

RESIDENTIAL MOBILITY PATTERN IN LOKOJA, NIGERIA

***UKOJE, J.E. AND IBOR, U.W.**

Department of Geography, Faculty of Social Sciences, Federal University Lokoja, Kogi State, Nigeria. 260242

*Corresponding author: joyukoje@yahoo.com

Abstract

Residential mobility is the movement of households from one dwelling to another within the same city. It is one of the significant forces underlying changes in urban areas. However, the reason for and the pattern of moves are so complicated both at the micro and macro levels that they make it difficult for one to predict. It is against this background, that the study examines the pattern of residential mobility in Lokoja, Nigeria. Three hundred and fifty-one copies of well-structured questionnaire was administered on household heads who have changed residence. The result shows households that moved once accounted for 52.7% of the sample, 35.0 % moved twice and 12.3% had moved thrice or more. The direction of movement shows more than 1/3 of the movements within the same neighbourhood. Outward movement from the core neighbourhoods of GRA, Adankolo and Lokongoma to the peripheral areas constitutes 42.3%, 37.7%, and 42.0% respectively. In addition, there is a directional bias among the major ethnic groups as most of the mobile households went to the residential areas where their ethnic group predominate. The result of the multi-nominal logistic regression shows that the factor of ethnicity reliably predicted the residential mobility within the area with a P-value of 0.005. The study recommends for timely and proper planning of fringe areas and renewal programme for the traditional settlement.

Key Words: *Pattern, Residential mobility, Neighbourhood, ethnicity, geographical impact*

Introduction

Residential mobility is the movement of households from one dwelling to another within the same city (Speare, 1974; Morris and Winter, 1978). It is primarily a response to a change in housing need and is differentiated from migration which is often defined as a move from one city to another. Mobility and migration have always been of great interest to Geographers, planners and

demographers because it is the mechanism whereby the character of neighbourhoods and cities is maintained or changed (Clark and Withers, 2007; Rossi, 1955). Indeed, movement of households within an urban area is an increasingly important issue which has attracted renewed research interest over the years (Ahmed, 1995; Oishi, 2010).

Much researches about residential mobility have focused on the causal

factors underlying why people move and the choices that they engage in during the mobility process (Clark and Withers, 2007; Duncan and Newman, 1975). The factors include environmental consideration of the area, actors' involvement in the search process and the tendency of households to maximise the expected utility (Speare, 1974; Olatubara, 2008). These studies have indicated which factors influence the desire to change residences and which factors promote housing satisfaction and staying in a particular residence. They have shown that the propensity to move is associated with a number of factors such as age, sex, stage in one's life cycle, socio-economic factors, housing tenure, duration of residence, cost of rent and location relative to the city centre. These factors have frequently been found to discriminate 'movers' from 'stayers'. However, despite the extensive work done on intra-urban mobility, there is paucity of research output and literature on the outcome of residential mobility.

The concern with mobility outcome is to demonstrate how the change of residences relates to geographical impact. The process of movement introduces changes to both the daily patterns of individual activities and in the characteristics of neighbourhoods throughout the city. Little is known about how residential mobility between neighbourhoods brings about changes in the patterns of ethnic segregation (Bolt and van Kempen, 2010) and gentrification (Coulter, Ham and Findlay, 2013; Simpson and Finney, 2009).

Residential mobility can reflect improvements in a family's circumstances; such as buying a home for the first time, moving close to a new job, or trading up to a better-quality housing

unit or neighbourhood. It can also be a symptom of instability and insecurity, with many low-income households making short-distance moves because of problems with landlords or housing conditions. Similarly, staying in place sometimes reflects a family's security, satisfaction, and stability with its home and neighbourhood, but in other cases it may reflect that a family lacks the resources to move to better housing or to a preferred neighbourhood (Gramlich *et al.*, 1992). Moreover, residential turnover can be a source of neighbourhood vitality and progress (Coulton *et al.*, 2012). However, the reason for and the pattern of moves are so complicated both at the micro and macro levels that they make it difficult for one to predict. Thus, Animashaun (2011) suggested the need for empirical verification of residential mobility in several cities. Hence, empirical verification of residential mobility is necessary in Lokoja urban area to provide potentially useful information on trend and pattern of mobility to guide future planning and development.

