Centre for Research on Settlements and Urbanism

Journal of Settlements and Spatial Planning

Journal homepage: http://jssp.reviste.ubbcluj.ro/eng/index.html

The Worldwide-City Hypothesis of Global Cities for Africa in the Era of Globalization – Introducing Time-Efficient City Model

Donald Chiuba OKEKE[1]*, Maxwell Umunna NWACHUKWU[1], Frances Ifeoma UKONZE[2]

**Corresponding author*

[1] University of Nigeria, Department of Urban and Regional Planning, African Settlements Research Group, Enugu, NIGERIA

[2] North-West University, Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Potchefstroom, SOUTH AFRICA

donald.okeke@unn.edu.ng https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4056-0734

maxwell.nwachukwu@unn.edu.ng https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2102-7013

ifeoma.ukonze@unn.edu.ng https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3564-0852

DOI: 10.24193/JSSP.2022.1.01 https://doi.org/10.24193/JSSP.2022.1.01

Keywords: *Africa, city, planning, neoliberalism, mercantilism, imperialism, regionalism, diaspora, sustainability*

ABSTRACT

Since the mid-20th century, cities in Africa drift awkwardly along paths charted by different shades of development ideologies, development hypothesis, planning theories, and planning mandates. These cities end up as inevitable products of intervening culture and policy formulation hegemony from abroad. They function outside the mainstream of the global economy; hence, they barely share the global perception of world cities, as economic centers of excellence for manufacturing, and information products that influence the global economy, as profit-making corporate entities with the potentials to perform economic functions, and as a remote sensor for measuring capitalist development. In the context of emerging city networking for new regionalism, this paper argues that Africa requires an alternative hypothesis of world cities. Therefore, the paper aims to suggest a hypothesis of world cities that makes sense of African realities. The critical question is what hypothesis of world cities is suitable for Africa? The underlying research problem subsists in rethinking the city, which involves the reversal of the alterations that sustain the imperial status of cities in Africa. Using a qualitative research methodology the paper contributes the 'worldwide city' hypothesis of world cities for Africa.

1. INTRODUCTION

The heritage of city development spans the six historical systems of African civilization. The period before the tenth century marks the first historical system when traditional African Kingdoms flourished, as told by Leo Africanus, a moor historian (see Davidson, 1966; Denyer, 1978). As identified by Okeke (2016, p. 31), the other historical systems include the 'period between the tenth century and fifteenth century and the mercantilist period marked by the Trans-Sahara Trade between the fifteenth century and mid-nineteenth century. The others are the inception of imperial control period between the mid-nineteenth century and 1950, the capitalist colonial period between the 1950s and 1980s, the independence decade and, partially, the Keynesian period; and, from the 1980s until now, the neo-liberal period'.

The changes that occurred from the fifteenth century are in two phases and two directions. The first is the transition of the space economy, which occurred in the initial three historical systems when 'most

governments had hardly moved beyond the earliest stages of establishing an industrial and manufacturing base' (Okeke and Ukonze, 2019, p. 6). The second, which occurred in the three later segments of historical systems, is the transition of the city. Both transitions are complementary although the first somehow lie just off the radar of planning studies. The infusion of western values for economic growth informed these transitions. The western values draw from the institutional order of late capitalist modernity (Jenkins, 2009, p. 81). The effect of these transitions signals extroverted space economy (see Okeke, 2021) and hybrid-cities that are the 'inevitable product of intervening culture and policy formulation hegemony from abroad' (Okeke, 2016, p. 4). As Dembele (1998) put it, these cities are in the Diaspora in their homeland because they do not derive from traditional institutions, attitudes, and values.

In the era of neoliberal globalization, the transition of cities continues in the context of extroverted space economy. As Majekodunmi and Adejuwon (2012, p. 197) put it, globalization represents capitalist expansion by imperialist hegemony sponsored by the leading capitalist state of the world. Extroverted space economy, on the other hand, indicates exogenous economic activities that are subject to imperial economic policies and objectives (see Kimenyi, 2014; Enwegbara, 2015). In this context, conceptual infrastructure planning (see Economic Commission for Africa, 2016) continues and the new order of neoliberal planning mandate (see Mohammadzadeh, 2011; Baeten, 2012) that favours private profitability applies to nurture the informalization of cities (Bibangambah, 1992). Consequently, the modern outlook of cities in Africa acquires the sobriquet of 'informal city' (see UN-Habitat, 1996).

The informal city that relies on exogenous processes for growth is not a colonial legacy (Okeke and Ukonze, 2019). It is rather a direct consequence of the continuous process of restructuring of cities in Africa. Since the outset of the restructuring in the early 20th century, the cities exist outside the framework of mainstream capitalist development. Hence, their outlook is antithetical to the definition of world cities as a remote sensor for measuring capitalist development. The resilience of this outlook leads the research to postulate the null hypothesis that the alterations responsible for the restructuring of cities in Africa are not reversible. However, the renewal of the outlook of cities in Africa is critical in view of the incidence of city networking that marks the new regionalism (Okeke and Nwachukwu, 2019). The new regionalism leads this paper to argue that Africa requires an alternative hypothesis of world cities that makes sense of African reality. The anticipated hypothesis is not only a planning obligation it is also a moral imperative. The research problem, therefore, consists of rethinking the status of cities in Africa as outposts for external economies. In other words, the city in Africa will make a significant contribution in the global economy but not ascenters of consumption.

The critical question is what hypothesis of world cities is suitable for Africa? The prospective hypothesis must serve the purpose of securing mainstream sustainability in Africa. Hence, this paper aims to suggest a hypothesis of world cities that makes sense of African realities. The objective is to (re)examine the contexts of African realities and review the prospects of an appropriate world city model for Africa. The theoretical significance of the research highlights the alternative hypothesis of world cities while the analytical significance points to a sustainable city model for Africa (that is not necessarily the compact city model).

2. METHODOLOGY

The research method consists of two study approaches. The first is a qualitative desktop review of the relevant literature and the second is an empirical perception study of variables that sustain the colonial nature of cities in Africa. The purpose of the studies is to test the null hypothesis (using perception analysis in the case of the empirical study).

2.1. Literature review

The literature review addresses the analytical framework of city development in Africa. It establishes the trends in the peculiar nature of city development following the major socio-economic and political transformations in the African context. In other words, the study draws attention to the transition of African cities due to a continuous process of imperialism. The review extends to the conceptualization of global cities and trends in the global conception of other typologies of cities.

2.2. Empirical study

The objective of the empirical study is to examine the reversibility of 18 variables that contribute to the colonial nature of cities in Africa. A five-point Likert scale planning questionnaire (see Appendix A1 - Planning questionnaire) was used to conduct a perception study of the variables. The respondents comprise Professionals (Consultant Planners/ Engineers/Architects), Policymakers (Administrators), and Researchers (academics). As it is the case in Okeke and Ukonze, (2019, p. 7) 'we used the Williams (1978) formula adopted by Kerlinger and Lee (2000) to determine the sample frame' of 300 eligible respondents. The proportion of eligible respondents sampled is 20%. Thus, a sample size of 60 respondents

was determined. They comprised an even number of relevant experts identified for the survey. The choice of respondents is random because the response sought is not location-specific. This method applies because the distribution of the sample frame is random. The sample is for a finite quantity and without replacement.

SPSS statistical tool was used to generate data from the answers collected from the participants who answered the survey, which was further presented in frequency and statistics tables (see Appendix A2 –A4). Data analysis proceeded with Multi-Criteria Analysis (MCA) method to determine the reversibility of the variables. The MCA is a qualitative technique of data analysis used to gauge the performance matrix (in this case the reversibility) of variables under investigation. The literature study and the result of the empirical study drove the test of the null hypothesis.

2.2.1. Study area

The study area is Enugu city, which lies approximately on latitude 06°21' N and 06°30' N and longitude 07°26' E and 07°37' E in the southern part of Nigeria. Enugu is the capital city of Enugu State in South-Eastern Nigeria. The city is a colonial town that has served an administrative function on several occasions, starting as the headquarters of the Central, and later, Southern Provinces (1929) and Eastern Provinces (1939), and capital of the Eastern Region (1951), East Central State (1967), Anambra State (1976) and Enugu State (since 1991).

