



Urban Renewal Proposals for Sub-Urban Squatter Settlements: A Case for Enugu City, Nigeria

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to articulate urban renewal proposal for the Enugu City Sub-urban squatter settlements for the purpose of eliminating their socio-economic and environmental problems as a more humane option than comprehensive clearance and forceful eviction of dwellers. This study was carried out between January 2015 and September 2017. The location of the squatter settlements were carefully studied and sketched in relation to Enugu City. Out of the 24 squatter settlements, 6 were systematically selected with a random start in order to ensure cardinal points coverage. Socio-economic data of the dwellers were sourced through questionnaire administration which was distributed in proportion to the housing units and hence the population of the settlements. Selection of the housing units for the survey was as well systematically done and a household in each of the selected houses was administered with a questionnaire. A total of 369 households consisting of 185 landlords and 176 tenants participated in the study. Simple proportional percentages were adopted for data analysis for ease of comprehension. Housing and environmental qualities were determined with the application of checklist standard adopted from the Basic Principles of Healthful Housing Committee in Nigeria. This was used to categorize the housing units into three quality grades depending on their scores. Findings indicate that 82.9% of the dwellers earn below the national minimum wage and spend more than 20% of their monthly income on accommodation rent. They lack formal education and are engaged mainly in the informal sector and possess large household sizes. They lack life support systems such as water etc. 5.1% of the houses are good, 10.7% are fair while 84.2% are bad and unfit for human occupation. The proposed urban renewal strategies include redevelopment for bad houses, rehabilitation and renovation for fair houses and conservation for good houses. Revitalization and citizen participation were proposed for the economy and the people while missing community facilities were also proposed. The conclusion is that these proposals will eliminate the socio-economic problems of the dwellers and save the society of the untold hardship of comprehensive clearance and forceful eviction.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Driving into Enugu City through any of the approach routes, one is likely to pass by any

one or two of the squatter settlements that surround Enugu, the Coal City. These squatter settlements are beheld before getting into the Coal City. While entering

through Enugu – Onitsha Express Way, there is the AguAbor and Ugbodogwu by the left and Pottery by the right. Through Enugu – Port Harcourt Expressway, there are UgwuAji by the right and Akwuke by the left. UgboUmeha and Ugwuome/Nchanawa are encountered while approaching Enugu City through Abakaliki axis.

Squatter settlements around urban centres originate as a result of individual initiatives as an attempt to secure living accommodation at a location that will offer easy access to the benefits of urban centres. It can be defined as settlements commonly located at the periphery of urban centres and within the urban fringes where residential dwellings have developed without physical layout or development guide resulting to leap frogging and haphazard housing developments. The land on which the developments are located may be either government acquired which the residents have occupied illegally or private non-urbanized land that can be purchased at very low rates as compared to planned areas of the urban centre(Jawando, 1985)

In the case of Enugu, almost all the squatter settlements developed initially as either farm camps or farm stead by migrant farmers from neighbouring communities in an attempt to locate their farms as close as possible to Enugu City; the major market and consumption centre or founded by service providers who were attracted by the booming colliery activities in Enugu City. At the wake of Coal mining activities, Ogbete main market was established to

serve the needs of coal miners which later attracted many traders from neighbouring communities and even beyond. Most of the indigenous traders in the market who could not secure accommodation anywhere within the city had no alternative than to settle in groups at the outskirts of the mining camps because that time there was no residential layout for the non-colliery staff. Over time, as Enugu City was progressing, such squatter settlements also progressed at the periphery. Therefore, squatter settlements around Enugu City developed from two different origins; (i) as a farm stead or (ii) settlement for non-colliery staff migrants. Those that belonged to the former commonly have the prefix “Ugbo” such as UgboOdogwu, UgboUmeha, Ugbo Aaron or “Agu”, such as AguAbor, AguOwa, while those in the later group do not, such as Akwuke, Ugwuaji, Ikiriki, Udi siding etc. Whatever the origin of the squatter settlements, one common feature is the fact that all the residents are illegal squatters in either government purchased or common communal lands. The housing pattern in such settlements is a reflection of the residential desires of the founders and residents which was to develop shelter for the purposes of night rests and sleep. With this desire as the ultimate, there was no desire for residential infrastructure, facilities and amenities and as such all the squatter settlements right from inception lacked roads/streets, play grounds, schools, health facilities, waste dump sites, drainages/sewers, toilets, bathrooms, kitchens etc.

