, Muller and Bichmann, 1988).

People participate at various levels:

- local participation at the grassroots level in an activity of common interest;
- participation in groups and movements which form part of “civil society” and constitute intermediary organizations between the individual and the state;
- participation in the political life of the country.

3.1.1 Types of Participation

The degree of participation may be of three types:

- non participation,
 - partial participation and
 - genuine participation.
- i. In nonparticipation, the local people are ignored and the decisions of conservation and management are taken by the outside officials and experts.

- ii. In partial participation, the local people are not involved in decision—making, but are consulted or they may be allowed to participate in return for food, cash and other incentives.
- iii. In genuine participation, the stakeholders are involved in decision—making directly

3.2 Popular Participation

Popular participation will include people getting involved in the planning, management and implementation of their developmental needs and objectives.

According to Adedeji (1997), for democracy to survive, grow and thrive in a society it must derive from and be inspired by a deep-rooted culture of popular participation. Popular participation is in essence the empowerment of the people to involve themselves in creating structures and in designing policies and programmes that serve the interests of all and contribute optimally to the development process.

Consequently, popular participation involves (1) the opening up of the political process to accommodate freedom of opinions, tolerate differences and accept consensus on issues; (2) ensuring the full participation of all the people and their organisations and associations; and (3) creating necessary conditions for such an empowerment.

Popular participation may involve difficult and long processes but brings many benefits:

1. The contribution of local knowledge to activities;
2. An increased chance of objectives and outputs being relevant to perceived needs;
3. Greater efficiency and honesty of officials and contractors because they are under public scrutiny;
4. Ownership of the “activity” by community-based organisations.

If popular participation must be effective and result producing, then the local community must be given adequate position in the planning, management and implementation of local development objectives.

Craig (2000) provides a checklist for developing a model of community participation in local government structures;

- Encourage popular participation through shared decision-making.

- Educate local community and local government members to enable participation, drawing on local expertise and skill.
- Seek out and encourage broad involvement.
- Create the right setting for participation (e.g. meeting accessible to all, giving people an opportunity to speak etc.).
- Set up systems to encourage participation e.g. community fora.
- Provide adequate funding to enable participation including payment for venues for meetings, use of outside facilitators, education and training for participation, technical assistance with community base-line research etc.
- Develop proactive information and communication system.
- Ensure that information produced is clear, transparent and user-friendly. This includes all reports of meeting, briefings etc.

Ensuring that people get involved in the process of decision-making requires putting in practice all the above enumerated issues.

3.2.1 Obstacles to Popular Participation

However, there may be obstacles to popular participation. These may include:

- Lack of political awareness;
- Absence of forum for popular participation where people can express their views;
- Communication gap between the rulers and the ruled;
- Irresponsible government and bad governance;
- An unjust legal system that favours the rich and the privileged in the society;
- Lack of trust among members of the community;
- Discrimination and marginalization of minority groups (women and youth).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss various obstacles to popular participation

4.0 CONCLUSION

Popular participation can only be enhanced when people are involved in the process of decision-making at the local level. Recall that we said in the discussion of the justification for local government, that local government is justified on the basis of being able to promote democratic values which include popular participation. Local government enhances

popular participation as a result of its unique position of being the closest to the grassroots people.

5.0 SUMMARY

What we have done in this unit is to explore the concept of popular participation. We considered the various type of participation and also examined various obstacles to popular participation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. What is popular participation?
- ii. How can we promote popular participation at the local level?

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Adedeji, A. (1997). "Popular Participation, Democracy and Development: Is there a Dialectical Linkage?" in Adedeji, A, Otite, O. et al (Eds). *Nigeria: Renewal from the Roots? The Struggle for Democractic Development*. London: Zed Books. pp 3-19.

MODULE 3

Unit 1	Comparative Study of Local Government
Unit 2	Local Government in France
Unit 3	Local Government in the United States
Unit 4	Local Government in Great Britain
Unit 5	Local Government in Switzerland
Unit 6	Local Government in Australia
Unit 7	Local Government in four Nordic Countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden)

UNIT 1 COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Comparative Study – What Is It?
3.2	Comparative Study of Local Government
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be introduced to the comparative study method and approach. This will form the background on which the next six units, which are specific cases of local governments in different countries (France, United States, Britain and the four Nordic countries), are based. Local governments in different political systems are not all alike. Differences and similarities do exist in their systems and the forms of Intergovernmental Relations. Units 2 to 7 of this Module will explore this issue in detail.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain what we mean by comparative study
- discuss the issue of comparative local governments.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Comparative Study – What is it?

Comparative study is a series of attempts to study political systems and administrative structures of any real value, especially if we are studying areas that seem primarily of national concern that must be adjusted to the local social, political and economic environment (Campbell, 1988). Comparative study is a method of studying phenomena across the board with a focus on their similarities and differences.

Comparative analysis is a mode or a method of doing political research. As a mode of analysis, it has a history. It presupposes that institutions are being studied cross-nationally. We embark on comparative analysis in order to study political differences.

Comparative analysis does not merely describe but also attempts to explain the similarities and differences between political systems. Mere description does not make it a scientific endeavour. But comparative analysis is scientific in the sense that there are processes to be followed. You have to compare in order to know the differences as well as the similarities between terrain you are familiar with and the ones you are not familiar with through procedure clearly defined. Comparison has to do with guided tour, accepted procedure by which you compare what you find in one system that is lacking in another.

Similarities and differences are explainable in terms of two set of characteristics:

1. In terms of history of a political system;
2. In terms of the relationships between functional requisites of a system (structural imperatives and functional imperatives).

Comparative analysis is able to identify between systems the kind of structure which perform requisite functions and in the process be able to explain why differences exist in performing these functions. A person doing a comparative analysis will not only look for the functions being performed in different political system but will also look for the structures that perform the functions identified in those political systems.

3.2 Comparative Study of Local Government

It is an attempt at injecting scientific method/approach to the study of local government. It goes beyond describing but also explaining why

there are differences and similarities in local governments. It is also about gaining knowledge of things that exist in other political systems. It is important to know why local governments are not what they are in one country and other countries.

The comparative study of local governance institutions is dominated by a concern to comprehend the range of local government systems and as a result we certainly no more now than fifty years ago about how the position of local government varies between states.

The comparative study of local governance can be divided into three phases: (1) a group of studies that looked to establish some of the basic differences between local government systems across the world, (2) a second phase where more emphasis was placed on explaining the differences between local government systems and (3) a third phase that has focused on shared trends in reform that has led to a focus on complex systems of governance rather than formal institutions of government (Stoker, 2006).

In the main classification options of local governance, Lidstrom in Stoker (2006) classified a range of criteria that have been applied.

The first choice is whether to focus on historical or present day criteria. Historical heritage might lead in one direction in terms of the distinctions drawn while a concern with present day realities might lead in other directions.

If the current position is taken as the basis of the classification, much depends on what one chooses to focus on which may include the overall size and capacity of a local government system (the size, budgets and staff). The next issue is whether to focus on a single or multiple factors in drawing up divisions.

The most dominant form of classification in comparative local governance looks at local government system as a whole and links together a range of factors.

There is established boundary among which the local government operates. When we compare two local governments, we are likely to see differences among the boundaries. We can compare local government on the basis of their structure, the functions they perform, the degree of autonomy and intergovernmental relations. The comparative analysis enables us establish the basis upon which local government in different systems could be compared.

SELF- ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What is your understanding of comparative analysis?

4.0 CONCLUSION

The thrust of comparison is on regularity; features whose presence in one phenomenon is also present or absent, evident or non evident in another. Comparative analysis enables us to investigate certain characteristics present or absent in certain political systems. We can study political systems to know the kind of structure which perform requisite functions and in the process be able to explain why differences exist in performing these functions. Comparative study as it relates to local government will provide the necessary tools for comparing local governments across board, we may want to know whether the structure of local governments are the same or not in certain countries. We may also want to investigate the kind of functions local government perform in certain countries and see if there are similarities and differences and also seek to explain both the similarities and differences observed.

5.0 SUMMARY

What we have done in this unit is to explain the term “comparative analysis” as a method of studying phenomenon across board with the purpose of identifying similarities and differences. Also we learnt that we can study local governments across board using comparative analysis as a tool of our investigation. In the next six units, we shall examine systems of local government in France, United States, Britain and the four Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden).

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Is it possible to use the comparative method to study local governments across-board? If yes explain how this can be done.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Campbell, M.J. (1988). “Towards a Comparative Theory of Local Government” in Adamolekun, L., Olowu, D., & Laleye (Eds). *Local Government in West Africa Since Independence*. Lagos: University of Lagos Press. pp 1- 20.

Merkel, P. H. (1977). *Modern Comparative Politics* (2nd ed). Illinois: The Dryden Press.

Stoker, G. (2006). “The Comparative Study of Local Governance: The Need to go Global.” Hallsworth Conference. Manchester.

UNIT 2 LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN FRANCE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government in France
 - 3.2 Functions of Local Government
 - 3.3 Local Autonomy and Finance
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit looks at the specific case of local government in France. You will learn about the nature of the French local government. You will also learn about the functions and the form of autonomy and finance in French local government.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the nature of French local government
- Identify the structure and discuss the nature of autonomy in French local government.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 French Local Government

Until the late 1970s France was a unitary highly centralised state in which the major public tasks were performed by the (central) state acting through the central ministries. At the regional level, the departments were characterised by a peculiar division of functions. On the one hand, they were the institutional level of state administration which was headed by the prefect who was appointed by central government and acted as the regional backbone of central government. On the other hand, the departments were the territorial base of the upper level in France's two-tier local self-government structure (*collectivité's locales*) which is made up of the departments (in local self-government function and dimension) and the municipalities (*communes*).

In 1982 France embarked upon an attempt at a far-reaching decentralisation as well as deconcentration of the political and administrative system. The hitherto dominant position of the prefect in the sub-national arena was reduced to a largely coordinating function. His/her comprehensive control (*tutelle*) over the local authorities was replaced with an a posteriori legality review with the final decision being left to the administrative courts. The decentralisation move also entailed a political and functional strengthening of the regions (Wollmann, 2004).

