Full paper

International Journal of Real Estate Studies

INTREST

Assessment of Residents' Socioeconomic Characteristics and their Pattern of Residential Mobility in Osogbo, Nigeria

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Article history: Received: *31 December 2024* Received in revised form: *21 April 2025*
Accepted: *21 April 2025* Published online: *30 Jun 2024*
DOI: https://doi.org/10.11113/intrest.v19n1.395

Abstract

This study focuses on Residents' Socioeconomic Characteristics and the Pattern of Residential Mobility in Osogbo, Nigeria. Using both primary and secondary data. Primary data obtained from households in Osogbo and Olorunda Local Government Areas LGAs. Information obtained from INEC showed that there were 26 electoral wards in the study area. The wards were classified into core, transition, and suburban zones. A stratified random sampling technique was employed to select 9 electoral wards that were sampled. Through Google Earth, 10027 buildings were identified in the study area. In the core (1201 and 2558), transition (4434 and 1063) and suburb (443 and 328). Five per cent (5%) of the identified buildings were sampled. Thus, one out of every 20 buildings were selected using the systematic random sampling technique. Adopted this procedure, a questionnaire was administered to four hundred and ninety-nine (499) households in the study area. Secondary data obtained were the maps of the study area. Data were analyzed using binomial logistic regression and factor analysis. Findings show that most residents (87.1%) have moved at least once within Osogbo. While 12.9% of the sampled population have not moved. 7%, 4.9% and 1% of this are from the core, transition and suburban zones of Osogbo respectively. It further shows that residential movement within each residential zone is apparent. 35.9%, 34.9% and 2.4% of the residents moved or relocated within the core, transition and suburban residential zones of Osogbo, respectively. Major movement (19.2%) across the residential zones occurs from the core zone to the transition zone. Another notable residential movement is from the core to the suburban, representing 3.2%. The study concluded that special consideration must be given to the socioeconomic characteristics and the pattern of residential mobility of residents, overall housing quality, neighbourhood conditions and attributes, among others, which varied along the different residential areas of Osogbo.

Keywords: Residents, Socioeconomic characteristics, Residential mobility, Osogbo, Nigeria

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The influence of housing on the health, wealth, behaviour and efficiency of man and the nation at large cannot be overstated. Among three necessities of life is housing. In ranking human basic needs, housing occupied third position after food and clothing. This stressed that housing is inevitable to man (Ademiluyi, 2010; Olayiwola, 2012; Kehinde et al., 2015; Jolaoye, 2023). Housing is one of the most important life components giving shelter, safety and warmth, as well as providing a place to rest (Henlane, 2016). European Commission, (2005) revealed that in economic development of each country, housing plays significant role. It accounted for 10–20 % of total economic activity in the country, as well as being the households biggest fixed asset. Henilane, (2015a) opined that the need for housing is not only because it is one of the basic human needs, but also the indicator of living standard of the population. Today, it is a topical issue that housing has to be comfortable, economical and reasonably maintainable, as well as architectonically expressive and compliant with the environment. Equally, socioeconomic characteristics have a way of influencing the type of dwelling an individual seeks from time to time.

Residential mobility refers to the people frequent change with their residence (Shigehiro & Zanganeh, 2012). It is a time-to-time change of housing in a neighbourhood or city. Zanganeh & Samiee (2012) residential mobility is a means of expression of households' discomfort, displeasure and stress among others as a result of environmental situations (Dong et al., 2017; Allen, 2015). Residential mobility operates at an equilibrium point between housing supply constraints and housing demand conditions; it is also multi-dimensional in nature (Mathieu & Mark, 2015). Residential mobility attributed to adjustment in housing consumption patterns over time (Rossi 1955). Residential mobility leads to expansion of towns or cities. The expansion of city in spatial terms is when families and households move from one part to settle in another which in many developing countries lead to subsequently squatter settlements, sprawl and land invasion, among others (Ellen, 2017; Eyoha, et al., 2012 Martin & Grey, 1979). Residential mobility can be intended or actual (Mulder & Manting

2011). Intended mobility refers to a household's decision to relocate that has not yet been executed, while actual residential mobility refers to the physical movement that has occurred due to various necessary factors.

Many factors are responsible for household's decision to move or stay in a residence at a particular point in time. Okoko (1999) classified these factors under the pull and push factors. Push factors that encourage people to move include low housing cost, accessibility characteristics, general conditions of dwellings and neighbourhood characteristics (Olatubara and Salami, 2000; Coulton et al, 2012). While the pull factors on the other hand include residential inertia, family structure, income, employment, education and age (Moore, 1971; Boehm et al 1991; Grant, 1995). In another dimension, Li & Tu (2011) classified these factors into three major categories, these are: social and demographic, neighbourhood and segregation, and economic factors.

