ADEQUACY OF INFRASTRUCTURE FACILITIES IN NIGERIA RURAL AREAS; EXAMPLE OF ONDO EAST LOCAL GOVERNMENT, ONDO STATE

Adewale Olufunlola Yoade[1], Olawunmi Rebecca Yoade[2] and Foluke Ayeni[3]

[1,2]Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Wesley University Ondo, Nigeria
[3]Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Federal Polytechnic Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria;
Corresponding author: yoadewale@yahoo.com

Abstract

There is no gain saying that infrastructure is vital in a community. However, one of the critical problems facing developing countries is the inadequate provision and maintenance of rural of infrastructure. This study therefore examined adequacy of infrastructure in Nigeria rural areas, using Ondo East local government as a case study. Both primary and secondary data was used for the study. The primary source of data collection involved reconnaissance survey, pilot study and structured questionnaire administered among the residents' of the area. Bothe descriptive and inferential statistics were used for this study. Findings on marital status reveals that majority (84.2%) of the respondents were married while few (15.8%) were single. The chi-square test between average income of the respondents and housing condition in the study area. The result shows that the chi-square (X^2) value of 34.333 was significant at p=0.000. This is an indication that residents' income determines the housing condition in the study area. The study concluded by show rationale for government and private interventions in the development of sound housing schemes for rural dwellers thereby providing goods basis for planning and policy formulation.

Key words: infrastructure, rural to urban linkage, expansion, rural development

INTRODUCTION

The rapid rate of urbanization and its attendant socio-economic and spatial consequences have been of tremendous concern especially to all professionals in human settlements and to policy makers and analysts (Bulus & Adefila, 2014, Lawal & Okeowo, 2014). It should be noted that the problem of urbanization in Nigeria is not necessarily that of the level but that of the rate. For example, while the level of urbanization in Nigeria is put at 36%, that of South Korea is 79%, Mexico 74% and Colombia 71% (Population Reference Bureau, 2001).

However, while the rate of urbanization in Seoul is 7.8%, Mexico City 5.5% and Bogota 5.4%, that of Lagos is 15% per annum (FGN, 1991). This rapidity in the rate of urbanization

is so overwhelming that it generally far exceeds the speed with which urban managers are able to respond to the dynamics of urbanization due to inadequate facilities, resources and capabilities at their disposal (Abumere, 2002, Madu, 2012).

It is a well-known fact that the major culprit for the rapid rate of urbanization is the rural-urban migration process. This process has been seriously intensified because of uncoordinated urban-regional interdependence, especially the lopsided attention given to the urban centers. Thus, the various spirited efforts by successive governments in Nigeria to stem the tide of rural-urban migration are not necessitated mainly by the desire for equity and justice in the distribution of the nations wealth, but by the rural areas improving their strategies of attracting attention by extending their problem fields to the urban theatre (Olatubara, 2000). The, resultant wide variety of the ensuing problems have been well documented and as noted in the National Urban Development Policy (1997), they include the following: Nigerian towns and cities are growing without adequate planning; the land, water, coastline, air and other natural assets are being rapidly polluted creating in the process a loss of valuable resources and difficulties for the inhabitants; millions of people live in substandard and sub-human environments plagued by slum, squalor and grossly inadequate social amenities. Essentially there is a consistent decay of the urban environment and impoverishment of rural areas neither of which is conducive to the healthy living of the populace (Olayiwola & Adeleye, 2005).

Housing sector is, perhaps, the first to be hit by the influx of peopie to the urban centers (Onibokun, 1985; Ama, 1989; Hamdi, 199]). Of particular significance is the observation that the rate of housing delivery falls short of the rate of urban growth and housing need. Agbola (1998) also notes that prevailing housing problems in Nigeria include the following: acute housing shortage, overcrowding and unsanitary living conditions; exorbitanf rent relative to income and the exploitative tendency of shylock landlords; the high rate of homelessness especially in the urban areas and the high rate of substandard housing both in the rural and urban areas.

