33rd Inaugural Lecture

Titled:

ADDRESSING, REDRESSING AND UNDRESSING THE REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PROCESS IN NIGERIA

BY

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1ST AUGUST, 2018.
33RD INAUGURAL LECTURER

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Dedication

To my wife Abiebere Emilia Aprioku
Protocol
Vice Chancellor
Members of the University Governing Council
Deputy Vice Chancellor
Principal Officers of NDU
Provost College of Health Sciences
Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences
Deans of other Faculties
Heads of Department/Directors of Institutes and Centres
Professors and Distinguished Colleagues /Guest
Fellow students of NDU
Ladies and Gentlemen
1.0 PREAMBLE

Vice Chancellor Sir, thank you immensely for the opportunity afforded me today to present the first inaugural lecture in the Department of Geography and Environmental Management (GEM) in the Faculty of Social Sciences in this University. This is a once-in-a-life time event in the life of a Professor and I am privileged to 'present to this academic community some idea of the process of activities going on in Geography and the manner in which these activities represent real contributions to the world of learning in particular and society in general' (Mabagunje 1974). This is not only to justify or seek to justify the teaching of the subject one studies but an occasion to share some exciting moments in my work with the concept of Regional Development Planning whose application is highly relevant and desirable in the national development process.

Mr. Vice Chancellor, Ladies and Gentlemen, you are welcome to the subject of Regional Development Planning Process in Nigeria. I will endeavour to take this opportunity offered by this inaugural lecture in Addressing (locating and accessing information), Redressing (to put in order and set right), and Undressing (take the covering off) aspects of Regional Development Planning and to explore its usefulness in national development.

More specifically, I will attempt to proffer answers to three
broad questions;
* What is regional development planning?
* How can regional development planning contribute to national integration and welfare?
* How can regional development planning be adopted and sustained in Nigeria?

In addressing these three questions, I will interpret some geographical phenomena from the perspective of regional identity and public participation experienced in my works in urban and regional planning. It is hoped that this interpretation will provide some idea of the kind of activities going on in geography with which some people might not be very familiar. I will also provide some insight into what geography is and what has happened in geography, some of the things Regional Development Planners do and how ones work fits into the general picture. In the process, the contribution to knowledge and learning of Regional Development Planning and Planners will hopefully be evident.
2.0 INTRODUCTION
In order to make my presentation easy to follow, I would be using the following broad format;

I) Regional development planning
II) Historical perspectives
III) My contributions
IV) Challenges of academic regional development planning
V) What future for regional development planning

Mr. Vice Chancellor, Sir, distinguished ladies and gentlemen, I started my academic career in urban and regional planning and worked in the area of urban planning, urban design, urban renewal, regional development planning, neighbourhood analysis and planning among others as can be attested to by the published articles and professional reports (see table 1) and references.

During my research and teaching I have come to understand that the basic concepts that guide the thinking in geography are space, place and environment. The location of objects, their perception and social evaluation both of the objects and their location do influence the pattern of behaviour of members of a given society. It is in this sense that space is regarded as a shaped matter acquiring specific forms of disposition depending on the prevailing mode of production (Mabogunje 1980; Kieth and Pile 1993; Soja 1996; Aprioku 2011).
Table 1: Journal publications and professional reports

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<td>Environmental Planning and Management 1999, 43 (3) 389-408</td>
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2.1 THINKING GEOGRAPHICALLY: PLACE SPACE AND ENVIRONMENT

Space and place are basic components of the world. The location of objects, their perception and social evaluation both of the objects and their location do influence the pattern of behaviour of members of a given society. It is in this sense that space can be regarded as "shaped matter" (Mabogunje 1980) acquiring specific forms and styles of disposition depending on the prevailing mode of production (Mabogunje 1980; Keith and Pile 1993; Soja 1996; Aprioku 2004).

The nature of space in the world can be identified in terms of
location, distance, direction, pattern, shape and arrangement.

“Space is the environmental stage upon which the drama of geography is played out; places are particular points on the environmental stage where the actions occur (Soja 1996; Relph 1976)”. Place is identified in terms of the relationships between physical environmental characteristics, such as climate, topography and vegetation such human characteristics as economic activities, settlement, and land use. Together these characteristics make each particular place meaningful and special to people. Place in fact is space endowed with physical and human meaning (Relph 1976). It is the fascination with and exploration of space and place that give geography its way of understanding the world (Soja and Hooper 1993; Soja 1996; Relph 1976; Auge 1995).

For our purpose we may describe space in 3 ways. First, in an absolute sense space is a thing in itself with specific existence which is uniquely determined. This is the cartographer's and surveyor's space; which is identified through a conventional grid reference especially of latitudes and longitudes. Second, there is also relative space which emphasizes relationships between objects which exist only because those objects exist and are related to one another. Thus, it is possible to speak in relative spatial terms that object A is nearer to object D than object A is
to object B. This is relative distance determined by accessibility rather than physical distance. Third, space can be relational in which it is perceived as containing and representing within itself other types of relationships which exist between objects. For example, the space in the centre of a town contains and represents within itself relationships deriving from the valuation which society chooses to place on particular locations within an occupied space. These three conceptions of space can occur coincidentally. Any given space can become one or all simultaneously depending on the circumstances (Relph 1976; Mabogunje 1980; Okafor 2007).

In terms of human activity, therefore, relative and relational conceptions of space are clearly very significant. The perception of objects, location and social evaluation, have always influenced behaviour patterns of society. This indivisibility between the society and the natural environment, which it must transform for its continual existence and survival, (Auge 1995; Subir 1997) has helped to highlight the close association between spatial forms and social processes, represented by the concept of mode of production (Karsen et al 1995; Brehenu 1992).
All societies conceptualise space, it must be restated. They have their own world views or cosmologies. Some cultures have drawn simple, while others have constituted complex schemata, assigning different values to their various components (Wilson and Gramnenos, 2000). Much of development can thus be said to be concerned with the creation and organisation of spatial forms or structures. Such creative acts take place at different scales ranging from the national level down to the local level of the individual house hold space and representing differing orders of power sharing and decision making. (Appleyard 1981; Breheny 1992; Rosenau 1990).

Although spatial forms and arrangement at the house hold level are a direct result of the actions of individuals, they nonetheless reflect the guiding hands of society as a whole. Because no individual can establish his own land tenure system (Mabogunje, 1980), spatial forms reflect social processes and enable us to perceive in a concrete fashion how efficient, or otherwise particular processes have been or are operating (Wilson and Gramenos 2000; Subir 1997; Mahogunje1980). This development of spatial forms to the extent that it is a social process, is the shaper of and an organizer of space. In turn spatial reality provides us with a dimension not only for evaluating the nature and efficacy of the process, but also for
influencing and directing it in a desired manner (Subir, 1997; Keith and Pile 1993). It is this possibility of spatial transitivity that enables the urban and regional planner to provide new insights into the urban land use allocation process (Soja and Hooper, 1993; Lichfied 1978; Long 1973; Chadwick 1975; Mclaughlin 1973).

The somewhat abstract concept of social and economic organisation, manifests itself in the way land is utilized even though this expression over simplifies the complexity of settlement systems and the way they function. Economic transformation has always been reflected in places where man's activities are located territorially. This also provides a framework for development processes and a significant factor in the way they evolve. Any hypothesis for compatible development must commence by examining the spatial location of activities and functions (Herbert 2007; Subir 1970). The object of land utilization and forms of human settlement in spatial, functional and dynamic perspective are to order the live and behaviour of people in geographic space. Understanding this is an important key to settling problems in the utilization of land, air and water that are basic environmental resources (Herbert 2007; Ahmad and Rajwa 2005).
Geographers have contributed to our understanding of the human environment through the spatial division of demarcated territories. Broadly speaking communities use the notion of territoriality to ascertain justification and control over resources on and in their territory. Territoriality is important to every community as it delimits the area of its influence and marks the boundary between its place and other places. In a material sense, territoriality demarcates the physical limits of the community. In an ideological context, the notion of territoriality is used by the state as a way of explaining its way of governing and ruling its population. (Aprioku 2012, Keith and Pile 1993, Strauss 1963, Dubarle 2000)

In a sense it is possible to argue that states do not govern people, rather, they govern a defined territory and by doing so subsequently govern the people living within it. This territorial method of control is in many ways a far easier way of governing than that one that emphasises the direct control of people within this system. Anyone living or working in, or even passing through, a state's territory is subject to the laws and policies of the state, regardless of their social, ethnic or cultural background. In this context therefore a state's internal and external boundaries are not only lines drawn on a map, ditches dug or stones laid on a barren moor, or even concrete built impregnable high walls (Krarke 1995; Kearns 2002; Martin 2011; Ham and Hill 1998; Herbert 2007)
3.0 REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING AND THE PLANNER

3.1 DEFINITIONS AND EXPLANATIONS

3.1.1 WHAT IS REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING?
In the literature several definitions of regional development planning have been made. Accordingly regional development planning; is characterised by a concern with the clarification of social objectives in the ordering of activities in supra-urban space (Friedman 1972).