The 1982-83 decentralisation gave wider resources, powers and legitimacy to all levels of sub-national government, from the municipalities to the departments and newly created regions. The foremost impact of the decentralisation acts was to strengthen local autonomy. Mayors gained greater authority, both in financial and legal terms, and the position of urban governments was strengthened.

There are three levels of local government in France. The upper and most recently established tier comprises the *regions*. Twenty two *regions* were created in 1986. One hundred *departments* form the intermediate tier, and the *communes* form the lowest tier. There are 36 565 *communes*, which constitute one of the most impressive specific attributes of the French local public sector.

The French *communes* represent nearly 50 per cent of all European communes. Due to the obvious difficulties of managing this large number of lower jurisdictions, a move towards cooperation among *communes* has been encouraged by the French central government since 1992.

Currently there are 2000 inter-communal structures (*communautés de communes*), each with its own taxation powers (Guengant and Rocaboy, 2008).

The world of local government in France also comprises a myriad of other organizations. Some of these organizations have a nongovernmental status; they act as quasi service-producers for local government. Others such as *sociétés d'économie mixte* (private agencies with majority public ownership) have a mixed status, often acting as subsidiaries or managing services for local government. While some organisations are public, others are quasi-public or public-private agencies running services operated by private firms. A number of organisations are clearly private engaging in activities relating to the environment, transport and housing management. What is referred to as the “municipal public sector” in France thus comprises a diversity of

organisations, many of which do not have genuine public status (Borraz and Le Gales, 2005).

3.2 Functions of Local Government

The reforms gave more or less specific competences to each level of government. The distribution of responsibilities between the three tiers of local government is clear.

Municipalities were awarded powers in the fields of town planning, culture and primary education. In addition to these formal provisions, local councils took on tasks in other areas where they felt they had political legitimacy to act, much as they always had. For example, economic development was primarily assigned to the regions, but both department and municipalities developed policies in this domain. Similarly while social services were assigned to the departments, large municipalities have maintained extensive services in this area. The same applies to other fields such as culture, the environment and social infrastructure.

3.3 Local Autonomy and Finance

French local governments enjoy financial autonomy. The financial autonomy of French local authorities seems to be extensive, effective, strongly supported by decentralisation, and guaranteed by the political influence that local politicians have within national elected representative bodies.

Several facts are provided for this conclusion:

- First, local and regional government or agencies now undertake about 70 per cent of all public investments in France.
- Second, local taxes have increased over time.
- Third, even though local government expenditure as a percentage of GDP is not very high, the discretionary authority accorded French local government in spending is very high.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the functions of local government in France.

4.0 CONCLUSION

There have been changes in the world of local government in France. After two decades of decentralisation, differentiation among local government has become the norm. The reforms made clear distribution

of responsibilities between the three tiers of government. There is the development of public policy networks as a result of the myriad of organisations that also operate in the world of Local government in France.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have gained insight into the world of French local government. We discussed the trends in its development through reforms and we also discussed the functions as well as the form of autonomy of local government in France.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What is the nature of autonomy in French local government?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Borraz, O. & Le gales, P. (2005). "France, the Inter-municipal Revolution" in Denters, B. & Rose, L. E. (Eds). *Comparing Local Governance- Trends and Developments*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan. pp. 12-28.

Wollmann, H. (2004). "Local Government Reforms in Great Britain, Sweden, Germany and France: Between Multi-Function and Single-Purpose Organisations." *Local Government Studies*, Vol.30, No.4, Winter, pp.639 – 665.

UNIT 3 LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government in the United States
 - 3.2 Functions of Local Government
 - 3.3 Local Autonomy and Finance
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be exposed to the system of local governments in the United States. The discussion will highlight the functions they perform. Earlier in one of the previous units, we observed that the nature of intergovernmental relations determine how local government generate revenue to perform their constitutionally assigned functions. You will also know how this applies to local governments in the United States.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the system of local government in the United States
- examine the functions that the local government perform
- discuss the nature of intergovernmental relations in terms of finance.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government in the United States

Local government in the United States is noted for its fragmentation. This is because local government is established by the states rather than by the federal government. Each state in its constitution and laws establishes the legal powers, operating procedures, functions, revenue streams and resources available to local government.

The general grant of authority provided local government is considered weak in the American context. Judicial interpretations of local powers

hold that those powers not specifically authorised by state government are prohibited.

There are more than 87,000 local governments in the United States. These local governments can be distinguished as general purpose or special purpose.

General purpose local governments are set up to provide a full range of public services to residents. These include counties, municipalities, and towns and townships. There are also special purpose local governments. They are set up to provide a single service, this include school districts and special districts.

3.2 Functions of Local Government

Functions performed by local governments in the United States are determined by the form of local government in operation.

Counties are the most basic form of local government in the United States. The actual number of counties has remained almost unchanged in the last century. Counties are subdivisions of the state government and are responsible for providing the following:

- Basic record-keeping, including births and deaths, marriages and divorces, and property records.
- Supervision of elections and maintaining county roads, and local jails.

In recent years, county governments also provide urban services to the unincorporated area, that is, those areas in the country which are not in a city and which have experienced rapid growth.

A city or municipality is an incorporated place set up as a municipal corporation under state laws. Cities have typically been created to provide services to the more densely populated areas of the states in a rural nation.

Special districts are created by state or local government (if permitted under state law) to provide specialised functions to a particular geographic area not otherwise addressed by municipal (city) and county governments.

The special district may operate with an elected or appointed board and finances its activities by collecting a property tax, income tax, or a fee from those living within the district boundaries.

Special districts are also set up to provide services that span the boundaries of existing cities or counties and are thus a mechanism to provide regional services.

3.3 Local Autonomy and Finance

The relationship between state and local governments is akin to a unitary state. Legally there are few constraints on state power to reorganise local government, but the power is rarely exercised for two reasons.

Firstly, American political culture pays high regard to localism. Local areas are expected to address their own problems and are resentful of interference from higher levels.

Secondly, governors and state legislators are reluctant to intervene in local affairs. This reticence has less to do with constitutional prescriptions than with the limited political gains to be derived from intervening in local or urban affairs.

Local governments in the United States have a great deal of legislative and fiscal autonomy in practice. Given various “home-rule” powers extended to local government and their revenue-raising capacity, local government have a great deal of independence (Savitch and Vogel, 2005: 211-221).

SELF -ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What is the nature of local government in the United States?

4.0 CONCLUSION

According to Wright (1995), when the local ‘level’ of government is subdivided into the various types of local entities there is much diversity in the revenue structures of different local jurisdictions. Such variety goes well beyond the different legal-structural ways state governments have shaped and defined local government(s). the “infinite variety” of local government revenue patterns in the United States reflects a broader theme of political, social, economic, geographic, and cultural diversity that spreads across the continental landscape. Local governments in the United States enjoy greater autonomy. The autonomy as such guarantees its effectiveness in meeting local needs of the local populace.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have gained an insight into the nature of local governments in the United States. You have also learnt the functions of

local governments, and the nature of the intergovernmental relations operating in the United States.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify the forms of local government in the United States and discuss the functions performed by them.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Savitch, H. V. & Vogel, R.K. (2005). "The United States: Executive-Centered Politics" in Denters, B. & Rose, L. E. (Eds). *Comparing Local Governance- Trends and Developments*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan. Pp. 211-227.

UNIT 4 LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN GREAT BRITAIN

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government in Great Britain
 - 3.2 Functions of Local Government Authority
 - 3.3 Local Autonomy and Finance
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will be exposed to the system of local governments in Great Britain. The discussion will highlight the functions they perform. The discussion will also be on local autonomy and finance in local government in Britain.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss local government in Britain
- identify their functions
- discuss the form of autonomy in the British local government.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government in Great Britain

The way in which local authorities in Britain have traditionally been organised is through committees of councilors serviced by professional officers located in department. Committees can be seen as a council's workshops, where councilors' local knowledge and their political assessment of local needs are brought together with professional and expert advice of officers to produce, ideally, policies that are both democratically responsive and able to be implemented.

In 1990 some large authorities had up to 100 committees, sub-committees, working parties and panels. Some kind of central management committee is often chaired by the leader of the majority party, for which the primary task was to coordinate the work of

specialist committees and to provide the council with overall policy leadership (Wilson, 2005).

3.2 Functions of Local Government Authority

Traditionally, local councils have only been able to do what statute permits. If a local council does something or spends money that is not authorised, it is deemed to have acted *ultra vires*, that is beyond its powers, and therefore illegally. This has been a serious impediment to innovation at the local level.

The Local Government Act of 2000 provides local authorities with a new, less restrictive, legal framework by introducing a more general power of “well-being” which gives scope for innovation across service areas. They now have a community leadership role with powers to promote and develop social, environmental and economic well being. The same Act gave local councils a new role in the context of collaboration with other agencies; they are now expected to lead the search for solutions to the range of crosscutting social, economic and environmental problems in the locality.

The limitation however, is that the new power is not directly equivalent to the “powers of general competence” possessed by local authorities in most other European countries. Most significantly, it cannot be used to raise money. Nevertheless, the Act is positive and expansive. It provides more scope for local authorities to become engaged in joint action in policy areas where previously councils would have had to check that they had specific powers.

While local government in Britain rests on a constitutionally weaker base than it does in many European countries, local authorities are still responsive for literally hundreds of different services.

In general terms, unitary authorities in England, Scotland and Wales provide all major services, as do English metropolitan districts. In London services are shared between the boroughs and the new Greater London authority (which has a largely strategic role). Within the remainder of England services are shared between two major tiers of local government –county councils and district councils. Major services such as education and social services are the responsibility of larger county councils, while the smaller district authorities oversee functions such as social housing, leisure/recreation and waste collection (Wilson, 2005:157).

3.3 Local Autonomy and Finance

Local government finance has constituted a constant source of tension between the localities and central government. Central government has controlled local authorities by two means: first by regulating the amount of money that they can spend locally and, secondly, by scrutinising the way in which that money is spent.