From a small centre founded on coal mining operations in about 1912, Enugu City consisted of 11 residential layouts in 1959 when coal production came to its peak. By February 2014, Enugu consists of 31 residential layouts; an indication that Enugu City is experiencing tremendous spatial expansion and as it is doing so, is rapidly invading and assimilating its outlying areas attributable to the fact that all the recent layouts were established at the city periphery. The planning implication of this territorial expansion and invasion is that most of the outlying squatter settlements previously at far distant locations are now hemming the city at walking distances from the nearest layout. Enugu City is one of the cities in Nigeria that is undergoing rapid economic changes and is experiencing a transition from primary to tertiary economy. As this economic transformation is taking place, this is accompanied by surge of people from the rural agrarian economy to Enugu City to partake of the fallouts of modernism. However, because of the inability of the government to meet the housing needs of the increasing population in Enugu City, an increasing proportion is forced to take accommodation in the squatter settlements particularly new migrants from the rural areas who are economically deficient and ill endowed with relevant prerequisites to find accommodation in the city. There is no gainsaying the fact that squatter settlements are now part of the realities of Enugu urban system. As such elimination of such settlements is neither feasible nor advisable. The better option is to find a way of addressing whatever problems they possess

so as to make them liveable from physical planning point of view.

As such, the primary aim of this study is to proffer and put forward practical urban renewal strategies for improving the living conditions of the squatter settlement so that it becomes part of the general efforts in solving the problems of inadequate housing in Enugu City. To achieve this, the study examined the characteristics of those squatter settlements in order to identify their peculiar problems. This study is based on the assumption that the problems of the squatter settlements in Enugu City can be solved and made liveable by treating them to urban renewal strategies and approaches and at the same time forestall the untold problems and hardships often associated with comprehensive clearance and forceful eviction of dwellers.

2. STUDY SETTING

Historically, Enugu City owes its origin to the discovery of rich coal seams at the foot of Udi Hills in 1909 by a British mining engineer called Mr. Kitson (Ikejiolor, 2006). In order to make adequate space provision for the coal mining operations, Mr. Kitson negotiated with Ngwo and Ogui Nike communities to cede 10 square miles (26sq. km) of their land at a token price of 200 British pounds (NGN4,000.00) to enable the administration to set up a colliery and a railway station. In 1914, Mr. Alfred Inoma founded the first settlement named after him, Ugwu Alfred, where the first groups of colliery staff were quartered. In 1915, the colonial District Prison was moved to Enugu from Udifor the purpose of using prisoner's

labour for coal mining activities (Njoku, 2001). This cheap labour made it possible for the opening of the first coal mine at the Udi siding called “Bunker” in the same 1915. Because of lack of automated machinery, mining operations were labour intensive. This necessitated massive recruitment of workers from the surrounding villages and communities (Nnamani 2002). By 1917, when Iva mine, the second coal mine, was opened, the population of Enugu City was appreciably enough that it was recognized as a second class township under Lord Lugard’s Township Ordinance. In 1923, the railway authorities established quarters at China Town for its workers. This was followed by the establishment of a camp for coal workers at Ogbete called Coal Camp. The following years, 1924 to 1926, Iva Valley Camps I and II were also established for the Colliery staff. According to Ikejiofor, (2006), each of the events associated with the development of the coal mining, added to the growth of the Enugu City, now known as “Coal City”. Thus, the commercial and administrative sectors developed very fast. The importance of coal in the growth and development of Enugu is still apparent today because of the way railway lines crossed most of the distributors and collectors. The extension of railways from Port Harcourt to Enugu brought about unprecedented growth in many directions in Enugu City. High caliber manpower was attracted, economic activities became expanded which led to enhanced paid employment opportunities. All these culminated into attraction of waves of migrants as employment seekers and service providers into Enugu City.