“.....it is an attempt to mobilize and channel resources to some single new or neglected use achieving in the process, the legitimization of new social objectives or a major realignment of existing objectives“ (Alden and Morgan 1974).

“.....it is the articulation and the synthesis of separate policies relating to various segments of the socio-economic system” (Omuta and Onokerhoraye 1978)

“.....it narrows the task of more comprehensive analysis by focusing on selected critical issues, relying on a rational process of assessing the environment, creating a vision of success, and selecting actions in light of a range of possible futures”. (De Grove 1989) “.....planning can serve to facilitate the development and innovation of a new model of man and society” (Bryson 2008).
There are several other definitions of regional development planning all devoted to make implicit and concerted efforts to incorporate the wide scope of regional development planning activities. Regional development planning is often used as a phrase to describe a congeries of more or less unrelated activities. To circumscribe the field of regional development planning Teitz (1994) states that “regional development planning would provide the most suitable frame of reference for a balanced integration of development projects of national significance based on local initiative” (Teitz 1994).

Such comprehensive regional development planning would apply to the development of metropolitan areas, in areas in which natural resources are being developed, as well as to rural reconstruction programmes and to the location of industries. In the circumstance, three separate meanings can be distinguished;

* Regional development planning is made synonymous with regional development policy at the national level “balanced integration”; of decision making and design.

* A process of decision-making and design in the elaboration of investment projects at the regional level; and

* Economic development programmes for sub-national areas.
Figure 1: Capital city region illustrating development zoning
Source: Adopted from Barnett 1982

There is, in addition an intimation that regional development planning has something to do with metropolitan development (see fig 1), resources management and agricultural and community improvement. Figure 1; illustrates the balanced integration of the regional development plan for the preparation of the land use design to interpret the national development policy. The design allocates the proposed land uses as zones for reconstruction, rehabilitation and redevelopment of the city centre for growth management as
the city expands sometimes by lea. frogging into its peripheral settlements and towards another city or metropolis, for preservation of farmlands, natural vegetation and wildlife (Barnett 1982; Teitz 1994). We note here that no one person could be expected to be equally competent in the great complexity of tasks which Teitz (1994) states as being involved in regional development policy, planning and development. However, Friedman (1963) notes that the specialist in regional planning has to take his place alongside other experts in law, economics, engineering, administration and politics. Planning inevitably appears modified by objectives such as regional, city, economic or industrial. As a result of the modified planning objectives, some elements have been identified and are widely accepted as describing the essential nature of the planning process. As a way of thinking about social and economic problems, it is oriented predominantly toward the future, is deeply concerned with the relation of goals to collective decisions, and for comprehensiveness in policy and programme. Whenever these modes of thought are applied, there is a presumption that planning is being done (Kaiser et al 1995; Rosenau 1990; Adeniyi1983; Ugwu1992). This formulation is helpful in so far as it points to certain elements of action which underlie not only regional development but also other forms of planning. Geography and economics of location
have discovered adequate theoretical foundation for planning on a scale that is larger than the city. It is now possible to assert propositions concerning spatial structure through the principle of “least effort” (Zipf), “distant inputs” (Isard), “agglomeration economies” (Weber), “intervening opportunities” (Stouffer), “social gravity laws” (Stewart), and “stochastic processes” (Vinning). Because these observed regularities of spatial structure underlie regional development, they offer the possibility of an approach to regional development planning that is both grounded in theory and in the broadest sense scientific (Gboyega 2003; Aremu 2003; Jelili et al 2008; Lawal and Oluwatoyin 2011).

Again the definitions provide a convenient link to city planning because common to both territories (city and region) planning study is a concern with the organisation of space. Regional development planning focuses attention on supra-urban space, while intra-urban space is primarily important in city planning. The two approaches touch in the border areas of metropolis and megalopolis, where perhaps new specialisations are emerging (Bernd 1992; Gilbert 1974; Macleod 2001; Martin 2010).
3.1.2 GOAL OF REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING
The aim of Regional Development Planning is the reduction of the increasing inequality between the major urban centres and the rural areas (Omuta and Onokerhoraye 1978). These inequalities have been highlighted in the literature to include;

* Excessive growth of a few urban areas beyond a critical size, in which the diseconomies produced by congestion exceed external economies resulting from urban concentration.

* Over concentration of socio-economic activities in the “core” to the detriment of the periphery's latent potentials, which remain untapped, thus curtailing the expansion possibilities of the national economy.

* Marginalization of a large proportion of the population of the periphery; particularly of its rural population, with respect to the national economy. This implies a restricted domestic market which may prove to be serious obstacles to the country's subsequent economic development.

* Marked interregional imbalance in levels of economic and social welfare, chances for personal advancement and self-help potentials, particularly in rural populations which are barely touched by progress and live at subsistence level.
Growing tension between peripheral regions and the core areas arising from the great disparity in living standards and in development prospects if these differences become too marked, more serious interregional and social conflicts may even endanger the political and territorial integrity of the country.

Isolation of remotely populated border areas far from the centre or from regional development foci, which may cause these areas to become foci of attraction to other countries thus weakening the country's territorial cohesion (Friedman, 1963; Alden and Morgan, 1974; Friedman and Weaver 1979; Omuta and Onokerhoraye 1994).

3.1.3 OBJECTIVES OF REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

The ideal manifestation of Regional Development Planning is the continual pursuit of improvement and is captured by the following.

- What has been happening to poverty?
- What has been happening to unemployment?
- What has been happening to inequality? (Mabogunje 1972; Glasson 1974; Friedman and Weaver 1979; Alden and Morgan 1974; Roxas 2008; Okafor 1991).
Considering the fact that a highly spatial structure may have adverse effects on socio-economic development in Nigeria national development plans cannot pursue global and sectorial aims simultaneously. Such plans almost always envisage specific spatial goals and define a national policy for regional development (Glasson 1974, Roxas 2008). It must also encompass explicitly, the spatial aspects of development. The overall objectives of such a policy will obviously be to reduce the adverse effects described in the goals of regional development planning. These objectives include;

* Reduction in the difference between socio-economic activities and the marginal rate of return to factors of production in urban and rural areas.
* Effective occupation, settlement and incorporation of the “frontier” regions of the periphery rich in natural resources and/or economic potentials currently unexplored.
* Incorporation of the marginalised (or only slightly integrated) populations of the traditional regions of the periphery: these mainly agricultural and stockbreeding regions have dense rural populations representing a potential market for the national industries.
* Assure economically efficient locations for every enterprise
Maintain a degree of regional balance in major components of the level of living that is regarded as essential to political stability (Roxas 1964; Okafor 1991).

3.1.4 WHO IS THE REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNER?
How are activities to be distributed in space to meet social objectives? The answer to this question leads to what the professionally trained regional development planner might be asked to do in a specific situation. It will also show the relation of regional development planning to city planning and national planning levels and distinguish regional development planning duty from other forms of spatial planning (Friedmen 1963; Glass 1959).

There are three basic spatial activities that exist in any society. First, there are general policy issues that predominate at the national level. What principles should guide the geographic allocation of resources within the country? What are the inevitable spatial implications of any set of resource allocation? The problem of spatial resource allocation may, of course, be treated entirely on a short-term, political basis, but if it is to be guided by foresight, a review of available alternatives, and a clear vision of the public interest, the solution to the problem is essentially one for regional development planning. In policy
planning the technical, economic and political elements are closely intertwined and they provide policies for decision making. Second, regional policy for the nation should accompany policies for the overall development of its resources. Specifically it will add the dimension of space to other considerations as in the case of modern economic development planning where an economy is moving out of an agrarian past to an industrial future. Such shifts pose serious problems for society. Where population concentration should be encouraged? What should be done with areas that fail to adapt to the changed conditions? What may be done to assist the process of concentrated development? These spatial shifts implicit in economic development create regional inequities with political consequences and social unrest. Third, a national urban policy must be approached by way of broader regional considerations. The implications of urban planning on a national scale become evident only when priority attention has been given to the national problem; and the basic allocation decisions have been made. Goals, priorities and standards must be defined (Leung 1989, Bryson 1988, Burke 1968).