Enugu city stands out significantly 'as one of the four African cities invited in 2014 to join the 100 Resilient Cities Network (100RC) pioneered by The Rockefeller Foundation, New York' (see Okeke and Ukonze 2019, p. 8). Enugu city is a certified global model of a resilient African city. However, compared to the big cities in Africa (e.g., Johannesburg), Enugu is a typical underdog city. As indicated by Okeke and Ukonze (2019, p. 7) 'the term 'underdog city' is used to refer to medium-size cities that lie just off the radar but are experiencing a quiet transformation, largely unnoticed by the press and outside the purview of big business and foreign investment (Ventures Africa, 2014). The future of cities in Africa connects with the growth of this class of cities.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Analytical framework of alterations in African city development

The world's first cities grew up in what is now Iraq, on the plains of Mesopotamia, near the banks of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers (Denyer, 1978). By contemporary standards, these cities of the earlier epoch were small, but because of their structure, which the urbanity concept explains, they cradled civilization. According to Lozano (1990), civilization refers to the culture of cities. The first largest city that hit the one million mark in the world was Rome, in 5 AD, when the world population was only 170 million, followed by Beijing in the modern era around 1800 and, subsequently, New York and London.

By 1800, the African civilization already had a long fascinating heritage in city development. The Sudanese towns of Tekrur, Audoghast, Oulata (Walata), Timbuktu, Gao, and Agadez are typical examples. Most times referred to as 'towns', these cities grew in the European medieval period at a time when international trade between the Mediterranean, Europe, and the Far East was expanding rapidly (Denyer, 1978). They are more or less organic settlements in the context of global political economy (where Africa serves as a source region for human and material resources) (see Kipfer and Goonewardo, 2004).

The nature of African cities altered with the incidence of expansionist imperialism in the mid-19th century. Traditional cities that cradled African civilization through the processes of agriculture, production and pre-modern planning factored on folk culture transited to imperial cities that served as outlet for the colonial economies. In other words, the functional specialization of cities seized to be subject to indigenous culture that focuses on spirituality, values that emphasize transcendentalism, and decision processes defined by the African lifestyle of socialism or communialism (Davidson, 1978). In addition, alterations drive changes in trade routes that mark the first phase of the alteration of the space economy. The changes define the spatial redistribution of urban growth.

The colonial system restructured peasant agriculture, introduced new administrative systems, and changed the pattern of urbanization (Rakodi, 1997). The resultant introverted patterns of urbanization encouraged the growth of imperial (colonial) towns, most of which are parasitic cities that grow fat on the produce of the hinterland without giving anything in return (Hoselitz, 1955; Abumere, 1999; both cited in FGN, 2001). This experience marked the second phase of imperial control of the space economy in Africa. The restructuring drew impetus from changes in three directions including the development ideology, development hypothesis, and planning approach. Consequently, African socialist and communal ideologies gave way to periphery capitalism, production economy gave way to a consumer economy, and planning design based on the understanding of folk culture gave way to planning design controlled with imperial planning mandate. The notion of planning mandate essentially gives geographical expression to policies (see Metternich, 2017). These strategic changes reworked the processes of urbanization to include the

factors of spatial migration, convergence led by non-tradable services, and colonial planning mandate.

The utilitarian designs for cities in Africa grew as the integrated cosmology of traditional Africa gave way to single-minded utilitarian objectives. These designs bulldozed away cultural symbols, behavior, and beliefs. African cities became hybrids an inevitable product of intervening culture and hegemonic policy formulation. Cities in Africa no longer derive from indigenous values, attitudes, and institutions. Hence, they seized to be responsive to indigenous enterprise and culture. The ensuing consumer economy driven by the development hypothesis of massive infrastructure build upholds development as an innovative process (Friedmann, 1972), creates market space economy (Kimenyi, 2014) and permits isolated urban hierarchies with limited linkages to develop in the urban region mainly in the form of urban-rural dichotomy (Hicks, 1998). Ultimately, the city exhibits functional changes based on which they become places for the 'integration of households into new networks of capitalist production; the invention of new webs of concepts and practices of land and land laws; new patterns of foodstuff consumption; new regulations governing social and political life' (Coquery-Vidrovitch, 1991).

At this juncture, two questions are imperative. First, are these alterations a continuous process or a colonial legacy? Second, are the alterations reversible? With regards to the first question, Okeke and Ukonze (2019) established that the alterations are a continuous process driven by 'interational administration' (Hawksley, 2004, p. 22), which signals neo-colonization or even direct re-colonization. Already, the activities of international organizations in African countries are seen to evolve from support to control (see Okeke 2015, p. 191). Recent changes in development ideology from peripherial capitalism to pseudo-neoliberalism and in planning from participatory planning to market-oriented neoliberal planning retains the status quo (however it drives transition from colonial market towns to informal cities). For those that uphold the alterations as colonial legacy perhaps the alterations are irreversible history. Hence, they retain the alterations as constant in the diagnosis of city development in Africa.

3.2. Enugu city analysis result

The results in Table 1 indicate that two variables are marginally not reversible. They fall under meta-theoretical variables, namely 'globalization' and 'development (infrastructure) hypothesis'. The other 16 variables are reversible. The study indicates that 'western values' under meta-theoretical variables are strongly reversible. All of the theoretical variables are reversible particularly 'conceptual planning'. Also, all of the temporal variables are reversible; indeed the perception of 'consumer economy' indicates strongly reversible. Approximately 90% of the variables are reversible.

Table 1. Frequency distribution of the reversibility of variables that sustain the colonial nature of cities *(derived from Tables A2 – A4 in the Appendix).*

Matrix	Meta-theoretical variables		Theoretical variables		Temporal variables		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
SR	1	12.5	-	-	1	20.0	2	11.1
R	5	62.5	5	100	4	80.0	14	77.8
NE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NR	2	25.0	-	-	-	-	2	11.1
SNR	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	8	100	5	100	5	100	18	100

** NE – Neutral; SNR – Strongly not reversible; NR – Not reversible; R – Reversible; SR – Strongly reversible. Source: Researcher's Survey, 2020.*

In Table 2, the distribution of the calculated 'mean' indicates that most of the variables are strongly reversible and none of the variables is not reversible. Except for 'informal cities' the reversibility of the other temporal variables is not certain. Regardless, the study result disproves the null hypothesis. The colonial nature of cities in Africa is reversible.

Table 2. Matrix of mean values of the reversibility of variables that sustain the colonial nature of cities in Africa *(derived from Tables A2 – A4 in the Appendix).*

Category	Variables	SR	R	NE	NR	SNR	Mean
		≥ 2.0	≥ 1.5	≥ 1.0	≥ 0.5	< 0.5	
Meta-theoretical variables	Globalisation	x					2.2
	Neoliberalism	x					2.0
	Imperialism	x					2.9
	Development hypothesis	x					2.3

	Informalization	x					2.3
	Anti-generalisation	x					2.4
	Principle of particulars	x					2.5
	Western values/culture	x					2.3
Theoretical variables	Project planning	x					2.3
	Conceptual planning	x					2.6
	Pragmatic planning	x					2.3
	Innovation	x					2.5
	Techno-centrism	x					2.2
Temporal variables	Exogenous economic activities			x			1.3
	Informal cities		x				1.5
	Consumer economy			x			1.4
	City space			x			1.4
	Core-periphery development			x			1.3
	TOTAL	**13**	**1**	**4**	**-**	**-**	**18**
	Percentage (%)	**72.2**	**5.6**	**22.2**	**-**	**-**	**100**

** NE – Neutral; SNR – Strongly not reversible; NR – Not reversible; R – Reversible; SR – Strongly reversible. Source: Researcher's Survey, 2020.*

3.3. Proposed 'Worldwide city' hypothesis for Africa

3.3.1. Highlights of 'Worldwide city' conceptual framework

The work of Friedmann and Wolff (1982) introduced the world city concept in planning scholarship. Then they argued that the way cities are integrated with the global system of economic relations matters. Therefore, the world city implicates restructuring that leads to urban change not found in the periphery region of global economy. Later in 1986, John Friedmann put forward his world city hypothesis that points to the spatial organization of new international division of labour. The hypothetical statements suggested relate to urban change (Friedmann, 1986). In the 1990s, Sassen (1991) defined the global city concept as a corporate entity. At the turn of the 21st century, the notion of new regionalism that proclaim city cooperation emerged. This section considers the way forward for African cities in the syndrome of world cities.