As Ikejiofor, (2006) remarked, although the Colliery and railways provided quarters, these could only accommodate a small proportions of the population. Thus, there was increased demand for residential land in and around the city which gave rise to the development of urban and sub-urban housing. Population growth trend of Enugu is as follows; 3,170 (1926), 13,600 (1931), 62,764 (1953), 138,457 (1963 census), 166,541 (1978), 342,786 (1986) and 465,072 (1991 census). From projections at 5% annual rate growth from 1991 census figure, Enugu City contains currently 2,134,778 people with average population density of 710 in high density layouts, 320 in medium density layouts and 98 in low density layouts.

With this trend in population increase, it becomes understandable to account for the development of so many squatter settlements which number up to 24 (Figure 1).

Development of squatter settlement is caused more by high rent of urban housing than any other factor which compelled most immigrants particularly the low income persons to resort to non-conventional housing. Some studies attribute growth of squatter settlements to increasing poverty and rapid urban growth without corresponding adequate life support systems and high cost of urban housing which caused proliferation of squatter settlements especially around mega-cities of the developing countries (Hardoy and Sattenwaiter, 1989, Oberai, 1993, Clerk, 2000).

3. LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

Squatter settlements are estimated to accommodate over-one third of the urban population in the developing countries Torado (1999) and this may increase substantially by the mid of the 22nd century. Squatter settlements consist of non-conventional housing which is commonly exposed to forced evictions because of their illegality status and general lack of internal cohesion which makes it difficult for the inhabitants to group together to defend them. Squatter settlements, however, often have a distinct legal connotation referring either to the illegal occupation of land without the permission of the owner or to the occupation of dwelling in contravention of existing legislation. Squatter settlements are commonly referred to as sub-urban slum areas because they exhibit characteristics of dilapidation of run-down areas. They differ from inner city slum areas which consist of legal, permanent dwellings which have become sub-standard and devalued through age, neglect or sub-divisions into smaller units (George, 1999, Umeh, 1993, Akinluyi, 2012).

In some of the developing countries, responses to squatter settlements have undergone a number of significant changes reflecting different perceptions of squatter settlements Akinluyi, (2012). United Nations Centres for Housing and Shelter

(UNCH) classified political wills towards squatter settlements into three distinct responses as follows; (i) Reactive response, (ii) Tolerance response, (iii) Supportive response to which may be added (iv) Proactive response.

Reactive responses are adopted when the squatter settlement is perceived negatively and judged to be an eyesore to the cityscape. This happens when the municipal and local planning authorities do not see anything good about the squatter settlement particularly because of its illegitimacy of existence. Based on this, the only management response deemed fit is the “bulldozer approach” which involves forceful eviction and outright demolition and clearance of the settlement. This is a kind of USA District Replanning Policy where the municipal council employs the power of eminent domain to acquire slum areas for clearance and replanning for decent living. This approach was criticized on several grounds. First, the problems created for the very poor who were displaced by urban renewal projects, in view of severe housing shortages, was a matter of concern to many observers. Second, people were worried about the impossibility of financing overall redevelopment in view of the fact that blight was growing faster than the pace of redevelopment (Egunjiobi, 1987).

Tolerance response on the other hand refers to a situation where urban administrators and local governments develop “Idon’t care” attitude towards squatter settlements and thus become apathetic. Lack of interest on the side of the government is caused by opportunity costs of positive response to squatter settlements. It therefore pays government to feign indifference and allow such settlements to thrive so long as they do not drain public fund.

Supportive response is meant to mean a situation where the efforts of the residents of the squatter settlements themselves are united with those of the governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of the community and to integrate such settlements in the life of the city so as to enable them contribute fully to the wider economy of the city and even beyond (UNO, 1992). Under this approach, government encourages and appreciates self-help initiatives by giving assistance and support to the residents who have demonstrated commendable and remarkable effort on their own to improve their living standard. Government uses “aided self-help initiative” to promote, regulate and control squatter settlement development. At the end, aided self-help system results in housing improvements which approximate those in conventional system. However, aided self-help as an approach creates the impression that government has granted legality status to squatters in the city.