So, as people enter and leave neighbourhoods, they leave a variety of impacts with different ramifications for that neighbourhood. How these changes take place and the implications for the urban area is the subject of this study. Therefore, the objectives of this paper are to; examine the pattern of residential mobility in the study area, determine the factors influence residential mobility in the study area, and highlight the implications of residential mobility on the city.

Study Area

Lokoja, the capital of Kogi State is located on latitude 7°45' - 7°51' N and longitude 6°41' - 6°45' E and lies at an altitude of 45-125 metres above sea level.

It is situated on the western bank of the River Niger close to its confluence with River Benue and sandwiched between the River and the Mount Patti (Fig.1). The town straddles strategic roads and serves as a gateway to five geopolitical zones out of the six such zones in the country.

Lokoja became the headquarters of the British Northern Protectorate in 1890 and Nigeria, after the amalgamation of Northern and Southern protectorates in 1914. It was later the headquarters of the former Kabba Province, then Kogi Local Government and Kogi State. The

administrative functions and strategic location have somehow encouraged migration, population growth and accelerated the urbanisation process of the town. At the 2006 population census, Lokoja population was 195, 261 (FGN, 2007). At a growth rate of about 2.6%, the population of Lokoja in 2020 is about 303,481. In addition, Lokoja is a multi-ethnic city, chief among which are the indigenous Oworo, and other tribes such as; Igala, Bassa Nge, Igbira, Okun, Igbo, Yoruba, Tiv, Hausa and Nupe.