The African civilization is one civilization that is found on the principle of generalization. This principle allows Africans to use the term 'African' to exclusively describe their indigenous experiences and traditions (Okeke, 2016, p. 202). According to Cossa (2009), cited by Okeke and Ukonze (2019, p. 5), these people, who are native to Africa and can (in one way or another, but not necessarily regarding genealogy) trace their ancestry to indigenous African people-groups, have a common African civilization and a common destiny that is African renaissance. The same principle applies to classify world cities and articulate sustainability theory in the era of globalization.

Table 3. Theoretical framework of African renaissance with policy implications.

		African Renaissance		Criteria	Policy implications
		Objectives	**Options**		
Theoretical framework of African Renaissance	**Meta-theoretical**	African value system (Matunhu 2011, p. 71)	Spirituality	Self-respect Dignity Pride Moral integrity Self-awareness	Increased concern for accountability Rising transparency Commitment to openness
			Transcendentalism	Sacred space Eco-centrism Neo-traditionalism	Enhanced environmental conservation African city utopia (African dream)
			Humanity	Class Gender Ethnicity	Progressive egalitarian society
			Worldview	Believes Attitudes Behavior	Growth vision for nation building

		African Renaissance		Criteria	Policy implications
		Objectives	Options		
		Pan-Africanism (Nmehielle 2003, p. 426)	Independence	Political Economical Social Cultural	Enhanced productivity Self-reliance in livelihood support system
			Political ideology	Democracy Legitimacy	Participatory process of good governance Democratization of decision making
			Development ideology	Communism Socialism	Communality in the form of social democracy
			Anti-imperialism	Afro-optimism Afro-realism	Increased wave of patriotism Resistance to domination Greater political will
			Protectionism	Fair trade	Stronger African mercantilism Increased local industrialization R&D (Trade)
		African identity (Cossa 2009, p. 5)	Cosmology	Spiritual realm Physical realm	Concern for otherworldliness
			Folk cultural	Ethnicity Locality	Stronger cultural planning
			Territory (Landscape)	Terrestrial Aquatic Wetland	Potential impact on landscape planning
			Charismatic leadership	Visionary Territorial	Greater growth vision
			Community cohesion	Marital ties Social networks Treaties	Increased neighborhood activism
		Civic identity (Blair, 1971, p. 227, Dembele, 1998)	Spatio-physical	Hamlet Villages (communities) Hinterlands(rural)	Enhanced urbanity Green planning for eco-centric growth
			Socio-economic	Livelihood support system Art & craft Music Dances	Enhanced productivity
			Political	Town unions Market unions Civil unions Elites	Increased concern for stakeholders forum
		Mindset (Nabudere 2003)	Mentality	Equity Spatial justice Social justice	Improved right to the city Greater distributive justice
			Educational process	Epistemological foundations Ideologies Curriculum for planning studies	Repackage the self-confidence of the average African (Okeke, 2016) Theories of urban form Study of the history of African societies (their kingdoms and territorial configuration and their functional relationships in trade) (Okeke, 2015). R&D (African societies)

		African Renaissance		Criteria	Policy implications
		Objectives	Options		
	Theoretical	Outlook (Nabudere 2003)	Afro-centricity	Authority Power Control	Increased resolve for self-determination
			Formalism	Planning	Design-oriented approach to planned development R&D (Urban design)
		Space economy	Spatial systems	Africities Urban regions Nation-states	'Worldwide cities' system Functional specialization of cities Extended metropolitan region Polycentric urban strategy R&D (Spatial systems)
			Activity system	System of base Deep structure (Activity-space relationships) Superficial structure (urban form)	Enhanced urban growth management vis-à-vis regulated brownfield development
			Urban ecology	Distribution of urban functions Pattern of urban functions Planning control	Enhanced growth principle of form and function Concentrated pattern of urbanization R&D (Urban ecology)
		Spatial integration	Regional	Development corridors Growth triangles	Establishment of productive cities Transnational corridors R&D (Development corridors)
		Territoriality	Space	Air Water Land	Engagement with space planning Potential impact on territorial planning R&D (Space)
			Natural setting	Environmental factors	Eco-cities Enhanced potentials for Eco-tourism R&D (Eco-development)
			Vulnerabilities	Natural obstacles Resilient imperialism Pollution Funding	Environmental economics Improvement of master planning Increased IGR (Internally Generated Revenue)
	Practical	Empowerment (Boloka, 1999).	Cultural	Liberal arts Social habits Religion Language	Greater awareness for creative urbanism Sustainable urbanism R&D (Urbanism)
			Scientific	Theories (Planning and development) Skills Principles	Moderate compliance to ITC Development of local technology Planning framework Urban Development Strategy (UDS) R&D (Planning & Development)
			Economic	Primary Secondary Tertiary	Local goods & Services Agro-business Increased local industrialization

		African Renaissance		Criteria	Policy implications
		Objectives	Options		
		Market space (Kessel 2002, p. 45).	Formal	Local National Trans-national	Formal economic sector New trade routes Transnational urban region Trade basins (Transmegapolitan areas) R&D (Market space)
			Informal	SMEs	Modern informal sector Forward linkages R&D (Informal sector)
		Sustainability (ICLEI conference)	Resilience	Stress assessment Adaptation planning Implementation adaptation	Resilience lens (for imperial cities) Rework epistemological foundations and ideologies R&D (Resilient cities)

Source: Researchers construction, 2020.

Since the empirical study disproves the null hypothesis, the prospect of delivering Nabudere's (2003) vision of re-engineering the epistemologies of imperialism in city development in Africa is high, especially in the context of securing the pan-Africanist view of the city. The procedure demands two things: first, reversion to land use planning already indicated in Graciela Metternich's (2017) UNCCD-sponsored research on land use planning (regardless of the dominantly behavioral perspective of her research), and second, policy analysis for African renaissance to determine action cards. The theoretical frame of African renaissance viewed from spatial planning perspective drives no less than 94 composite criteria for action with 76 policy implications grouped under meta-theoretical, theoretical, and practical sections (see Table 3 below).

Table 4. Analysis of typologies of policy implications.

Typology of policies	Variables	Freq.	(%)	Determinant factors
Research & Development	R&D (Planning & Development) R&D (Resilient cities) R&D (Informal sector) R&D (Market space) R&D (Urbanism) R&D (Eco-development) R&D (Space) R&D (Development corridors) R&D (Urban ecology) R&D (Spatial systems) R&D (Urban design) R&D (African societies) R&D (Trade)	13	17.3	R&D
Societal	Repackage the self-confidence of the average African Improved right to the city Greater distributive justice Increased neighborhood activism Concern for otherworldliness Communality in the form of social democracy Self-reliance in livelihood support system Increased resolve for self-determination Progressive egalitarian society Increased concern for accountability Rising transparency Commitment to openness	12	16.0	Neo-traditionalism for community cohesion.
Economy	Formal economic sector Modern informal sector	10		Endogenous economy