Proactive response implies taking preventive actions in advance to avert the occurrence of

leap frogging and scatteration developments. This approach arose in reaction to the general accusation that town planners and urban administrators are mere reactionaries who wait to seize the opportunity of an existing problem to articulate an action package. As such, the critics argued that urban up-grading actions are essentially opportunistic in design because it is urban problems that created opportunity for physical planning. Proactive response cannot be considered to be opportunistic because usually plans are pre-designed in advance to forestall and prevent the development of squatter settlements around cities. This is achieved by the adoption of the concept of urban and its region as a planning unit which must be planned together and simultaneously.

4. METHODS AND MATERIALS

Systematic sampling technique with a random start method was used to select 6 squatter settlements for pilot survey. This is to ensure that equal numbers of squatter settlements were selected from all the segments around the city and as well achieve 25% coverage. The squatter settlements selected are Edem, UgboUmeha, Ugwuaji, Jamboree/Agrick, Ugwu Aaron and AguAbor.

This study is survey in design and adopted personal interview, observation, measurement and questionnaire administration to source primary data. Secondary data were also sourced from maps, textbooks, technical reports and journals to complement primary data.

The result of house listing during the preliminary field work is as shown in Table 1

Table 1: Housing Types

Housing Type	Edem	UgboEmeha	Ugwuaji	Jomboree Agrick	Ugwu Aaron	AguAbor	Total	%
Tenement bungalow	28	18	21	36	41	22	166	84.3
Tenement Upstairs	2	3	1	4	4	-	14	7.1
Block of flats	-	-	2	5	2	-	9	4.6
Single family bungalow	5	3	-	-	-	-	8	4.0
Duplex	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	35	24	24	45	47	22	197	
Questionnaire distributed	70	48	48	90	94	44	394	
Questionnaire collected	68	42	45	84	89	41	369	93.7

Source: Fieldwork 2014

Questionnaire administration was a major instrument used for collection of demographic and socio-economic characteristics of residents. To achieve this, a total of 394 copies of pre-coded questionnaires were distributed in proportion to the number of housing units in each settlement which were systematically selected. In each housing unit, a household head purposively selected was administered with a copy of the questionnaire. Out of this, 369 were duly completed, returned and used for the study indicating that 369 households participated in the study consisting of 185 landlords and 176 tenants. Simple proportional percentages arranged in tabular format were adopted as analytical tools.

Assessment of housing quality was based on the standard checklist designed by

Uwadiogwu (2013) for the establishment of housing quality status during urban renewal and housing upgrading programmes in third world countries. Housing attributes considered crucial for the determination of housing quality include construction quality, amenities adequacy and environmental status. To this end, factors considered were service items such as toilet, bathing facilities and overcrowding as well as house condition of repair, safety of dwelling, adequacy of lighting, sanitary condition and other items significant for health and safety. Neighbourhood environment was also taken into account because good housing environment must be hazard free, neat, airy and appealing. Quality rating was based on the quality and durability of the three vital dimensions of housing, namely, construction

materials, amenities and facilities, and environmental dimensions (George, 1999)

The scores consist of value points assigned to housing conditions that meet reasonable contemporary high standards which make the housing possess solid, firm and appealing outlook. The checklist as articulated by Uwadiogwu, (2013) was an adaptation of the standards approved by the Committee on Basic Principles for Healthful Housing which is widely accepted by housing and public health workers George, (1999) as well as town planners as a reasonable checklist for assessing housing quality. Credit points ranging from 0.0 for housing conditions which exhibit extreme and ever-present threat to health or safety, such as a house which needs external support because the walls show open cracks and the foundation is not only exposed by sheet erosion but hanging, to 3.0 for housing and environmental conditions which are excellent from the view point of official agencies, such as public health, town planning authorities and other professionals such as architects and builders. With the standard checklist, the highest score attainable is 95 while the least is 19. With

this, the housing stock in the squatter settlements was categorized into three quality grades.

