

Housing of Law-Income in Nigerian Cities: A Case of Urban Environmental Dereliction

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Abstract- *A majority of migrants in Nigerian urban centres originate from the rural areas. This category of people obviously falls within the relatively low-income bracket. The implication is that decent housing is not accessible to them as they arrive in the towns. But because they urgently need shelter, they have always resorted to constructing make-shift dwellings for themselves if they also do not have relatives/friends to put them up. It is not unusual to find some of them living anywhere “convenient” on the street or crowding into the “Sabon-Garis” of the urban areas. The problem is not just that migrants are exposed to a precarious residential life. It is also the impact of their modest effort at self-accommodation on the urban landscape, particularly, if one considers the high migrant content of the populations of Nigerian towns. The paper, which is based on case studies of migration and urbanization in selected urban centres of Nigeria, examines these issues from a housing quality perspective. Among the towns considered are Abeokuta, Auchi, Bassa, Enugu, Ibadan, Ile-Ife, Mangu, Lagos and Warri. A few suggestions are made in the light of some of the options available.*

Keywords: *housings, migrants, environmental dereliction, urban centres, housing.*

I. INTRODUCTION

Migration involves a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence, which is usually seen as a rational man's response to economic differentials between regions, though other non-economic factors which also induce migration have been established Olanrewaju, (2001); Sada, (2010). In that context, migration will refer to the permanent and/or seasonal movement of people from the source regions into towns and cities in search of fortune. The prime

mover being that chances are brighter (as perceived by the migrants) in the points of destination.

Towns and cities have, therefore been centres of attraction to other people living outside them particularly rural dwellers. The urban centres, thus, assemble people of varying skills. Those who are able to secure jobs and do well often find living in the city an enthusiastic experience. But a majority of migrants become disappointed when they end up with odd, poor or no jobs at all because the towns are in most cases centres of high unemployment rates Turner, (1972); (1957); Wahab, (1974) and Sada (1984). This is why these population growths “poles” tend to foster a wide range of social; and environmental problems like crime, poverty, crowding, unsanitary conditions, poor mental and physical health, ethnic tensions, noise, air and water pollution, solid waste and very importantly, inadequate transportation and housing (Miller, 1982). The housing of migrants in the urban centres has, most often, taken the form of self-constructed make-shift dwellings and/or crowding into dilapidated rental accommodation because decent housing is not accessible to them. Where friends or relatives exist to put them up, the migrants have always added to the pressure on the existing dwelling stock by raising the occupancy rates, sometimes to quite uncomfortable levels. In extreme cases, some of them can be found living under bridges, in uncompleted buildings or at motor parks.

This paper, therefore focuses on migrants and their housing within the Nigerian urban environment, not only, because they constitute a critical factor in

fueling our urban housing crisis, but also, because the “public-house-delivery” system (and by extension, the existing housing policy) does not seem to give them adequate protection. The paper aims, specifically, at highlighting the housing of migrants as a case of urban residential squalor from the point of view of housing quality, which is itself, considered here to be the product of housing demand and supply relations within the urban milieu.

II. THE HOUSING SITUATION IN THE URBAN ENVIRONMENT

HOUSING DEMAND

Housing demand, which is largely in terms of rental accommodation, has continued to increase in the urban centres primarily as a result of the continuous influx of non-residential migrants. For instance, Sada and Osirike (1984), in their study of Benin and Warri, found the population of rental accommodation to be “as much as 76% in Warri and slightly lower than 50% in Benin, reflecting the high migrant content of the population especially the low income class”. At the National level, there was an increase of as much as 7.7% in rental accommodation within the period 1978-1979 alone! Also, of the overall tenure status

estimated for the urban population, rental accommodation rose from 43.7% in 1979 to 42.2% in 1980 (Table 1). Abiodun (1984) puts the population of Ile-Ife at 250,000 in 1976, which was chasing a housing stock of not more than 14,110 units at the same period thus, giving a People: House ratio of about 18:1! Among those adversely affected by this situation were “hard-pressed migrants who invade the town in increasing numbers”.

Of the 378 respondents interviewed by the author of a study of housing conditions in two local government headquarters (Bassa and Mangu) in Plateau State, 137 or 36% constituted the migrant non-residential population Sati, (1985). The overall rental accommodation (i.e. including units occupied by tenants who did not describe themselves as migrants) for the two settlements was 62% of the total housing stock. Also, Adepoju (2010), in his study of Abeokuta, found that more than half of the households lived in rented accommodations. The study also revealed that “the bulk of migrants were rent-paying tenants; 81% compared with 34% for non-migrant households”.