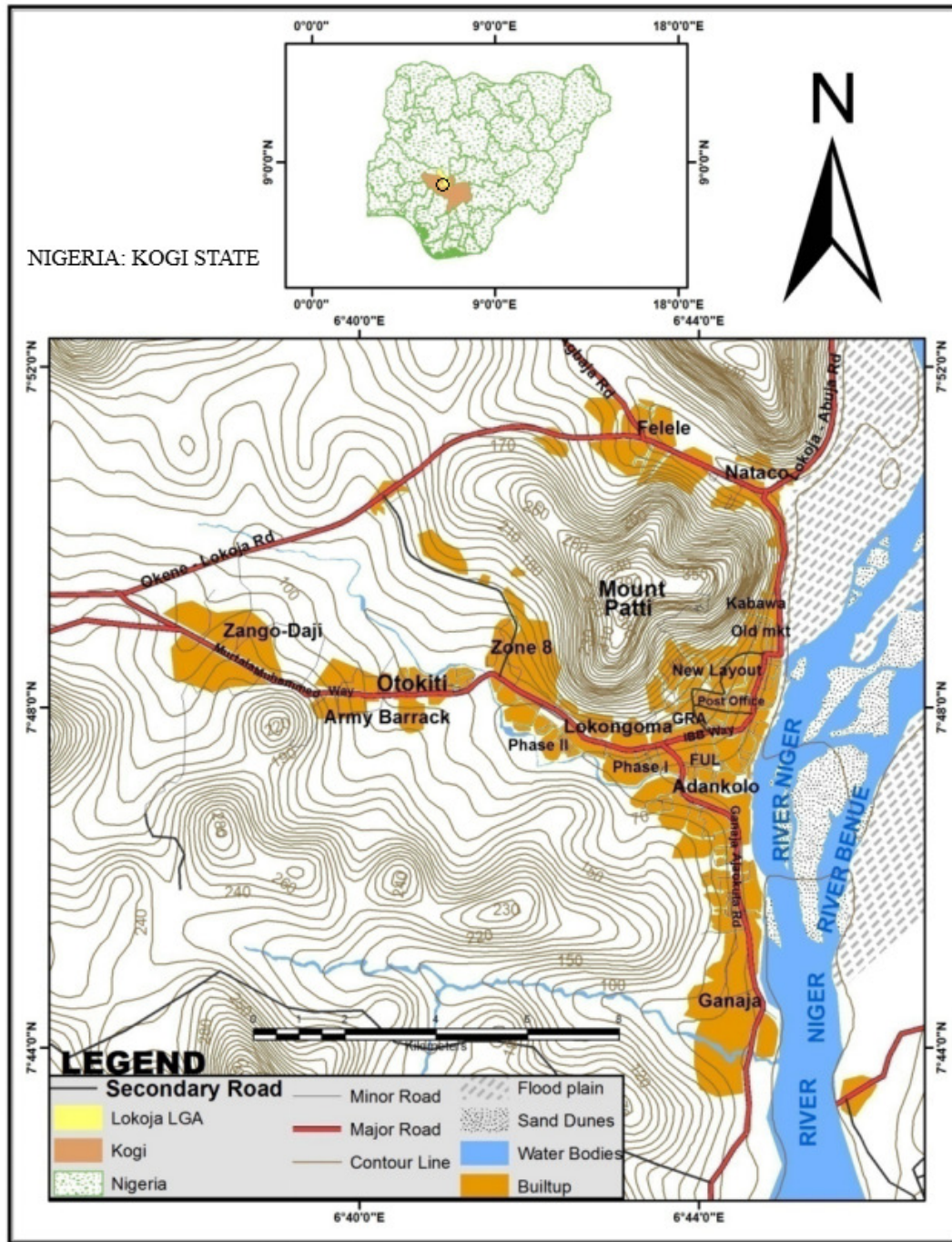


Fig. 1: Lokoja: Study Area

Source: Adopted and Modified from Lokoja Topographic Map, Sheet 247, (2008)

The urbanized area of Lokoja accommodates localities with varied characteristics. The core areas accommodate high-class neighbourhoods like the GRA, New Layout; mixed class

areas like Army Signal, Lokongoma I, Lokongoma II and Zone 8; and low-class areas of Adankolo and Kabawa. The peripheral areas of Gadumo, Ganaja,

Otokiti, Crusher, Zango, Felele and Nataco are areas of new development.

Methods and Materials

The survey research design was adopted to gather data for this study. The study adopted the whole of Lokoja urban area as the sample frame. The urbanized area of Lokoja falls within 3 Local Government Areas (LGA), namely; Lokoja Township, Adavi and Ajaokuta. Neighbourhoods across the three LGAs were orderly arranged according to location and numbered from 1-15 from where even numbered neighbourhoods were selected for questionnaire administration. Based on the above, the following; GRA, Adankolo, Lokongoma and Kabawa; and Ganaja, Zango, and Felele, representing core and peripheral

areas respectively were selected for data collection (Table 1).

Structured questionnaire formed the main instrument for primary data collection. Field assistants moved along the streets to identify and administer the questionnaire on households who changed residence within the last ten years until all the streets were covered. Altogether, 351 household heads filled and returned the questionnaire. The questions covered a wide range of important topics, including the socio-economic characteristics of respondents such as age, sex, income, marital status, educational qualification, ethnicity, migration history, etc.; and pattern and direction of movement. In addition, secondary data were obtained from the National Population Census Report, journals, reports, textbooks, etc.

Table 1: Total Number of Respondents for the Study

S/No	Selected Neighbourhoods	No. Respondents	Percentage
1	GRA	26	7.4
2	Adankolo	61	17.4
3	Lokongoma	69	19.7
4	Ganaja	61	17.4
5	Felele	61	17.4
6	Zango	55	15.7
7	Kabawa	18	5.1
Total		351	100

The analysis involved a critical and systematic examination of data for completeness and to minimise errors. Simple percentages, frequencies and tables were used to analyse and present the data. Also, the multinomial logistic regression was used to understand the pattern of cause-effect relationship between the dependent variable and a set of independent variables. In this analysis, residential mobility (the dependent variable) was seen as a function of independent variables such as religion, tribe, age, sex, marital status, household

size, income, educational status and job/employment. The analyses was done using Statistical Package for Social Science (version 22).