5. Result and Discussion

Table 2 indicates that poverty is evidently a significant element of the squatter settlements since up to 82.9% of the dwellers earn below the national minimum wage of NGN18, 000.00 in a country that is one of the 25 poorest countries in the world and ranks 3rd among the countries that host the largest number of poor people in the world. In a situation of acute poverty, it is absolutely difficult to live a decent life that promotes convenience, satisfaction and progress. More than half of them lack basic primary education and this partly accounts for why most of them, about 86.8%, are into informal activities such as petty trading, bricklaying, night guards, carpentry, house wiring and painting, shoe mending, commercial vehicle driving, plumbing, labour letting and such other menial jobs. The population of the squatter settlements is quite youthful since about 72.3% of the populations are within the active age of 18-35 years with very small dependants (see Table 2).

Table 2: Socio-economic Characteristics of the People

Characteristics	Ugbo Edem	UgboEmeha	Ugwuaji	Jomboree Agrick	Ugwu Aaron	AguAbor	Total	%
<u>Income per Month</u>								
Less than N5,000	4	3	4	4	2	2	19	5.1
N5,000 – N10,000	8	10	15	28	77	48	186	50.4
N10,000 – N15,000	6	11	18	32	22	12	101	27.4
N15,000 – N20,000	-	-	5	15	14	18	52	14.1
N20,000 – N50,000	-	-	-	2	4	5	11	3.0
N50,000 and above	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

<u>Level of Education</u>								
No formal education	42	41	35	22	25	30	195	52.8
Primary level	5	8	19	25	28	15	100	27.1
Secondary level	5	10	10	8	12	13	58	15.7
Post-secondary level	-	-	-	8	2	6	16	4.4
<u>Tenancy</u>								
Landlord/Landlady	12	15	8	22	42	29	128	34.7
Tenant	29	25	35	32	42	48	211	57.2
Squatter	-	5	8	12	-	5	30	8.1
<u>Age Structure</u>								
Less than 18 years	-	3	10	22	25	32	92	24.9
18 – 25 years	28	27	30	40	23	20	168	45.5
25 – 35 years	12	18	15	22	18	14	99	26.8
30 – 60 years	3	4	-	2	-	1	10	2.8
60 years and above	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<u>Marital Status</u>								
Married	32	30	32	25	20	13	152	41.2
Single	24	22	38	31	42	42	199	53.9
Widow/Widower	3	-	3	4	-	-	10	2.7
Separated/Divorced	-	-	-	-	5	3	8	2.2
<u>Occupation</u>								
Civil Servant	5	4	9	8	8	12	46	12.5
Trading	32	23	20	21	16	20	132	35.8
Business	22	20	24	13	10	11	100	27.1
Artisan	8	4	2	11	13	4	42	11.4
Schooling/Apprentice	6	3	4	7	3	7	30	8.1
Unemployed	3	2	4	5	2	3	19	5.1
<u>Household Size</u>								
1 person	3	-	2	-	3	2	10	2.8
2-4 persons	18	11	14	30	21	27	121	32.8
5-7 persons	29	24	35	22	19	33	162	43.6
8 persons and above	21	18	9	8	4	16	76	20.8
<u>Sex</u>								
Male	37	30	21	28	36	47	199	53.9
Female	29	31	44	14	15	37	170	46.1
<u>Rent per month</u>								
Less than N2,000	37	37	39	30	32	22	197	53.4
N2,000 – N5,000	41	32	40	18	20	21	172	46.6

N5,000 – N10,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
N10,000 – N15,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
N15,000 and above	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<u>Water Supply</u>								
Pipe borne water	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hand-dug well	44	38	52	29	20	18	201	54.5
Water vendors	11	7	12	9	14	13	66	17.9
Stream	23	19	15	14	13	18	102	27.6
<u>Average No of Rooms per house</u>								
less than 3	12	3	2	8	5	3	33	16.7
4 to 6	22	18	20	36	38	19	153	77.7
6 and above	1	3	2	1	4	-	11	5.6
<u>Average number of rooms occupied by a household</u>								
1 room	66	39	40	72	77	38	332	89.9
1 to 2 rooms	2	3	5	8	10	3	31	8.4
More than 2 rooms	-	-	-	4	2	-	6	1.7

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Sex ratio is almost 1:1 out of which 41.2% are married while 53.9% are single which includes the under aged for marriage. Large household sizes are predominant because up to 64.4% have at least 5 persons or more who may be living in just one or two rooms in a house that lacks virtually all domestic and sanitary amenities within blight environment.