Generally, with the increasing number of people in th urban centers, the housing sector is often the first obvious victim of the population influx. The most observed spontaneous response to solving the immediate quantitative housing problem is offered by the private sector. Over the years, this sector has dominated the urban housing market. The private investors are preoccupied with profitability. Therefore, in the seemingly chaotic struggle to adjust to housing shortages created by the population influx, the private developers tend to exploit the situation by providing housing at exorbitant prices to prospective house seekers, Invariably, majority of the houses provided by the private developers, besides being expensive, are deficient in providing the requisite minimum standards that make for a healthy and comfortable living (Oisasoje, & Ojeifo, 2012).

The urban managers are usually unable to respond to the rate of urbanization, and this has been the bottom line of many housing problems in Nigeria, both in qualitative and quantitative terms. If there is an effective programme to reduce the rate of urbanization in line with the available resources of the urban managers, most of the problems that arise due to pressure on housing and facilities would be reduced or eliminated.

Rural housing on the other hand, refers to a context of housing that is defined as rural (Amole, 1998). Rural housing connotes a social and cultural process by which an individual or group in a community acquires a territorial space to build a house, the method of building the house, of maintaining the house and its

14

surrounding space and facilities, and the relationship between household and immediate neighbours. Rural housing can also be described as an economic, social and cultural process which involves an intimate understanding of the basic socio-cultura1 and economic aspirations of the people. In other word, it is a process of socio-cultural and economic action for providing the shelter needs (requirements) emanating there from.

A lot of scholars have written on housing conditions in Nigeria (see Okpala 1982; Jinadu 2004; Agbola 2005; Olayiwola 2005; Aribigbola 2008 among others). Emphasis of these scholars has been on the Quantitative and Qualitative dimensions of housing including problem of urban renewal, shanty towns and squalid environment. This realization has also drawn attention of many other academics; both local and expatriates, to the urban renewal challenges facing Nigeria (Mabogunje, 1962 & 1968; Grebler, 1965; Onibokun, 1985; Agbola, 1987; Egunjobi, 1987; Olaore, 1987; Olokesusi, 1987; Fadamiro and Atolagbe, 2004; Olayiwola et al, 2005 and Jelili et al, 2006). However, the most serious and disappointing situation on housing studies is that emphasis of many scholars has centered on urban housing almost to the exclusion of rural communities.

In other words, literature is scanty on rural housing especially in Nigeria. The recallable and notable literature on rural housing in Nigeria is the documentation on rural housing need for south western Nigeria by Onibokun in 1982.This study in all its ramification is too general, outdated and lack spatial dimension. Therefore, this study is been carried out as an attempt to bridge the gap of dearth of information on the situation with respect to housing in the rural areas of Nigeria. It is on this note that attempt examined the problems and challenges of rural housing by positing the case of Ondo East local government area of Ondo state, Nigeria.