There are basically five sources to obtain goals and standards for any regional development plan as shown in fig 2. First, the legacy goals are results that the community is attempting to achieve through acceptable range of quality of life. Second,
mandates and guidelines come from official and administrative commands from states and federal governments, regional agencies and judicial systems. Third, are generic planning goals which are very comprehensive social values, such as efficiency, equity, environmental quality and quality of life and goals from planning tradition such as access to land and other community resources. Fourth, technical needs to accommodate expected/acceptable/desirable growth and meet service needs. Such needs may include specific standards for zoning; population density to avoid overcrowding etc. finally, particular community wants which are concerns priorities and aspirations of individuals and groups. These goals and standards are obtained through the process of community participation and the community goals synthesised to produce community goal statement (Leung 1989; Bryson 1988; Burke 1968). The national interest must be rendered specific, and decisions must be made concerning where, what manner, and with what resources the national government is to support such urban activities as public housing, mass transit, sanitary works, and metropolitan highways (Bernd 1992; Aprioku 1998).
The first problem of spatial organisation emerges from the level of the metropolitan region. The concept of the city as a physical artefact is measured by the flows and by interactions and relations. The flows and interaction identify the city as a density configuration with a given “matrix” (Alonso 1964) with no firm boundaries. Its characteristics include the possession of one or more cores, or control centres. Second, it provides a complete and year round habitat for man, a place for work and residence and the pursuit of leisure. Third, it generally includes areas in which some forms of intensive agriculture will be carried on
chiefly to supply the region.

Fourth, it represents a suitable unit area (location matrix) with respect to which investments decisions will be made. Planning for this new form of human settlement must be related to the city's core and to an invisible boundary which flows into another megalopolis or a rural periphery. City and regional development planning approaches meet and merge in the metropolitan region. This process is illustrated in fig 3. The design is a sequential ordering of activities or land use that can be located in the city region for redevelopment or unoccupied lands at the periphery of the expanding city region. The design is a proposal in the true sense designating size, location or zoning for such things and activities as roads, residential, commercial and industrial zones, mixed use and institutional, rural residential and conservation areas and environmental protection (sensitive natural resource) areas (Bryson 1988; Leung 1989; Kent 1991). The task of the regional development planner is to state the order of the control centres within the city region, to identify the functions to be performed by each centre and to study the inter-regional effects of the expansion of the metropolitan economies (Aprioku 2012; HAA 2004; Kim 2001).
Finally, the regional planner may be called upon to deal with problems of areas that do not fall within the control of metropolitan regions – peripheral areas may be locationally obsolescent even though they may include potentially valuable resources complexes. One possible solution is to enable the area to attain perfect integration with metropolitan centres, another is to plan for their adjustment to a lower economic equilibrium through planned out-migration and suitable changes in land use; a third is to stimulate local development efforts and to create new location matrices within them (Friedman 1964; Friedman and Alonso 1964; Park 2001; Asheim 2000; Keeble 1997; Kim 2001).
3.1.5 REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING AND NATIONAL INTEGRATION

Regional development policies have been designed to achieve the objectives of the development plan from a national standpoint in relation to the growing dichotomy between core and peripheries on economic, social and spatial issues (Waterston 1969). Some of these policies include

- **Resource Development Policy:** this policy is to stimulate development in localities with massive environmental resources. A plan for intensive mineral exploration and improvement in the power sector would prevent extreme concentration of manufacturing industries.

- **Agricultural Development Policy:** provides cartographic presentation of agricultural land use and settlement patterns essential for rural development planning at the local level.

- **Industrial Development Policy:** is to enable the expansion of manufacturing industries and to achieve industrial dispersal thereby spreading development throughout the country.

- **Population Policy:** this policy provides strategies to reduce striking inequalities in opportunities for people to participate in the socio-economic development process.
• **National Housing Policy:** is to enable public and private partnership actions to provide shelter for the excess populations in cities.

• **National Urban Policy:** is to give direction to urban expansion and provide access to transport and other infrastructure for urban residents.

• **National Health Policy:** this policy is to enable citizens live a healthy life. It specifies guidelines for the establishment of health care institutions, provision of water for sanitation etc.

• **National Education Policy:** provides and enables citizen's access to quality education, vocation and technical education.

• **National Transport Policy:** provides efficient and well connected focal points of transport network serving urban and regional markets. Transport networks connect strategic nodes for national integration essential for political development and stability.
Figure 4: Urban and regional road network for national integration
Source: Adopted from Yu 1982.

Figure 4 shows the size and quality of urban and regional road networks that are usually designed in regional development plans. Road networks are designed for easy access between major cities and metropolitan regions to facilitate movement of goods and people. Freeways/Expressways are designed for fast movement of vehicles with exits or entries considerable distances away from the outskirts of settlements along their courses (Yu 1982).

Mr Vice Chancellor, Ladies and Gentlemen, these policies are deliberate efforts aimed at the improvement of various agencies, governments and organisations. In regional development planning, policies are basically guides to decision
making. The pattern of investment refers to the allocation of investment among various sectors of the national economy. In the national development plan the investment patterns determine its scheme of priorities. In keeping with the scheme of priorities the national development planners determine whether priority is to be given to agriculture, or industrial development, or small or large scale industries, or power, or transport, or social services. It is on these considerations that the pattern of investment is determined (see fig 5). Figure 5 is a development management design of the proposed sequences of actions by specific organisations (public and private) over a 3-10 year period to improve the regional development plan management system (Patton and Sawwicki 1993; Kent 1991; Bryson 1988). The design often include deletions, modifications and additions to environmental and land use regulations, development fees, land to be acquired, facilities to be constructed, special purpose programmes for affordable housing, economic development and historic preservations. The policies map is aimed at alleviating current and projected problems as well as attaining long-range goals, policies and the goal specified in the policy plan. This is the first step in formulating a national development plan (Ahn, 2000; Bartelt, 1997; Bernd, 1992; Ugwu, 1992, Adeniyi 1983).
for major agricultural products
* Increasing the intensity of cropping
* Coordinate research in the case of export crops; and
* Improvement in the utilization of existing irrigation potentials.

3.2 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES OF REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

3.2.1 DEVELOPMENT

Figure 6 Good Change: Crowd celebrating victory of a politician in the locality

Source: Courtesy of Soni photos studio Port Harcourt

Three concepts are central to our presentation: Development, Development Planning and the Planning
Region. One of the simplest definitions of development is 'good change'. As such development is a positive word that in everyday parlance is virtually synonymous with progress (See fig 6). Figure 6 is a photograph of a jubilant crowd during the 2015 national elections. In this photograph the crowd celebrates the victory of the APC presidential candidate over the PDP opponent, chanting “change, change, change Nigeria” it is doubtful however this good change will be translated in the administration's actions (Chambers 1997; Thomas 2012). The second half of the twentieth century has been called the era of development. According to Sachs (1992)' Like a towering lighthouse guiding sailors towards the coast, 'development' stood as the ideal which oriented emerging nations in their journey through post-war history '(Sachs 1992:1).

Figure 6 Good Change: Crowd celebrating victory of a politician in the locality Source: Courtesy of Soni photos studio Port Harcourt
However according to Esteva (1992) the beginning of this era of development can be traced to Harry Truman, President of the United States, when he declared in his inaugural address in January 20, 1940, that; “The old imperialism - exploitation for foreign profit – has no place in our plans, what we envisage is a program of development based on the concept of democratic fair dealing” (quoted in Esteva 1992:6). Esteva (1992) opined that the concept of development was not new but that it had been used and debated in many ways for 200 years. What was new was the definition of development in terms of escaping from under development (Potter 2002, Kilmaster 2002).

There are, however several important general points about the idea of development which go beyond simply “good change” and which together show it to be an inherently ambiguous concept. First, development generally implies an all-encompassing change not just an improvement in one aspect. Second, development is not just a question of a one-off process of change to something better, but implies a process which builds on itself, where change is continuous and where improvements build on previous improvements. Third, development is a matter of changes occurring at the level of social change and of the individual human being at one and the same time. Changes in society have implications for the people who live in that society and, conversely,
changes in how people think, interact, make their livings and perceive themselves form the basis for changes in society. Finally, development is not always seen as positive. These points often go together, in that what some see as a general improvement may have losers as well as winners, and if social change is all encompassing and continuous then the implication is that previous ways of life may be swept away with the loss of positive as well as negative features (Ha 2001; Friedman 1972; Smith 1987; Appleyard 1981).

In this lecture, Mr. Vice Chancellor, we are primarily concerned with three main senses in which the term development is used:

* As a vision, description or measure of the quality of life desired by society.

* As an historical process of social change in which societies are transformed over long periods.

* As consisting of deliberate efforts aimed at improvement by various agencies, including governments, all kinds of organisations and social movements (Potter 2002; Chambers 1997).