Table 1. Nigeria-Rent Status (%) 1979-1980

Status	Nigeria					
	1978	1979	1980	Benin	Warri	Auchi
Normal	36.0	43.7	49.2	47.1	76.1	49.471
Free	13.0	17.3	15.9	6.8	6.4	-
Nominal	3.0	2.1	3.0	2.2	-	2.645
Other occupied	46.0	36.9	31.9	43.9	17.4	49.889

Source: Sada and Osirike, 1984. Case studies in Migration and Urbanization in Nigeria – Perspectives in policy Issues, p.2

It is therefore, clear from the foregoing that housing demand in the Nigerian urban environment is very high, a problem which is not only being fostered but also exacerbated by the continuous influx of migrants, mainly from rural areas. How have we fared in our effort to meet this challenge? We may thus, proceed to examine the state of the housing market vis-à-vis demand in our urban centres.

III. HOUSING SUPPLY

At this point, one could safely assume a strong but positive correlation between the amount of economic development within the towns and cities and the rate of influx of migrants into them since the principal motive for migrating at all has always been economic Olanrewaju, (2001); Wahab, (1974); Sada (2010); Adepoju, (2010); Adepoju, (2011). This being the case, it should be obvious why the housing demand in the Nigerian urban environment remains non-

elastic – there are always too many people chasing too few dwelling units, a situation which is itself an indictment of our approach to urban housing problems.

Intervention into our urban housing problems, particularly the shortfall supply, has always come from both government and private developers. Public intervention could take many forms, including direct construction, site development, provision of building materials at subsidized rates, financing and standard setting Mabogunje et al., (1978).

Many governments, particularly in developing countries, have always undertaken the direct construction of houses and the development of residential estates as means of checking housing problems in the urban environment. Examples are low cost (and “high” cost) housing programmes of both the federal and State governments of Nigeria. The aim has always been “to provide low-cost housing for the low income group”, but contrary to this laudable objective, these houses, when constructed, end up in the hands of middle and upper income groups Abdullahi and Aziz, (2010). This approach makes little or no impact on the problems. Instead, it tends to perpetuate them as it is those who are relatively better off in society and who need the houses less that benefit, to the total neglect of the less fortunate. It has not even been possible for government to meet the high demand for housing in the urban area by this means. For instance, less than 10% of the housing stock in Warri or Benin is accounted for by the government effort Sada, (1984). Yet, the few units constructed directly by government are usually priced well above the purchasing power of a majority of the target population, particularly rural urban migrants.

Site development is another approach to urban housing in which government provides the infrastructural facilities (roads, water supply, electricity, drainage and sewage systems) and a layout of plots for urban dwellers to buy and develop. Though it is difficult to say if this strategy has been incorporated into our urban planning system as a national housing policy, it has certainly been advocated. In fact, it would appear that some

government housing estates were developed partially based on this principle as attested to by the pattern and the network of access roads servicing them. Examples include the military barracks at Takum Gongola State; Shendam and Rukuba in Plateau state; Jaji, Kaduna state; etc. in countries where this approach is adopted, the effort is, however, usually aimed at ensuring orderly urban development rather than meeting housing needs. Moreover, the planned and serviced layouts tend to be the exclusive preserve of the middle and upper-middle groups only. As noted by Mabogunje et al., (1978), it has not always been convenient for many governments either to develop such sites or to provide them on a scale appropriate to the magnitude of the problem, even though the same approach has been accepted as a means of enhancing environmental conditions in low income residential districts.

In terms of finance, little progress has been made in improving the housing supply situation in the urban areas. This is because access to finance is the more crucial problem. The stringent conditions imposed by lending institutions like guarantee of loan repayment through presentation of collateral security, generally puts more conventional sources of credit for house construction out of reach of low income worker, not to talk of poor, unemployed rural urban migrants. This only goes to compound the problems of ignorance and public apathy about housing loan facilities offered by banks. For instance, about 47% of the inhabitants of Bassa and Mangu in Plateau state had by 1985, applied for housing loans from banks but were not successful because they could not meet all the conditions imposed by the banks; 28% had never applied because they were scared of the conditions attached; while 23% were not even informed about the processes involved in obtaining a house loan. Only 1% of the people considered had actually benefited from a housing loan scheme of any sort Sati, (1985, p.107).