Residential mobility is an inevitable phenomenon in the housing sector that is characterised with both positive and negative effects. Households' movement from one neighbourhood to another within a city brings up obvious consequences on the formation and changing social domain inside the city and generally on the urban spatial structure of the city (Zanganeh & Samiee, 2012). Thus, studying why and how residential mobility happens is of particular importance, in understanding the social patterning and spatial structure of the city, most especially now that urban sprawl is becoming a global problem (UN-Habitat, 2012. Olujimi (2009) corroborated that there is no Nigerian city that can be separated from the stigmatization of urban sprawl. Aguda & Adegboyega (2013) showed that urban sprawl development in Osogbo was at a rate of 4.9km^2 per annum. There is therefore an urgent need to study residents' socioeconomic characteristics and the pattern of residential mobility, to be able to reduce urban sprawling.

Land use dynamics is driven by relocation decisions made by households and businesses. Households' movement from one neighbourhood to another neighbourhood inside the cities brings up obvious consequences on the formation and changing social domain, including influence on the social spatial structure of the city. Residential mobility combines with other factors affect land use patterns, travel demand, housing consumption, housing values, urban landscapes and above all, lead to expansion of towns. Knox (1987) argues that the city begins to expand in spatial terms when households and businesses move from one part to settle in another. As this occurs, the city moves into its neighbouring peri-urban areas.

Patterns of residential mobility have the power to substantially change the population composition of neighbourhoods and potentially other neighbourhood attributes. Mobility patterns are generally the result of conscious decisions people make, in choosing which neighbourhood to live. Thus, in order to understand the flows of people between neighbourhoods and the consequential urban pattern, it is necessary to have some senses of the factors that cause households to move (or stay) and that affect their choices of destination and neighbourhoods.

Choice of this area of research is purposeful. Conclusions drawn from mobility analyses are frequently found as the integral component of other urban analyses such as urban rent theory and social area analysis. Also, this study is undertaken not only to fill the gap on mobility pattern in Osogbo but also to serve as a document that could be useful for planning purposes in Osogbo and beyond. As Turner (1968) argues, the failure of many urban planning programmes in the developing countries derives from the ignorance of planners on the residential needs of the people. Thus, an understanding of the Residents' Socioeconomic Characteristics and their Pattern of Residential Mobility would provide a useful framework for the provision of urban housing and other services to help develop neighbourhoods

The understanding the socioeconomic characteristics and the pattern of residential mobility behaviour of a neighbourhood will not only reflect the nature of the local housing market but also help the government in housing policy formulation and to tackle the housing problems of that neighbourhood. The frequency with which people change their residential locations, why they move, and the patterns of movement are not just of relevance to urban planners alone, but also to public policy makers It is on this note that attempt was made to assess the residents' socioeconomic characteristics and the pattern of residential mobility in Osogbo.

■2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Concept of Housing and Neighbourhood Housing

Housing is the total residential neighbourhood or environment or micro district including the physical structure, all necessary services, facilities and apparatus for the individual and family's total health and social well-being (Salau, 1992). Olayiwola (2012) defined housing as the totality of the buildings and the environment in which man is situated together with the structural facilities that makes living in such buildings or houses convenient. Housing is not only the structures in which people live, it also includes the environment and all other supporting facilities and services.

The Nigerian Fourth National Development Plan (1981-1985) believes that except for food, shelter ranks highest among man's basic needs. It is, however, important to note that housing goes beyond simple shelter; it includes services, facilities, utilities within and without, onsite and off-site. Housing is a system of both physical and social structures. According to UN-Habitat (2012), the physical structure of housing includes residential buildings, their design, material qualities, their arrangement in space, and their ecological interactions with the environment. The social structure of housing includes residence-based activities, their character, social qualities, and their socio-economic interactions with the immediate communities.

Aroni (1982) and Achuenu (2002) pointed out that housing should be a home, a resting place with fundamental purpose of a secured, rewarding, happy or at least a liveable space. In the context of socio-cultural functionality, housing is viewed as an area for recreation and identification (Gallent et al, 2004) and can be regarded as psychological identity, a foundation for security and self-respect (Aroni, 1982) societal support (Johnson, 2006), and the setting for the formation of social relationships (Amole, 1997).

According to Onibokun (1982) housing is not only a basic human need; it constitutes a vital component of man's welfare, life sustenance and survival. In the hierarchy of man's needs, housing has been ranked second to food. It has a profound influence on the health, efficiency, social behaviour satisfaction and general welfare of the community. Housing is universally acknowledged as one of the most

basic human needs (Omuta, 1986; Ajanlekoko, 2001; Olayiwola et. al 2005; Akeju, 2007; Ademiluyi, 2010; Olayiwola, 2012), with a profound impact on the lifestyle, health, happiness as well as productivity of the individual (Dunn, 2000). The only means through which household satisfy their housing needs is through residential relocation. As mentioned above, housing is at the core of man's life, and it is connected to all aspect of his life. He will always relocate in order to satisfy his housing needs.