	Forward linkages Increased local industrialization Agro-business Local goods & Services Stronger African mercantilism Enhanced productivity Enhanced potentials for Eco-tourism			
Spatial planning	Improvement of master planning Engagement with space planning Potential impact on territorial planning Design-oriented approach to planned development Green planning for eco-centric growth Potential impact on landscape planning Stronger cultural planning Planning framework	8		Formalism in planning vis-à-vis the spatial-form of spatial planning
Urban development	Urban Development Strategy (UDS) Greater awareness for creative urbanism Sustainable urbanism Concentrated pattern of urbanization Extended metropolitan region Polycentrism (urban strategy)	6		Transmegapolitan development in regional spatial system
Socio-political	Increased wave of patriotism Resistance to domination Greater political will Participatory process of good governance Democratization of decision making Growth visions for nation building	6	8.0	Afro-centricity
Urban design (Cities)	Eco-cities Establishment of productive cities Enhanced urbanity Functional specialization of cities 'Worldwide cities' initiative	5	6.7	Creative cities
Spatial Theory	Resiliencelens (for imperial cities) Enhance growth principle of form and function Theories of urban form	3		Urban compaction model
Management	Enhanced urban growth management vis-à-vis regulated brownfield development Increased concern for stakeholders forum Trade basins (Transmegapolitan areas) Trade routes	4	5.3	Introverted space economy (Regionalism)
Visioning	Greater growth vision(s) African city utopia (African dream)	2	2.7	Pan-Africanism
Environmental planning	Enhanced environmental conservation Environmental economics	2	2.7	Eco-centrism in modern environmentalism
Spatial integration	Transnational corridors Transnational urban regions	2	2.7	Growth triangles based on regional trade-basins
Science & Technology	Moderate compliance to ITC Development of local technology Cyber-communication	2	1.3	Traditional science (Indigenous knowledge)
Public funding mechanisms	Increased IGR (Internally Generated Revenue)	1	1.3	Pan-African Financial Mechanisms (e.g. PAIDF)
TOTAL		76	100	

Source: Researchers construction 2020.

The regrouping into typology of policies in Table 4 shows 'Research & Development' topping the list. What this indicates is that reworking the current reality of cities in Africa promises to be research-based

(see Simone, 1998, p. 108), while reinventing the society presents the greatest challenge (see Tawfik, 2008). The need to remodel the economy and rethink the use of space, using formal planning and development approaches, is fundamental (see Nabudere, 2003). The rethink loads significantly on Afro-centric development paradigm to check imperialism in the functioning of cities, which is the ultimate end of the pan-Africanist view of cities in Africa.

Finally, Table 5 shows priority action cards for the delivery of the culture of cities for African renaissance. These action cards somehow elude the radar of planning scholarship in Africa except perhaps in the effort to espouse the so called Southern planning theory.

Table 5. Priority action cards.

Theme	Determinant Factors	Priority action cards
Meta-theoretical	Neo-traditionalism for community cohesion. Afro-centricity Pan-Africanism	Re-think neoliberal development ideology for Africa Adopt African hypothesis of world cities
Theoretical	Research& Development Eco-centrism in modern environmentalism Formalism in planning vis-à-vis the spatial-form of spatial planning Urban compaction model Traditional science Endogenous economy Transmegapolitan development in regional spatial system Creative cities	Espouse developmentalism theory for Africa Espouse the spatial perspective of planning theory for Africa
Practical	Introverted space economy (Regionalism) Growth triangles based on regional trade-basins Pan-African Financial Mechanisms (e.g. PAIDF)	Remodel the African space economy

Source: Researchers, 2020.

The adoption of African hypothesis of world cities is one of the action cards under the meta-theoretical category of actions towards the delivery of the pan-African perspective of 'The Africa We Want'. The worldwide conception of cities that sustain the ecclesiastical states of Christian and Islamic kingdoms such as the Vatican City and the cities of Mecca and Medina provides a lead for the African hypothesis of world cities. The GaWC (Globalization and World Cities Study Group and Network) reference to worldwide cities in their rating of cities in 2004 (see Taylor, 2004) propels the worldwide cities concept. How the worldwide city applies relates to the principle of partnership embedded in new regionalism (e.g., any Catholic Church cathedral anywhere in the world is fundamentally an outpost of the Vatican City).

As a pathfinder African perspective of global cities, the worldwide cities concept viewed from planning (not economic) perspective illustrates the spaceless limits of cities that immortalize civilizations (see Okeke et al., 2018). The worldwide city concept associates with the 'hyperspace' syndrome that upholds social equity across racial boundaries. Due to this expectant feature, human culture and not necessarily science and technology propels the worldwide city. This cultural orientation does not mean that the worldwide cities concept does not have economic content. Indeed, this city concept prospects to coordinate the neo-African economy otherwise the greater Africa economy that includes the contributions of Africans in Diaspora. The worldwide cities concept, therefore, integrates the forces of Diaspora in which case the individual African, where so ever he finds himself, is an embodiment of his homeland city economy. Most global north economies engage in this virtuous practice. Perhaps the practice informs the launch of new regionalism where cities in Africa will eventually serve as outposts for global north economies.

The neo-African spatial development theory incorporates the worldwide-city concept (Okeke et al., 2018). The spatial development theory under reference is a general theory for regional integration within spatial systems in Africa. Unlike existing regional development theories that address the social and economic bases of integration, it addresses the spatial bases of integration. Through the consideration of geographic space and concern for the spatial dimension of regional growth and trade, it links with neoclassical theories. Hence, it shares the principles of endogenous growth theories of neoclassical theories because it

accepts that the growth of the region is internal. Also, it belongs to the spatio-physical growth theories typology developed along with the convergence hypothesis model. The neo-African spatial development theory pioneers Okeke's (2016) neo-mercantile theories, a new set of theories next to neoclassical theories for regional development.

This theory assumes the rethink of neoliberalism as a development ideology for Africa (Baeten, 2012; Mohammadzadeh, 2011). As proposed by Okeke et al. (2018), a suitable alternative is neo-mercantilism as a development ideology (see also Okeke, 2015). The primary economic policy of neo-mercantilism as a development ideology rests on agro-business and resource marketing either 'agro-based as in most east African countries or petro-chemicals as in Nigeria, or mining as in Angola, and so on' (see Okeke, 2015, p. 288). The policy provision implicates rigorous land use systems and land management reforms. 'For purposes of resource marketing, neo-mercantile trade policy and trade relations rest on the principle of fair trade. In other words, the volume of trade transactions will depend on the resource base of each African country. Countries with limited resources will moderate and downsize their trade transactions accordingly' (Okeke 2015, p. 294). The hard truth about downsizing is that it means the lowering of the standard of living in such countries. Elevation from a lower standard of living will depend on the resourcefulness of each country to grow its economy, using its human and land resource inventories from a pan-Africanist perspective.

The neo-mercantile development ideology functions with developmentalism theory to push for African mercantilism in the era of globalization. The developmentalism theory, which is not a new construct, postulates that the best way for Third World countries to develop is to foster a strong and varied internal market and perhaps to impose high tariffs on imported goods. This theory drives the transition to endogenous activities with the potentials to remodel the space economy in the spatial context of the city at local, national, and international levels. The exponential spread from the local to the international level determined through regional analysis of human resources indicated in Cilliers (2020) and tradeable services distribution in space cumulatively defines the temporal frame of the worldwide cities model.

The spatial perspective of spatial planning that argues the introduction of the time factor in land use planning for economic growth applies. The time-efficiency of functional flow intended at the local level has the potential to rework the core area of the worldwide city. The core area is the critical mass of the worldwide city. This area is the urban space as conceptualized in Okeke and Ukonze (2019). The urban space is cybernetic space. The term cybernetic space as is commonly used in Asian context simply refers to the combination of real and virtual space (see Ghorbani et al., 2013). The spatial approach of perceiving the urban space is particularly critical because it protects concern for reversing the extroverted space economy. The systems approach is relevant for diagnosing the reversal of the external notion of urbanity (see Simone, 1998) to a time-efficient urbanity for the resolution of trade relations to propel the African renaissance of the 21st century. Given the result of the empirical study, both reversals are feasible and fundamental for instituting the worldwide city.