The main objective of standard setting in the provision of housing should be to protect the low-income non-residential population of the city from greedy landlords who have taken advantage of the high demand for housing in this area to produce rapidly some form of shelter or sub-divide

continuously existing structures – against all requirements for hygienic living, safety or privacy – for which they charge exorbitant rents. But in developing countries; including Nigeria, this approach appears to have been employed as a means of checking the encroachment of lower levels of shelter provision, which are affordable to a majority of the urban population, upon the high-quality residential districts of the minorities in these countries.

One manifestation of the growing failure of Nigerian towns and cities to meet the expectations of their inhabitants is, therefore, the ever-increasing shortfall in housing supply vis-à-vis demand, a situation which impinges seriously upon housing quality as exemplified by the growth of squatter settlements and overcrowded dwellings within the urban centres Mabogunje, (2011). Housing is thus, inadequate for a majority of urban dwellers, particularly rural-urban.

IV. HOUSING QUALITY

While rural-urban migration keeps the urban population growing at a much faster rate than the increase in new dwelling units, the rents charged on the few available units are usually prohibitive to the relatively poor migrants. They, therefore, either go for cheap, but low quality, housing or erect make-shift dwellings for themselves, and in extreme cases, sleep under bridges or anywhere “convenient” on the street. For those of them who prefer providing their own shelter no matter how crude, they have one other problem to contend with – land. In the urban centres, land is difficult to acquire not only because of the tedious processes involved Pearson, (1963) but also as a result of the socio-cultural factors governing the land tenure system, the Land Use Decree of 1978 notwithstanding. Even where the migrants are able to get land eventually, the system has tended to push them to the periphery of the towns where this precious “urban” resource might not only be available but cheaper. But “these rural-urban fringe slums constitute a menace to the city, not only because they provide hide-outs for criminals but also because they constitute health hazards to the urban population” Sada, (1973).

The production of rural-type dwellings in an urban setting, therefore, has its problems. It has induced the proliferation of slums as the migrants, who are mainly responsible for this phenomenon, are usually “widely dispersed in all the neighborhoods (of the city) with varying concentrations”. But what options do the migrants have? The price of building materials is usually not within the reach of a majority of them thus, anything goes for a construction material, the most common being mud, grass and abandoned old corrugate iron sheets.

Perhaps, it is necessary to add also that it is no longer possible in these days of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), to get these apparently simple and “less useful” items free of charge or even at token prices – they are now ‘essential commodities’.

Urban slums anywhere in the world are characterized by old, highly compacted, poorly constructed dwellings lacking public services. Most often mud and/or discarded building materials and other solid waste are used for their construction. Population density in such areas is also, always relatively very high. Here too are to be found all sorts of crimes and social vices. Nigerian examples include Bulabulum and Gonge areas of Maiduguri; Ajegunle in Lagos; large parts of Kakuri, Nassarawa, Kabala and Sabon Tash in Kaduna; Ibiwe in Benin, parts of Sabon Gari, Jakara, Gwommaja, Gyadigyadi and Kurnain Kano; Ogbete in Enugu; Diobu in Port Harcourt; Elekuro in Ibadan; and Tudun wada traditional area, Kongo, Angwan Rogo, Gangare and parts of Laranto in Jos. For instance, a survey of selected slums in Lagos, Ibadan, Benin and Enugu by the Nigerian Institute for Social and Economic Research (NISER) in 1982 revealed that 64.0% of the total number of dwelling structures in Ajegunle had mud walls. The figures for Ibiwe, Elekuro and Ogbete were 98.0%, 95.6% and 81.5% respectively (Table 2). Also, 35.2% of the buildings were found to be over 50 years old in Ibadan while this was 29.2% for Benin (Table 3). A study by the author in 1985 revealed that the migrant component of the populations of both Bassa and Mangu towns in Plateau State had the following housing characteristics: 72% were occupying unplastered blocks; 82% were living in grass-thatched houses; dwelling units of 71% were dilapidated; 32%

obtained their water from open sources like streams and ponds; 55% had wells; and only 13% were using pipe-borne water. Also, 89% were using pit latrine; 40% had no bathrooms in the house; 50% had no kitchen, those that were sharing facilities constituted 50% and 42 % for shared bathroom and kitchen respectively. From these results it is obvious that the

housing quality of migrants is among the lowest in the urban centre, at least in terms of the variables assessed in the area of study. According to Onokerhoraye (1988), “40% of the dwellings in the selected areas of the four cities (surveyed by NISER) had no kitchen, toilet or bathroom.”