Until 1990 a property tax called the rates provided local authorities with limited taxation powers to meet some of their spending needs. In 1984 the government took powers to limit (cap) rates in an attempt to prevent rate rises beyond a pre-determined level. Each year from 1985-86 to 1990-91 a limited number of the highest spending councils, usually between 12 and 20, had their budget capped. By using the capping mechanism, central-government ministers in effect controlled local budgets and prevented excessive increases (that is those above the parameters established by the centre).

Over time revenues generated by local taxation gradually declined as a proportion of a local authority's net expenditure, and local authorities became increasingly constrained by the centre.

Introduction of a new local tax – the community charge or poll tax further undermined the financial independence of local authorities. Furthermore, central controls were placed on borrowing for capital projects thereby making the dependence of local authorities on the centre very great.

In 1993, the community charge was replaced by the council tax. Whereas the rates were a tax on property and the community charge/poll tax was a tax on the individual, the council tax is a combination of the two.

Although a number of 'localist' initiatives have been undertaken since 1997 (for example, some relaxation of capital funding controls and the introduction of a power to promote 'well-being'), central-local government relations have continued to be characterized by central government insisting on retaining control (Wilson, 2005:150).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Briefly discuss the provision of the Local Government Act of 2000 in Britain.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Our discussion of local government in Britain has focused on the changes in the world of local government in Britain. Just like what we observed in the case of France, local government in Britain has continually experienced changes in terms of functional responsibilities and powers of the local leadership.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have been able to learn about local government in Britain. You are aware of its functions, the form of autonomy and the various changes that have taken place.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the functions, and nature of the autonomy of local government in Britain.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Wilson, D. (2005). "The United Kingdom: An Increasing Differentiated Polity?" In Denters, B. & Rose, L. E. (Eds). *Comparing Local Governance-Trends and Developments*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan. pp. 155-173.
- Wollmann, H. (2004). "Local Government Reforms in Great Britain, Sweden, Germany and France: Between Multi-Function and Single-Purpose Organisations." *Local Government Studies*, Vol.30, No.4, Winter, pp.639 – 665.

UNIT 5 LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN SWITZERLAND

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government in Switzerland
 - 3.2 Local Autonomy and Finance
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Just like in the case of France, United States and Britain in previous units, you will learn about the nature of local government in Switzerland in this unit. You will also learn about the form of autonomy and the functions of Swiss local government.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the nature of local government in Switzerland
- discuss the functions of Swiss local government.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government in Switzerland

With its 26 cantons and roughly 2,900 municipalities, Switzerland is already a federalist and decentralised country.

Linder (1998) emphasises three particular institutional features of the Swiss political system which appear to have been important in allowing the country to achieve the track record it has – federalism, direct democracy and consociationalism. According to him, local government is the foundation stone of the three-staged federal system. Municipalities form the bedrock of the political system and political culture in Switzerland.

During the last 150 years municipalities have been able to maintain a high degree of autonomy within the canton, similar to the high degree of autonomy the cantons enjoy within the federal states.

Three features serve to illustrate this autonomy:

1. First, municipalities exercise substantial freedom in determining the organisation of their political systems within terms set by cantonal legislation. Since the degree of autonomy granted to the municipalities and local preferences vary from one canton to another, however, an enormous variety of political systems is to be found.
2. Second, Swiss municipalities also exercise far-reaching competencies to fulfill their tasks and provide goods and services. Under a notion of subsidiarity, all activities not explicitly assigned to higher political levels remain within the scope of municipal authority.

Some of the main responsibilities of municipal government include:

- administration of social security and public health (hospitals)
- care for the elderly (including construction of homes for the aged)
- provision of education, waste treatment, electricity, water, gas and local roads.

Municipalities are also in charge of local cultural affairs, the appointment of municipal executive and administrative authorities, stipulation of municipality citizenship requirements, and hold municipal property in trust. Again there are differences between the cantons.

Third, fiscal autonomy of the municipalities is especially salient. Municipalities control their own finance and are free to set the local tax rate, which amount to more than one-third of the total tax paid by citizens. In poorer municipalities the local tax rate has to be set up to three or four times higher than in well-off municipalities in order to cover all the expenses.

3.2 Local Autonomy and Finance

Cantonal legislation treats municipalities equally, regardless of their size. But there are exceptions, such as, giving bigger municipalities the possibility of having a parliament or bringing decisions to the polls, or to exercise greater authority in granting construction permits. The most important differences however stem from the fact that municipalities of several hundred inhabitants simply do not have to provide the same services as big cities.

In the last few years municipalities in Switzerland have increasingly come under pressure. With the economic recession of the 1990s, the financial position of virtually all municipalities worsened.

Social change, especially the processes of individualisation, pluralisation and secularisation, are also becoming increasingly apparent in the municipalities.

In line with the increasing difficulties municipalities have experienced in fulfilling their tasks and the worsening of their financial situations in the 1990s, reform activities among Swiss municipalities have increased.

SELF- ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the three features of the autonomy of local government in Switzerland.

4.0 CONCLUSION

You would have noticed in the discussion that local government in Switzerland enjoys far greater autonomy than Great Britain and France. This is because local government is accorded much significance in the Swiss federal structure. Local government is the foundation stone of the three-staged federal system. Swiss local government has a high degree of autonomy. Nevertheless, just like other local governments we have studied in this Module, the world of local government in Switzerland is also dynamic.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt the nature of local government in Switzerland. You have also learnt about the nature of its autonomy and the major functions it performs.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Examine the nature of local government in Switzerland.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Ladner, A. (2005). "Reforming Small Autonomous Municipalities." In Deters, B. and Rose, L. E. (Eds). *Comparing Local Governance- Trends and Developments*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan. pp. 139-154.

UNIT 6 LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN AUSTRALIA

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government Australia
 - 3.2 Local Autonomy and Finance
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 Reference/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will learn about the nature of local government in Australia. Just like we did in the previous units on other local governments, we shall discuss the autonomy of the Australian local government as well as the main functions.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss local government in Australia
- identify the main functions of Australia local government.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government in Australia

Local government in Australia plays a significant role in two primary respects. First, it gives voice to local aspirations for decentralised governance, and, second, it provides a mechanism for efficient delivery of services to local communities (Aulich, 2005).

Six relevant features distinguish local government in Australia:

1. It is part of a complex and diverse federal system comprising three spheres of government – the Commonwealth government at the national level, six states and two territories at the intermediate level, and more than 700 units of government at the local level.
2. There is enormous diversity within the sphere of local government. This diversity relates to the size and area of

population represented the range and scale of functions, the councils' fiscal position, the physical, economic, social and cultural environments of local councils, the varying state government legislative frameworks within which councils operate, and the different attitudes and aspirations of local communities.

3. There are 585 councils, or more than 80 per cent of the total number, classified as "rural" or "regional." The urban-rural divide represents one dimension of uneven resource endowments recognised by the provision of national government grants to those councils most in need. This process of "horizontal equalisation" provides additional funding based on "disadvantage factors" such as the length of roads to be maintained or the capacity to generate income through local taxes and rates.
4. Sub-national centralisation at the state level, which means a relatively small and weak local government level and a limited inclination to engage in significant redistribution of authority across levels, particularly downwards. While there has been some devolution of functions to the local sphere in the past two decades, the historical reality of administrative subordination of local government continues to be a central feature of central-local relationships.
5. Strict limitations on sub-national capabilities to raise their own revenues. This leads to a major transfer role for the centralised revenue collector to state and local governments and leaves local government with limited revenue-sharing capacity beyond the application of taxes (rate) on the unimproved value of property.
6. Low formal rates of participation of communities in local government. Voter turnout at local elections ranges from 12 to 65 per cent with averages in the low 30s. For most rural local governments only a minority (about 30 per cent) of all seats is contested at elections, although this figure is higher in urban elections (about 60 per cent) (Aulich, 2005:193-198).

3.2 Local Autonomy and Finance

The Australian constitution does not recognise local governments. It is left to the states to decide on a system of local governance in their territories.

Most states have assigned a minimal set of functions to local governments, including engineering services (roads, bridges, sidewalks, and drainage); community services (old-age care, child care, fire protection); environmental services (waste management and environmental protection); regulatory services (zoning, dwellings, buildings, restaurants, animals); and cultural services (libraries, art galleries, museums).

Australian local governments raise only three per cent of national revenues and are responsible for six percent of consolidated public sector expenditures. Property taxes (rates) and user charges are the mainstay (about 70 per cent) of revenues, and central and state grants finance about 20 per cent of local expenditures. Transportation, community amenities, and recreation and culture command two-thirds of local expenditures (Shah and Shah, n.d).

Apart from the lack of constitutional recognition at the national level, local government powers and functions are prescribed through state and territory legislation. These powers and functions have been confined to a relatively narrow range of functions. Together with the fragmentation of the system this has worked against high levels of autonomy.

At the same time it is generally acknowledged that local government has satisfactorily met its intended functions of service delivery, adequate representation and participation, and advocacy of constituent needs to higher levels of government.

State and national governments have recognised the importance of this contribution to the national economy and local government reform has been inextricably tied to the national economic reform agenda.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the nature of local government in Australia.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We observe in our discussion here that although Australian local government is part of the federal structure it does not enjoy greater autonomy like the Swiss local government. Because of this limited autonomy, the local governments in Australia are assigned minimal functions and responsibilities. However, local governments in Australia have been going through reforms just like France and Great Britain.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have been able to discuss the nature of local government in Australia. We have identified the common features. We also discussed the nature of the autonomy of local government in Australia.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the six main features that distinguish local government in Australia.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Aulich, C. (2005). "Australia: Still a Tale of Cinderella?" In Denters, B. & Rose, L. E. (Eds). *Comparing Local Governance- Trends and Developments*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan. pp. 193-210.

UNIT 7 LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN FOUR NORDIC COUNTRIES (DENMARK, FINLAND, NORWAY AND SWEDEN)

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government in the Nordic Countries
 - 3.2 Local Government Functions
 - 3.3 Local Autonomy and Finance
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit examines the systems of local government in four Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden). The four countries are treated as belonging to a single model of local government. What you will learn in this unit therefore includes the nature of local government in the four countries, functions, the type of autonomy and how it determines their revenue generation. The discussion will also examine certain differences and similarities in the nature and system of local government in the four countries.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the system of local government in the four Nordic countries being examined
- discuss the nature of the local government autonomy in the four countries
- examine differences (if any) in the local government administration in the four countries.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government in the Nordic Countries

In many international comparisons, the Nordic countries – Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden are treated as belonging to a single model of local government (Rose and Stahlberg, 2005).