Life in the squatter settlements is full of several challenges, for instance, about 46.6% pay between two thousand and five thousand naira (N2, 000.00 – N5, 000.00) as monthly rent and when this is compared with their monthly household income it becomes clear that they spend more than 20% of their income on accommodation rent; a situation considered to be a favourable condition for poverty intensification and stress. Pipe borne water

is non-existent which accounts for the reason behind sourcing water from unwholesome sources such as hand-dug wells, water vendors and nearby stream. Consumption of water from unwholesome sources has been reported to be the major cause of variety of water related and water based diseases such as malaria, hepatitis, typhoid, diarrhea, guinea worm, schistosomiasis, etc. Mortality rate of up to 25,000 people and above annually are reported in some developing countries such as Nigeria due to water related health problems (WHO, 2010). Such water related and based health problems are likely to be rampant in squatter settlements because they are dependent on unclean sources of water supply. With regard to housing quality, Table 3 indicates that only 5.1% of the houses are good, 10.7% are fair while 84.2% are poor or unfit for human habitation.

Table 3: Housing Quality

Settlement	Good		Fair		Poor		Total
	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Edem	3	8.6	4	11.4	28	80.0	35
Emeha	2	8.3	4	16.7	18	75.0	24
Ugwuaji	1	4.2	2	8.3	21	87.5	24
Jamboree/Agrick	2	4.4	7	15.6	36	80.0	45
Ugwu Aaron	2	4.3	4	8.5	41	87.2	47
AguAbor	-	0.0	-	0.0	22	100.0	22
Total	10	5.1	21	10.7	166	84.2	197

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

6 Urban Renewal Proposals

All the housing units were assigned identification marks as follows; “x”, for good house, “xx”, for fair house and, “xxx”, for poor unfit house.

6.1 X Houses

This category of houses were found to be in good standard in terms of construction materials, housing amenities and facilities as well as the quality of the housing surrounding (immediate physical environment). Such houses scored 86 and above and are not showing any sign of dilapidation or defects. The recommended urban renewal measure for such houses is conservation measures to prevent deterioration below their current standard. The owners of such houses were therefore directed to keep the houses in a constant state of good repair so as to avoid any sort of degradation.

6.2 XX Houses

These classes of houses which scored between 31 and 85 were recommended for rehabilitation and renovation measures. The

rehabilitation measures will be directed to the housing units and their amenities. Renovation and rehabilitation involve upgrading the standard of a house by introducing some structural modifications and undertaking some repairs in order to bring the housing units up to the required standard. Rehabilitation and renovation ensures that all necessary housing amenities, utilities and services are provided and kept in a good state of repair.

6.3 XXX Houses

The degree of dilapidation of houses in this category was found to be highly advanced and as such so bad that they are considered unfit and unsafe for human habitation. They scored 30 and below. Such houses constitute danger to both the inhabitants and the public and therefore, the recommend measure is the redevelopment approach. Houses were marked “xxx” because of any of the following reasons;

- (i) It has deteriorated to a level where redemption is impossible,
- (ii) Its location is in unauthorized place such as under high tension electric

lines, river valleys, across drainage or sewer lines etc.

- (iii) Its location will obstruct the introduction of missing public infrastructures and facilities, such as local shopping facilities, schools, health centre, security, access routes, parks, water and power supplies as well as arrangements for waste disposal system.

Redevelopment approach implies that such structures must be pulled down and demolished for either insitu redevelopment or relocation.

6.4 Resettlement Programme

Resettlement programme was planned for three categories of households:

- i) Those displaced because of demolished houses,
- ii) Those displaced because of reduction of occupancy ratio,
- iii) Those that roam about the neighbourhood without identifiable accommodation.