2.2 Neighbourhood

Several convergent definitions have been given to the term Neighbourhood. For example, Kallus (2000) defined it as "a place with physical and symbolic boundaries" while Morris & Hess (1975) labelled it "a place and people with common sense limit as the area one can easily walk over". On the other hand, Golag (1982) sees it as "a physical or geographical entity with specific boundaries". Hallman in his approach, attempted to integrate social and ecological perspectives by defining neighbourhood as "a limited territory within a large urban area, where people inhabit dwellings and interact socially (Hallman, 1984). Warren (1981) defines it as a social organization of a population residing in a geographically proximate locale where there exists a common named boundary, more than one institution identified with area, and more than one tie of shared public space or social network.

Minkler & Wallerstein (1997) contended that neighbourhoods have four basic components:

i. Physical and human built environment that supports residents' needs,
ii. Social dynamics and interactions,
iii. Group identity and cohesion; and
iv. Collectives who act together for political change.

A neighbourhood also as defined by Pitkin (2001) is associated with spatially based attributes such as:

i. Structural characteristics of residential and non-residential buildings: type, scale, materials, design, state of repair, density, landscaping.
ii. Infrastructural characteristics: roads, sidewalks, street landscaping, utility services, etc.
iii. Demographic characteristics of the resident population: age distribution, family composition, racial, ethnic, and religious types, etc.
iv. Class status characteristics of resident population: income, occupation and educational composition
v. Environmental characteristics: degree of land, air, water and noise, population topographical features, views, etc.
vi. Political characteristics: the degree to which local political networks are mobilized, residents exert influence in local affairs through spatially rooted channels or elected representatives.
vii. Social interactive characteristics: local friend and kin networks, degree of inter-household familiarity, type and quality of interpersonal associations, residents perceived commonality, and participation in locally based voluntary associations, strength of socialization and social control forces.

All the attributes above may not be present in a particular neighbourhood but Avery (2006) and Hunter (1974) emphasize that while most of them are the quantity and composition of constituent attributes typically vary across neighbourhoods within a single metropolitan area. This implies that, depending on the attribute package they embody, neighbourhoods can be distinctly categorized by type and or by quality. These details on the dimension over which neighbourhood can be classified is necessary for one to understand neighbourhood change.

A neighbourhood can be envisioned as a consumable commodity from which four different types of users potentially reap benefits (Galster, 2001). These users are:

i. Households: Households consume neighbourhoods through the act of occupying a residential unit and using the surrounding private and public spaces, thereby gaining some degree of satisfaction or quality of residential life.
ii. Businesses: Businesses consume neighbourhood through the act of occupying a non-residential structure (store, office, factory), thereby gaining a certain flow of net revenues or profit associated with that venue.
iii. Property owners: This group of users consume neighbourhood by extracting rents and/or capital gains from the land and buildings owned in that location.
iv. Local Government: To this group of users, consumption is done by extracting tax revenues, typically from owners and tenants based on assessed values of residential and non-residential properties.

Pitkin (2001) and Galster (2003) noted that neighbourhoods change by the very act of consuming them and this can occur directly or indirectly. Directly, as households consume neighbourhoods by occupying residences in it, they may simultaneously alter demographic and/or social economic status profile of the neighbourhood if the in-moving households differ systematically from longer-term residents. Indirectly, changes in the occupancy and /or ownership profiles of a neighbourhood not only change its current attributes but may trigger longer-term changes in a wider variety of attributes (Temkin & Rohe 1996).

2.3 Housing Choice/Preference

Residential location choice is a topic of much interest because decisions about where to work, shop, go to school, or pursue recreational activities are all inextricably tied to people's residential location. Preference and choice are the fundamental building blocks of economic theory. By literal definition, 'choice' (noun) would mean:

- ✓ the act of choosing; selection;
- ✓ power of choosing; option;
- ✓ the personal thing chosen;
- ✓ an abundance and variety from which to choose;

- ✓ that which is preferred or preferable to others; the best part of anything; and/or
- ✓ an alternative.

(The Macquarie Dictionary Third Edition 1997, p.389).

The topic of housing choice and housing preference continues to be heavily researched. Investigators have studied the topic from various angles. Each approach is based on a set of limiting assumptions and thus probably serves a particular goal. Models of housing choice and preference have certain assumptions in common (Schwanen & Mokhtarian 2003). First, they all assume that houses or residential environments can be described and qualified in terms of a set of attribute levels. Secondly, they all assume that individuals or households derive some part-worth utility from each of the attribute levels. Thirdly, the models assume that individuals combine their part-worth utility according to some rule to arrive at an overall preference or choice.

However, Brown & Moore, (1970) models differ in the specification of these rules (that is, the assumptions made about the underlying decision-making process). Furthermore, the models differ in data collection procedures and, to some extent, also in regard to model estimation. Some models, for example, assume that individuals take a compensatory decision-making strategy. This assumption implies that a low part-worth utility for a particular attribute level can, at least partially, be compensated by higher part-worth utilities on one or more of the remaining attributes. In contrast, other models assume a non-compensatory decision strategy. That assumption implies that a low part-worth utility of a particular attribute level can never be compensated, regardless of the part-worth utility of the remaining attribute levels.