Result and Discussion

Pattern of Residential Mobility

The spatial movement of urban residents from one neighbourhood to another within cities over time defines the pattern of residential mobility. Table 2 shows that short distance movement within neighbourhoods was more important than between neighbourhoods

for all the areas. The highest level of movement, about a 1/3 of all the movements were within the same neighbourhood. Mobility within GRA, Adankolo and Lokongoma constituted 34.6%, 36.1%, and 33.3% respectively. However, Zango had a smaller proportion of 24.4%

Several views have been expressed on the direction of residential mobility in cities. The most prominent one is that there is an outward movement from the inner city to the outer zones. Many urban families first settle in the inner city, and when they become established, they move to the periphery. Studies in Lagos, Nigeria and Monterrey, Mexico support this observation (Afoloyan, 1982; Vaughan and Feindt, 1973). In Lokoja, apart from the within neighbourhoods mobility, movement from the core areas to the periphery by migrant population, including the Igalas, Igbiras and Okuns is substantial. Movement from GRA, Lokongoma, Adankolo and Kabawa to the peripheral areas of Ganaja, Felele and Zango, where migrants predominate

accounted for 42.3%, 37.7%, 42.0% and 38.9% respectively (Table 2).

Movement from one core zone to another core zone is also common and significant among the indigenous population. The indigenous families formed over 80% of households in the core who moved within the neighbourhoods. For instance, movement from GRA to Adankolo was 15.4%, Adankolo to Lokongoma was 11.5%, Lokongoma to Adankolo was 11.6% and Kabawa to Adankolo was 16.6%. Similarly, movement also took place among the peripheral areas. In Zango, 16.4% and 9.8% households moved from Ganaja and Felele respectively, while 4.9% and 18.2% from Ganaja and Zango respectively had moved to Felele. While there is a large representation of tenants among those that moved within the neighbourhoods, the majority of those that moved to the peripheral areas moved into their personal houses. But tenant households that moved to the periphery were attracted by spacious housing and ample open spaces for children to play in.

Table 2: Direction of Residential Mobility in Lokoja

Movement To	Neighbourhoods						
	GRA No/%	Adankolo No/%	Lokongoma No/%	Ganaja No/%	Felele No/%	Zango No/%	Kabawa No/%
GRA	9(34.6)	4(6.5)	5(7.3)	4(6.6)	2(3.3)	3(5.5)	-(-)
Adankolo	4(15.4)	22(36.1)	8(11.6)	12(19.7)	8(13.1)	14(25.4)	3(16.6)
Lokongoma	2(7.7)	7(11.5)	23(33.3)	11(18.0)	7(11.5)	6(10.9)	1(5.6)
Ganaja	4(15.4)	10(16.4)	11(15.9)	20(32.8)	9(14.8)	4(7.3)	2(11.1)
Felele	3(11.5)	8(13.1)	8(11.6)	3(4.9)	21(34.4)	10(18.2)	4(22.2)
Zango	4(15.4)	5(8.2)	10(14.5)	10(16.4)	6(9.8)	14(25.4)	1(5.6)
Kabawa	-(-)	5(8.2)	4(5.8)	1(1.6)	8(13.1)	4(7.3)	7(38.9)
Total	26(100)	61(100)	69(100)	61(100)	61(100)	55(100)	18(100)

None of the mobile households moved from the GRA to Kabawa. The reason for this could be attributed to the fact that Kabawa, being the worst slum in the town could not be attractive to residents of GRA

who are high class members of the society. On the other hand, the majority of the households that moved from Kabawa to GRA and other areas were young and educated, accounting for 88% of the

move, thereby, leaving behind the aged and low-class members of the community. Such selective mobility of well to do residents might leave behind a distressed neighbourhood.