METHODOLOGY

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA

The study was conducted in Ondo East Local Government area of Ondo State. Ondo East Local Government is bounded by Edo and Delta States. Ondo East lives in the rainforest Zone of Nigeria. Majority of the inhabitants engage in agriculture. The population of the area is predominantly Yoruba speaking tribes. Arable crops such as maize, yam, rice, tomatoes, beans, plantain, cassava, and cash crops such as timber, cocoa, rubber, coolant, palm tree etc. are the major crops planted in the area (figure 1). There are two raining seasons, i.e. wet and dry season. The wet season commence from April and last in October, while dry seasons commence from November and last in March and there is august break, which is usually marked with a period of low rainfall (Lawal and Okeowo, 2014). The study was carried out in Ondo East Local Government area. The following villages: Ureje, Oboto, Igbo-oja, Ago Store and Lagbawo were visited.
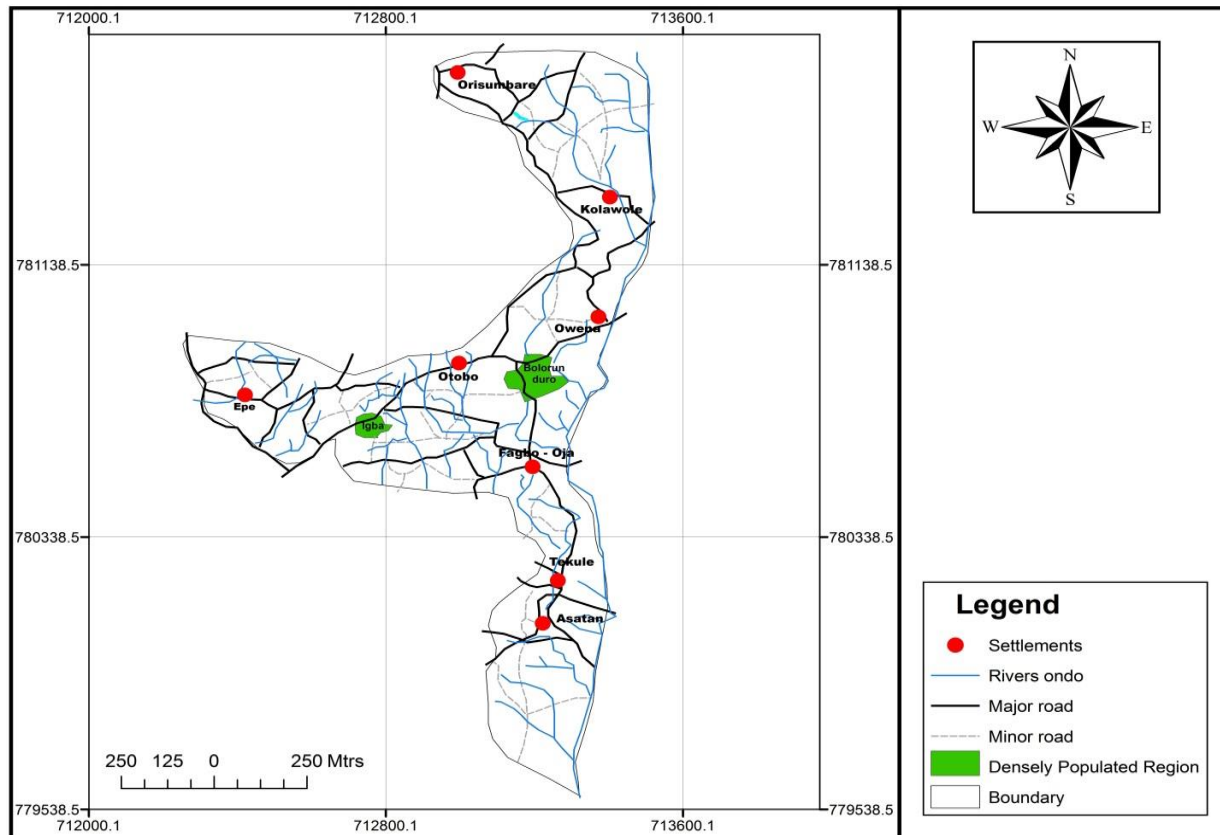
Figure 1. Map of Ondo East Local Government showing villages and towns
Source: Field Survey, 2018

Rural Housing

Rural community faced major problems which can be categories into two; the first problem is concerned with lack or inadequate infrastructural facilities such as water supply, road networks and accessibility, electricity, educational and health facilities and the likes. Secondly, another most important problem faced by the rural areas has to do with the qualitative housing inadequacies. This can be seen in terms of the quality of building materials, design features, neighborhood characteristics, quality of construction technique as well as lack of basic facility and equipment for convenient living such as sanitary services which includes toilet, bathroom cooking space, refuses disposal facilities and the likes (Toyobo, Muili & Adetunji, 2014).

Before the advent of the colonial rule at the dawn of the 20th Century, a communal system of housing delivering was practice in most Nigerian communities. Houses are built through communal efforts by peer groups, members of age group would turn out en masse on appointed day to assist the builder in whatever task of the project. In return, the builder would provide sumptuous meals while the project lasted and vice versa. This system continued up to 1928, and still lingers in some communities to date despite the disruption of the people's communitarian values by the westernization.