2.4 Drivers of Residential Mobility

Other factors that determine residential mobility are socio-economic level of household (Clark, 1983); size of household, income, home ownership and the preference for better dwelling and neighbourhood characteristics (Huff, 1979; Coulton et al, 2012). Other Socio-economic characteristics include gender, age, educational attainment; income, occupation and residents' length of stay in present residential unit have been identified by Clark (1976), Champion & Fotheringam (1998); and De Jong & Brouwer, (2012) as important factors that influence residential mobility.

A major concept used in residential mobility research is the household lifecycle, represented by the changing demographic characteristics of a household as it progresses through stages from formation to dissolution. The impact of these stages on moving is found in the expansion and contraction of family size. The works of Rossi (1980), Clark et al. (2003) and Gyimah (2001) among others confirmed this. Empirical illustration of the importance of the life course can be extracted from the case study of internal migration and regional population dynamics in the United Kingdom by Rees et al. (1996). The relationship between life course and residential mobility has a strong support in migration literature, both theoretical (Rogers et al., 1978; Warnes & Ford, 1995) and empirical (Polachek & Horvath, 1977; Plane and Heins, 2003).

The works of Forsyth et al. (2007) and Gyimah (2001) claim that people move for safety reasons. Other factors include stress and dissatisfaction with initially occupied units in relation to the size of household (Jones, 1979; Brown and Moore, 1970); head of household age and length of residence (Clark, 1982). Others are magnitude of search and moving cost (Weinberg et al., 1981); search cost (De Boer, 1985); ethic group social links (Afolayan, 1994); tendency of households to maximize expected utility (Smith & Mertz, 1980; Phipps & Laverty, 1983); financial difficulties (Buck, 1994); size of household, characteristics of poor households and number of children in school (Oyegun, 2000).

Trade-offs between housing qualities and rents, activity opportunities, and travel costs have long been recognized as fundamental considerations in both the decision to move (Rossi, 1980; Brown & Moore, 1970). Brown & Moore (1970) identified five categories of factors that may affect households' choice of neighbourhood: accessibility (to city centre, communications, service, green areas etc.). Second, physical characteristics of the neighbourhood (material condition of street and sidewalk, layout, beauty). Third, services and facilities (quality and accessibility). Fourth, social environment (Socioeconomic characteristics such as gender, age, educational attainment, income, occupation and residents' length of stay in present residential unit have been identified by Clark et al., (1969), Champion & Fotheringam (1998) and de Jong & Brouwer (2012) as important factors that influence residential mobility. Others are ethnic and demographic composition, friends and friendliness), and fifth, individual site and dwelling characteristics (costs, housing size etc.).

2.5 Issues in Intra-Urban Residential Mobility

Many aspects of residential mobility have been widely researched by scholars from different fields. This research has raised a lot of issues as they relate to intra-urban mobility. This section examines few of these issues from past literatures.

2.5.1 Residential and Neighbourhood Preferences

A household's decision to choose a particular residential district over the other districts could be due to a lot of reasons. From empirical studies, diverse reasons have been proposed to explain why residents prefer some residential districts to the others. For instance, Schwanen & Mokhtarian 2003; Cervero & Duncan 2002; Sermons & Seredich (2001) found strong relationships between individual's travel pattern and residential location preference. Ogunjumo & Olatubara (1998) claimed this choice may be due to socioeconomic, cultural, administrative or purely psychological factors.

Kauko (2006) identified the functionality and spaciousness of the house itself as the most significant determinant. Croft (2003), on the other hand, identified the rating of existing facilities, especially, schools for the children. Olatubara (1994) investigated the significance of a number of socio-economic and environmental variables such as age of respondent, sex, housing quality, income, and some distant

variables. He discovered that all these variables only explained 15.83 per cent, thus implying that these variables are low predictors of residential district preference factor.

Neighbourhood safety and crime rates are important considerations (Boheim & Taylor, 2002). Significant clustering effects have also been found, with households seeking neighbourhoods where the household demographic characteristics match their own (Guo and Bhat, 2006). School quality is another major consideration, particularly for households with children (Gibbons & Machin, 2008).

2.5.2 Urban sprawl and residential mobility

An estimated one-third of all urban residents live in informal settlements or slums – the vast majority in developing countries. Conditions in such areas vary widely from dismal, temporary shelter in squatter settlements to relatively well-constructed informal housing that may persist for many decades. Urban sprawl is the result of the search for alternatives to the urban housing and environment (Vaughan & Feindt, 1973; Henlane, 2016).

By constructive or mobility initiatives, those involved looked for a housing solution as closer to nature as possible. But through their actions, in the absence of public coordination (transport infrastructure, technical infrastructure, urban planning), they contributed to the transformation of the rural zones, to the destruction of some natural elements and to excessive urban planning of the qualified areas as rural by chaotic or high-density constructions.