Frequency of movements has been examined in relation to residential areas. Movements occurring within the last ten years showed households that moved at least once formed the majority with 52.7 % of the households, 35.0% had moved twice and 12.3% had moved thrice or

more (Table 3). There is a common pattern in the frequency of movement. As the number of movements increased, the number of mobile households decreased. However, in Kabawa, the proportion of households that moved more than once was 16.7% as compared with Adankolo and Lokongoma with 45.9% and 56.5% respectively. It follows from the above mobility pattern that households in Kabawa were more stable than those in the other residential areas.

Table 3: Frequency of Mobility by Households within Lokoja

Frequency	Neighbourhoods							
	GRA	Adankolo	Lokongoma	Ganaja	Felele	Zango	Kabawa	Total
	No/%	No/%	No/%	No/%	No/%	No/%	No/%	No/%
Once	15(57.7)	33(54.1)	30(43.5)	31(50.8)	29(47.5)	32(58.2)	15(83.3)	185(52.7)
Twice	7(26.9)	21(34.4)	33(47.8)	22(36.1)	20(32.8)	18(32.7)	2(11.1)	123(35.0)
Thrice or More	4(15.4)	7(11.5)	6(8.7)	8(13.1)	12(19.7)	5(9.1)	1(5.6)	43(12.3)
Total	26(100)	61(100)	69(100)	61(100)	61(100)	55(100)	18(100)	351(100)

Tenure status of urban households is one of the important variables that affect and influence frequency of residential mobility. Tenants had a higher propensity to move than owner occupiers. Up to 78.1 % of all residential mobility in Lokoja were tenants, 19.1 % owners, and 2.8 % were others forms of tenure including extended family property (Table 4). The 19.1% owner households that were mobile could be attributed to the fact that they were tenants before moving into their current residences. Since the households based their answers on the history of their residential mobility within Lokoja for the

past ten years, it was possible that most of such households had been tenants for some time. The findings confirm some of the studies conducted in parts of Africa that cities in Africa contains a high proportion of tenants (Gilbert, 1999; Gilbert and Gugler, 1982). Many people who would wish to own a home were constrained by a number of factors, prominent among which were low level of income and the process of land acquisition. Consequently, it generally takes a longer time in the cities to become a land owner.

Table 4: Tenure Status of Mobile Households

Tenure Status	Neighbourhoods							
	GRA	Adankolo	Lokongoma	Ganaja	Felele	Zango	Kabawa	Total
	No/%	No/%	No/%	No/%	No/%	No/%	No/%	No/%
Rental	16(61.5)	51(83.6)	55(79.7)	48(78.7)	59(96.7)	36(65.5)	9(50)	274(78.1)
Owner	9(34.6)	4(6.6)	14(20.3)	12(19.7)	1(1.6)	18(32.7)	9(50)	67(19.1)
Others	1(3.9)	6(9.8)	-(-)	1(1.6)	1(1.6)	1(1.8)	-(-)	10(2.8)
Total	26(100)	61(100)	69(100)	61(100)	61(100)	55(100)	18(100)	351(100)

A total of 57.3% of the households that moved to Ganaja were Igala, followed by the Bassa Nges with 16.4%, Igbira had 8.2% and Okun/Yoruba with 8.2%. Of the households that moved to Zango, Igbira accounted for 36.4%, Igala was 27.3% and Okun/Yoruba had 12.7%. Furthermore, at Felele, 32.8% of total of the households was accounted for by the Okun/Yoruba tribes, Igala and Igbira tribes had 16.4% respectively (Table 5). Similarly, in their quest to buy land or build a house, they were normally guided to areas where people from their home town could be found.