Rural Housing Quality

The quality of housing in rural parts of Nigeria may be looked at in two ways: (a) the condition of houses, and (b) the environment of the houses. In either (a) or (b), or both what the conditions appear to be may largely depend on

16

who is making 'the assessment or description -- that is, the status (social economic, educational, professional and cultural) of the person. n terms of cultural status, an urbanite will almost certainly describe the condition of a typical rural house as extremely woeful, worst, not fit for human habitation, dark, dull, lifeless, smoky and lacking in basic-facilities and highly recommended or demolition. If the person is a professional in the built environment, the comments may be harsher. Fathy (1973) describes housing condition in their farm in Egypt as consisting mud huts that are low, dark, dirty, no windows, no latrines, o clean water, cattle living practically in the same room with people. The housing condition in England from the 1600s through the I800s where "poor people lived in one- or two room hovels that were airless and windowless" (Altman and Chemers, 1980).

A typical ruralite (especially one that has lived all his/her life in a rural environment) will almost certainly describe the condition of housing in his/her village or the small and unpolluted town as fantastic, lively, pleasant, safe and very good if not excellent. The reason is simple: that rural house and its surrounding environment meets his/her needs in full: low occupancy rate; quantitatively adequate; affordable when constructed and with the cheap periodic maintenance; provides high level of socialization, resource sharing and reciprocal relationship; security (sleeping at night with both eyes closed); Unpolluted breeze; diversity of flora and fauna and great opportunity to listen to the sounds of squirrels and the songs of the dove or nightingale.

However, in the spirit of the Global Housing Rights campaigns and, especially housing adequacy and habitability (the contemporary housing standards), the condition of rural housing especially in Nigeria is that of qualitative deficiency. Onibokun (1985, 1987), NISER and Unife (1982), Egunjobi, 1989 and many other scholars have found rural houses to

be adequate in quantity but grossly inadequate in quality and lacking in infrastructural facilities. Obayiuwana (1988) reports that the rural part of Gilan Province in Iran contained 227,000 housing units out of which only 2.2% had electricity and 0.4% had pipe-borne water.

In their recent survey of housing conditions in Babamogba Ogundeji village in Oyo State (under the supervision of this author), Babajide et al (2006) note that 96% of the 74 houses in the village were residential of which 40% were in poor, 550/0 in fair, and 5°/s in good condition. The good houses were those with adequate ventilation, unleaked roofs, uncracked walls, and functional bathrooms. The fair houses were those with moderate ventilation, leaking roof and cracked walls. The poor buildings in the village were those without windows and doors, had leaking roof, dilapidated walls, no toilet and no bathroom (the no bathroom here means no bathroom within the buildings). Table 2 presents the condition of housing facilities in Babamogba village.

It needs be mentioned that 37% of the houses in the Babamogba Ogundeji village were age 31 years and above, 51% were between 11 and 30 years while 12% are 10 years and below. One of the buildings was over 60 years old.

Olujimi (2000) reports that in Ibule-Soro village 136 (62.84%) of the buildings had mud unplastered walls with cracks, 5.07% mud unplastered walls without cracks, 27.02% mud plastered walls with cracks, while 5.07% others were well plastered and had no cracks. The overall quality of the buildings in the village were described as very poor (4.63%), poor (84.72%), fair (7.43%), very fair (2.31%), and good (1.01%).

In a recent survey of 56 buildings in six villages (Alapintin, Olude, Osebele, Akintola, Seeni and Ajimajasan) in Iddo LGA of Oyo State and 23 buildings in Omi-Okun village in Ife-East

17

LGA of Osun State (under the supervision of this author), Bello

et al (2006) report the following conditions of a total of 79 buildings: 78.4% of the walls were sound and in good condition, 8.8% had cracks, 7.5% were dilapidating while 5.3% had dilapidated. Also, 78.4% of the roofs of the houses were in good condition, 16.4% leaking, and 5.2°/s sagged. In regards to toilet facility 55% of thee houses made use of nearby bush; 40.5% used pit latrine located as out -house (about 10m from the main buildings) while 4.5% used WC flush toilet. In regards to ventilation, only 18:9% of the 79 houses were fairly well- ventilated while 71.1% were considered to be poorly ventilated.

Data sources and collection

The secondary sources of data collection involved a literature review of researchers' works, textbooks, journals publications, conference publications, government gazettes, academic theses, maps from planning offices and internet materials on urban renewal. For the purpose of this research work, data from Ife Planning Journal, Ondo East Planning Office, School Library, International Planning Journals, among others and data that will be obtain includes: map of the study area, background information about the rural area in the L.G., among other.