The roots of local government in Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden are said to be deeply planted in the soil of history. As it is known and functions today, local government in these countries is of more vintage, stemming largely from developments following the Second World War. This has been a period of expansion of the Nordic social welfare states, in which local government was given a major role. The political-administrative system in each of the four countries consists of three levels of government – national, regional (county) and local. A distinction can nonetheless be made between a “Scandinavian model” on the one hand, and, a ‘Finnish model’ on the other.

The Finnish system does not have regional authorities comparable to the elected county-level governments in Denmark, Norway and Sweden. Finland however, has a system of inter-municipal cooperation that in many respects is the functional equivalent of regional governments found in the other three countries.

The difference between the two models is also evident from the perspective of public finance. While municipalities in the three Scandinavian countries account for roughly 60 to 70 per cent of all local government expenditures (with the remaining 30 to 40 per cent being spent by county governments), municipalities in Finland account for roughly 85 per cent of all local government expenditures, the remaining 15 per cent being spent by joint municipal boards.

Another difference is in the number of municipalities found in each country and the distribution of these municipalities in terms of their population size. At the turn of the millennium, both Finland and Norway had closer to 450 municipalities, whereas for Denmark and Sweden the number was less than 300.

There is significant difference in the manner in which political administrative leadership is organised in the four countries.

In Denmark, the mayor, who is elected by and among the council members, has a much stronger administrative role than his or her elected counterparts in other countries. The Danish mayor is formally above the municipal chief executive officer and has primary executive

responsibility, whereas in Finland and Norway political and administrative leadership is clearly separated.

In Finland and Norway, chief executive officers are appointed by the council and serve either for a fixed period or indefinitely. Sweden comparison, falls somewhat in between these two models since some of the council members are employed on a full-time basis in connection with their responsibilities as heads of municipal committees or boards, and the relative importance of political leaders vis-à-vis chief executive officers varies from the municipality to another.

With respect to the formal institutions of local self-government, the four countries are quite similar. In each country the highest political body at the local level is a popularly elected municipal council. Elections are held at regular intervals (currently every four years in all countries) according to the principles of proportional representation, and the number of council members elected is related to the size of the municipality.

Within certain limitations, the municipal councils determine the internal organisation and operation of local government. Some national variations exist, but the major tendencies and features were quite similar in all four countries at the beginning of the 1990s (Rose and Stahlberg, 2005:84-86).

3.2 Local Government Functions

Long before postwar welfare state developments, local governments had been involved in providing:

- basic infra-structural services (water and sewage, electrical production, and local road maintenance);
- holding responsibilities within the educational, health, social service and cultural sectors.

But these responsibilities and the attendant activities expanded considerably in the period from the 1950s through 1980s. Physical planning, environmental protection and other responsibilities were also added.

3.3 Local Government Autonomy and Finance

Financing of the above activities has been dependent on two primary sources: income taxation and intergovernmental transfers. In addition local governments have had the rights to impose various user fees and

charges. Traditionally user fees and charges comprised only a small segment of local government income.

There is a noticeable distinction regarding local government finance in Norway and the other three countries.

In Norway local authorities have no real ability to set the rate of local income taxation. Central authorities impose an extremely limited range for these rates. Central authorities in Norway also exercise a stronger degree of macroeconomic control over local authorities. This is primarily done by means of reviewing and approving local government budgets and borrowing activities.

In Denmark, Finland and Sweden on the other hand, local governments enjoy a greater degree of fiscal discretion, particularly in terms of setting local income tax rates.

The Nordic model emphasises small local governments (average jurisdiction of fewer than 10,000 inhabitants) that are primarily self-financing. In Denmark and Sweden, nearly 75 per cent- and in Norway, 64 per cent- of local expenditures are financed from own source revenues. Personal income taxes (piggybacking on a national base) are the mainstays of local finance (almost 91 percent of tax revenues), and property taxes contribute a pitiful 7 per cent of tax revenue.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have looked at the four Nordic countries – Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden as belonging to a single model of local government. Within this context what we tried to do is to examine the similarities and the differences, not only in terms of the functions they perform but also in the form of autonomy guarantee in the performance of the functions. So far we have been able to examine local governments in France, United States, Great Britain, Switzerland, Australia and the four Nordic Countries. Our objective was to see how these local governments differ and similar in certain respects. We observed similarities in some of the functions that are assigned to these local governments. The degrees of autonomy granted to these local governments differ greatly especially in the area of finance. In conclusion we observed that, almost all the local governments are experiencing change in different forms.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have been able to learn the major differences and similarities in the four Nordic countries discussed.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Discuss the manner in which political administrative leadership is organised in the four Nordic countries.
- ii. How is local government finance in Norway different from that of the other three Nordic countries?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Rose, L.E. & Stahlberg, K. (2005). "The Nordic Countries: Still the Promised Land?" In Denters, B. & Rose, L. E. (Eds). *Comparing Local Governance-Trends and Developments*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan. pp. 83-99.

Wollmann, H. (2004). "Local Government Reforms in Great Britain, Sweden, Germany and France: Between Multi-Function and Single-Purpose Organisations." *Local Government Studies*, Vol.30, No.4, Winter 2004, pp.639 – 665.

MODULE 4

Unit 1	Developments and Trends in Local Governments in Nigeria
Unit 2	Local Government Reforms in Eastern, Western and Northern Nigeria - 1950s
Unit 3	The 1976 Local Government Reforms in Nigeria
Unit 4	Local Government Since 1985

UNIT 1 DEVELOPMENTS AND TRENDS IN LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN NIGERIA

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Local Government under Colonial Rule
3.2	Reasons for the Adoption of the Policy of Indirect Rule
3.3	Characteristics of the Policy of Indirect Rule
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

We need to recall our foundation knowledge of local government. We have learnt about the nature and character of local government generally. Local government is defined as government at any level lower than the central authority in a given state. It can be described as government at the grassroots level. Local governments are usually created by laws and statutes. Their assigned functions and responsibilities are written in the constitution or statutes as the case may be. What we shall be doing in this unit is to begin the discussion on the developments and trends of local government in Nigeria. This discussion will span through the next three units of this Module. What is important for us is to see how local government in Nigeria evolved and the stages of its growth, and examine the dynamism of this development. In this unit however, you will learn about the policy of indirect rule, reasons for its adoption in the colonial Nigeria in three regions.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the feature of the policy of indirect rule
- discuss the basic characteristics of indirect rule
- examine how indirect rule was applied in colonial Nigeria.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government under Colonial Rule

The amalgamation of the Northern and Southern Protectorates of Nigeria took place in 1914. Two years later the Native Authority Ordinance, 1916, was passed to extend the legal basis of the native authorities to cover Southern Nigeria. Until then the hub of colonial local administration had been the “native court” which also served minor executive purposes. The ordinance of 1916 amplified the law and order functions of the native authorities which superseded the native courts as the main instruments of local administration.

The native authorities were empowered to make orders regarding the following items:

1. restricting the manufacture of native intoxicating liquors and the supply of such liquors to young people
2. prohibiting or restricting the holding of drinking bouts
3. prohibiting or restricting the cultivation of poisonous or noxious plants, and the manufacture of noxious drugs or poisons
4. prohibiting any act or conduct which in the opinion of the Native Authority might cause a riot or a disturbance or a breach of the peace
5. preventing the pollution of the water in any stream, water course, or water hole, and preventing the obstruction of any stream or water-course
6. regulating the cutting of timber and prohibiting the wasteful destruction of trees
7. preventing the evasion of any tax, service or other obligations imposed by or under any Ordinance
8. requiring natives to report cases of infectious disease whether of human beings or animals and generally for the prevention of the spread of such disease
9. requiring natives to report the presence within the local limits of his jurisdiction of any property stolen or believed to have been stolen outside such local limits; and
10. for any other purposes approved by the Governor

Local government was known under colonial rule as the Native Administration System. The Native Administration System comprised four main interdependent parts:

- the Resident who provided direction and control;
- the Native Authority, usually headed by a chief who enjoyed legitimacy under the indigenous political system, often supported by a council of elders;
- the Native Treasury; and
- the Native Court composed of representatives of the native administration.

These structures of the Native Administration System were created and sustained on the basis of a body of values and political beliefs which were articulated as the principles of Indirect Rule (Gboyega, 1987). These principles also regulated the relationships of these structures to one another and constrained their development and adaptation to changing socio-political conditions.

The British adopted the policy of indirect rule in the governance of the hinterland of Nigeria. The policy implied in practice that the pre-colonial institution of governance were left in place but placed under the close supervision of British colonial officials.

The policy was first introduced in the Northern Province and was subsequently extended to the south after the amalgamation. The system however, attained different levels of success.

3.2 Reasons for the Adoption of the Policy of Indirect Rule

The adoption of indirect rule was informed by a number of considerations. Okonjo in Gboyega (1987) identified certain problems that necessitated the adoption of indirect rule. These include:

- The vast scale of the areas and population to be administered - In relation to the vast area and huge population size there were rather few civil European officers to undertake the business of administration.
- At the time, Northern Nigeria was far from being completely pacified. Consequently, the troops that Lugard commanded had to be deployed every now and then to put down resistance to British colonial rule, and the fact available Europeans lived under harsh climatic and poor hygienic conditions meant that they were not always available for duty thereby worsening the impact of their scarcity.

- The communication system at the beginning of the 20th century in Northern Nigeria was exceedingly poor. Distances were wide and the roads (only means of transportation) were very bad. The difficulty of maintaining contact between headquarters and the field or districts meant that Residents had wide powers delegated to them. They in turn needed to delegate their powers to subordinates and since this did not exist, their position had to be filled somehow.
- Indirect rule was said to have helped minimised the cost of administration. It would have cost a lot of money to employ more British officers even if the men were available. The traditional rulers became a dependent local class in whose interest British colonial rule was perceived to be successful. Adoption of indirect rule was meant to be an indication of goodwill to both the traditional rulers and their people that British rule was not to have the implication of a radical dislocation of their social existence.
- Given the reasons stated above, Lugard saw the indirect rule system as expedient in the practical administration of Nigeria.