TABLE 2: Construction Materials of Dwelling Units in selected slums of Nigerian Urban Centres (% of Total)

Construction Materials	Lagos	Ibadan	Benin	Enugu
Sand-Crete block wall/Galvanized Iron Sheets or asbestos roof	10.9	1.0	2.0	3.5
Cement- rendered mud wall/ G.I. or asbestos roof	23.0	20.3	15.5	10.5
Mud wall/G.I. or asbestos roof	25.8	70.1	82.5	46.0
Mud wall/thatch roof	15.2	5.2	0.0	25.0
Make-Shift wooden wall/G.I. or asbestos roof	20.0	2.5	0.0	15.0
Others	5.1	0.9	0.0	2.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SADA & ADEMERO, eds. 1988. Environmental issues and Management in Nigerian Development, Evans Brothers (Nigeria Publishers) Limited. p.125

Table 3: Age Structure of Dwelling Units in Selected Slum

Age of Dwelling Units	Lagos	Ibadan	Benin	Enugu
Less than 5 years	15.2	8.8	3.6	12.5
5-10 years	42.5	11.2	12.6	10.5
11-20 years	21.2	10.1	10.0	25.0
31-50 years	5.0	20.4	26.8	10.0
Over 50 years	1.0	35.2	29.2	11.5

Source: SADA & AEMERO, eds. 1988. Environmental Issues and Management in Nigeria Development. Evans Brothers Nigeria Publishers Ltd., p.125

Another aspect of the housing problems given impetus by migration is the high occupancy rate not only within slums but also in the multiple rental housing units in other parts of the urban centers. The health hazards inherent in a situation where 3 or 4 persons live in a room of about 2.5m x 2.5m dimensions can best be imagined. Consequently, the existing dwelling structures deteriorate due to over use. By 1970/71, for instance about 72.5% of households in Lagos lived in one room apartments on the average of 4 persons per room; in Kano, 69.1% of the population living also in one room apartments on the average of 2.4 persons per room (Federal Office of Statistics, 1970/71 survey, Lagos. With the even increasing rate of urbanization in the country over the years, the dimension now assumed by this situation

in the areas mentioned is a matter of speculation for instance, more than 50% of the houses in Ajegunle (Lagos), Electro (Ibadan), Ibises (Benin) and Obese in Enugu had 3 or 4 persons per room, far above urban areas” (Table 4). Studies in Warri, Benin and Auchi have also revealed that” migrants in all cities tend to live in more overcrowded housing than non-migrants” Sada, (1984). For example, 65% of the low income group were found to have an occupancy rate of 3 or more persons per room. The rates for the middle and upper income classes were 66% and 41% respectively (Table5). But the situation was more serious in overcrowding was found to be as high as 76% other residential districts in the city with very high overcrowding ratios included Effurum east 78%; Okere- 72% Alderson 68% and Nelson Obahor-68%

Table 4. Average Number of Persons Per room in Selected Slum Areas (% of Total)

Average Number Persons per Room	Lagos	Ibadan	Benin	Enugu
1.0-1.9 Persons per room	13.0	11.0	19.8	19.0
2.0-2.9 Persons per room	25.5	31.5	28.2	21.6
3.0-3.9 Persons per room	61.5	57.5	52.0	59.4

Source: SADA AND ODEMERHO, eds. 1988. Environmental Issues and Management. In Nigerian Development, Evans Brothers (Nig. Publishers) Ltd. Ibadan, p.123.

Table 5: Average Number of People per Room

NIGERIA

Average No. of people/Room	Wages	Benin	Warri	Low-Income	Middle-Income	High Income
One	6.5	15.1	40.2	8.1	11.3	
Two	28.5	18.6	18.1	33.7	32.6	
Three	23.4	23.2	16.1	32.9	24.6	
Four	25.3	25.5	13.7	14.5	16.2	
Five or more	16.3	17.6	11.9	10.9	15.3	

Source SADA, P.O. & OSIRIKE, A.B. 1984. Case Studies in Migration and Urbanization in Nigeria-Perspectives in Policy Issues. University of Benin, p.124.