Rapid urban population growth, the inability of local governments to provide sufficient serviced land and lack of policy framework to checkmate residential mobility has resulted in a large number of people residing in informal settlements in the developing world (Dong et al., 2017).

2.5.3 Housing policy and residential mobility

This section considers the ways in which housing policy in particular impacts on mobility (Table 1). Davison (2005) identified four attributes of housing which policy makers seek to influence, these are tenure, dwelling, home-life and location.

Table 1 The impact of housing policy on residential mobility

Housing attribute	Policy	Impacts on mobility
Tenure	*Homeowner/purchaser policies* • Significant entry and transaction costs, including stamp duty only partially offset by first homeowner grant. • Taxation benefits further encourage homeownership as tenure choice	▼Reduces mobility for present homeowners, and potentially movement into home ownership from rental but no adverse effects on labour market except in regional areas (Flatau et al, 2004).
	Private Rental Policies: • Commonwealth Rent Assistance (CRA) provided to welfare recipients, regardless of location or housing stock • Limited access to relocation subsidies in some jurisdictions (PRSPs) • Protections for private renters from eviction but lack of security of tenure and no supports to extend features of homeownership into this tenure	Enables mobility for welfare recipients. Assistance is 'transportable' with recipient. ▲Increases mobility: Assistance is provided to form house or move between housing rather than providing on-going support (see Jacobs et al, 2005) ▲Increases mobility: Most renters value flexibility, however some groups would prefer greater security of tenure (Minnery et al, 2003)
	Public rental • Rental policies charge market rents for those earning but still below 'real market' rent. • Limited transferability within public housing (limited choice) • High waiting lists, security of tenure and allocation policies	▼ Reduces mobility as incentives are to stay rather than leave.
Dwelling	• Planning policies to support variety of dwelling stock in major cities • Regeneration programmes in public rental • Lack of suitable rental housing stock in particular regions	Affects capacity of household to find dwelling to suit needs in area of choice and affects mobility decision - may lead to forced exit of existing tenants. - reduces mobility to regional areas but may increase outward mobility

Home-life	• SAAP and public housing seek to stabilise those at risk of homelessness • Migration services coordinate access to housing but some (TPVs) not eligible	▼Intent is to reduce mobility for 'at risk' groups. ▼Reduces mobility for those seeking stable accommodation but gaps exist leading to high rates of mobility.
Location	• Location of public housing • Movement to Area of Lower Economic Prospects (MALEP) policy • CRA locationally biased away from centres of employment growth.	- locate near to welfare services to reduce movement. - Seeks to improve direction of mobility towards best locations for jobs. - Increases mobility from high-cost areas, which are often best locations for jobs.

(Source: Davison, 2005)

2.5.4 Residential satisfaction and mobility

Research on migration decision making has been centred on the notion that residential satisfaction and mobility intentions are intervening variables which fully mediate the effects of structural factors on moving behaviour. Western studies have agreed that residential mobility is a demographically driven process, in which age, tenure and room stress (housing-space requirements) is found to be significant predictors of moving (Clark & Huang, 2003; Rossi, 1980). Many empirical studies have tried to prove the statistical power of moving behaviour explained by residential satisfaction. The general assumption is that there are emotional reasons that affect people's moving choices.

However, studies have rendered only modest support for this view. Lu (1998) studied 1985–89 waves of the American Housing Survey and found that most of the structural variables were independent of residential satisfaction and moving intentions. Although he does not totally cut the linkages between satisfaction and housing mobility, it is clear that they are not as strong as they were thought to be.

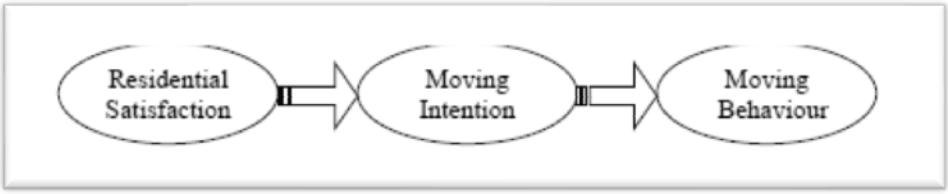

Figure 1 Fang hypothesis
Source: Fang (2006)

Fang (2006) investigates the mismatch among residential satisfaction, moving intentions and moving behaviour in China (see fig. 1). He revealed that it is hard to sustain residential satisfaction in allocated and subsidized redeveloped housing, because of household need changes and residents 'lack of abilities to adjust and modify their living situations. According to him, overall residents in the Beijing neighbourhoods studied were not satisfied and some wished to move, but they were unable to move due to a mixture of constraints including social and anticipated economic and political barriers. At this point, it is good to note that there is a strong correlation between residential satisfaction and intra-urban mobility.