3.3 Characteristics of the System of Indirect Rule

Crowder and Ikime in Gboyega (1987:16-17) provided the summary of the identifying characteristics of what emerged as the system of native administration (indirect rule). These are:

- **Legitimacy:** in so far as possible pre-colonial dynastic lineages were continued.
- **Territorial Jurisdiction:** the territorial jurisdiction of the traditional rulers was maintained; that is, the land boundaries of pre-colonial times were respected except where the chiefs or people by their own consent agreed to federate for purposes of greater efficiency, larger revenues, etc.
- **Native Authorities:** chieftaincies were designated native Authorities, in which the chief might be sole native authority or the Chief in Council, constitute the native authority. A native authority has specific functions – (i) collection of taxes of which a fixed percentage was rendered up to the colonial administration; (ii) control of a budget established to spend the taxes retained by the Native authority, which included initiating local development programmes, building and maintaining native authority schools and dispensaries, building and operating permanent markets, the construction of local feeder roads to join up with central government roads.

- **Legal System:** the chiefs and their traditional legal officers controlled the administration of law, including local police functions and the prisons, according to customary legal principles shorn of abuses and repugnant aspects as determined by the colonial government.
- **Appointment of Officials to Native Authority:** the Native authority controlled appointment and dismissal of its officials; the colonial authorities, however, had to sanction the appointment of the chief himself.
- **The Role of the Political Officer:** essentially the role of the political officer in the Native Authority system was as an adviser, almost as a lobbyist vis-à-vis the Native Authority in so far as local government affairs were concerned. The less sophisticated the Native Authority however, the more his role became that of supervisor rather than adviser. In matters of trans-Native Authority affairs, e.g. decisions made for the whole colony, the political officer could order rather than suggest action.
- **NAs as Legislative Bodies:** the Native Authorities were Legislative organs. With regard to legislation concerning traditional matters, the political officers would not interfere unless they were repugnant to 'human justice'. With regard to legislation concerning modern administration much of the legislation would originate from the political officers but be promulgated in the name of the Native Authority.

In the Northern Province the system attained a level of success because the Hausa/Fulani emir enjoyed over whelming power in the pre-colonial time. Besides this, the emirate system had well developed traditional system of tax collection, a relatively efficient administrative system which enhanced the integration and control of the political system. There was also a highly developed judicial system which applied the Sharia code.

In a basically acephalous society like the Eastern region where there was no centralised political systems which were the foundation of the native authority, the colonial authorities had no choice than to create "warrant" chiefs whose consequent lack of legitimacy and conflict with traditional socio-political structure provoked widespread protest in the eastern region.

In addition there was no indigenous system of taxation to provide financial support for the native authorities. Since the native administration could not survive without a native treasury to raise

revenue for the native authority, the colonial government introduced direct taxation into the Eastern Region between 1927 and 1929. This action led to the famous Aba riot of 1929.

Furthermore, the attempt to apply the logic of indirect rule more fully in the Eastern region by substituting warrant chiefs for the British District Officers as presiding officers of the native courts after 1922 added to the outrage felt by the citizens of the Eastern Region.

These factors marred whatever achievements the native administration system could have realised in the Eastern Region.

In the Western Region, there were not as many obstacles to the introduction of indirect rule as witnessed in the Eastern Region. Prior to the colonial rule the Yoruba who were the largest ethnic group in the western region lived in kingdoms. The monarchical political organisation featured centralised political authority under the leadership of a king aided by a council comprising lineage heads. The most famous of these kingdoms had a finely balanced distribution of powers between the monarch, the *Alaafin*, and the council, the *Oyo-Mesi*.

The *Alaafin's* authority has spiritual and political dimensions and in spite of the claims of legend about the scope of that authority it was greatly limited by the necessity to carry along the *Oyo-Mesi*, the constraints of tradition and the desire to secure public order and welfare. In addition to the existence of a relatively more centralised political structure, there was also a tradition of royal courts, a practice by which the king's court was the ultimate court of jurisdiction for all civil and criminal proceedings.

Taxation which was a reason for protest with the introduction of the native administration system into Eastern Province was also difficult to introduce in the Western Province. Although tributary relations between paramount Kings and minor Kings existed before colonial rule the implications of organising a treasury such as the systemisation of taxation led to riotous protests especially in Abeokuta and Ogbomoso.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What are the reasons for the adoption of indirect rule?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Native administration system was said to be a political administration through the agency of indigenous institutions. Lugard found indirect rule expedient for the purpose of administration in Nigeria. The Native

Authorities especially in the North were well suited to the purpose of the colonial enterprise. The system however, lasted only until the early 1950s, in the Eastern and Western regions where the social structures were less hospitable and receptive to the Native Authority structure.

5.0 SUMMARY

We learnt in this unit how the policy of indirect rule was introduced and applied in the three regions of colonial Nigeria. We examined the major characteristics of the policy of indirect rule and form of its operation the Eastern, Western and Northern Nigeria. We observed that the operation of indirect rule met with varying degree of success in the three regions.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Discuss the major features of indirect rule.
- ii. Critically examine the operation of indirect rule in the three regions of colonial Nigeria.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Gboyega, A. (1987). *Political Values and Local Government in Nigeria*. Lagos: Malthouse Press Limited.

Oyediran, O. & Gboyega, A. (1979). "Local Government and Administration" in Oyediran (Ed.). *Nigerian Government and Politics under Military Rule 1966-79*. London: Macmillan Publishers.

UNIT 2 LOCAL GOVERNMENT REFORMS IN EASTERN, WESTERN AND NORTHERN NIGERIA – 1950s

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Reforms of Local Government (1950s)
 - 3.2 Local Government to Local Administration
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, you were introduced to the nature of the native administration in Nigeria starting from 1900. We observed the different form of administration of the indirect rule in the Northern, Western and Eastern Provinces in Nigeria. You will recall that indirect rule in the three provinces met with different degree of success. Consequently, the regions witnessed spate of riots during the period of administration of indirect rule especially with the introduction of certain taxes. In this unit, you will learn about the reforms that came immediately after the indirect rule operation in the Provinces.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss various reforms that took place after indirect rule at the Regions
- discuss the nature and form of the emerging local governments in the Regions.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Reforms of Local Governments (1950s)

Beginning from 1947, the British imperial government announced a new policy of local governance in their colonial territories, this was reflected in the dispatch of the secretary of state for the Colonies – Arthur Creech Jones to all British colonial governors informing them of the need to

emphasise the introduction of new reforms towards local governance which would emphasise efficiency in democratic governance.

In Nigeria, the introduction of a new constitution in 1951 facilitated the introduction of new models of governance in line with the 1947 dispatch.

Eastern Region

The Eastern Region in 1950 replaced the Native Authority Ordinance by a Local government Ordinance. Under the former Ordinance, a number of Chiefs and elders were appointed by the Government to form the native authority council of the area. The Local government Ordinance of 1950 enabled the majority (80 per cent) of the councilors to be directly elected. The structure of the local government was three tier, comprising county councils, district councils, and local councils.

The county councils corresponded, in most cases, almost exactly in size to the erstwhile divisional native authorities, and performed major services and functions. The district and local councils covered smaller areas, the former covering a larger area than the latter, but both had powers and functions relative to their size.

In 1955, the minister for local government was empowered by the provisions of new local government law to ensure closer scrutiny and supervision of local government activities.

The Local Government Law 1957 increased the autonomy of local authorities as the local government advisers (formerly district officers) were withdrawn and three provincial local government inspectors were appointed for the entire region thereby making regional government supervision even more remote.

In 1958, the county councils were abolished and the district councils became all-purpose local authorities. Thus in the urban and municipal areas local government had only a single tier while rural areas had two tiers of authority – district and local authorities. In 1960, the Eastern Nigeria Local Government Law further altered the structure of local government as the urban and rural district councils were redesignated urban county and county councils respectively (Oyediran and Gboyega, 1979).

Western Region

In the West, the Local Government Law of 1952 initiated important reforms of the system. However, the element of the reform had to

combine the influence and interest of Oba's and the chiefs. In response to the challenge posed by the chiefs, the regional government undertook the programme of political education to explain the new legislation.

The system introduced by the legislation was based on the British-type three-tier structure. Divisional, district and local councils were set up. The divisional councils were coterminous with administrative divisions and performed major functions. The districts council came next in status and performed middle range functions while the local council was for a small town or group of villages too small to have a district council. The local council performed only minor functions.

The local government systems in the Eastern and Western Regions were very similar in essential features. Underlying the two systems was a philosophical conception of local government which ascribed to local government higher ultimate political purposes than the mere delivery of social service and implementation of development projects. The ultimate political purposes served by local government as conceived in the two regions might be said to include political education for local and national leaders, diffusion of political power on an area basis, local self-determination and inculcation of the noble ideals of impartiality, protection of minority rights and integrity, all of which were considered essential to the evolution of a liberal democratic society.

Northern Region

There were efforts to reform in the North, but the objective was not on the democratisation of the system although the system was modified to accord contemporary trend.

The native authority law of 1954 not only changed little of substance, merely consolidating existing arrangements, but it even retained the term "native authority". All the seventy native authorities which existed had traditional rulers as their heads. The law made provisions for five different types of native authorities, namely:

1. a chief or other person in council;
2. a chief or other person and council;
3. any council;
4. any group or persons; and
5. any chief or other person.

In most places, it was the chief and council pattern that was in place in which the chief played pre-eminent and predominant role. However, popular participation was encouraged through subordinate structures – there were village councils. Here popular participation was allowed

though the emphasis in the North was not on democratisation as was the case with the South.