Differences, however, exist in Kabawa where, apart from the Hausa/Nupe ethnic groups that accounted for 33.3% of the sample household that moved, the Igbira accounted for a high proportion of 22.2%.

However, in other core areas of GRA, Adankolo and Lokongoma where migrants formed the majority, Igala ethnic group contributed the highest number that moved into them. The other tribes have proportional representation in the different areas. The study demonstrates concentration of the three major tribes; Igala, Igbira and Okun in different parts of the peripheries of the town. The Igalas, Igbiras and Okun predominates in Ganaja, Zango and Felele respectively. The residential mobility of the different tribes followed the pattern of the tribal enclaves as mobile households moved in direction to their specific zones in the town. Thus, most households that moved did so to areas where members of their ethnicity predominate.

Table 5: Destinations of Residential Mobility of Major Tribes.

Tribe	Neighbourhoods							Total
	GRA No/%	Adankolo No/%	Lokongoma No/%	Ganaja No/%	Felele No/%	Zango No/%	Kabawa No/%	
Igala	9(34.6)	30(49.2)	33(47.8)	35(57.3)	10(16.4)	15(27.3)	2(11.1)	134(38.2)
Igbira	5(19.2)	7(11.5)	8(11.6)	5(8.2)	10(16.4)	20(36.4)	4(22.2)	59(16.9)
Bassa Nge	2(7.6)	11(18.0)	9(13.0)	10(16.4)	4(6.5)	3(5.4)	2(11.1)	41(11.7)
Okun/Yoruba	5(19.2)	6(9.8)	12(17.4)	5(8.2)	20(32.8)	7(12.7)	3(16.7)	58(16.5)
Hausa/Nupe	2(7.6)	4(6.6)	3(4.4)	2(3.3)	8(13.1)	5(9.1)	6(33.3)	30(8.5)
Igbo/ Others	3(11.6)	3(4.9)	4(5.8)	4(6.6)	9(14.8)	5(9.1)	1(5.6)	29(8.3)
Total	26(100)	61(100)	69(100)	61(100)	61(100)	55(100)	18(100)	351(100)

Factors Influencing Residential Mobility in Lokoja

Several factors account for residential mobility within Lokoja. Generally, people move to be near their work places or when their family circumstances change, particularly when there is increase in family size. Members try to look for alternate accommodations, especially if provision was not made in the initial stages for expansion. Eviction is another important reason underlying the

movement of households across the urban area. Most landlords are accustomed to collecting high advance rents before tenancy. As soon as the period of the advance expires, some of them either demand another huge amount of money as a further advance or ask the tenants to move. Moving to own house was one of the important factors causing movement by many households into peripheral areas like Zango, Ganaja and Felele. Many people were encouraged by affordable and

easily available building plots sold by communities within the suburbs. As a result, many families took advantage and built their own houses in the periphery. Other reasons that also caused households to move include an unfavourable residential environment, unfriendly neighbours, unsanitary conditions, facility sharing and lack of playing grounds for children.

Besides this general pattern, variations of determinants of mobility could be found from one residential area to another. Moving to be near work places or joining other relatives provides a major reason why families moved into the peripheral areas of Ganaja, Zango and Felele; with 26% of households moving for these reasons. Moving for marriage reasons is the second important factor: 11 % moved out of the family house to form their own household, and 9 % moved into more spacious accommodation due to increase in family size.

Besides the general factors listed above, this study suggests that residential mobility is influenced by ethnic and socio-

economic factors, hence, a logistic regression analysis was performed with the direction of residential mobility as the dependent variable and age, income, marital status, household size, and tribe as predictor variables. Table 6 shows results of the probability of change of residence in Lokoja depends on ethnic and socio-economic factors. The table gives the coefficients, the Wald Statistic, associated degrees of freedom and probability values for each of the predictor variables. The P-value is compared with alpha level ($\alpha = 0.05$). The P-value of 0.005 shows that tribe reliably predicted the residential mobility in Lokoja. Household size with the P-value of 0.074 is slightly significant, while the P-values of age, income, marital status and household size which were 0.202, 0.953 and 0.752 respectively show that this group of independent variables does not significantly predict the residential mobility within the town. However, this does not override the fact that these variables may have contributed to the mobility in one way or the other.