Both primary and secondary data were employed for this study. The primary source of data collection involved reconnaissance survey, pilot study and structured questionnaire administered among the residents' of the area. The target populations are residents of rural areas in Ondo East L.G. These people represent the stake holders involved in housing in the study area. The sample frame of a research work is the total population from which the sample size for the research was be drawn. With regards to this study, the sample frame is the total number of buildings (8,912) in all the rural areas in study area. For the purpose of this

study, the purposive sampling technique was adopted to select the sample from the entire population. However, in the course of this study, 9 wards out of 10 wards in the study area were selected for questionnaire administration.

Stratifying sampling method was employed to group the villages into strata's of huts, hamlets and small villages. The first group (huts) is between 1-50 buildings; second group (hamlets) is between 51-100 buildings and the last group (small villages) is between 101 and above. Therefore, 40 questionnaires was administered in each group under study. However, the total numbers of 120 administered questionnaires with the household heads in the six selected villages in the study area (Table 1).

Table 1. Total number of selected Respondents

Number of houses per each village	Number of villages (10%)	Number of villages selected	Number of questionnaires to be administered
1-50	89	8	40
51-100	23	2	40
101 & above	18	1	40
Total			120

The data collected was analyzed through statistics package for social sciences (SPSS) version 17 using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA AND ANALYSIS

Socio-economic Background of the Respondents

It is of great importance to discuss the socio-economic background of the residents' of the study area before we present the details of the study. The sample demonstrated the socio-economic features of the dwellers in the rural areas of Ondo East with significant influence on the settings of the area.

Findings on marital status reveals that majority (84.2%) of the respondents were married while few (15.8%) were single. This implies that most dwellers in the study area were married and only minority of them are still single. It was revealed from the finding that majority (60.8%) of the respondents were male while few (39.2%) were female. This implies that information supplied for this research was given mostly by male respondents. The study reveals that majority 70.0% of the respondents' did not have education at all, 20.8% have primary education while 9.2% had secondary education. None of the respondents have tertiary education in the study area. This implies that majority of the respondents in the study area are farmers and most of them did not have any educational background.

The study reveals that 31.3% of the respondents earned between 10,000 to 19,999 on a monthly basis, 25.0% earned less than 10,000 and remaining 9.2% earned 20,00 and above in a month. This reveals that most respondents less than 20, 000 in a month because most of them are peasant farmers. The finding reveals that 45.0% of the respondents are between 41 and 60 years, 20.8% are between of age 60 years and above, 19.2% are between 21 to 40 years while remaining 15.0% are less than 21years. This showed the extent to which the working force predominantly dominates the study area. The study reveals that 50.8% of the respondents are farmers, 35.0% are artisan/craft, 8.4% are retiree while the remaining 5.8% are public servant. This implies that majority of the respondents are farmers while few proportion of public servants and retirees (Table 2).

Table 2. Social Economic Characteristics of the Respondents

Marital status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	19	15.8
Married	101	84.2
Sex	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Male	73	60.8
Female	47	39.2
Educational level	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
No education	84	70.0
Primary	25	20.8
Secondary	11	9.2
Tertiary	-	-
Income level	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Less than 10,000	79	31.3
10,000 t0 19,999	30	25.0
20,000 & above	11	9.2
Age of the Respondents	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Less than 21yrs	18	15.0
21 t0 40yrs	23	19.2
41 to 60yrs	54	45.0
61 & above	87	20.8
Occupation	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Artisan/craft	42	35.0
Public servant	7	5.8
Farming	61	50.8
Retiree	10	8.4
Total	120	100.0

Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The finding reveals that 45.8% of the respondents have been living in the area 20 year and above, 35.0% of the respondents have been living between 10 to 20 years while 19.2% of the respondents have been living in the area

19

less than 10 years ago. This implies that majority of the respondents have been residing in the study area more than 20 years ago and they are familiar with the whole environment.

Household with 7 and above member have higher percentage (80.8%), household between 4 to 6 members have 14.4% while household between 1 to 3 members have 5.0%. therefore, the implication of this is that majority of the respondents practiced polygamy system of marriage that is why they have higher percentage of household members (Table 3).