As The Cities Alliance (2006, p. 110) indicates, focused attention on domestic savings is critical for integration planning that will trigger the change from extroverted to introverted economy, from exogenous to endogenous activities, from consumer to production economy, and from survivalist tertiary services to tradable services. Given the global political economy, the requisite financial mechanism to realize this change will not come from global financial institutions such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). The antidote for this challenge in the era of globalization is the Pan-African financial mechanism. Africa must find the political will to rely on two sources of finance besides African mercantilism. They are first, coordinated think-home investment initiative for Africans in the Diaspora and Africans in the homeland and second, increased dependence on national Internally Generated Revenue (IGR).

The think-home initiative leverages remittances from abroad (external sources) for profitable project development in Africa. Such financial remittances especially those directed at real estate development have a multiplier effect on the development of the economy, as it is the case with tourism. Already, this trend is manifested, for instance, in Ghana by the returnee Afro-Americans, in Nigeria amongst the Ibos, who are known for their think-home investment attitude, etc. This contextualizing of financial mechanism succinctly explains the link of Africans in the Diaspora in the worldwide cities model. The syndicated synergy between Africans in the Diaspora and Africans in the homeland is a potential financial resource base for African development as tourism is for many European countries (e.g. Switzerland).

The IGR financial mechanism is also critical. Africa should look inwards and depend more on domestic savings (The Cities Alliance 2006, p. 110). This truth is common knowledge in Africa (Dovi, 2008). We reiterate what is contained in the 2007 UNCTAD report that the ability of African countries to finance a greater share of their development needs from domestic sources 'would give them the much-needed flexibility in the formulation and implementation of policies' to address development challenges, direct resources into high-priority areas and 'strengthen state capacity'.

Earlier, in the early 1990s, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) indicated that over 95% of investments in any developing country come from domestic savings (IMF, 1993).

The capacity building of African financial systems and financial institutions is critical to make them channel domestic savings effectively into productive investments (see Okeke, 2021). A potential response to this capacity building is the setting up of the Pan-African Infrastructure Development Fund (PAIDF) in 2007 (Dovi, 2008). PAIDF seeks to raise money mainly from public and private pension funds and asset management firms in Africa (Dovi, 2008). Also indicated by Dovi (2008, p. 1), 'the PAIDF will invest directly in large-scale infrastructure projects in Africa'. This will consolidate the PAIDF momentum in locally engineering financial mechanisms for plan implementation. However, the kleptomaniac regimes found in Africa today that are more inclined to DFI funding are not likely to favour the PAIDF initiative.

The worldwide city hypothesis of global cities for Africa postulates the platform on which Africa's economy will interact in the world capitalist system. The global perspective of this platform upholds the perception of worldwide cities in multiple dimensions, as the fulcrum for the internationalization of entrepreneurship and capital to maximize mercantilist economy of cultural significance, as time-efficient centers for robust global mercantilism (marketing), and as growth centers with integrated space economy that generates tradeable services; also, as centers for capacity building of African financial systems and financial institutions (essentially to channel domestic savings into productive investments).

The pan-African perspective of this platform underpins the worldwide city also in multiple dimensions, as the precursor for an African renaissance, as the center that leverages remittances from the Diaspora for profitable project development, and as a remote sensor for measuring African mercantilism in the global economy. Much more, the culturalist perspective of this platform presents worldwide cities as locations (or homeland entities) that reconnect Africans with those fundamental values of self-respect, dignity, pride, moral integrity, self-reliance, and independence. In essence, every individual African, especially those in the Diaspora, is an embodiment of a homeland entity and he/she commits to its prosperity. The three perspectives underpin Time-Efficient city models as the temporal frame for the worldwide city concept. This city model functions in the context of fair trade relations to drive corporate global mercantilism.

3.3.2. Highlights of Time-Efficient City model

We do not intend to fully theorize the Time-Efficient city model here. We rather wish to highlight some matters arising that elicits further research in modelling the Time-Efficient model of sustainable city for Africa. The Time-Efficient city (hereafter referred to as TE-city) model draws from the philosophy that time-efficient decision-making for demand-side trade transactions determines the hierarchy of commercial nodes and their distribution in space. As indicated by Okeke (2015, p. 299), 'Charles Tiebout and Douglass North (cited in Dawkins, 2003, p. 138) export base theory touched on this in their explanation of economic growth but their effort had little to do with the use of space'. The aspect of distribution in space implies that physical propinquity (otherwise face-to-face contact) matters for transaction turnover irrespective of advances in communication systems that leverage virtual meetings (Lozano, 1990).

The TE-city is a nascent model of sustainable urbanism that maximizes time-efficiency in the functioning of cities. Time-efficiency literarily means the functioning of distributive networks within a limited time. The phrase 'Time-Efficient' defines 'the quantum of time required to access goods and services inspace' (see Okeke, 2015, p. 299). The consideration of time efficiency as the object of planning underpins the TE-city model. The principle of totality drives the TE-city model along the path of spatial integration in urban space. This city model, which deals with the integration of space economy in the context of wider city urbanity, is reminiscent of extended metropolitan regions found mostly in the ASEAN countries (see Macleod and McGee, 1996).

For purposes of spatial integration, time-efficient cities derive from territorial planning at two levels; 'first, within the urban core where it addresses urbanity through the interplay of land use systems, distribution, and patterns in space, and second, at the urban region level where it identifies activity-belts based on the spatial definition of urban (environment) space' (Okeke, 2015, p. 312). The spatial perspective of land use planning applies using integration planning protocol to design time-efficient cities. The city underpins productivity due to its trade (local and international) functions for African mercantilism. Meanwhile, integration planning protocol is a critical area of further research for the delivery of TE-cities.

The TE-city undergoes six stages of development that draws from the antecedence of city development in Africa (see Okeke, 2015, p. 312). The stages include 'unbuilt-up transient trade locations, built-up transient trade locations, the maturity of trade nodes, suburban industrialization, development of industrial satellites', and the extended metropolitan region. Figure 1 displays the neo-mercantile spatial model for urban region development that illustrates the basic outline of the spatial model of TE-cities. The spatial model is perhaps one of the many variants of Howard's garden city concept. However, its perception

must not oversight the alignment of the spatial model with the productivity of the space economy and not the 'environmentally friendly environment' the environmental principles of the garden city model seeks (Gatarić et al., 2019, p. 35). In addition, the satellites in the spatial model are not isolated garden cities, they are city satellites (e.g., Velvin near London in 1919) (Gatarić et al., 2019, p. 39) that are defacto growth poles (or processing plants) networked through polycentric planning as components of the TE-city.