The ratio for Benin as a whole was 58%, and notable area of high rate of overcrowding here include Ibiwe, Urubi, Ugbeku, Ogbelaka, Eruekpen, Okedo, and Ogboka. Thus as Sada rightly notes, the data on Warri and Benin further “illustrate the fact that Nigeria’s housing problem is both in quality and quantity” “This is particularly true as further corroborated by Sati (1985) study of Bassa and Mangu which reveled and overall rate of overcrowding of 72% for the two towns (Table 6). We may recall that 36% of the households examined in that study were migrants.

Table 6: Average Number of Persons Per Room in Both Bassa and Mangu (1985)

Average number of persons per Room	Number of Observations	Percentage of Total
2.0 or less persons per room	23	6.0
2.1-2.5 persons per room	83	22.0
2.6-3.0 persons per room	83	22.0
3.1-3.5 persons per room	85	23.0
3.6 -4.0 persons per room	50	13.0
Over 4 persons per room	54	14.0

Source: Author’s Field Survey, August-September 1985

The present state of housing quality in urban centers, therefore, graphically represents the numerous efforts of non-residential migrants, particularly those from rural areas, to provide themselves with shelter as they arrive in the towns and cities. It is “the modest but admittedly unattractive” attempts at self-accommodation by this segment of the urban population that continues to metamorphosis into and aggravate the hybrid of housing problems being experience within the Nigerian urban environment.

V. WHAT ARE THE OPTIONS?

We have already examined some of the problems and prospect associated with four of the five approaches to tacking the urban housing problem, namely: direct construction, option is the provision of building

materials to prospective owner occupiers at subsidized rates.

The approach basically involves giving assistance, especially to the low-income groups by providing them with building materials at subsidized rates for the construction of their dwellings. It is viewed here as a more radical option because it touches directly on the problems by creating an ample but more genuine opportunity for home-ownership for the vast majority of the urban poor. It should also lead to improvement on housing quality /living condition of non- residential migrant who must rent their accommodation when landlord purchase house construction material at lower price we may note here that the escalating price of these material have always provided a convenient excuse for the Greedy landlord to fix rent for house far above what may reasonable be considered (by any standard) to be fair rates. In facts the strategy (of subsidizing building materials) forms an integral part of government policy on housing in both Tanzania and Zambia Mabogunje et al., (1978). However, in as this remains a more effective approach to tackling urban housing problems and should be adopted in Nigeria, one must be sound a note of warning here – we may have to content with constraint such as high level and widespread corruption, one cancerous manifestation of our status as a developing nation. The performance of the defunct Nigeria national supply company (NNSC) and its state counterpart (the type of forum through which this policy could be effectively implement) are bitter testimonies of this fact. State cooperative shop also known as distribution agencies in some areas are as mere mockery of what government conceived in the policy objective establishing them.

The establishment of a housing cooperative movement has been persistently advocated in the country over the years but hardly implement. Rather, emphasis is being place on the use of expensive building material some of which have to be imported to construct public buildings such as ministers quarters and some other government housing estate little attention is giving to improving local materials particular those derived from the renewal resources (wood and bamboo for example) to be fair however

the effort of government through the Nigerian mining corporation (NMC) to complete the research into possibility of (and actually) producing locally made building materials like burnt bricks whose raw material are available locally is a noteworthy ventures. Similar efforts are being made by some state government (e.g. plateau state, through its ceramics industries). But it must be pointed out that such efforts have only scratched the surface. The problems is that majority of urban dwellers cannot afford these homemade materials. Even where they can be purchase it appears that the limited technology behind their proper utilization in building construction in the country at present deters many from acquiring them. This perhaps explain why only relatively few house built with burnt bricks and similar other materials are visible on the street even in the larger cities with the privatization syndromes currently afflicting the nation which means little or no government participation in keys socio-economic sector things are bound to be further compounded in this regard.

However, to tackle housing problems in the Nigeria urban environment at their roots effort should be direct at the raising the socio-economic status of the urban poor. One way of doing this is through education, which would be not only improved skills but also raise, the level of awareness (especially as regard general environmental quality) among the members of this segment of the urban population. The mass literacy of programmers of some state government the present arrangement where the federal government virtual taken over the financing of the primary school education in the country and the apprenticeship programme of the national directors of the employment (NDE) are consistent with this strategy – only that he seems to have been restricted to higher school levels only. To consolidate the gains of the efforts just mentioned, the informal sector of the economy, which engages quite a large number of the urban poor (including those without special skills) should not only be encouraged but properly developed. This could, for example, be done through the establishment of a well-organized loan scheme for assisting small-scale private enterprises that employ both unskilled and semi-skilled poor urbanites. Here, an overhaul of the existing Small-

scale Industrial Credit Schemes (SICS) to make their activities more practically relevant to present trends is urgently required.