In spite of the reforms undertaken, public complaints against local governments' performance continued - there were allegations of corruption, nepotism, inefficiency etc. Consequently, the various governments instituted studies within their local government area although there were differences in detail. The reforms in the North were similar in orientation. They all sought to reduce power from the hands of aristocrats and to provide a legal framework for popular participation. The military intervention in the Nigerian politics in 1966 marked the beginning of important changes in the system of local governance in the country.

3.2 Local Government to Local Administration

The South Eastern State and the Mid-Western State replaced the local government system it inherited with a new system called development administration. The term development administration was chosen as a result of the recommendation of an expert ad hoc committee which examined and advised government on the suitability or otherwise of the system of local government inherited before the war.

The East Central State government adopted a different nomenclature for its system of local administration.

The main objectives of the system of local administration as stated in the words of the Mid-Western State Development Administration Edict are:

- a) to provide a framework for effective co-ordination and execution of Government programmes and services in each division; and
- b) to facilitate and encourage the participation of the people of each division in the control and management of their local affairs with the assistance and under the supervision of the government by enabling the people to utilise local community efforts and organisations to raise funds and mobilise resources for the general development of their local area.

Even though the structures varied they were designed to achieve the same purpose, that is, state government control of the administration and development of local communities.

In the east Central State, a two-tier system of local administration was established. The upper tier was called divisional council. The lower tier which was the primary basis of the new system was called community

council. They were constituted at the village group level very much in line with the traditional social and political units.

For the South Eastern State two levels of development administration were established – area development committee and urban or county development council. Each area development committee was made up of a number of villages and dealt with projects requiring the co-operation of more than one village. The county or urban development council covered a number of area committees and served as the centre for development administration.

In the Mid-Western State, development councils and development committees were established. As in all the other states, all members of development committees and councils were appointed by the military governor in the Mid-Western State. Each development committee had a ceremonial president (a traditional ruler) and a chairman and members. A chairman, chairmen of all development committees in the division, and between thirty and forty members constituted each development council. All staff and employees of development councils and committees were designated civil servants. The same was true of the South Eastern and East Central States.

In the Western State, by the time the military took over the control of government, divisional councils – the first tier of local government – had become most unpopular for some reasons:

1. many local councils were too small to be viable politically and economically;
2. local government institutions became the primary institutions for coercing local supports for the ruling political party;
3. Committees proliferated and unnecessary meetings were frequently held in order to gain sitting allowances and to get more involved in day-to-day administration of councils.

By 1967 when the state was created all local government management committees were dissolved and their powers and functions transferred to divisional administrators designated sole administrators.

In the late 1968 and early 1969, civil disorder broke out in several parts of the state as a result of the frustration experienced by the councils due to the absence of effective channels of participation and the neglect by the sole administrators.

A commission was set up to investigate the civil disorder. One of the recommendations of the commission was that 'government should undertake as a matter of urgency a review of the existing local

government council structure with a view to finding out which councils are viable and which are not, and therefore... decide on measures to for ensuring that only councils viable and capable of fulfilling their statutory obligations remain’.

In 1973, a new pattern of local governance was introduced – the Council Manager System. The model sought to maximise viability and efficiency (the council under the old system were too small and too many). Accordingly, the 114 local government councils of various sizes and statures were merged and consolidated into thirty-nine single-tier local government councils. Each council was made up of a management committee out of which a standing committee was chosen. Another important aspect of the structure of the new system was the creation of area committees in each council area with varying populations of between 10 000 and 25 000 and with membership of between ten and thirty.

The process of popular representation in the native administration system in the Northern Region was strongly resisted in the 1950s in the name of efficiency and stability. But by 1963 government decided that all native authority councils should have at least some elected members, and by the time the military took over in January 1966, all native authority councils had some elected members.

Certain policies of the new military regime quickened the gradual reduction in the power and influence of traditional rulers even before states were created in 1967.

In February 1966, government announced that all native authority police, prisons and native courts would be taken over by the regional government. The chief justice of Northern Nigeria was asked to prepare plans for a phased takeover of these functions. By April 1968 all these functions were effectively taken over (Oyediran and Gboyega, 1979: 169 -191).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the nature of development administration of the Eastern and Mid-Western States of the 1950s.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Native administrative system of the three regions experienced a change in terms of reforms. It has been observed however, that the replacement of local government with local administration was in essence not to stimulate local development but to strengthen military dictatorship. In

spite of all the reforms complaints against local administration performance continued.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have learnt in this unit, the process of various reforms undertaken in the three regions shortly before and immediately after the military took over. We learnt how the policies of the new military regime affected the power of the traditional rulers in the scheme of the then local administration.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Examine the nature of the reforms in the Western region.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Gboyega, A. (1987). *Political Values and Local Government in Nigeria*. Lagos: Malthouse Press Limited.

Oyediran, O. & Gboyega, A. (1979). "Local Government and Administration" In Oyediran (Ed.). *Nigerian Government and Politics under Military Rule 1966-79*. London: Macmillan Publishers.

UNIT 3 THE 1976 LOCAL GOVERNMENT REFORMS IN NIGERIA

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The 1976 Local Government Reforms
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The reform of 1976 was considered epochal and regarded as a turning point in the evolution of Nigeria local government system because it replaced all the different patterns of local government with a uniform multi-purpose model. It formally recognised the local government as the third-tier of government. In this unit, you will learn the details of the reform and see how it transformed the nature of local government in Nigeria.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the nature of the 1976 local government reforms
- discuss the major functions assigned to local government under this reform.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The 1976 Local Government Reforms

The civil war and military dictatorship really hampered the systematic growth and development of local government system in Nigeria. Nevertheless, the military rulers of Nigeria in their quest for administrative reforms also pre-occupied themselves with the status of local government which had become mere appendages of military governors in the immediate post-war years (Odion-Akhaine and Yunusa, 2009). These were the antecedents to the 1976 Local Government Reform of General Olusegun Obasanjo.

The 1976 Local Government Reform was part of the military government transitional programmes inaugurated in 1975. The new military government that came into office in 1975 pledged to return the country to civilian administration within a short period. It announced a programme for the disengagement of the military from political administration of which the re-organisation of local administration was a prominent part.

The re-organisation of local administration was an important feature of the programme for three reasons:

1. strong, representative local government was considered to be a pre-condition for the democratic system at the national level;
2. the desire of the new government to decentralise power; and
3. the desire to reap the benefits believed to be entailed by a decentralised system of administration such as sensitive local administration keenly attuned to local needs and purposes, more effective local control, greater efficiency, and the lessening of the load of administration at the state level (Gboyega, 1987:136-138).

The main reasons for the local government reforms were that a representative local government system was considered essential to a national democratic system of government; that strong local authorities with clearly defined functional responsibility in a power-sharing relationship with the state was an institutional safeguard against tyranny; that the reforms were necessary for greater efficiency and relevance in the provision of local services which would facilitate the integration of the national political system (Gboyega, 1987).

The highlight of the reform can be stated as follows:

- The reform provided for a single-tier structure for each local government with a minimum population range of 150,000 to 800,000. There was no maximum limit.
- A maximum of 25 per cent nominated membership structure, the rest were to be elected chairman and at least two or three councilors, to be designated supervisory councilors were to be engaged full-time. The number of council members was pegged between 10 and 30 depending on population of the local area.
- The role of traditional rulers was clearly spelt out. They were to serve in advisory capacity through the traditional councils.
- The provision for a steady financial base through grants. This comes in forms of federal and state grants.
- Provision for increased internally generated revenue.

The reform assigned specified functions and assured local government of two sources of revenue; the independent sources and fiscal transfer from the state and the federal government. As regards the functions of local government the reforms identified them as follows:

1. To make appropriate services and development activities responsible to local wishes, and initiatives, by devolving or delegating them to local representative bodies.
2. To facilitates the exercise of democratic self-government close to the local levels of our society and to encourage initiative and leadership potential.
3. To mobilise human and material resources through the involvement of members of the public in their local development.
4. To provide a two-way channel of communication between local communities and government (both state and federal).

The reforms provided for democratically elected local council, in line with the provision and functions assigned to the local government.

The reforms provided that local government councils be elected either directly or indirectly. In addition the councils have elected majorities, elect their own chairmen subject to government approval and take decisions by majority vote. The local government councils are single-tier authorities with primary and sole responsibility for exercising statutory powers of the local governments.

The major aspects of the 1976 reforms were written into the 1979 Constitution to ensure that the state governments do not go back on these reforms. The constitution guarantees a system of democratically elected local government; specifies a list of functions for local authorities and makes it mandatory for the states and federal government to make financial grants to local authorities. However, in spite of the significance of the 1976 local government reforms, it failed to achieve its objectives particularly during the second Republic.

Specifically, the 1976 reform and the subsequent 1979 constitution left unanswered what should be the definite role of traditional rulers. Again, the financial instability of the local government councils somehow reduced to mere structural decorations as they were persistently devoid of functional ability in relation to the various functions that they were charged with. Furthermore, the wards for the election of councilors were exceptionally large to the extent that some communities did not know their councilors (Bello-Imam, 2006). According to Bello-Imam, it is thus evident that the emergent structure suffered from various problems which tended to undermine the performance of local governments. thus, during the Second Republic, some of the state governments broke up or

adjusted local government boundaries without due regard to the viability in order to carve out more favourable bases for their political survival.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Examine the major highlights of the 1976 local government reform.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have observed in our discussion here that the 1976 local government reform brought significant changes in the world of local government in the country. It provided for democratically elected local councils, assigned specific functions to be undertaken by local government and recognised local government as the third-tier of government. In spite of all these, it failed to achieve its objectives particularly during the second Republic.

5.0 SUMMARY

What we have done in this unit is to discuss in detail the nature of the 1976 local government reform in Nigeria. We realised that in spite of the major significance of the reform, local governments were still bedeviled with serious problems.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss in detail the major aspects of the 1976 local government reform.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Bello-Imam, I. B. (2006). "Structural Evolution of Local Government in Nigeria" in Ekpe, A.N. (Ed.). *The Substance of Local Government Administration in Nigeria (Theory and Practice)*. Lagos: Asbot.
- Gboyega, A. (1987). *Political Values and Local Government in Nigeria*. Lagos: Malthouse Press Limited.