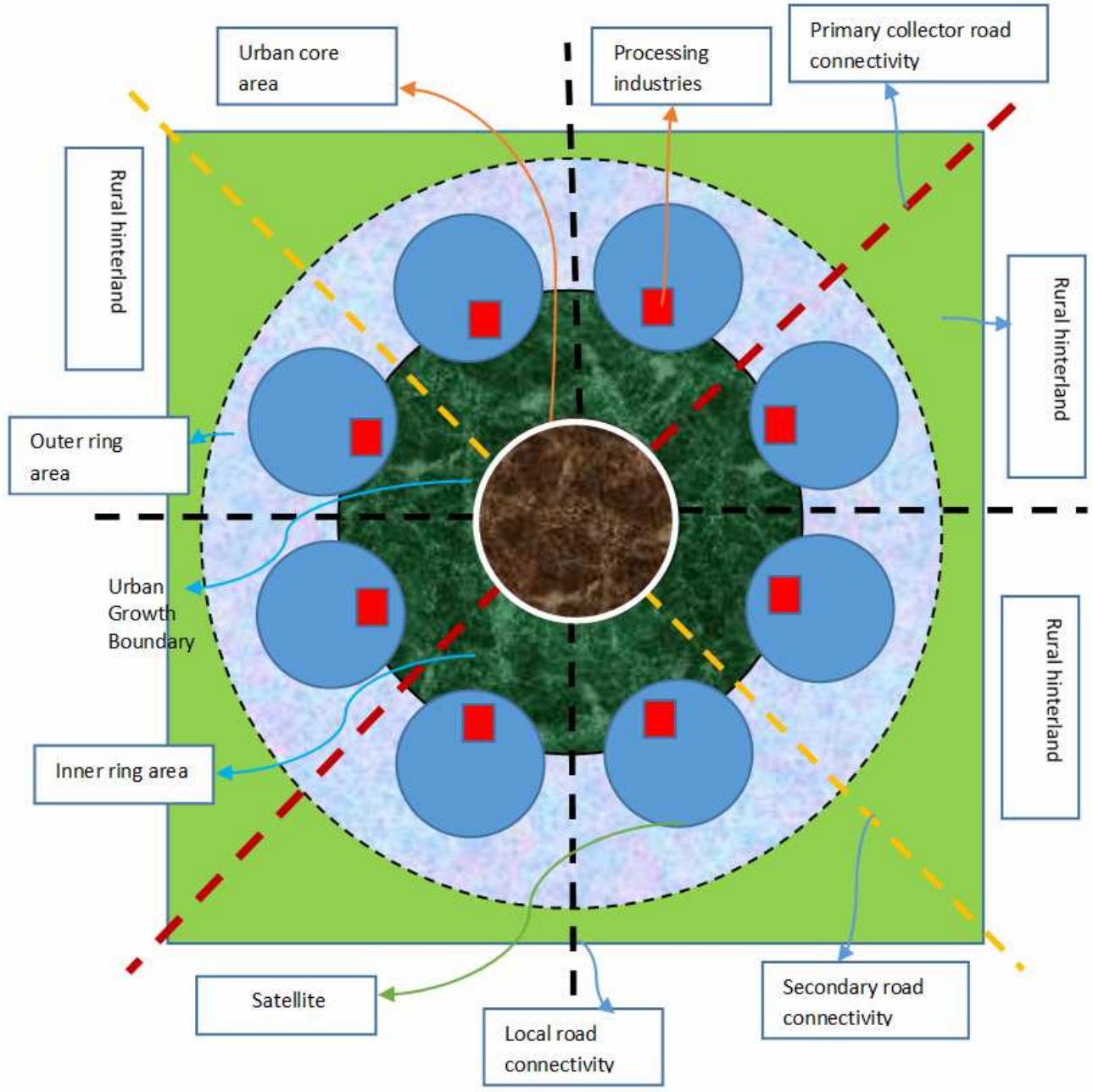

Fig. 1. Neo-mercantile spatial model for urban region development *(source: Okeke 2015, p. 330)*.

The standard measure for TE-cities is the Time-Efficient coefficient (hereafter referred to as TE-coefficient). The TE-coefficient measures the strategic position of a city to moderate tradeable services. This measure, which indicates the 'Time-Efficient effect' in city planning, considers the opportunity cost of spatial systems for trade relations, the polarizing of trade relations, and the links, relationships, and distributive networks between hierarchies of settlements. The 'Time-Efficient effect' classifies the time efficiency of cities to move goods and services in the cybernetic space. Given the efficiency of cities, many national and international development corridors and growth triangles are feasible in Africa (e.g., Maputo-Gauteng Development Corridor, Kinshasa-Brazzaville Mega Urban Region) for global mercantilism. However, presently, most of the existing corridors serve as conduits for Euro-American and Chinese mercantilism (see Okeke, 2015; 2016). The TE-coefficient derives from time-efficient properties such as congruity of land

use and channel space for accessibility that aids the functional flow of distributive networks. Overall, there are two approaches for determining the TE-coefficient, namely the statistical and theoretical approaches. As indicated in Okeke's (2015) study, the statistical approach of calculating time-efficient coefficient consists of three phases, identified as follows:

Phase one – identification of k independent variables: X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, … X_k.

Phase two – put the variables in standard scale using the formula:

$$Y_i = \frac{X_i - \overline{X_i}}{S_i}$$

where:

Y_i = the i th standardized variable, i = 1, … ,k

X_i = the i th variable, i = 1, … ,k

$\overline{X_i}$ = Mean value of X_i

S_i = Standard deviation of X_i

Phase three – a principal component analysis on the $Y_i S_i$ from which the first component score can be obtained and is mathematically represented as:

$$TE = w_1y_1 + w_2y_2 + w_3y_3 + w_4y_4 + \dots w_ky_k,$$

where:

T_E = TE-coefficient (weighted mean of the standardized variables), and w_1, w_2, … w_k are the weights such that $w_1 + w_2 \dots + w_k = 100\%$.

However, it is noteworthy that the coefficient derived from the statistical approach 'will only make sense if the first principal component explains a substantial percentage of the total variance of the standardized variables' (Okeke, 2015, p. 333).

The theoretical approach of determining the TE-coefficient requires rigorous scientific studies in mathematical sciences that indicates factor analysis of the temporal frame of cities. Shiode (2000) draws attention to the corelation and causality of the factors of cyber-communication and transportation with spatial integration. Already, transportation studies for integration in the urban spatial system are underway, as indicated by Okosun (2013), cited by Okeke (2016). Some scholars including Batty (2003) and Pettit (2002) are already working towards efficient urban spatial systems. This research direction is critical for the delivery of TE-cities.

4. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper is to make the case for an alternative hypothesis of world cities for Africa. The reason is because cities in Africa barely share the global perception of world cities. They exist outside the framework of mainstream capitalist development, which undermines their integration into the global economy. Their predicament is mainly due to alterations that restructured cities in Africa since the mid-20th century and the restructuring is a continuous process and it is not clear if the alterations leading to the restructuring is reversible. Already at the turn of the third millennium the process leads to the informalization of cities. The informal city has no place or function in global economy (Onyebueke, 2011). The critical question is what hypothesis of world cities is suitable for Africa? It is against this backdrop that this paper aims to suggest the hypothesis of world cities that makes sense of African realities.

The paper engaged two major research activities. The first was the desktop review of alterations that restructure African cities and their space economy. The second was the empirical perception study of the reversibility of variables that retain African cities as imperial structures outside the mainstream of capitalist development. The alterations were found to be resilient, but the variables responsible for the restructuring are reversible. These research finding that shows changes are possible confirms the prospect of postulating an alternative hypothesis of world cities for Africa.

The changes envisaged for the postulation are in three directions including the development ideology, the development hypothesis, and the planning instrument. A neo-Africanist ideology (e.g., the neo-mercantile development ideology) that will reset the mindset for development in favour of Africanist planning mandate and integration planning with spatial principles. In addition, reversions to introverted model of space economy as development hypothesis, and to creative planning as planning paradigm.

The paper considered worldwide city hypothesis of world cities for Africa (presumably greater Africa that consists of Africans in the Diaspora and Africans in the homeland). The worldwide city concept is a brand of borderless cities. Its hypothesis share postulations in global, pan-African, and cultural perspectives. This paper considers two postulations of the global perspective of the worldwide city of worldwide city that is, as time-efficient centers for robust global mercantilism (marketing), and as growth centers with integrated space economy that generates tradeable services. Both postulations are used to espouse the TE-city model that represents the critical mass of the worldwide city concept.

The novelty of the TE-city model bears on its urbanity (form) that extends beyond the built-up limits of the city to incorporate city-satellites that give polycentric structure to cities as growth centers for production economy. Besides, the introduction of time element in integration planning for TE-cities that is

meant to enhance functional flow and production efficiency of urban Africa is yet another novelty of the city model.

What we present is the preliminary stages of conceptualizing the worldwide city hypothesis and not the postulation of a comprehensive theory. The framework we provide requires further research in six thematic directions that include the alternative African development ideology, the integration planning protocol, the Diaspora financial mechanisms, the TE-city concept, the theoretical approach of determining TE-coefficient, and the properties of the TE-coefficient. The 'worldwide-city' hypothesis as an alternative model of global city for Africa draws from an empirically-based argument, and not from ideological hope. We are optimistic that it is a positive way forward. As Kofi Annam, the late Secretary-General of United-Nations, asserts, 'optimism is not romanticism; rather it tempers realism even as we strive continuously for improvements in the human condition' (cited in Amoako, 2018, p. 1).