The three senses in which development is used are related.
The state of being a desirable society is supposedly the result of the historical process of development, and the visions of a desirable society may form an aim towards which to direct efforts at improvement. The idea of development as historical social change does not contradict the importance of “doing development” (Glass 1963). Historical processes incorporate millions of deliberate actions. Conversely one's view of what effort is likely to succeed in leading to improvement is bound to be coloured by one's view of history and of how social change occurs (Mabogunje 1972; Glass 1963).

3.2.2 DEVELOPMENT PLANNING
Development planning takes many forms. It is not the same for all countries, nor is it the same for one country at different times. The nature of a country's development planning is influenced by many elements, like the availability of natural resources, skilled manpower and the levels of technical, administrative and managerial competence. But two factors, more than any others, condition the form and role of a country's development planning; its institutional framework and its stage of development. In the literature therefore, there are two types of development planning; planning in highly
socialised economies and planning in mixed economies. Both types are substantially different at their early stages of development and from their planning at later stages (Omuta and Onokerhoraye 1978; Faniran 1972; Terriba and Kayode 1977; Glasson 1974).

3.2.3 SOCIALISED ECONOMIES PLANNING
National development planning in the highly socialized economies, has been a detailed, pervasive and highly centralized administration system of resource allocation and production based on the quantitative reconciliation of needs and available supplies through a system of “balances”, prepared in physical and monetary terms for machines, materials and manpower, reaching down to every plant and collective farm. In the classical type of centralized development planning, the state controls development through regulations and directives, the level of savings, the amount and composition of output and investment, and the structure of prices. The state controls development of production in agricultural cooperatives or privately owned farms, and consumer expenditures are maintained through a system of price regulations and credit management. For
other economic branches, central planning authorities issue elaborately detailed directives and instructions as how to enter prices specifying what and how much they have to produce, where they are to obtain their raw materials and supplies and how much they are to pay for them, how much labour is to be employed and what its compensation is to be; how cost are to be determined, what prices are to be charged for output and how it is to be delivered, what investments are to be made and so forth. As development proceeds however, economic interrelationships become more complex. The number of industrial construction and other establishments multiply, choices for employing resources increase, making it progressively more difficult to plan everything from the centre. In the later stages of development planning in the socialized economies steps were taken, at first hesitantly, then resolutely to decentralize, some economic-decision making. Decentralization enables enterprises to operate increasingly within a market economy. Although centralized control emphasised production rather than profit, decentralization encouraged market forces, prices and profits as major considerations in regulating the balance of supply and demand (Kim 2001; Douglas 2000; Alexander et al 1983; Higgins 1981).
3.2.4 MIXED ECONOMIES PLANNING

In the mixed economies, development planning almost always starts on a piecemeal basis with the formulation of public investment projects little related to each other or to a unifying concept. Except for being listed in the budget, often with omission, these projects may appear in a single document, or they may be combined to form ad hoc development plans or programmes for the public sector which makes little or no reference to the private sector plans. They are nonetheless, little more than collections of unrelated projects. The Ten Year Plan of Development and Welfare for Nigeria prepared in 1945 and the revised Five Year Plan which followed it, like others formulated in the British Colonies to guide the allocation of Common Wealth Development and Welfare (CD&W) funds were examples of such plans. India's First Five – Year Plan for 1951-56 and Pakistan's first development plan, the Six Year Development Programme for 1951-57 and Nigeria's national development plans of 1962-1966 and subsequent rolling plans were largely collections of projects in the public sector. Many countries, either without formal development plans or with plan which were largely disregarded when annual budgets are prepared, continue to plan with the project - by- project approach (Hirshman 1958; Omuta and Onokerhoraye 1994; Fanman 1972).
The project – by – project approach has serious shortcomings. Sometimes even though accompanied by economic policies and measures intended to promote development, the approach is nevertheless characteristic of governments without a clearly defined development philosophy or a long–term outlook. There may be references to raising living standards, extending social services, stimulating exports or substituting for imports but no real attempt is made to relate policy to investment or to stated objectives. Indeed, economic policies and measures are frequently at variance with objectives. There is total lack of reliable estimate of investment resources; government does not have complete information on the composition of current and prospective public investment and the magnitude of the project. Nor is any effort made to establish priorities for projects on the basis of a uniform economic, technical and administrative criteria; or to evaluate the feasibility of the programme as a whole in relation to available funds, raw materials and other supplies, technicians, skilled manpower and management. This approach has frequently resulted in the fiddling away of public funds and investment resources, over investment in some sectors, causing delay in completion of projects as funds run out putting questions on the competence, efficiency and effectiveness of ministries and public agencies (Kim 2003; Hirshman 1998, Lewis 2003).
The project-by-project approach is however the first stage in development planning in mixed economies. Despite its shortcomings it provides countries with means for laying a foundation for their development. Whenever it is possible it is desirable to replace the project-by-project approach with integrated public investment planning. The integrated public investment planning is a more advanced planning procedure, which is free of the many defects of the project-by-project approach and it begins with estimates of available public investment resources in local currency and foreign exchange, taking account of the possibilities of increasing them through taxation, non-inflationary domestic borrowing, and external loans and aid. Priorities are determined based on realistic estimates of cost and benefits, relationship of each project to others completed underway or contemplated, administrative and technical readiness to proceed with construction, as well as other pertinent criteria. Thus a project for a road which opens previously inaccessible farming areas may be made into a better investment by land reclamation or irrigation project and by projects for processing and storing crops produced in the area. In the developing countries public investment plans fall between the project-by-project approach and the integrated public investment plan, with most plans closer to the former than the latter (Lewis 2003; Kim 2003; Higgins 1981; Douglas 2000; Alexander et al 1983).
The third stage of development planning in mixed economies is the comprehensive planning approach. It includes both the formulation of an integrated public investment plan and a plan for the private sector. The private sector programme is largely based on private investment programmes and government policies designed to influence them. This is accomplished by two procedures which move from the general to the particular and back again to the general. The first procedure from the general to the particular has been described as “forward Planning” or ”Planning from-the-top-down”, to emphasize the fact that it starts with the aggregate plan and targets and “disaggregates” that is, divides these into interrelated plans and sub targets for each economic sector or region. The second procedure, the reconciliation of individual public and private investment projects and programmes with the aggregative planning model, has been described as “backward planning” or “planning from –the-bottom-up”, to stress the fact that the actual public and private investment projects and programmes proposed by various sponsors must be built up into sector programmes or regional plans which are consistent with the comprehensive aggregative plan (Bedford and Kent 1977, Hall 2001).
3.3. REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN NIGERIA

Nigeria may be described, according to Jelili et al 2008, “as having no specific, well formulated, clear regional development policy or framework”. Most of the country's commitments towards regional development planning are products of other policies, which do not have bases for regional planning in all its ramifications (Jelili et al 2008; Aremu 2003; Eversely 1975; Gboyega 2000). Nevertheless approaches to regional development planning in Nigeria may be discussed as follows;

3.3.1 CONSTITUTIONAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE DEVELOPMENT PLANS

In our 58 years since independence, Nigeria has witnessed a number of constitutional developments and the creation of more administrative units. Both of these changes directly and indirectly affect the regional structure and development of the country. These changes include; (Lawal and Oluwatoyin 2011).

* The categorisation of cities into first, second and third class by the colonial township Ordinance of 1917. With this Lagos was the only first class city.
* The emergence of the federal structure of Nigeria, with
the 1954 Lyleton constitution. With this each of the regions; East, North and West and later the Mid-West had its own Governor and Regional Assembly as against central administration brought about by the 1914 amalgamation of the Southern and Northern protectorates,


* Creation of more local government councils, there are today 774 local councils.

* Creation and recognition of the six geopolitical zones in the country: North-East, North-West, North Central, South-East, South-West, and South-South.

* Establishment of the Niger Delta Development Commission for the development of the Niger Delta area.

* The designation of Abuja as the new Federal Capital Territory (FCT).
3.3.2 NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANS

The country's history since independence has been one of growth and development entrenched in development strategies and growth models. The first National Development Plan was formulated between 1962-1966 with the objectives of development in health, education and employment, and improving access to these opportunities. This development plan failed because fifty percent of the resources needed to finance the plan were to come from external sources but only fourteen percent was received (Jelili et al 2008). The second national development plan formulated covering the period 1970-1974 was launched with priorities in agriculture, industry, transport, manpower, defence, electricity, communication, water supply and the provision of social services. The third plan covering the period 1975-1980 was considered more ambitious than the other two plans. Emphasis was placed on rural development efforts to revamp the agricultural sector. The fourth plan 1981-1985 recognized the role of social services and health services. This plan was to bring about improvement in the living conditions of the people with such as, increase in real income of the average citizen, even distribution of income among individuals and socio-economic groups, increased dependence on the country's material and human resources.
and reduction in the level of unemployment and underemployment (Lawal and Oluwatoyin 2011; Adeniyi 1983; Jelili et al 2008)

During these periods of the First, Second and Third National Development Plans respectively, the Niger Agricultural Project, the Shedam Agricultural Project for expansion of export crop production and establishment of “model villages” were frustrated due to constitutional changes. It was also the period that national integrated planning shifted to sectorial growth as national or elements of regional development planning were discredited and abandoned by the political elites. Nigeria's enormous oil wealth was frittered away, investments to build a viable industrial base and a viable agricultural export economy to liquidate mass poverty was jettisoned. For instance, the Green Revolution Programme that replaced Operation Feed the Nation failed to generate enough food for the masses (Ogwumike 1995; Lawal and Oluwatonyin 2011).