UNIT 4 LOCAL GOVERNMENT SINCE 1985

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government Since 1985
 - 3.2 Functional Responsibilities of Local Government
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, we were able to identify some of the problems associated with the 1976 local government reforms in Nigeria. The local government systems were over politicised with most state governments opting for the committee system which negated the elective principle in favour of appointment of local government officials.

In this unit, therefore you will further learn about the development in local government system in Nigeria after the failure in the operation of the 1976 local government reform.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the system of local government starting from 1985
- discuss the functional responsibilities of local government as enshrined in the 1999 Constitution.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government since 1985

All the problems discussed previously negated the 1976 local government reforms. However, with the coming of the Buhari and Idiagbon military regime, all the new local governments created between 1979 and 1983 were dissolved. General Buhari and Idiagbon set up a 21 man committee headed by Alhaji Ibrahim Dasuki. The Committee was to;

- i. Evolve the most suitable mode of managing the local governments in the context of the present military administration;
- ii. Re-examine existing structures, functions and financial resources available to local governments for the performance of those functions;
- iii. Look into the accounting/management (staff) problems of local governments, including the standardisation of the various departments of the council;
- iv. Evolve proper place of traditional authorities in local governments;
- v. Propose how best to manage intergovernmental relations between local governments and ministry for local governments local service boards/commissions;
- vi. Work out manpower development schemes for all cadres of local government relevant for the improvement of local governance administration in the country.

The Babangida administration that came in 1985 adopted the Dasuki Report and consequently, a white paper on the report was issued in 1986. In the white paper, the military government accepted the recommendation that the structure of local government introduced in 1976 should be retained. It endorsed the pruning of the local councils to the 1976 figure and proposed that a management committee be set up to run the councils (Adeola, 2009).

As part of the Babangida administration's efforts to return to civil rule by 1992, he set up a 15-member Political Bureau and instructed it to draw up a programme of action which reflected the wishes and aspirations of the people.

During the political debates, there were demands for a re-organisation of the federal structure so as to correct some of its perceived ills. Part of the Political Bureau Report dealt with how to make the local government agents of national development. From the 304 local governments inherited, Babangida created 149 new ones thereby bringing the total to 453. The numbers of local government councils have risen to 774 at present.

In the 1979 Constitution, the functions and responsibilities of the federal government are listed in the Exclusive Legislative List as contained in Part I of the Second Schedule. In Part II of the same Schedule was a list showing the functions and responsibilities which are assigned concurrently to the federal and state governments. Section I of the Fourth Schedule contains the list of functions which are assigned exclusively to local government councils while Section 2 of that Schedule lists functions of the state in whose performance the local

government councils can participate. The implications of these according to the Political Bureau are as follows: The functions and responsibilities of the federal and local governments are listed fully and state governments are assigned residuary functions and responsibilities. This is to say that the functions and responsibilities of state governments embrace the following:

- i. what accrues to them from the concurrent list of the Second Schedule;
- ii. what accrues to them from the concurrent list of the Fourth Schedule and;
- iii. whatever is not especially allocated to any level of government.

All these mean that any functions and responsibilities which are specifically allocated to any level of government are expected to be performed or carried out by it without reference to any other level of government. The operation of local government is guaranteed in section 7 (1) of the Constitution. The state governments are obliged by this same section to enact laws which provide for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions of such councils. All these provisions taken together according to the Political Bureau suggest the following:

- i. local governments constitute a third-tier of government in the federal system;
- ii. state governments must enact laws to bring local government councils into existence under democratic conditions;
- iii. in taking action under item (ii) above, state governments must give to the local governments the functions and responsibilities which are provided for them specifically in the constitution;
- iv. the responsibilities which the local governments should bear in respect of the functions concurrent to state and local governments will, presumably, be determined by agreement between these two levels of governments (The Report of the Political Bureau, 1987).

The institution of democratically elected local government councils has continued to be entrenched in the Nigerian Constitution. In the First Schedule, Part II Section 7 of the 1999 Constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria is enshrined:

1. 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 this Constitution, ensure their existence under a Law which provides for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions of such councils.

2. The person authorised 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.
1. It shall be the duty of a local government council within the state to participate in economic planning and development of the area referred to in subsection (2) of this section and to this end an economic planning board shall be established by a law enacted by the House of Assembly of the State.
2. The government of a State shall ensure that every person who is entitled to vote or be voted for at an election to a House of Assembly shall have the right to vote or be voted for at election to a local government council.
3. The functions to be conferred by Law upon local government councils shall include those set out in the Fourth Schedule to this Constitution.

3.2 Functional Responsibilities of Local Government

The main functions of a local government council are as follows as contained in the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (4th Schedule) are as follows:

- a. The consideration and the making of recommendations to a State Commission on Economic Planning or 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; and
 - 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 of maintenance of roads, streets, street lighting, 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 of 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 rates as may be prescribed by the House of Assembly of a States; and
 - k. Control and regulation of:
 - out-door advertising and hoarding
 - movement and keeping of pets of all description
 - shops and kiosks
 - restaurants, bakeries and other places for sale of food to the public
 - laundries; and
 - licensing, regulation and control of the sale of liquor.

The functions of a local government council shall include participation of such council in the government of a state as respects the following matters:

- a. The provision and maintenance of primary, adult and vocational education
- b. The development of agriculture and natural resources, other than the exploitation of minerals
- c. The provision and maintenance of health services; and
- d. Such other functions as may be conferred on a local government council by the House of Assembly of the state.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the responsibilities of local government assigned by 1999 constitution.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The 1976 Reform was motivated by the desire to promote a culture of democracy in Nigeria; decentralise power and thereby prevent a reoccurrence of tyranny, and promote efficient provision of service at the local level. But as we observed in the last unit, local governments after 1976 were still confronted with problems. The Babangida administration that came in 1985 adopted the Dasuki Report and accepted the recommendation that the structure of local government introduced in 1976 should be retained. Subsequently the 1979 and 1999 constitutions clearly delineate the functions of local government in the

country. However re-organisation of local government system in Nigeria still continues.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have learnt about the further process of transformation of the local governments in Nigeria since 1984. We also know the functional responsibilities of the local governments as enshrined in the 1999 Constitution which is still operational till today.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Local governments in Nigeria have experienced some changes since 1984, highlight some of these changes.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

- Adeola, G.L. (2009). "From Native Authority to Local Government: Is There a System of Local Government in Nigeria?" In Odion-Akhaine, S. (Ed.). *Local Government Administration in Nigeria – Old and New Vision*. Abuja: Panaf Press. pp. 2-21.
- Odion – Akhaine, S. & Yunusa, M. (2009). "Local Government and the Doctrine of Separation of Powers" In Odion-Akhaine, S. (Ed.). *Local Government Administration in Nigeria – Old and New Vision*. Abuja: Panaf Press. pp. 78-92.

MODULE 5

Unit 1	Networked Community Governance
Unit 2	Local Government or Local Governance
Unit 3	Issues in Local Governance in Developing Countries

UNIT 1 NETWORKED COMMUNITY GOVERNANCE

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objective
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Networked Governance
3.2	Networked Community Governance
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Today there is expansion in the workings of local governments both in developed and developing societies. The increasing local governance partnership and networks symbolise this expansion. In this unit you will be introduced to the concepts of “networked governance” and “networked community governance”

2.0 OBJECTIVE

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

- discuss the two concepts – networked governance and networked community governance.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Networked Governance

Changes from traditional local government to a more complex network of agencies are becoming more evident.

Initiatives to tackle unemployment, to improve health, to reduce crime and to build communities are being taken across old boundaries. Action is planned and executed in neighbourhoods and regions, in city boards

and community development trusts as well as in town halls and civic offices. Networks and partnerships are as much part of the organisation map as single government agencies. Learning is taking place very fast, as managers, politicians and citizens begin to make sense of a more complex world (Goss, 2001). This is the emerging complex world of networked governance.

The most important changes in local governance is that of changing roles and relationships. Goss shows the importance of the connections between three different sets of changes:

1. Changes in the relationship between government and people, between citizen and the state. This relationship is being redefined in practice, renegotiated on all sides. Community engagement in the past has been over-designed, and heavily controlled from the top. ...but new sorts of interaction are emerging which do not involve local people off-loading their problems onto local agencies; instead they involve a shared or negotiated process of planning action requiring very different behaviours expected of citizens.
2. Changes in the roles of managers and staff inside local public agencies. Managers and staff of local government face a series of dilemmas about the purpose of government, roles of citizens, construction of legitimacy, identity and belonging, freedom and responsibility, autonomy and power. All these need to be tackled within the management relationships of governance.
3. Changes within public organisations themselves. Public managers are coming to terms with structural and systems changes within their organisations and with new partnership and network relationships. New organisational forms are emerging, including strategic alliances, partnerships, co-located organisations, virtual organisations, city boards, etc. Goss, 2001: 3-4).

The responsibility of local government is not just to deliver certain services well but to steer a community to meet the full range of its needs. Networked community governance sets as its over-arching goal the meeting of community needs as defined by the community, within the context of the demands of a complex system of multi-level governance (Stoker, 2011).

Today, the role of the government in the process of governance is much more contingent. Local, regional, and national political elites alike seek to forge coalition with private businesses, voluntary associations and other societal actors to mobilise resources across the public- private

border in order to enhance their chances of guiding society towards politically defined goals (Pierre and Stoker, 2002). This seems to be the way for local government to attune itself to the demands of modern world.

3.2 Networked Community Governance

Networked community governance is defined as the achievement of favoured outcomes by the use of public resources in the most effective manner available.

Networked community governance recognises that there are many centres and diverse links between many agencies of government at neighbourhood, local, regional and national and supranational levels. In turn each level has a diverse range of horizontal relationships with other government agencies, privatised utilities, private companies, voluntary organisations and interest groups.

It is a very complex process of getting objectives achieved in the local arena with involvement of various actors.

Networked governance involves managers in overseeing network of politics to provide authorisation for decisions and networks of delivery to provide the practical tools for implementation.

In the networked community governance, the local government still plays a very important role. The role of local government mainly is to coordinate the complex set of processes. So, local government in this context assumes a very challenging role which is quite distinct from the traditional role.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What is networked governance?