Table 3. Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Years of living in this area	Frequency	Percentage
Below 10years	23	19.2
10 – 20 years	42	35.0
20 years & above	55	45.8
Household size	Frequency	Percentage
1 – 3	06	5.0
4 – 6	17	14.2
7 & above	97	80.8
Total	120	100.0

Housing and Environmental characteristics

The variables of the physical and environmental characteristics of the traditional core area that were discussed include the land-use type, type of dwelling units, age of the building, building usage, among others. In specific terms, details of these are detailed below.

The finding reveals that Brazilian house have higher percentage of 40.1%, compound house have 35.8%, flat have 15.8% while there was no respondents with duplex. As we know that the study area is rural environment that justifies that majority of the housing type found is dominated by face-to-face and compound house.

The finding reveals that residential land-use is paramount in the core are of Ilesa. This was because 30.8% of the land was used for residential activities alone, while 28.3% of the land is dedicated for commercial activities, 27.5% of the housing use is for mixed-uses that is they are for mixture of residential and commercial activities while 13.4% is for institutional use.

The finding reveals that 53.3% if the wall is burnt brick, 30.0% is made by mud, 10.8% is made by concrete brick while just 5.8% is made of normal brick. This can be attributed for the fact that most of the buildings have been built many years ago before the era of modern day civilization and low-income of the respondents might also be reason.

The finding reveals that majority 50.8% of the respondents have bucket system, 37.5% have no toilet at all, 10.0& make use of pit latrine with slab in their house while just 1.7% make use of water closet. This can be attributed for the fact that most of the buildings have been built many years ago and their owner did not built in compliance to planning standard.

The finding reveals that majority 98.3% of the respondents locate their toilet outside their building while the remaining 1.7% has their toilet inside their buildings. This implies that most residents does not make room for toilet facilities at the initial stage but later deem it necessary and site it at the back of their building.

The finding reveals that most 55.0% of the respondents locate their bathroom outside their building, 25.0% have no bathroom at all while the remaining 20.0% have their bathroom in their buildings. This implies that most residents have their bathroom outside the building and some did not make room for that thereby engage in early hour or late hour bathing.

The study reveals that more than half 84.2% of the respondents have open drainage in their

20

neighbourhood, 15.8% have covered/buried drainage while no respondents' make use of soak away in the study area. This implies that majority of the respondents in the study area have open drainage in their environment.

The finding reveals that 73.3% of the respondents are owner occupier if their building, 18.3% of them inherited occupier while the remaining 8.4% are tenancy because they cannot afford to build their own building.

The study reveals that 40.0% of the respondents depend on stream water, 32.5% get water from well, 17.5% source water from bore hole while 10.0% depend on pipe-borne-water. This implies that majority of the respondents in the study area did not have access to drinkable water because they did not have pipe-born-water in most part of the whole area.

The finding reveals that majority 97.5% of the respondents depend solely on power supply from PHCN while the remaining 2.5% depend on power from generator. It can be deduced from the study that there is epileptic power supply from the PHCH and most respondents did not afford to buy their own generator set for personal use.

The study reveals that 42.5% of the respondents stated that the road network of the study is very bad while 30.8% of them stated that the rod is bad. Also, 11.8% of the respondents' stated that the road network is fairly good, 10.8% stated that is good while the remaining 4.2% of the respondent stated that the road is very good. This implies that majority of the respondents in the study area stated that the road in their neighbourhood is bad which need urgent attention of the concerned authority (Table 4).