In the recent past, at the end of the 1985 plan period various strategies for development have also been tried with little or no success. Among these were the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), Vision 2010, Vision 20-20-20, national economic empowerment and development strategy
(NEEDS), creation of development centres; seven point agenda and change Nigeria, all of which lack methodological approach towards achieving the slogan and the visions envisaged. In all these rhetoric it is obvious that the results and the plans do not connote regional development planning (Lawal and Oluwatonyin 2011; Jelili et al, 2008; Gboyega; 2005).

3.4. THE REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PROCESS
Regional development planning is basically a reflection of the aspiration of the people implemented within the prevailing politico–administrative system of the country. It is the art and science of ordering the land use and siting structures and communication routes so as to secure the maximum level of economy, convenience and beauty (Omuta and Onokenhoraye 1986)

3.4.1 PLAN, PLANNING AND PUBLIC POLICY
A plan is a strategy or policy which guides a course of action. It is a sequence of acts which mutually reflect as means. According to Faludi (1973) it is a set of decisions for action in the future. The plan is the end product of planning which can be in a series of statements or captured in a design or set of drawings.
Planning is the methodological process that leads to the formulation of the plan. Planning is futuristic and anticipates the future, maps out strategies to forecasting the outcome of present and past events. As a process it is flexible and so relies on continuous monitoring to effect changes in the plan when needed. It is a technical process of preparing plans that guide the development and growth of settlements in the region. It provides major guideline for policy (Faludi 1973; Dror 1963).

Public policy is defined as a major guideline for action. It is a set of interrelated decisions by a political actor or group of actors concerning the selection of goals and the means of achieving them within a specific situation where those decisions should, in principle be within the power of those actors to achieve (Faludi 1973, Dror 1963). Public policy making is an exercise in power and only elected officials possess the legal authority to formulate public policy.

### 3.4.2 MODES OF PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION

Planning is characterised by a variety of modes of planning. The most popular modes (Friedman 1973; Faludi 1973) and their different criteria for assessing success include;

- **Control (Regulative) Planning**: Statutory planning authorities use administrative sanctions / controls to
ensure compliance with planning standards

- **Initiatory Project Planning**: private and public organizations prepare plans with their resources and do have considerable control over implementation.

- **Policy (Indicative) Planning**: A set of statements formulated to indicate desirable direction to guide an agency's own decisions as well as to constitute recommendations for actions of other agencies/individuals.

- **Transitive / Advocacy Planning**: Is a process of semi-autonomous planning by groups, each formulating its own goals and policies. The statutory planning agency acts as an adjudicator to implement the plan.

- **Radical Planning**: It has a base in political and social reorganisation and political change. It draws upon the implementation process of other modes described above.

### 3.4.3 THE PLANNING PROCESS

A process refers to a series of actions or steps that are logically related such that one step leads to the other in a progressive manner. Government at all levels have a great deal of influence on the nature, extent and manner of development.
The government have to co-ordinate the various decisions which affect the physical, social, economic and cultural development of communities in the region. The stages (Faludi 1973) in outline are;

1. Identification of potential problems (projects)
2. Preparation and analysis of data for feasibility study
3. Review of the feasibility study
4. Development of alternative strategies
5. Plan design (allocation and location) of land use
6. Plan implementation
7. Plan monitoring and evaluation of review of plans

3.5 THE PLANNING REGION

The planning region is where human activities are distributed over the national territory in certain rhythms and patterns that are neither arbitrary nor the workings of chance. Spatial patterns reflect the economic and social development of the nation in settlements, the system of flows and exchange of commodities, money and information; its patterns of commuting and migration and its reticulation of areas of urban influence. With economic advancement, economic functions become more differentiated in space, and the relevant scale of many functions increases, at an advanced
stage of development the national economy will appear as a fully integrated hierarchy of functional areas with most of the population and activities polarised in metropolitan areas, and in effect with national markets for labour, capital and commodities. For a variety of reasons activities come to concentrate in one or a few centres raising problems of the priority and location of programmes. These centres not only grow so rapidly as to create problems of an entirely new order, but they also act as suction pumps, pulling-in the more dynamic elements from the static regions. The remainder of the country is thus relegated to a second class, peripheral position. It is placed in a “quasi – colonial” (Alanso 1967), relationship to the centre, experiencing net outflows of people, capital, and resources, most of which redound to the advantage of the centre where economic growth will tend to be rapid, sustained and cumulative (Friedman and Weaver 1979; Isard 1956; Hall 2001; Douglas 2000; Dubarle 2000). As a result, income differences between centre and periphery tend to be widened. But the periphery frequently includes what during the pre-industrial era were important settlements and producing regions, and may account for a major portion of the national population. It is therefore likely to hold considerable political power which may be used to persuade the national government to adopt an aggressive
policy for extending the scope of economic development beyond the narrow confines of the initial growth regions (Alonso 1964; Douglas 2000).

With the centre – periphery dichotomy four planning regions for regional development planning have been identified;

1. **Metropolitan Regions:** Sometimes called “core regions” or “growth poles, they are large urban centres of industry, commerce, and administration that, together with their immediate region of influence, possess high potentialities for further economic expansion.

2. **Development Axes:** These are elongated corridors along principal transport routes including two or more metropolitan regions. Their prospect for development may be said to be roughly proportional to the size of the centres they link and inversely proportional to some function of the distance separating them (that is the centres)

3. **Frontier Regions:** New technologies, population pressures, or new national objectives sometimes suggest the occupation of virgin territory. Frontiers contiguous to the older developed regions may
expand more or less spontaneously along a broad front, often springing from urban settlements. Non-contiguous frontiers are usually associated with large-scale resources development, and take the form of relatively isolated enclaves, frequently having an urban focus, but at a considerable distance from existing metropolitan regions.

4. **Depressed Regions:** The remainder of the effectively settled parts of the nation tend to consist of areas of declining or stagnant economy. They offer only modest development prospects, and provide a modest workforce and a good portion of the capital to the major growth regions (Alonso 1964; Friedman and Weaver 1979; Ahmed and Bajwa; 2005).

Mr. Vice Chancellor, Ladies and Gentlemen, my intention is not to bore you with these concepts that are germane to this lecture and by extension my dearly held professional and academic niche in geography and environmental management. Rather it is my belief that we appreciate and understand some of these geographical phenomena of regional development planning so that our attempt to establish a context for our interaction would at best, be a hope. Let me go on to give an account of some of my contributions to knowledge while practicing this speciality for the past thirty years.
4.0 MY CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE
The region is a living organism. It has an origin, growth, decay and regrowth. It is not a static but a dynamic entity. Various types of forces like physical, social, economic and political influence the form and structure of settlements in the region. It is necessary to channelize these forces in a planned manner to create the total environment; which is healthy efficient and satisfying for working, living and recreation. The regional development plan is an instrument to achieve these objectives.

4.1 METROPOLITAN REGION PLAN

4.1.1 SLUM AND SQUATTER REDEVELOPMENT PLAN
A slum is defined as “any predominantly residential area, where the dwellings which by reason of dilapidation, overcrowding, faulty arrangement of design, lack of ventilation, light or sanitary facilities or any combination of these factors are detrimental to safety, health or morals” (Hodge 1970; Rao 2012; Aprioku 1998)
The end of the civil war in 1970 witnessed a rapid migration of people into Port Harcourt in search of employment opportunities. This event, coupled with post-civil war housing
shortages led to the overcrowding of the available houses in the city. As a result the waterfronts experienced unplanned growth as government failed to provide amenities such as piped water, electricity, roads schools and hospitals to the waterfront settlements much of the land became occupied by squatters (Aprioku 1998).

To effect changes and improve land-use and development at the waterfronts, the Rivers State Government (RSG) was guided by four policy objectives, namely;

(1) To achieve optimal social uses of land

(2) Ensure the availability of land in adequate quantities at the right time and for reasonable prices to both public authorities and individuals.