■3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study Area

The study area is Osogbo, Osun State which consists of two Local Government Areas which are Osogbo and Olorunda local governments having Igbona and Oke Baale as their respective headquarters. The study area is also situated at the centre of Osun State, Osogbo originated as a traditional and cultural town, its name was derived from proclamation by the goddess of Osun River. The people in this region are Yorubas having their origins linked to Ile-Ife which is believed to be the ancestral home of all Yoruba race. Like other traditional Yoruba settlement, Osogbo is made up of three residential areas. These are the core, transition and sub-urban areas. The area lies between latitude 7o 47I North of the Equator and Longitude 4o 26I East of the Greenwich meridian with an area of 47kmsq. It was bounded in the West by Oyo state, Ondo and Ekiti States in the East, on the North by Kwara State and in the South by Ogun State (Figure 1 and Figure 2).

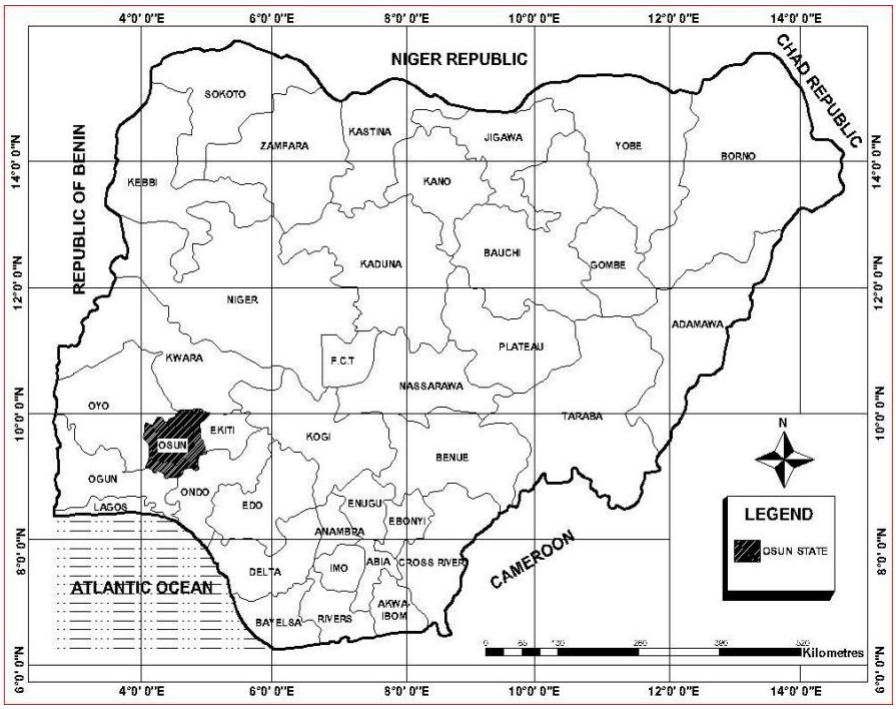

Figure 2 Map of Nigeria showing Osun State
(Source: National Airspace Research and Development Agency (NARSDA) 2024)

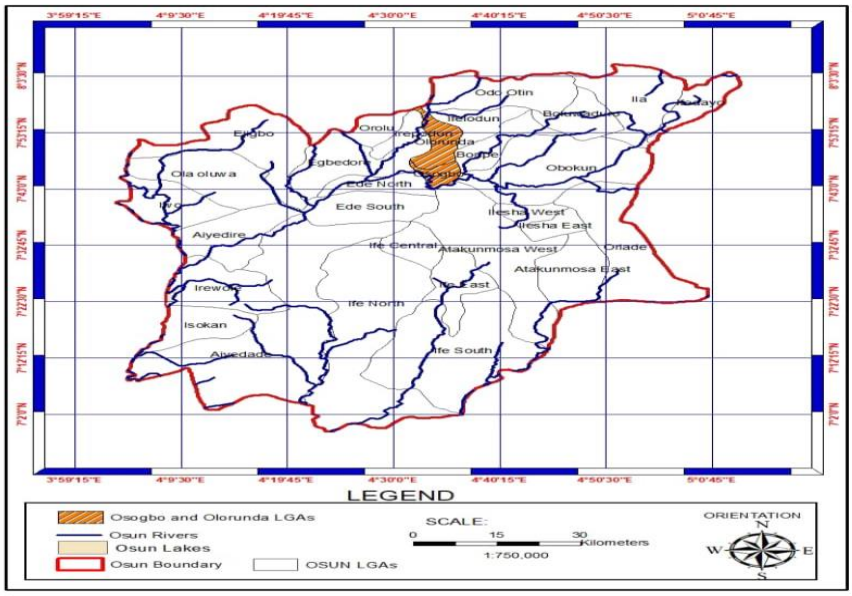

Figure 3 Map of Osun State Showing Osogbo and Olorunda Local Government Area
(Source: National Airspace Research and Development Agency (NARSDA) 2024)

3.2 Research Method

Data collection was from both primary and secondary sources. Primary data were collected using multistage sampling technique to administer questionnaire on the households in Osogbo and Olorunda Local Government Areas LGAs, Osogbo. Reconnaissance survey coupled with google Earth revealed that there are total of 10027 buildings in the selected areas of residential zones. In the core (1201 and 2558), transition (4434 and 1063) and suburb (443 and 328) in the study area. Information obtained from INEC showed that there were 26 electoral wards in the study area. The wards were classified into core, transition, and suburban zone. Proportional Stratified sampling technique was used to select 9 electoral wards that were sampled in the study area. Thus, 5% of the identified buildings were sampled.