Table 6: Logistic Regression Analysis for Residential Mobility in Lokoja

	B	S.E	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp (B)
Age	.010	.008	1.611	1	.202	1.010
Income	.000	.000	.003	1	.953	1.000
Marital Status	-.037	.125	.097	1	.752	.961
Household Size	-.035	.020	3.196	1	.074	.966
Tribe	-.475	.170	7.788	1	.005	.622
Constant	.677	.4572	2.171	1	0.140	1.966

Implications of the Pattern of Residential Mobility

Residential mobility combines with other factors lead to expansion of towns. Knox (1987) argues that cities begin to expand in spatial terms when families and households move from one part to settle in another. As this occurs, the city moves

into its neighbouring peri-urban areas. This process is true for Lokoja which started as a small settlement, but began to expand with the arrival of migrants, both foreign and local. Further expansion of the town is attributed to the administrative role played by Lokoja and its strategic location within Nigeria. These have

town into its current status as a metropolis.

Residential mobility has led to land invasion in Lokoja, as found in many developing countries. In Lokoja, access to land is attained through monetary transactions and formal land allocation processes are cumbersome, putting it beyond the capability of many families. The difficulty in acquiring land for housing purposes has tended to reduce the level of house ownership in the core areas of the town. In contrast to the process in the core areas, land at the periphery is under the control of the different communities, and a good number of landholders are selling off parts or whole portions of agricultural land at an affordable level to urban dwellers. This has allowed families to buy plots of land for housing directly from the indigenous communities without the hassle of the formal land allocation process.

Changes of residence within the town can result in the weakening of family ties. As family changes residence, its regular networking and interactions may be reduced. This situation applies mainly to the indigenous areas in Lokoja where the young are moving out of the old pre-colonial built-up area to the newly developing areas. Furthermore, the ever-increasing demand for housing against the limited number of housing supply favour land-owners and house-owners. This has led to land and housing speculation in Lokoja to the detriment of tenants. All across the town, 68% to 82% of households paid rent advances.

Conclusion

In addressing the major concerns of residential mobility in Lokoja, this study identified the pattern of the movement, the factors leading to residential mobility in

implications.

In the contemporary times, political administration, urbanisation and modernisation have given rise to rapid rate of physical development and urban sprawl. These have been instrumental to the transformation of Lokoja from a small settlement to a metropolis.

Certain factors have been found to have acted as stress that accounted for residential mobility in Lokoja. Households movement have been determined by ethnicity and other socio-economic factors. Mobility among households is directed towards peri-urban settlements. In Lokoja, those who occupy their own houses and family houses that are rent free, feel satisfied with their current situation.

Recommendation

The pattern and direction of residential mobility in Lokoja has implications for urban policy and provision of housing in growing urban centres. Demand for accommodation and housing, arising out of ethnic affiliations, increases in household size and number, changes in marital circumstances and nearness to workplaces, accounts for major determinants of residential mobility of households in Lokoja. Most of the residential areas of Ganaja, Zango, Felele, which are the receiving areas, are characterised by high rates of urbanisation in Lokoja.

This situation calls for proper planning of such identified areas in view of the ever-increasing rise in population. There is, therefore, a need to ensure proper and timely planning and development of housing in peripheral areas to facilitate movement of households. Lack of such planning usually results in encroachment,

overcrowding and development of slums. Besides, development plans for new suburban settlements should have sufficient social services including schools, clinics, market, places for convenience, water and roads to make them self-sufficient.