(3) Prevent the concentration of land ownership in a few private hands and safeguard the interests of the poor and underprivileged.

(4) Control urban land values to eliminate speculative profits (Nicksons, Borys and Partners 1973)

The RSG in 1973 commissioned Nicksons, Borys and Partners to produce a redevelopment plan for the waterfronts and other parts of Port Harcourt. The firm produced a plan for development of the metropolitan region divided into three phases. Items and subjects under the redevelopment proposals were listed as follows (see fig 7)
PHASE 1

1) New development action on vacant land excluding B3 neighbourhood; 1975-1980

2) The redevelopment and development action on partly vacant land (B1 excluded), 1975-1980.

3) Redevelopment action in obsolescent areas, 1975-1980

4) Environmental improvements in neighbourhoods (access roads, street light, primary schools and parks), 1975-1980.


Figure 7: Programme of redevelopment for Port Harcourt Township
(Source: Nicksons, Borys and Partners 1973)

PHASE 2

PHASE 3

1. The new development action on reclaimed lands (A1, A2, B3, and B4), 1975-1980. A programme of this magnitude would have a large extent eliminated most of the waterfront settlements and their associated slums and restored the envisaged beauty of the waterfronts to Port Harcourt. Never the less the actual evidence clearly indicates the great margin of difference between plan and implementation, between planning and realities. This discrepancy is as a result of the dual conception of the participation strategy envisaged for the public by government and the perception of the plan by the waterfront residents. The formulation of goals and objectives for the waterfront redevelopment plan were clearly conducted with the absence of any public debate (Aprioku 1998).

The study concluded that:

(1) The RSG introduced public participation at the waterfronts settlements as a means to ward off public protests.

(2) There was lack of organizational framework for public participation in the study area.
(3) Both the project staff and the various groups lacked skills and needed training in management to be more relevant in the redevelopment programme.

(4) The employment of demonstrations, civil disobedience and riots indicates that some participatory channels were either ineffective or closed (Aprioku 1998).

4.1.2 TERRITORIAL EXPANSION PLAN
In general, urban population growth is often accompanied by territorial expansion, the larger the population of the city, the greater the pressure on the land available for urban development. The literature shows that major urban centres in Africa such as Lagos, Ibadan, Kano, Benin city, Port Harcourt and Enugu that have experienced rapid population explosion and are still growing were able to accommodate their growth and areal expansion without violent or negative territorial externalities like inter-communal disputes and conflicts (Abumere 1994; Aprioku 1999; Omuta 1984).

Our study examined why Yenagoa, the major town and headquarter of Bayelsa State in Nigeria is experiencing territorial problems, including boundary disputes which do
not exist in larger, fast growing urban areas in Nigeria. The process of analysing an area's carrying capacity has been defined as involving its ecological natural resources, and thereby pinpointing the intrinsic constraints on population density and development (Joarda 1998; Whitney 1990). To examine the extent territorial controls affects the direction of urban growth and development Yenagoa was zoned into 14 equal units. We sought to discover how long respondents had been living in their present zones and if so, whether they relocated from another zone and if so, whether such a decision was related to flood problems, whether they had plans to relocate, if so, to which zone and why? Only one factor of environmental determination was investigated in this study – flooding. Using correlation techniques (see table 2) to relate environmental quality with relocation and space preference, the resultant indices show two sets of relationships that:

1) There is a direct association between degree of environmental deterioration and desire to relocate.

2) The degree of environmental stability of a zone is directly related to its relative attractiveness (Aprioku 2004).
**TABLE 2:** Correlation coefficients between environmental deterioration and intra-zonal space preferences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Space preference variables</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>y²</th>
<th>slope</th>
<th>intercept</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absolute no of households Desiring to relocate per zone</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td>26.46</td>
<td>0.2506</td>
<td>12.2888</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential household for Relocation as % of all desiring to relocate</td>
<td>0.4669</td>
<td>21.80</td>
<td>0.1253</td>
<td>51514</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential household for relocation as % of household surveyed per zone</td>
<td>0.5575</td>
<td>31.08</td>
<td>0.5248</td>
<td>39715</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absolute no of potential immigrant Households per zone</td>
<td>0.4925</td>
<td>24.15</td>
<td>0.2019</td>
<td>43.0457</td>
<td>0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential immigrants per zone As % of all households desiring to relocate</td>
<td>0.4861</td>
<td>23.63</td>
<td>0.1869</td>
<td>29.28</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Aprioku, 2004*

We conclude that boundary and land disputes will continue to be major features of the socio-political and cultural relations between and amongst Yenagoa and its neighbourhood. The problem of territorial control and extraterritoriality between Yenagoa and its neighbours and Yenagoa's ability to cope with its environmental eccentricities can only be solved if the flooding and flood erosion that has destroyed large expanse of the town is checked and the poor-land reclaimed for urban development and or redevelopment (Aprioku 2004).
4.2 FRONTIER REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

Frontier regions are population pressure centres where new technologies are used to exploit and explore natural resources in rural or semi-urban areas. Older developed regions may expand into virgin territory or rural settlement may expand spontaneously into contiguous settlements usually associated with large scale resources development (Alonso 1964; Douglas 2000).

4.2.1 EGI COMMUNITY INTEGRATED SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT PLAN (ECISDP)

Egi land with its abundance of crude-oil reserves is situated in Ogba/Ndoni/Egbema local government area (ONELGA), Rivers State. Egi land has become one of the powerhouse of the oil and gas sector's on-shore activities. It is made up of sixteen communities Akabta, Akabuka, Ede, Egita, Erema, Ibewa, Itu-Ogba, Obagi, Obiogbor, Obiozimini, Obite, Oboburu, Obukegi, Ogbogu, Obiyebe and Ohali-Elu. For over 40 years Egi land and its people have largely benefited from the activities of the oil/gas sector. Unfortunately oil/gas activities have also had other detrimental effects particularly environmental and social impacts. Age and interest groups who participated in the
surveys and workshops organised by the consultancy firms examined a range of challenges and opportunities for improving the lives of all people living in the sixteen Egi land communities. The integrated plan for Egi contains nearly nineteen proposals and recommendations which range from education and capacity skills building through to recreation development (HAALP 2008; Aprioku 2008).

The Egi community integrated sustainable development plan (ECISDP) is not a traditional land use plan. The plans proposals, for a 15 year timescale are not confined to the development of land but extend to human resource and institutional development. Whilst there are development proposals that are specific to individual communities, the recommendations cover intervention programmes on matters such as education and skills training, enterprise development and mechanisms for implementing change in a structured and effective manner (HAALP 2008).

A plan document like ECISDP is merely a piece of paper until the ideas it contains are embraced by the leaders and people in the communities that the plan covers. The adoption of the recommendations and the translation of the proposals into community action are critical to the successful implementation
of the plan. This can only be done through a positive partnership between the Egi community stakeholders, the private sector in the form of industry and business interests and the public sector at regional, state and local government administration levels (HAALP 2008).

5.0 SOME SPECULATIONS ON FINDINGS

Mr. Vice chancellor, ladies and gentlemen, it is important to keep in mind that regional development planning is a vision of the future state of the nation or region. One of the future consequences – and the driving forces – of the consolidation of the state during this modern period is the increasing emphasis placed by state rulers/leaders on governing defined territories. The very attainment of this vision hinges on my findings as follows;

5.1 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Public participation emphasises the decision making role of the community. As an inherent political act it helps to improve the design of policies so that they correspond to the needs and conditions of the people to whom they are directed. Community participation is an active process by which beneficiaries
influence the direction of a development project with a view to enhancing their wellbeing in terms of income, personal growth, self-reliance or other values they cherish (Bruton 1980; Long 1973; Civiit and Espana 1981)

Public participation in regional development planning in Nigeria is institutional or representative participation. Although it was recognised that the national economy was characterised by heavy regional disparities in economic development government rejected the concept of developing the national economy into strong local economies (Rambanapasi 1992; Smith 1963; Eversley 1975; Chadwick 1974; Taylor 2007; Strauss 1963)

Nigeria can only offer opportunities for institutional (or enlist) participation as a framework or forum within which individuals and groups strive to satisfy their interests. This process of participation characterises political and social life as the competition and interaction among groups (Aprioku 2012; Hickey and Mohan 2004; Ugwa 1992; Adeniyi 1976; Lawal and Oluwatonyi 2011; Lucas 1976)

The present system of community participation does not grant local government councils planning powers and functions to oversee comprehensive development of their areas of
responsibility. As a result even their co-ordinary services for a multiplicity of independent departments and field units (INEC, NPC, and The Police) are rendered unsatisfactorily (Okafor 2007; Logan 1972; Nnaobi 2009; Swyngedouw 2008). The LGA's dependence on state/federal government regional development plans will continue to reduce the potentials for development in local areas or territories (Aprioku 1998).