REFERENCES

Amoako K. Y. (2018), Kofi Annan's quest for a better Africa. African Arguments. URL: https://africanarguments.org/2018/09/kofi-annan-quest-better-africa/

Baeten G. (2012), Neoliberal Planning: Does It Really Exist? In: Tasan-Kok T., Baeten G. (eds) Contradictions of Neoliberal Planning. GeoJournal Library, 102, 205-211. Springer, Dordrecht. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-90-481-8924-3_11

Batty M. (2003), The emergency of cities' complexity and urban dynamics (CASA Working Paper Series 64). Centre for Advanced Spatial Analysis: London, UK. URL: https://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/id/eprint/231

Bibangambah J. R. (1992), Macro-level constraints and the growth of the informal sector in Uganda. In: Becker J., Pedersen P. (eds.), The rural-urban interface in Africa. Uppsala. The Scandinavian Institute for African Studies. 303-313. ISBN 91-7106-329-3. URL: https://agris.fao.org/agris-search/search.do?recordID=SE9310676

Blair T. (1971), Shelter in urbanising and industralising Africa. In: Oliver P. (Ed.), Shelter in Africa (pp. 226–239). Barrie and Jenkins. ISBN-10: 0214652610

Boloka G. M. (1999), African Renaissance: A quest for (un)attainable past. Critical Arts, 13(2), 92-103. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1080/02560049985310151

Cilliers J. (2020), Africa first! Igniting a growth revolution. Johannesburg & Cape Town: Jonathan Ball Publishers. ISBN: 978-1-77619-030-0

Cossa J. A. (2009), African renaissance and globalization: a conceptual analysis. Ufahamu: a Journal of African Studies 36(1). DOI:https://doi.org/10.5070/F7361009576

Coquery-Vidrovitch C. (1991), The Process of Urbanization in Africa (From the Origins to the Beginning of Independence). African Studies Review, 34, 1–98. DOI: https://doi.org/10.2307/524256

Davidson B. (1978), Discovering Africa's Past. Longman. London. 87-111. ISBN: 978-0582220492

Davidson B. (1966), African Kingdoms. Time-Life Books. New York. URL: https://www.worldcat.org/title/african-kingdoms/oclc/414035

Dawkins C. J. (2003), Regional development theory: conceptual foundations, classic works, and recent developments. Journal of Planning Literature, 18(2), 131-172. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1177/0885412203254706

Dembele D. M. (1998), Africa in the twenty-first century. In: 9th General Assembly CODESRIA Bulletin. ISSN 0850-8712

Denyer S. (1978), African Traditional Architecture: An Historical and Geographical Perspective. Africana Publishing Company. New York. ISBN-13: 978-0841902879

Dovi E. (2008), Boosting domestic savings in Africa. URL: http://www.un.org/africarenewal/magazine/october-2008/boosting-domestic-savings-africa. Accessed on: 28.11.2015

Economic Commission for Africa (2016), MDGs to Agenda 2063/SDGs; Transition Report 2016. Towards an integrated and coherent approach to sustainable development in Africa. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. ISBN 978-99944-68-69-0. URL: https://au.int/sites/default/files/pages/32828-file-mdg-sdg_transition_report_summary_en_1.pdf

Enwegbara O. (2015), Is this the end of neoliberalism in Nigeria? Punch Newspaper (A Nigerian Newspaper). April 16, 2015

Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) (2001), Report on the Launching of The Global Campaign for Good Urban Governance in Nigeria. Federal Ministry of Works and Housing. Abuja, Nigeria. URL: https://news.un.org/en/story/2001/04/2612-nigeria-un-habitat-agency-launches-campaign-promote-good-governance

Friedmann J. (1972), A General Theory of Polarized Development. In: Hansen, N.M., Ed., Growth Centers in Regional Economic Development, The Free Press, New York, 82-107

Friedmann J., Wolff G. (1982), World City formation: an agenda for research and action. International Journal of Urban and Regional Research, 309-344. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2427.1982.tb00384.x

Friedmann J. (1986), The World City Hypothesis. Development and Change, 17, 69-83. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7660.1986.tb00231.x

Gatarić D., Belij M., Đerčan B., Filipović D. (2019), The origin and development of Garden Cities – An overview. DOI: 10.5937/zrgfub1901033G

Ghorbani F., Khiali R., Zarankesh J. V., Mosafarei F., Sadegh A. P., Gholami D., Dehghan M. R. (2013), Impact of ICT on Urban Design. Singaporean Journal of Business Economics and Management Studies 1 (12): 75-84. URL: https://www.singaporeanjbem.com/pdfs/SG_VOL_1_(12)/7.pdf

Hawksley C. (2004), Conceptualizing Imperialism in the 21st century. Paper presented at the 2004 Australian Political Studies Association Conference at the University of Adelaide. URL: https://www.adelaide.edu.au/apsa/docs_papers/Others/Hawksley.pdf. Accessed on: 26.11.2015.

Hicks J. (1998), Enhancing the productivity of urban Africa. World Bank conference paper, International Conference Research Community for the Habitat Agenda. Linking Research and Policy for the Sustainability of Human Settlement, Geneva, July, 6-8.

International Monetary Fund (IMF) (1993), World economic outlook. IMF. Washington D. C. ISBN: 9781557752864

Jenkins P. (2009), African Cities: Competing Claims on Urban Land. In: African Cities; Competing Claims and Urban Spaces, edited by F. Locatelli and P. Nugent, 81–107. Leiden: Brill. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1163/ej.9789004162648.i-308.29

Kerlinger F. N., Lee H. B. (2000), Foundation of behavioral research. Fourth ed. Wadsworth, USA. ISBN: 0534610293

Kessel W. M. J. van (2002), In search of an African Renaissance; an agenda formodernisation, neo-traditionalism or Africanisation. Quest: An African Journal of Philosophy, 15(1/2), 43-52. URL: https://scholarlypublications.universiteitleiden.nl/access/item%3A2871177/download

Kimenyi M. S. (2014), Harnessing Africa's emerging partnerships. Africa Growth Initiative - The Brookings Institution. URL: https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/10-foresight-africa-emerging-partnerships-1.pdf

Kipfer S., Goonewarda K. (2004), Cities and Imperialism. Canadian Politics, 38(4). URL: https://canadiandimension.com/articles/view/cities-and-imperialism-stephan-kipfer-and-kanishka-goonewarda

Majekodunmi A., Adejuwon K. D. (2012), Globalization and African Political Economy: the Nigerian experience. International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences. 2(8), 189-206.URL: https://hrmars.com/papers_submitted/9255/globalization-and-african-political-economy-the-nigerian-experience.pdf

Lozano E. E. (1990), Community design and the culture of cities: the crossroad and the wall. Cambridge University Press. ISBN: 100521380677, 0521389798.

Macleod S., McGee T. G. (1996), The Singapore-Johore-Riau Growth triangle: An emerging extended metropolitan region. In Lo, F. Yeung, Y. (eds.) Emerging world cities in Pacific Asia. United Nations University Press. Tokyo New York Paris. URL: https://archive.unu.edu/unupress/unupbooks/uu11ee/uu11ee00.htm

Matunhu J. (2011), A critique of modernization and dependency theories in Africa: critical assessment. African Journal of History and Culture, 3(5), 65-72. URL: https://academicjournals.org/article/article1381858116_Matunhu.pdf

Metternich G. (2017), Land-use planning. Global Land Outlook Working Paper. United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD). URL: https://knowledge.unccd.int/sites/default/files/2018-06/6.%20Land+Use+Planning+__G_Metternicht.pdf

Mohammadzadeh M. (2011), Neo-liberal planning in practice: urban development with/without a plan(A post-structural investigation of Dubai's development). Paper Presented in Track 9 (Spatial Policies and Land Use Planning) at the 3rd World Planning Schools Congress, Perth (WA), 4-8 July 2011.URL: https://www.academia.edu/705513/Neo_liberal_planning_in_practice_urban_development_with_without_a_plan_A_post_structural_investigation_of_Dubai_s_development_

Nabudere D. W. (2003), Towards a new model of production – an alternative to NEPAD. 14th Biennial Congress of AAPS. Durban: South Africa. URL: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/265668967_TOWARDS_A_NEW_MODEL_OF_PRODUCTION-_AN_ALTERNATIVE_TO_NEPAD. Accessed on: 8.07.2011.