In Lokoja and other urban centres in Nigeria, urban planning and regional development are the responsibility of the state. The Kogi state government and its related ministries and agencies should draw up plans for new residential development. Mechanisms should then be instituted to ensure the implementation and execution of the plans by the state, private development agencies, traditional authorities, individual house owners and land owners and landlords. At the other level, tenants should be shielded from the harassment by landlords through credit facilities instituted by government for rent payment.

As a follow-up to this research, the problems of core traditional area of Kabawa have to be tackled. The state should execute urban renewal programme in the neighbourhood to resolve the issue of slum condition that necessitated the movement of young families to other parts of the town.

References

- Afoloyan, A.A. (1982). Residential Mobility within Metropolitan Lagos, *Geoforum*, 15(3): 315-325.
- Ahmed, M. (1995). Pattern of Residential Mobility in Bahawalpur City, Unpublished PhD Thesis, Department of Geography, Islamia University, Bahawalpur, Pakistan. 1-202.
- Animashaun, I.A. (2011). The Push Factors of intra-urban Residential Mobility in Calabar, Nigeria, *International Journal of Development and Management Review*, 6: 190-201.
- Bolt, G. and van Kempen, R. (2010). Ethnic Segregation and Residential Mobility: Relocation of Minority Ethnic Groups in the Netherlands, *Journal of Ethnic and Migrants Studies*, 36(2): 333-354.
- Clark, W.A.V. and Withers, S.D. (2007). Family migration and mobility sequences in the United States: Spatial mobility in the context of the life course. <http://www.demographic-research.org/vol17,20/DOI:10.4054/DemRes.2007.17.20>. Pg 591 – 622.
- Coulter, R., van Ham, M. and Findlay, A. (2013). New directions for residential mobility research: linking lives through time and space, IZA Discussion Paper No. 7525.
- Coulton, C., Theodos, B. and Turner, M.A. (2012). Mobility and Neighbourhood Change: Real neighbourhoods under microscope, *Cityscape: Journal of Policy Development and Research*, 14(3):55 -90.
- Duncan, G.J. and Newman, S.J. (1976). Expected and Actual Residential Mobility, *Journal of the American Institutes of Planners*, 42: 174-186.
- Federal Government of Nigeria (2007). The National Population Census. Official Gazette, Lagos, 15 May, 2007.
- Gilbert, A. (1999). Land and Shelter in Mega-cities: Some Critical Issues, in R. Fuschs, E. Brennan, J. Chemie, F.L. J. Uitto (eds.), *Mega-city Growth and the Future*, Tokyo: United Nations University Press.
- Gilbert, A. and Gugler, J. (1982). *Cities, Poverty and Development:*

- Urbanisation in the Third World*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gramlich, E., Laren, D. and Sealand, N. (1992). Moving Into and Out of Poor Urban Areas, *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 11(2): 273-287.
- Knox, P. (1987). *Urban Social Geography: An Introduction*, Second Ed. Harlow: Longman Group.
- Morris, E.W. and Winter, M. (1978). *Housing, Family, and Society*, New York: Wiley and Sons.
- Oishi, S. (2010). The Psychology of Residential Mobility: Implications for the Self, Social Relationships, and Well-Being, *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 5(1): 5-21.
- Olatubara, C.O. (2008). The Dynamics of Households' Residential Choice in Nigeria, 15th Faculty Lecture, Faculty of the Social Sciences, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, March.
- Rossi, P.H. (1955). *Why Families Move: A Study in the Social Psychology of Urban Residential Mobility*. Glencoe: Free Press Glencoe.
- Vaughan, D. and Feindt, W. (1973). Initial Settlement and Intra-urban Movement of Migrants in Monterrey, Mexico, *American Planning Association Journal*, 39: 388-401.
- Simpson, L. and Finney. N. (2009). Spatial Patterns of Internal Migration: Evidence for Ethnic Groups in Britain, *Population, Space and Place*, 15: 37-56.
- Speare, A. (1974). Residential Satisfaction as an Intervening Variable in Residential Mobility, *Demography*, 11(2): 173-18.