5.2 DEVELOPMENT POLICIES, DESIGN AND PLAN

A twist to spatial policies towards the greater Port Harcourt region was made in late 2007. In response to towering housing prices caused by inadequate supply compared with strong demand the government decided to increase housing stock on a massive scale. Four new towns were to be built outside the outer edge of Port Harcourt green belts to accommodate a planned population of about 150,000 people. This move has been criticized for having encouraged in migration from the rest of the country in the Greater Port Harcourt region (Aprioku 2008).

We emphasise the need to address two distinct sets of issues separately using appropriate policy instruments. The first concerns the efficient management of resources within the
Greater Port Harcourt region. The right policy is to address externalities by adequate pricing regulation and planning. The second involves regional and national economic development. The appropriate approach is to allow the Greater Port Harcourt region to lead the national economic growth and to promote the development of other regions at the same time by upgrading the soft infrastructures such as education and to assist the regions efforts to innovate. Limiting the growth of population and jobs in the Greater Port Harcourt region is to address an inter-urban issue at the intra-metropolitan level.

5.3 PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING.

The monitoring, review and evaluation (MRE) of Niger Delta Regional Development master plan is the core and ongoing activity within the Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC's) functions aimed at improving programmes, projects and not at least, the performance of the NDDC itself. MRE is a comprehensive process covering the regular review and updating of the NDRD master plan policies and assessment of the implementation of programmes, projects and measures both internally and externally through the involvement of key stakeholders and other agencies for example UNDP, in providing peer review inputs as well as an independent analysis of
progress in delivering the master plan policies (Lekwa and Adibe 2009, HAA 2004).

The high priority projects i.e. the East-West road, the coastal road and coastal railway have been assigned to the Niger Delta Ministry disqualifying MRE to function effectively, that situation notwithstanding, other low profile projects seeking to effect development in the Niger Delta have been left for the NDDC with no collaboration with the state and local governments. As a result projects have remained stalled and the MRE rendered impotent (Aprioku 2008).

6.0 CHALLENGES: TRAINING, EQUIPMENT AND RESEARCH.

I am proud to have received all my educational and professional training in Nigeria. I therefore stand as a totally home grown professional. Professional development is very personal rather than institutional resulting in significant competence gaps in training and skills.

The equipment in the cartography laboratory and GIS laboratory and the software programmes are imported, expensive and depend on electricity which is erratic. Manual
drafting has become dated and both trainers and trainee need laptops to design plans with computer aided programmes like MAP info, Erdas image, Arc GIS, Auto CAD Map R2, Auto CAD land development, etc. Teaching, training and supervision at undergraduate and postgraduate levels as well as maintenance and repair of equipment, purchasing of consumables makes research and academic publications a huge challenge for progress.

Skills and competence depend on exposure and many professionals do not have the opportunity as the urban and regional development plans (Master Plans) are contracted to firms either in Europe, Middle East, Asia or South Africa with partners in Nigeria who co-opt local contractors. Under the present circumstances it is difficult to acquire skill for personal development let alone to disseminate knowledge to trainees in formal institutions.

7.0 SUGGESTIONS

Globalization has emerged as a powerful force shaping economic and social conditions worldwide since the early 1990s. Although it was triggered mainly by the instability in the international money flows in international capital markets, it
had a severe impact upon Nigeria because of the structural weakness of the domestic economy pursued by government policy. It is argued that globalization tends to increase the competition and also the economic inequalities among regions and cities. The regions and cities which have capabilities and competitiveness to accommodate international production and business functions are likely to benefit from the process of globalization while others are likely to lay behind (Kingston 2011; Vitanen and Kingston 2007; Kim 2001).

The progress in globalization and liberalization makes the old planning paradigm, which mainly depend upon central government initiatives is no longer effective in achieving balanced regional development planning. This is not because local governments have become more autonomous in public decision – making, but also, because the redistribution of resources among regions can hardly guarantee balanced regional development (Kim 2001; Qureshi 2003; Krarke 1999).

In order to sustain and maintain a sustainable regional development process in Nigeria governments and private organisations must initiate and implement the following;

* Policy directions should change the national spatial planning paradigm, allowing two or more states or local
governments autonomy to develop in targeted regional development plans for their territories.

* Local governments and Private entrepreneurs should be encouraged to develop extended regional growth centres.

* National spatial planning should promote globalisation and the integration of neighbouring countries to check immigration and security issues.

* Federal, state, local governments and organisations should endeavour to have comprehensive and integrated projects and programmes and establish regional development commissions to oversee and monitor development plans over their planning territories.
8.0 CONCLUSION:
Mr. Vice Chancellor, Ladies and Gentlemen, In this lecture I have tried to enlighten this audience about my work in regional Development Planning explaining as precisely as it was possible the basic concepts in my work and the relevance of geography in regional development planning. I suggest that a rudimentary future course in geography be added to the retreat programme of our political leaders to appreciate the concepts of space, place and the environment. If this happens decision makers and those engaged in policy making will internalize the strategies outlined in this lecture.

The choice to develop is political but it is the service of the regional development planner to lay the options. Most, if not all of our development plans have inevitably been projects envisioned to improve national economy rather than the spatial components of the nation. I have tried to call attention to decision-makers and I hope that these development options will agitate our minds and enable governments to act wisely.

Mr. Vice Chancellor, All Principal Officers, distinguished Ladies and Gentlemen, permit me to acknowledge a few persons who enabled me to reach this height in my career.
ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I wish to acknowledge the contributions of several individuals and institutions that have played important roles in my career and in the preparation of this lecture. My appreciation goes to my late father, Henry Isaiah Aprioku, who taught me my first geography lesson in primary school and later prepared me for WAEC, and Professor Gideon ED. Omuta my academic mentor and role model, who ensured that I was properly groomed as my supervisor in the BSc, MSc, and Ph.D. programmes at the University of Benin. His scholarship has been and remains a source of inspiration for me. The Department of Geography and Regional Planning in the Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Benin, have provided a wonderful and intellectual environment for academic work. It has been a pleasure and an honour being part of both the Faculty and the Department I could not have pursued my academic career anywhere else.

I wish to thank my dear Chief Bernard A. A. Okome, the head of the Okome Wari and the Chairman Kirike Town Council of Chiefs in Kirike town, who has been a very source of inspiration and courage. Arch. Harcourt A. Adukeh who exposed me to the practical aspects of regional development planning in the Yenagaoa Master Plan 1999 and the Niger Delta Regional Development Plan 2005, and Mr. Ed Chamra(Oyibo) of Harcourt
Adukeh Associates and Lichfield Planning (HAALP). My colleagues at University of Benin Ignatius Ifedinkor and Felix Orilade, at the National Population Commission Mr. Olumola and Mr. Nwuzi, at the Rivers State University of Port Harcourt, Prof. O. B. Owei, Mr. Gift Nkwo and Dr. Victor Akujuru.

Very Special thanks to Prof. J. C. Buseri who persuaded me to come to NDU, the Dean and Heads of Department in the Faculty in particular Prof. I. S. Ibaba, Prof. Etekpe, Prof. Abasiekong and B.G. Igbani, my colleagues in the Department of Geography and Environmental Management (GEM) for their friendship and support especially Prof. J. O. Olaniran the Head of Department that presented me, to this professorial position, Prof. Niyi Bello, Late Prof. R. O. Olomo, Prof. S. I. Okafor whose library provided me literature for this lecture, “dede-oma-mbana”, Dr. P. A. Bariweni the Ag HOD and others specially Dr. O. Ohwo, who always gave me the reason to work harder, Dr. H. D. Eli, Dr. I. D. Agusomu, Dr. C. Oyibo, Mr. E. O. Gunn, Mr. T. George and Mr. K. M. Owota, Mrs Eunice Iruo for technical assistance during the preparation of this lecture, Mrs. A. Daniel, Elizabeth and Joyce for office works.

I appreciate my spiritual fathers and brethren in the Lord in the Anglican Communion especially Bishop T. Abere of the Diocese
of Okrika, Rev. Dr. Orafu of the New Covenant Anglican Church 5 Nzimiro Street, and so many other Clergy that made me grow in the word of God, I am most grateful.

My gratitude goes to the Amayanabo of Kirike, HRM Air Commodore Tamunosiki E. O. Ogube (RTD) JP Perekule Kingoli Ogube 1, and Chief Clifford Allen, Chief Akuro G. Dokube, Chief DSN Amasana, Chief Prof F. Ogan, Chief Harold Amafina and my very good friends at Okrika particularly Dr. I. S. Roberts, Mr. D. J. Ogbo (Zimbo), Mr. D. G. Selema, Mr. M. Adoki and Late Iyaobu Orubima. I thank you all.