Thus, one out of every 20 building were selected adopted systematic random sampling technique. Using this procedure, questionnaire was administered in four hundred and ninety-nine (499) buildings in the study area (Table 2). Primary data were derived from fieldwork, involving the administration of questionnaire to source information from household heads. Where the household head is unavailable, any adult household member in the absence of the head was surveyed. Secondary data were sourced from Ministry of Lands, Physical Planning and Urban Development, Local Planning Authorities, Local Government Secretariats, and Google maps, among others. Data were analysed using Binomial Logistic Regression to analyse socio-economic variables of movers and non-movers and Factor analysis for residential mobility variables in the study area.

Table 2 Electoral Wards and Number of Houses in the Study Area

Local Govt Area	Residential Zones	Ward Name	No. of Ward	Selected Ward(s)	No. of Buildings	Buildings to be Sample
Osogbo	Core	Otun-Jagun A; Alagbaa and Are-Ago	3 (1)	Alagbaa	1201	60
	Transition	Otun-Jagun B; Ataoja A, B, C, D and E; Jagun B; Eketa; Otun-Balogun and Ekerin	10 (3)	Eketa; Otun-Balogun and Ekerin	4434	221
	Sub-Urban	Baba kekere and Jagun A	2 (1)	Baba kekere	443	22
Olorunda	Core	Owode 1&2; Balogun; Owoope and Akogun	5 (2)	Owode 1 & 2	2558	127
	Transition	Ayetoro; Agowande and Atelewo	3 (1)	Ayetoro	1063	53
	Sub-Urban	Oba-Ile; Oba-Oke and Ille	3 (1)	Oba-Ile	328	16
Total			**26 (9)**		**10027**	**499**

(Source: Independent National Electoral Commission, 2007; (Adapted from Oluwadare, 2019))

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Findings are discussed in various sub-sections as follows. Except where otherwise stated, information presented in tables were results from the household survey conducted by the authors in 2020.

4.1 Socio-economic characteristics of residents

It is therefore imperative to examine residents' social, economic and demographic attributes. Thus, examined in this section are these residents' socio-economic characteristics.

For ease of analysis, the residents were classified into movers and non-movers. Residents that have resided in their present residential units for more than five (5) years were classified as non-movers. The summary of the movers and non-movers in the study area is presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Movers and non-movers in the study area

	Core		Transition		Suburban		Total	
	Freq.	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*
Movers	22	12.0	10	3.6	19	50	51	10.3
Non-movers	162	88.0	264	96.4	19	50	445	89.7
Total	**184**	**100**	**274**	**100**	**38**	**100**	**496**	**100**

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

Statistical analysis of the movers and non-movers revealed that majority of the households in the core, transition and sub-urban residential areas were non-movers. This accounted for 89.7% of the residents in the study area. However, in the different residential zones, 88.0%, 96.4% and 50.0% of the residents in the core, transition and sub-urban respectively were non-movers. On the contrary, only 12.0% of residents in the core are movers. Similarly, 3.6% and 50.0% were movers in the transition and sub-urban residential area respectively.
It is evident that there are spatial variations in the numbers of movers and non-movers in the different residential zones. However, it was established that there were more movers in the core and sub-urban residential areas of Osogbo. The reason for this is not farfetched as some residents in the core may move to the suburban in search of space, job, house ownership among others. Other authors within and outside the country have establish similar phenomena in their works (Feindt, 1973; Afoloyan, 1982; and Ozo, 1986).

4.2 Gender Distribution of the Residents

Presented in Table 4 is the information on the gender distribution of residents in Osogbo. It can be seen from the Table 4 that 342 (69.0%) of the residents are male, while 154 (31.0%) of household head were female. However, 129 (70.1%) of the residents from the core are male, 189 (69.0%) of residents in transition residential zone are male and 24 (63.2%) of the suburban residents are males. On the other hand, female residents from the core residential zone accounted for 55 (29.9%), transition residential zone recorded 85 (31.0%) of female residents. While the suburban residential zone has 14 (36.8%).

Table 4 Gender Distribution of Residents

Gender	**Core**		**Transition**		**Suburban**		**Total**	
	Freq.	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*
Male	129	70.1	189	69.0	24	63.2	342	69.0
Female	55	29.9	85	31.0	14	36.8	154	31.0
Total	**184**	**100**	**274**	**100**	**38**	**100**	**496**	**100**

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

This result indicates that there are more males than females' household heads in the study area. It also signifies that men traditionally dominate households in Nigeria, out of which Osogbo is not an exception. And that the male gender holds the ace of headship of households within Osogbo.