Nmehielle V. O. (2003), The African Union and African renaissance: a new era for human rights protection in Africa? Singapore Journal of International & Comparative Law (7), 412–446. URL: http://www.commonlii.org/sg/journals/SGJlIntCompLaw/2003/16.pdf

Okeke D. C. (2015), An analysis of spatial development paradigm for enhancing regional integration within national and its supporting spatial systems in Africa. URL: dspace.nwu.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10394/15485/Okeke_DC.pdf. Accesed on: 19.06.2016.

Okeke D. C. (2016), Integrated Productivity in Urban Africa: Introducing the Neo-Mercantile Planning Theory. The Urban Book Series, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-41830-8

Okeke D. C., Nwachukwu M. U. (2019), Resilient Cities for New Regionalism in Africa. Journal of Interior Designing and Regional Planning, 4(3), 10–26. DOI: http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3459178

Okeke D. C., Ukonze I. (2019), Conceptualizing urban space (environment) for the delivery of sustainable urban development in Africa: evidence from Enugu City in Nigeria. Land Use Policy, 87, 104074.DOI: 10.1016/j.landusepol.2019.104074

Okeke D. C. (2021), Prospects for sustainable urban development in Africa – (re)viewed from planning perspective, International Planning Studies, 26(2). DOI: https://doi.org/10.1080/13563475.2020.1785278

Okeke D. C., Cilliers E. J., Schoeman C. B. (2018), Neo-mercantilism as development ideology - a conceptual approach to rethink the space economy in Africa. African Studies 77(1) March.DOI: https://doi.org/10.1080/00020184.2017.1390912

O**nyebueke V. U.** (2011), Place and function of African cities in the Global Urban Network: exploring matters arising. Urban forum, 22,1-21.DOI: https://doi.org/10.1007/s12132-010-9097-2

Pettit C. T. (2002), Land use planning scenarios for urban growth: A case study of approach. PhD thesis, Centre for research into sustainable urban and regional futures, School of geography, Planning and Architecture, University of Queensland. URL: http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.137.5406&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Rakodi C. (1997), Global forces, urban change, and urban management in Africa. In: Carole, R. (ed), The urban challenge in Africa: Growth and management of its large cities. United Nations University Press. TOKYO NEW YORK PARIS. URL: https://archive.unu.edu/unupress/unupbooks/uu26ue/uu26ue06.htm

Sassen S. (1991), The Global City: New York, London, Tokyo.Princeton University Press. ISBN: 0-691-07063-6

Shiode N. (2000), Urban Planning, Information Technology, and Cyberspace. Journal of Urban Technology, 7(2), 105-126. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1080/713684111

Simone A. (1998), Urban processes and change in Africa. CODESRIA Working Papers 3/97 Senegal. ISBN: 1904855229

Tawfik R. M. (2008), NEPAD and African development: towards a new partnership between development actors in Africa. African Journal of International Affairs, 11(1), 55-70.DOI:10.4314/ajia.v11i1.57260

Taylor P. J. (2004), World City Network: a Global Urban Analysis. London: Routledge. ISBN: 0415302498

The Cities Alliance (2006), Foundations for Urban Development in Africa: the Legacy of Akin Mabogunje. Washington, DC. USA. URL: https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/482851468202163524/pdf/481540WP0urban10Box338889B01PUBLIC1.pdf

UN-HABITAT (1996), An Urbanizing World: Global Report on Human Settlement. London: Oxford University Press. URL: https://mirror.unhabitat.org/downloads/docs/GRHS.1996.0.pdf

VENTURES AFRICA (2014), Africa's Underdog Cities: the new frontier. DOI: http://venturesafrica.com/africas-underdog-cities-the-new-frontier/. Accessed on: 17.04.2019.

Williams B. A. (1978), A sampler on sampling. New York: Wiley.

Appendix A

Table A1. Questionnaire on variables that sustain the colonial nature of cities in Africa

Respondent category (Mark **X** in the category where you belong)
Professionals (Consultant Planners/Engineers/Architects)
Policy makers (Administrators)
Researchers

Question:
How reversible are the under listed variables that sustain the colonial (imperial) nature of cities in Africa? There is no right or wrong answer. Your honest view is what is required.

Category of variables	Variables	Strongly reversible	Reversible	Neutral	Not reversible	Strongly not reversible
Meta-theoretical	Globalization (meaning global approach to development)					
	Neoliberalism (private profitability in capitalist economy)					
	Imperialism (external control)					
	Development hypothesis (i.e. Infrastructure as basis for development)					
	Informalization (e.g. informal economy, informal planning, etc.)					
	Anti-generalization (meaning that different societies require different planning and development approaches)					
	Principle of particulars (i.e. the practice of focusing attention on isolated aspects of planning and development)					
	Western values/culture					
Theoretical	Project planning					
	Conceptual planning (i.e. Budget allocation)					
	Pragmatic planning (i.e. common sense planning)					
	Innovation (i.e. new approaches of development)					
	Techno-centrism (i.e. exploitative use of natural resources by rational means)					
Temporal	Exogenous economic activities (i.e. activities such as informal sector activities that promote foreign economy)					
	Informal cities					
	Consumer economy (i.e. economy that relies on buying and selling)					
	City space (i.e. the size of the city is limited to its built-up area)					
	Core-periphery development (i.e. urban-rural divide)					

Thank you.

Table A2. Frequency of perception for Meta-Theoretical Variables that sustain the colonial nature of cities

Variables	SR	R	NR	SNR	NE	Mean	S. D.
Globalisation	9	17	19*	8	7	2.2	1.2
Neoliberalism	7	22*	9	6	16	2.0	1.4
Imperialism	20	23*	12	2	3	2.9	1.1
Development hypothesis	13	15	16*	10	6	2.3	1.3
Informalization	7	31*	8	3	11	2.3	1.3
Anti-generalisation	12	21*	12	8	7	2.4	1.3
Principle of particulars	10	30*	7	3	10	2.5	1.3
Western values/culture	17*	15	11	2	15	2.3	1.5
Aggregate of Preferred Perception	**1**	**5**	**2**	**-**	**-**		

*Preferred perception. NE – Neutral; SNR – Strongly not reversible; NR – Not reversible; R – Reversible; SR – Strongly reversible. *Source: Researcher's Survey, 2020.*

Table A3. Frequency of perception for Theoretical Variables that sustain the colonial nature of cities

Variables	SR	R	NR	SNR	NE	Mean	S. D.
Project planning	10	22*	16	2	10	2.3	1.3
Conceptual planning	11	28*	11	5	5	2.6	1.1
Pragmatic planning	11	25*	9	1	14	2.3	1.4
Innovation	15	23*	9	4	9	2.5	1.3
Techno-centrism	11	20*	10	5	14	2.2	1.4
Aggregate of Preferred Perception	**-**	**5**	**-**	**-**	**-**		

*Preferred perception. NE – Neutral; SNR – Strongly not reversible; NR – Not reversible; R – Reversible; SR – Strongly reversible. *Source: Researcher's Survey, 2020.*

Table A4. Frequency of perception for Temporal Variables that sustain the colonial nature of cities

Variables	SR	R	NR	SNR	NE	Mean	S. D.
Exogenous economic activities	14	25*	12	1	8	2.6	1.3
Informal cities	12	21*	9	4	14	2.2	1.5
Consumer economy	15*	15	11	9	10	2.3	1.4
City space	16	24*	9	1	10	2.8	1.4
Core-periphery development	10	26*	11	5	8	2.4	1.3
Aggregate of Preferred Perception	**1**	**4**	**-**	**-**	**-**		

*Preferred perception. NE – Neutral; SNR – Strongly not reversible; NR – Not reversible; R – Reversible; SR – Strongly reversible. *Source: Researcher's Survey, 2020.*