From analysis, about 1,395 households who will be displaced because of any of the three cases will be involved in the resettlement programme. Government should cease this resettlement programme as an opportunity to acquire the vacant expanse of land surrounding these squatter settlements for new low income housing development. This has added advantage of provide accommodation not only for displaced households but for new immigrants thus proactively forestalling further development of squatter settlements around Enugu City.

6.5 Revitalization Programme

An important part of the urban renewal programme is the economic revitalization focus which is more of dwellers' centered approach more than physical orientation. Revitalization approach emphasis economic empowerment of the residents. This is achieved by pursuing programmes which emphasis creating employment opportunities for the dwellers of the squatter settlements. Findings indicate that most of the dwellers of the squatter settlements are mostly engaged in informal pursuits which have limited opportunities for strong economic empowerment. Revitalization approach involves generation of diverse employment opportunities within urban renewal area which will take renewal beyond a mere attack on the symptoms of the economic backwardness to the root cause of poverty which aggravate slum conditions (Omole, 2000). Government should create enabling environment for improvement of entrepreneurial skills, trade acquisition skills, craftsmanship and credit access opportunities aimed at improving the household income base. Enhanced household income is a secret that will motivate the people to think well and on their own take actions that will lead to the emergence of investing their efforts to partner with the government for effective upgrading of their settlement.

6.6 Citizens' Participation

Economic revitalization, if successfully schemed, will pave way for citizens' participation in urban renewal programme. The people must be well involved through public sensitization and mobilization to take

decisions on the renewal of their abode. Relevant stakeholders such as landlords, trade unions, vigilante organization, public ministries, religious groups, youth forum and traditional institutions must be involved through formation of urban renewal committees and neighbourhood associations. This will help to transmit the tenets of the urban renewal programmes down to the grassroots which will help eliminate stubborn resistance and frustration of well-intentioned urban renewal programmes.

7. Conclusion

The rapid rate of population growth of cities in Nigeria has made the development of squatter settlements around the cities inevitable. The gross inadequacy of urban infrastructures, particularly housing accommodation, has meant that sub-urban housing is developing much more quickly than within the formal urban centres (Uchegbu and Anierobi, 2012). Since such sub-urban developments are progressing without being guided by any known physical development regulations, squatter settlements are bound to be characterized by multiplicity of social, economic and physical problems that demand the attention of physical planners, municipal administrators, community leaders and the government for sustainable solutions. The position of this paper is that such solution must be pursued along the lines of urban renewal approaches. This will include (i) rehabilitation/renovation strategy which involves undertaking some repairs of dilapidated house elements and introduction of some structural modifications for the purpose of upgrading the house to the

required standard to make the house liveable and healthful, (ii) revitalization approach which is people oriented approach that seeks to upgrade and improve the dwellers' socio-economic wellbeing. One major predicament of the dwellers is their low or poor level of capital formation emanating from their poor household income level which constrains them from taking necessary actions required to keep their abode to the expected liveable standard. The dwellers particularly the landlords must be economically rejuvenated and empowered to be repositioned to appreciate the need for healthful occupancy codes. (iii) the principles of citizens' participation in urban renewal must be taken seriously by urban administrators and all levels of governments. The dwellers should not be regarded as uninformed passive elements that lack meaningful ideas to contribute or who have no roles to play in urban renewal decisions. Greater level of success will be achieved by the involvement of dwellers in squatter settlement upgrading programmes decisions because it will create forum for dialogue, citizen education, negotiation and mutual understanding. Forceful eviction of the dwellers to make room for bulldozer approach which involves the demolition of the entire settlements and displacement of the entire dwellers is rejectionable and unacceptable at least, within the context of democratic principles.

In order to reduce to the barest minimal level, the number of houses to be demolished and hence the number of households to be displaced, redevelopment will only involve houses that are statistically

identified as dilapidated below the level of redemption, improperly located or poses obstruction to the provision of missing public infrastructure and services. This strategy will upgrade the so called squatter settlements to become an enviable part of the city. The dwellers must not be regarded as passive objects that may be ignored. For maximum benefit and co-operation, there is every need for government to pursue vigorously the revitalization and citizens' participation programmes in order to take the settlement renewal beyond the symptoms of their problems to the root cause.

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