According to Zairul, (2017) that in developing countries, new strategy to support the effect is needed, he laments that the increase in price of construction, raw material resources, strategies of land and increase in land price in addition to the housing prices and issues of affordability, purchase are faced with inflexibility house designs and poor quality of the built houses. As regards the rural-urban migrants, major emphasis should be placed on rural development. The integrated rural development programme of both the Federal and State governments are in line with this approach

As regards the rural-urban migrants, major emphasis should be placed on rural development. The integrated rural development programme of both the Federal and State governments are in line with this approach. Here, the Directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) and the Mass.

Mobilization for Social Justice and Economic Reconstruction (MAMSER) become relevant. What is, perhaps, needed is a more purposeful orientation, sound co-ordination and proper execution of the programmes generally. Thus, a more radical approach to forestation as a means of halting desertification and soil-erosion, water supply development, better health services, education, electrification, population control through family planning and loan facilities to small scale farmers and businesses, rather than to large-scale enterprises, are all desirable within the rural environment. The expanded loan scheme for farmers and the newly introduced insurance programme of the Nigeria Agricultural and Cooperative Bank (NACB) are therefore, a timely foresight. Another progressive policy of the bank, recently incorporated into the package for farmers, is the relaxation of some of the stringent conditions governing the issues of collateral security. These laudable schemes should be pursued with efficiency and vigor so that the agricultural industry, which is the major employer of rural labour, is properly developed. This is because it is only when people are gainfully employed in an area (rural or urban) that they can experience the joy of living and thus, little or no tendency to want to emigrate.

Tertiary urbanization, where a tiered hierarchy of dynamic urban centers is identified and small towns within the hierarchy allocated “development investments such as wholesale distribution, warehousing, agro-industries, repair services, and traditional manufacturing industries such as pottery, bakeries, etc.”, have also been advocated Sada (1984). The approach is seen as being capable of: “providing intervening opportunities for migration and so reduce movement to the large cities; utilizing much of the rural labour for development in the rural areas, increasing rural incomes, expanding rural markets for urban economic system”.

The new national policy on education, which emphasizes vocational training, when implemented, will help arrest the situation (especially when DFRRI and MAMSER live up to expectation) where school graduates desert the countryside en-masse for bigger towns and cities. This, not only, provides an opportunity to nip in the bud the housing problems such migrants might create in the urban centers, but would also, enhance overall rural development.

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VI. CONCLUSION

The paper has examined the continuous movement of young adults and school graduates into Nigeria's urban centers as a result of existing regional socio-economic imbalances. This trend has led, not only, to what could be termed a local form of “brain” or perhaps, “man power drain” from the source regions, but has equally created a host of problems, one of the most important being housing problems, in the points of destination. Such housing problems range from high occupancy ration in single-room dwellings to the proliferation of large clusters of poorly constructed and badly serviced houses popularly referred to as slums.

Government has adopted a number of approaches to tackles these housing problems in the urban centre. These include direct construction of houses, site development, and financing and standard setting. But the bulk of the housing output comes from the private

sector. Despite these concerted efforts, however, our housing problems seem to be escalating by the day. Perhaps, government intension is good, but not in the way in which laudable programmes are executed.

Integrated rural development aimed at reducing the differences between town and village in terms socio-economic opportunities should therefore, be emphasized. This will help retain the migrants in the villages for effective rural development and also prevent a further deterioration of the already bad housing situation in the urban centers. Smaller towns should be developed as part of this effort) to offer interning opportunities for the larger city-bound migrants. It must, however, be stressed that government should demonstrate more concern about its programmes by ensuring that they are properly executed. There is, therefore, need for close supervision and monitoring of all urban housing schemes and rural-based development programmes. The ultimate panacea, however lies with the formulation and implementation of an incisive housing policy which practically and adequately accommodates the urban migrant.

The suggestions if professionally handle, the Urban Migrants (sometimes call the Low Income Households) as Zairul (2017) classifies them as Young Starters, Fresh Graduates or Low Income Earners, will benefit from the intervening opportunities, and it will reduce movement to the large cities, equally rural income will increase by utilizing the rural labour for development in the rural areas, which will finally expand the rural markets for urban products and effectively evolving an integrated rural-urban economic system, and globally the urban towns will take new shape. We must note, prevention is better than cure.

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