Table 4. Housing and Environmental Characteristics

Housing type	Frequency	Percentage
Compound house	58	40.1
Brazilian house	43	35.8
Flat	19	15.8
Duplex	-	-
Housing use	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Residential	37	30.8
Commercial	34	28.3
Institutional	33	13.4
Mixed-uses	16	27.5
Housing wall	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Mud	36	30.0
Burnt brick	64	53.3
Concrete block	07	5.8
Normal brick	13	10.8
Type of toilet	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Pit latrine with slab	12	10.0
Water closet	02	1.7
No toilet	45	37.5
Bucket system (short-put)	61	50.8
Location of toilet	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Inside building	02	1.7
Outside building	118	98.3
Location of bathroom	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Inside	24	20.0
Outside	66	55.0
No bathroom	30	25.0
Type of drainage	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Open drainage	101	84.2
Covered/buried drainage	19	15.8
Soak away	-	-
Household status	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Owner occupier	88	73.3

Housing type	Frequency	Percentage
Inherited occupier	22	18.3
Tenancy	10	8.4
Total	120	100.0
Sources of water supply	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Bore hole	21	17.5
Well	39	32.5
Pipe-borne-water	12	10.0
Stream	48	40.0
Electricity	Frequency	Percentage
PHCN	117	97.5
Generator	03	2.5
Road network	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Very good	05	4.2
Good	13	10.8
Fairly good	14	11.7
Bad	37	30.8
Very bad	51	42.5
Total	120	100.0

The chi-square test between average income of the respondents and housing condition in the study area. The result shows that the chi-square (X^2) value of 34.333 was significant at p=0.000. This is an indication that residents' income determines the housing condition in the study area.

Also, Result of the chi-square tested on the variables in Table 4.23 show that $x^2 = 42.732$ and p = 0.001 at significance level of p<0.05. This mean that respondents level of education determines the type of toilet provided in their respective buildings. That is, those with higher qualification make use of modern toilet than those with no or little education in the neighbourhood.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

It has been established beyond reasonable doubt that housing and environmental condition in the study area is in bad state. To ensure good living for the inhabitants, however, it is necessary to adopt rehabilitation and regeneration of the area so as to ensure sustainable housing and environment in the area. This study has examined the state and extent of housing inadequacies in the study area. It has provided information regarding the number and the share of households that require assistance regarding qualitative and quantitative housing thereby assisting the policy makers in developing strategy to make necessary plans for a sustainable housing delivery thus bridging the gap existing between the capability of expectation and reality. The study concluded by show rationale for government and private interventions in the development of sound housing schemes for rural dwellers thereby providing goods basis for planning and policy formulation.

REFERENCES

Abumere, S. (1987). Urbanization and Urban Decay in Nigeria In: Onibokun A.G.

Olokesusi,F.,and Egunjobi,L.(Eds) Urban Renewal In Nigeria. Ibadan: NISER/CURP.

Abumere, S. I. (2002). Rural infrastructure and the development process in rural Nigeria. *Research report No. 36*. development policy centre. Ibadan. Nigeria.

Agbola, T. & Olatubara, C.O (2003). "private sector driven housing delivery (in Nigeria) Issues, Constraints, Challenges and Prospects", a lead paper presented at the 2nd Annual

National Workshop on private sector Driven Housing Delivery in Nigeria, University of
Lagos, Lagos, 30th – 3rd July.

Ajanlekoko (2001). "Sustainable Housing Development in Nigeria – The Financial and
Infrastructural Implication" International Conference on Spatial Information for Sustainable Development, 2 – 5 October, Nairobi Kenya, pg 1 – 3

Akorede (1995). "Urban Housing Quality and the Pattern of Urban Population Density Ondo
Town of Western Nigeria" Paper Presneted in at the Sixth Annual Conference of the
Environment and Behaviour Association of Nigeria (EBAN), at the conference centre,
Obafemi Awolowo. University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria, 28th – 30th March 1995

Alkali, (2005). "Planning Sustainable urban, Growth in Nigeria: Challenges and Strategies
Conference on planning sustainable urban Growth and sustainable Architecture, held at
the ECOSOC chambers, United Nation Headquarters, 6th June, New York, pg 4.

Bulus, J.S. and Adefila, J.O. (2014). The Study of Rural Infrastructural Facilities in Kajuru Area,
Kaduna State of Nigeria: A Spatial Analysis for Planning, *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Vol. 4 No. 2 [Special Issue – January 2014*

Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN, 2004). National Housing Policy Draft, Abuja.

Federal Office of Statistics (FOS) (1997). Social Statistics in Nigeria FOS; Abuja

Federal Republic of Nigeria (1991). National Housing Policy, Government Printing Press,

Lagos.