I appreciate my friends at the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners Rivers State Chapter Mr Opiriba Ikiriko Tonte Davies,, Faithful Worabu and Edmond Obinnas Bayelsa State Chapter, Mr. Tari Ikposo (Chairman), Benson Diriyai, Ineyi Cole, Mrs. Akpuruku, Mrs. Josephine Eniye and other members of the two chapters. Friends of my new home in Amassoma especially Mr. Honor Waibigha, Mrs. Mabel Waibigha, Wonyeinmi Peresuodei, Mrs. Morine Theophilus, Seiyefa Omonibo, Tokoni Egrenfa, Senseman Clever, Appollos Ereyai, Divine Igbanibo and many others I cannot mention here for space.

I must not forget my Mother Madam Ednah Tofori Aprioku, my late step-mother Madam Rhoda Aprioku, for their sacrifice, also
my siblings for being supportive morally and financially throughout my career especially my brothers Dr. B. A. Aprioku, Hon. Justice Sika H. Aprioku, Rev. Dr. Minakuro Aprioku, Dango Aprioku, Tubonemi Aprioku and their wives, Mrs. Christie Igah, Mrs. Gloria Williams and my late sister L. T. Roberts and their husbands. Thank you all for your enormous support.

Finally, my debt is to my nuclear family, to my wife Abiebere Emilia Aprioku for her support friendship and understanding; my children Ibinabo and his wife Tari, Ibidabo, Ibiso, Asitonka and Tofori (Vera) and my lovely grandchildren Eneni M. Aprioku, Bimogha C. Aprioku and Omieibi S. Aprioku. You have all been wonderful and I thank you all for creating a home environment conducive for the pursuit of my career.

Thank you for listing. God bless all of you.
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PROFESSOR INNOCENT MIEBAKA APRIOKU
NCE (Ibadan), BSc, MSc, Ph.D (Benin), RTP FNITP.
INTRODUCTION

Mr. Vice Chancellor, Sir, distinguished ladies and gentlemen
I feel honoured and privileged to be standing before you
today, to read the citation on this distinguished Inaugural Lecturer.

Professor Innocent Miebaka Aprioku was born on
the 17th of February 1951 at Ihenu Memorial Hospital
Onitsha to Mr Henry Isaiah Aprioku, a teacher at New
Bethel Secondary School, Onitsha of blessed memory, and
Mrs Ednah Tamuno-oriboofori Aprioku (Nee Ide) both of Kirike, Okrika Island.

EDUCATION

Innocent started his academic life at the RCM
Primary School Arondizuogu in 1957. In 1958 the family
moved to Kirike and Innocent continued school at St
Stephen's (UNA) school, Ogoloma Okrika Island, where he
completed his primary education passing the First School
Leaving certificate examination with distinction to the joy
and excitement of his mother and step mother. He went on
to gain admission into County High School, Western
Ahoada, a very popular mixed Secondary School opened by
the Anglican Mission in the then Ahoada Province of
Eastern Nigeria.

School for Innocent was interrupted by the Biafra
war in 1967, but when Port Harcourt was liberated, he continued his secondary school education at Immaculate Secondary School Borokiri Port Harcourt, a year later to Okrika Grammar School and finally at Comprehensive Secondary School Borokiri, Port Harcourt where he obtained his WASC in 1972. In 1973, he attended the Advanced Teachers Training College (ATTC) Port Harcourt and following his graduation obtaining the NCE certificate proceeded to Kano State for the National Youth Corps in 1976. Innocent was in the third and last batch of NCE graduates in the NYSC programme. In 1978, he gained admission into University of Benin to study Geography and Regional Planning and Graduated in 1981. Not satisfied with just being a classroom teacher he went back in 1983 to study for the professional master's degree in Urban and Regional Planning graduating in 1986. He joined the Rivers State University of Science and Technology the same year as Assistant Lecturer, transferring his service as Vice Principal at GSS Ogu, under the Rivers State School Management Board.

PROFESSIONAL CAREER
In 1992 after serving tutelage with late Chief Dr. W. W. Nnah, one of the few registered Town Planners in Rivers State at the time he attained Corporate Membership of the
Nigerian Institute of Town Planners and was licensed to practice as a Registered (Chartered) Town Planner (RTP 491). The charter status conferred on him propelled him again to register for a PhD degree in Geography and Regional Planning at the University of Benin in 1991. Prior to his training for the charter statute, he also transferred his service to the National Population Commission in 1991 to render service as Cartographer in the 1991 National Census. The census exposed him to mapping regional development projects and programmes, culminating to the decision to pursue a higher degree to acquire more knowledge in his profession. In 1995 he obtained the PhD degree in Geography and Regional Planning at the University of Benin, Benin City, Nigeria.

After the 1991 census the commission took a hiatus for several months. It was during this period in 1997 that he met Architect Harcourt B. Adukeh of Harcourt Adukeh Associates (HAA) who asked him to help the firm HAA to complete the Yenagoa Capital City Master Plan. It was a big favour at the time. In 2002 he made several attempts to leave the National Population Commission to Lecture at the Rivers State University of Science and Technology RSUST again but some elements thwarted the attempt. That same year the Vice Chancellor of the Niger Delta University Prof.
John Cecil Buseri invited him for interview to give him appointment in the Town Planning Department of the Faculty of Environmental Studies. The attempt failed because the Faculty did not have the requisite number of staff to kick-start the programmes. However in 2005 at his second attempt he got appointment as Senior Lecturer in the Department of Geography and Environmental Management in 2006.

From 2007-2009 he served as Head of Department and encouraged his colleagues without PhD to aspire to obtain it. As a result he decided to teach so many courses that he assigned to them in the department, specifically those who could not get study fellowship.

**MEMBERSHIP OF PROFESSIONAL BODIES**

Professor Aprioku is a fellow of the Nigerian Institute of Town Planners, 2011. He was Chairman of the Institute's Rivers State chapter from 1997-2006. Aprioku was a member of the NITP NGO committee 2002-2005, NITP/TOPREC Examination Board 2001-2005, NITP Membership Committee 1998-2000 and the Rivers State Technical Committee for Port Harcourt Capital Development Authority 1998. He is a member of the Nigeria Environmental Society (NES) (MNES/05/050), Inter-nation Association for Impact Assessment
(IAIA/900). With his colleagues in the GEM Department he provided a layout plan to direct land use activities and circulation for the Niger Delta University Glory Land Campus in 2015.

Professor Aprioku has served as external examiner in the undergraduate programme at Rivers State University, Port Harcourt (2016-2017), NITP/TOPREC Post Graduate programme (2016-2017) and recently Delta State University, Abraka (2017-2018).

RESEARCH AND PUBLICATION
PROFESSOR Innocent Miebaka Aprioku has published not less than 40 papers and professional reports in reputable international journals. He has actively participated in international conferences and presented papers in Accra, Ghana (AIA conference 2011).

COMMUNITY SERVICE AND AWARDS
Professor Aprioku is a Lay Reader of the Anglican Communion and served first in that capacity in the New Covenant Anglican Church N° 5 Nzimiro Street Port Harcourt. He was the pioneer secretary (Check write) of Checkmates Club Okrika 1992-1996 and Director of Socials, Faculty of Socials Science NDU 2007-Date. He is Elder (Opu Senibo) of Okome Omu-aru of Egwemebiri
in Kirike and Council Member of the Egweme King makers of Okrika Clan, Professor Aprioku is currently Special Personal Assistant to Chief Dr. Bernard A. Okome Chairman of the Kirike Council of Chiefs.

He has the following awards; Merit Award as the longest serving Chairman NITP Rivers State Chapter (1997-2006) and Award of Excellence by Men's Christian Association Nzimiro Parish Port Harcourt as member of the committee that opened the Ngbetanwa Parish in Enuoha (2004). He also served as the Bible School Secretary, Kum Ran Bible School, Nonwa operated by the Greater Evangelism World Crusade Ministry 1996-1999.

**MARRIAGE AND FAMILY**

Professor I. M. Aprioku is very happily married to Mrs Abiebere Emilia Aprioku MA Music and the marriage is blessed with five children Ibinabo, Ibidabo, Ibisio, Asitonka, and “Queen” Tamuno-Oribiabo-Oforiye (Tofori).

Mr Vice chancellor, distinguished ladies and gentlemen, please join me to welcome a pace setter, humble achiever a disciplined and dependable family man per excellence and a professor who has made remarkable contribution in Urban and Regional Planning within and outside the country, Professor Innocent Miebaka Aprioku as the 33rd Inaugural Lecturer of the Niger Delta University.

Thank You.
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