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have observed the nature of the changes in local governance in this unit. Traditional forms of delivering services and methods of operations in local government are changing, bringing into the surface new methods of doing things. This new method incorporates partnership and networks which we have discussed in this unit.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we learnt the concepts of network governance and community networked governance. We can now understand the meaning of the two related concepts as the modern attributes in the operations of local government.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Examine the changing roles and relationships in local governance as discussed by Goss.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Goss, S. (2001). *Making Local Governance Work. Networks, Relations and the Management of Change*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Stoker, G. (2011) "Was Local Governance such a Good Idea? A Global Comparative Perspective." *Public Administration* Vol. 89, No. 1.

UNIT 2 LOCAL GOVERNMENT OR LOCAL GOVERNANCE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Local Government or Local Governance
 - 3.2 Emerging Roles for Local Governance
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Local government is said to be moving from the traditional state to what is described as the “age of networks, partnerships and joined up services”. This we discussed in the last unit. In this unit however, student will learn about the shift from local government to local governance. Analysis of what this entails will be presented in this unit. Emerging roles of local governance will also be discussed.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the issues involved in the shift from local government to local governance
- discuss the emerging role of local governance.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Local Government or Local Governance

Local government is the activity of the formal governmental system which takes place within specific administrative boundaries, involves the exercise of particular powers, duties (and) public resources . . . under clear procedural rules involving statutory relationships between politicians, professionals and the public . . . governance is a much looser process of steering localities which is multi-sectoral and in which networks, alliances and coalitions play an important part (and) may become formalised into structural arrangements such as partnerships.

Local governance is a broader concept and is defined as the formulation and execution of collective action at the local level. Thus, it encompasses the direct and indirect roles of formal institutions of local government and government hierarchies, as well as the roles of informal norms, networks, community organisations, and neighborhood associations in pursuing collective action by defining the framework for citizen-citizen and citizen-state interactions, collective decision making, and delivery of local public services (Geddes, 2005)..

Any shift from local government to local governance is associated with three tendencies:

- The declining role of the public sector (which in this context needs to be differentiated from the state), and the growing role of the private and/or not for profit and community sectors. This shift refers both to roles in service provision and in local leadership. It includes the increased influence of private sector-inspired models of management (NPM and its successors) within the (local) state.
- A shift from redistribution to entrepreneurship and enterprise in policy objectives. This is not to say that local governance strategies are no longer concerned with issues such as deprivation, but that such objectives tend to be positioned within overall 'market friendly' strategic perspectives in which competitiveness and economic growth is the dominant force, with other policy priorities such as social inclusion, education, employment or environmental
- The rise of partnerships as key forums within which (local) governance decisions are made. Partnerships represent a crystallisation of the key principles of the governance model - the involvement of actors drawn widely from beyond as well as within government, (community) leadership as steering not rowing, the power of networks rather than hierarchies. Sustainability conceived as dependent on and/or subordinated to competitiveness (Geddes, 2005).

The deductions from all these are that:

- There is increase of non-state actors at the local level.
- The prominence of models of management for organising at the local level especially for service delivery.
- There is a shift to market strategy with emphasis on growth and development in policy objectives.
- Local decisions are made within partnerships forum which involves actors from within and outside government.

3.2 Emerging Roles for Local Governance

Below are the suggested emerging roles for local governance:

- Regulation, to prevent abuse of power.
- Market management.
- Leading negotiations about desired local outcomes.
- Creating spaces for civic dialogue.
- Providing the resources to make things happen.
- Commissioning and providing a range of services.
- Positively helping disadvantaged or excluded groups to negotiate inclusion.
- Enabling and supporting self-management.
- Setting the framework for democratic participation (Goss, 2001).

Some of these roles according to Goss seem particularly the reserve of local authorities, which have legal powers. Others however, may involve the local police or the local health authority, voluntary or community groups. In other words local government is not the only actor in this process.

Many of these roles cannot be carried out within organisational boundaries, and require organisation to reach across to other agencies, or to people within local communities. Many of them require not bureaucratic procedures, but the building of working relationships. Governance at the local level therefore has become complex in the modern world.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the emerging roles of local governance.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The shift to governance is being looked at in terms of the involvement of institutions and actors drawn from within but also beyond government, and the blurring of boundaries and responsibilities for tackling social and economic issues. The focus in the administration of local government is moving outside the narrow confine of specific main actors to include the involvement of arrays of actors in what is described as network governance.

5.0 SUMMARY

You have learnt in this unit that there is increasing shift from local government to local governance. The shift as we have observed in the unit is changing not only how services are delivered at the local level but also local policy objectives and the role of actors involved in the implementation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Demonstrate your understanding of the issues in the shift from local government to local governance.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Geddes, M. (2005). Neoliberalism and Local Governance – Cross-National Perspectives and Speculations. *Policy Studies* Vol.26, Nos 3/4.

Goss, S. (2001). *Making Local Governance Work – Networks, Relationships and the Management of Change*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

UNIT 3 ISSUES IN LOCAL GOVERNANCE IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objective
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Evolving Roles of Government
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The role of local government is changing, just as its vision is also expanding. Local government in the millennium has come to involve a complex process of network in governance. In previous units, we explored and discussed the notion of “governance”, “local governance”, and “networked community governance”. In this unit we shall explore the evolving roles of local government as envisioned in the 21st century.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

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

- discuss critically the new roles of local governments.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Evolving Roles of Government

The roles of government have always been wider than service provision: they have, for example, involved representation, regulation, defence, law-making and policing. In the twentieth century, governments have become expected to “help protect and safeguard right”, and to ensure social justice, and they play a role in managing and controlling markets (Goss, 2001).

There is a debate about which roles are best carried out at local level. There are various views and they include the following:

1. New government roles should be subject to subsidiarity, and should involve people in the direct determination of the conditions of their own associations.
2. The role of government should not be to substitute for local people's self organisation, but to support it. The government would facilitate the negotiation of interests within and between groups capable of self-organisation and would support the finding of a voice by interests that are not organised but could become so.

Within this context, new roles are evolving for local government which transcends the hitherto traditional roles.

The Role of a Local Government under the New Vision of Local Governance

20th century: Old view	21st century: New view
Is based on residuality and local governments as wards of the state	Is based on subsidiarity and home rule
Is based on principle of <i>ultra vires</i>	Is based on community governance
Is focused on government	Is focused on citizen-centered local governance
Is agent of the central government	Is the primary agent for the citizens and leader and gatekeeper for shared rule
Is responsive and accountable to higher-level government	Is responsive and accountable to local voters; assumes leadership role in improving local governance
Is direct provider of local services	Is purchaser of local services
Is focused on in-house provision	Is facilitator of network mechanisms of local governance, coordinator of government providers and entities beyond government, mediator of conflicts and developer of social capital
Is focused on secrecy	Is focused on letting the

	sunshine in; practices transparent governance
Has input controls	Recognises that result matter
Is internally dependent	Is externally focused and competitive; is ardent practitioner of alternative service delivery framework
Is closed and slow	Is open, quick, and flexible
Has intolerance for risk	Is innovative; is risk taker within limit
Depends on central directives	Is autonomous in taxing spending, regulatory, and administrative decisions
Is rules driven	Has managerial flexibility and accountability for results
Is bureaucratic and technocratic	Is participatory; works to strengthen citizen voice and exit options through direct democracy provisions, citizens' charters, and performance budgeting
Is coercive	Is focused on earning trust, creating space for civic dialogue, serving the citizens, and improving social outcomes
Is fiscally irresponsible	Is fiscally prudent; works better and costs less
Is exclusive with elite capture	Is inclusive and participatory
Overcomes market failures	Overcomes market and government failures
Is boxed in a centralised system	Is connected in a globalised and localised world

Adapted from Shah 2006a – Local Governance in Industrial Countries. Washington D.C. World Bank.

A strong role of local government for local development is being advocated in developing countries. This is with a view to improving service delivery and meeting the needs of local populace. However there are challenges for these local governments.

Some of these challenges include:

Lack of adequate funding – the issue of finance and how to source revenue to carry out assigned responsibilities has been one of the engaging issues in some of the previous units. Most local governments are greatly constrained by lack of finance to execute capital projects. This problem is borne out of the incapacity of the local governments to raise funds internally and insufficient transfers from the central governments.

Excessive control by the central government – this problem is made manifest in several areas – excessive control limits the autonomy of the local government. In some countries, a state-local relation is such that the state governments provide oversight regulatory functions in borrowing and thus have the power of intervention in such matter.

Scarcity of personnel – as a result of limited resources, local governments often finds it difficult to attract and retain highly trained professionals as their staff. This implied they lack skilled manpower to implement projects. And again, the demand of new networked governance will have to place too much pressure on local government staff in terms of training and updating their knowledge to compete with other competent actors.

Clash of traditional with modernity- the structures of modern local governance are often in competition and conflict with the traditional institutions of governance. People most times find it difficult to adapt to change. This in effect brings about the slow and tardy response to modernity especially in developing countries.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss some of the challenges of the changing roles of local government.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Within the context of governance new roles are emerging for local government.

We recognised the fact of the new vision of local governance. What we have done in the last two units to the present one is to take a holistic view of the changing roles of local government.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this last unit we have looked at the evolving new roles for local government and the challenges confronting local governments in the whole process. We can at this point refresh our memories of our discussion in this last module as the discussions in the first unit of the module run through the second unit to the last unit. We discussed networked and networked community governance focusing on the evolving partnerships and networks in local governance. We moved on to differentiating between local government and local governance looking at the connection as a shift in the traditional ways of governance to modern ways of governance. The change is more complex as we have observed involving not only structural changes but changes in the attitude of managers, local professional and citizens. In adapting to the new demands especially for developing countries there are challenges some of which we have examined.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Demonstrate your understanding of the evolving roles of local government.
- ii. What are the major challenges local governments in developing societies are likely to face?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Shah 2006a – Local Governance in Industrial Countries. Washington D.C. World Bank.

Goss, S. (2001). *Making Local Governance Work – Networks, Relationships and the Management of Change*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.