Jagun, A. (1983). "Urban Housing Need Estimate in Nigeria: Government Capability in its
Provision" *Journal of Business and social studies* Vol 4, No 2

So & Leung (2004). Survey of Attitudes towards buildings in three Chinese Cities; Hong
Kong, Shanghai and Taipei Facilities, 22(3/4), P 100 – 108.

Lawal, A.S. and Okeowo, T.A. (2014). Effects of Rural Urban Migration on Labour Supply in
Cocoa Production in Ondo East Local Government Area of Ondo State, *International Letters of Natural Sciences ISSN: 2300-9675, Vol. 18, pp 1-11, doi:10.18052/www.scipress.com/ILNS.18.1*

Mabogunje, A.L. (1985). "Towards and Urban Policy in Nigeria" in Onibokun Poju (ed):
Housing in Nigeria (a book of readings), Nigeria Institute of social and Economic Research (NISER), Ibadan PP 19 – 35

Madu, U. A. (2012). Rural infrastructure: A pathway for sustainable Agricultural development in
Nigeria. *International Journal of Social Science Tomorrow.* 1(4):1-5.

Nubi, O.T. (2008): Affordable Housing Delivery in Nigeria. The South African Foundation
International Conference and Exhibition Cape Town October, PP 1 – 18.

Oguzor, N. S. (2011). Spatial analysis of infrastructures and social services in rural Nigeria:
        implications for public policy. *GEOTROPICO*. 5(1):25-38.

Oisasoje, O. M. & Ojeifo, S. A. (2012). The role of public infrastructure in poverty reduction in
        the rural areas of Edo State, Nigeria. *Research on humanity and social science*. 2(7).

Olayiwola, L.M. & Adeleye, O.A. (2005). Rural infrastructural development in Nigeria: Between
        1960-1990. Problems and challenges. *Journal of social sciences*. 11(2):91-96.

Olayiwola (2005). Urban Housing Crisis and Responses in Nigeria: "The planners' view point" World
        congress on Housing Transforming Housing Environments through the Design Vol. XXXIIII AHS, 27 – 30 September, Pretoria South Africa, pg. 2.

Olomolaiye, (1999). Rural Housing in Nigeria, Concept, Problems and functional Approach,
        Nigeria Institute of Town Planners

Olotuah, A.O. (2007). "Strategies of Public Sector Intervention in Housing In Nigeria
        ''Proceedings of XXXVIAHS (International Association of Housing Science, Melbourne,
        Australia, 4-7 September, CD ROM

Olotuah, A.O. (2002). "An Appraisal Of The Impact Of Urban Services On Housing In Akure
        Metropolis "*Journal of Sciences Engineering and Technology*, Vol. 9, No; 4 Pp 4570-4582

Olotuah (2005). "urbanization, urban poverty, and Housing Inadequacy" Proceedings of Africa
        Union of Architects congress 23 – 28 May, Abuja, Nigeria.

Olotuah, A.O. (1997). "The House: Accessibility and Development A – critical Evaluation of the
        Nigerian situation" The House in Nigeria. Bayo Amole (Ed), Proceedings of a National Symposium, 23 – 24 July, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria pp 312 – 317.

Onibokun (1982). "Housing Needs and Demands. A planner's viewpoints", *JNITP* Vol. 2, Nos 1
        & 2.

Onokherhorage (1976). "The Pattern of Housing, Benin, Nigeria" Ekistics, Vol. 41, No 242.

Toyobo, A.E., Muili, A.B. and Adetunji, M.A. (2014). The relevance of infrastructural facilities
        to rural housing development in lagelu local government area of Oyo State, Nigeria, International NGO Journal, 9(3), 29-34

United Nations (1983). "World Population Trends, Population and Development: Interrelations
        and Population Policies," monitoring report, 1985 vol. I and II

Wahab, K.A. (1983). More than shelter" An Inaugural lecture Delivered at the University of Ife,
        Ile-Ife.

Wahab (1992.) "Concept of Co-operative housing," Proceedings of the First National

Workshop   on Co-operative Housing for
Nigeria, Studies in Environmental Design in
West Africa II
        pg. 1 – 19.