4.3 Marital Status of Residents

Researchers had identified marital status as one of the factors that affect the propensity to migrate (Clark, 1976; Graves and Linneman, 1979; Boehm et al, 1991; Clark, 2012). The implication of these studies revealed that residential mobility does not occur to people equally and for variety of reasons; marital status may play a role in determining peoples' tendency to move or stay in a residential unit.

Table 5 Marital Status of Residents

Marital Status	**Core**		**Transition**		**Suburban**		**Total**	
	Freq.	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*
Single	20	10.9	5	1.8	4	10.5	29	5.8
Married	154	83.7	269	98.2	34	89.5	457	92.1
Widowed	10	5.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	10	2.0
Total	**184**	**100**	**274**	**100**	**38**	**100**	**496**	**100**

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

The marital status of residents in the study area is presented in Table 5. From the Table, (5.8%) of the residents are single. It was also revealed that 92.1% of residents in the study area were married while widowed accounted for just 2% of the residents. Further analysis revealed that 20 (10.9%), 5 (1.8%) and 4 (10.5%) of the single residents are from the core, transition and the suburban residential zones respectively.

Most of the married residents resided in the core and transition residential zones. This accounted for 154 (83.7%) and 269 (98.2%) respectively. While only 34 (89.5%) of the residents in the suburban residential area are married. The Table also revealed that all the widowed residents are from the core residential zone, this accounted for 10 (5.4%).

4.4 Residents' Level of Education

The highest level of education attained will to some extent determines the kind of occupation someone can engage in (Jayamala 2008). It could also be a determinant of individual income. Some studies have also argued the fact that that migration increases considerably with educational attainment (Owen and Green, 1992; and Piras, 2005).

Through the summary presented in Table 6, a total of 447 (91.1%) of residents in Osogbo had a form of formal educational qualification or the other. It was established that 73 (14.7%), 216 (43.5%) and 158 (31.9%) had primary, secondary and tertiary education respectively. Investigations into the level of education of residents in the core residential zone revealed that 26.1% have no formal education, while 29.9%, 31.5% and 12.5% had primary, secondary and tertiary education respectively. It was also established that 1.1%, 54.0% and 44.5% of the residents who reside in the transition residential zone had primary, secondary and tertiary education respectively. Further analysis from the Table 6 also revealed that, of residents from suburban 39.5%, 26.3% and 34.2% had primary, secondary and tertiary education respectively. The result reveals that educational level influences the likelihood of mobility in the study area. Individuals with higher educational attainment (secondary or tertiary education) are more likely to move compared to those with lower educational levels (primary or no formal education

Table 6 Residents' Highest Level of Education Attained

Educational Status	**Core**		**Transition**		**Suburban**		**Total**	
	Freq.	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*
No formal education	48	26.1	1	0.4	0	0.0	49	9.9
Primary	55	29.9	3	1.1	15	39.5	73	14.7
Secondary	58	31.5	148	54.0	10	26.3	216	43.5
Tertiary	23	12.5	122	44.5	13	34.2	158	31.9
Total	**184**	**100**	**274**	**100**	**38**	**100**	**496**	**100**

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

4.5 Average Monthly Income of Residents

Income of residents is another important variable in the explanation of residential mobility in a given area. Even if there is a need to change residence, without the required capital for the movement it will be impossible to move. It is good to note that, many scholars have stressed the importance of income in the residential mobility process (Moore, 1971; Boehm et al, 1991; Grant, 1995)

For easy of analysis the resident's income status, monthly earnings were grouped into three in accordance with the current Osun State Civil Service Salary Scale. These were: Level 01-06; 07-12 and 13 and above. The first group was those that were earning less than ₦30, 000 per month. Residents in this category were regarded as the low-income earners. Those that earned between ₦ 31,000 and ₦75, 000 were regarded as middle-income earners and those that earned monthly income above ₦ 75,000 were high income earners.

Presented in Table 7 is the average monthly income of residents in Osogbo. The minimum monthly income was ₦5000.00k while the maximum was ₦500000.00k. The average monthly income for the study area was ₦56000.00k with a standard deviation of ₦88522.00k. Therefore, the income range was high. This indicated that residents' income was not evenly distributed within and between the localities under consideration.

Table 7 Average Monthly Income of Residents

Average Monthly Income (₦)	**Core**		**Transition**		**Suburban**		**Total**	
	Freq.	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*
30,000 and below	94	51.1	3	1.1	0	0.0	97	19.4
31,000 – 75,000	65	35.3	192	70.1	4	10.5	261	52.4
Above 75,000	25	13.6	79	28.8	34	89.5	138	26.8

Total	**184**	**100**	**274**	**100**	**38**	**100**	**496**	**100**

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

The study revealed that most of the residents are middle-income earners (52.4%), this is followed by the high-income earners (26.8%). The low-income earners are the least (19.4%) of the groups in the study area. As expected, most of the residents in the core area of the study area are low-income earners, this accounted for 51.1%. 35.3% and 13.6% were middle and high-income earners respectively. Also, most residents in the transition residential zone are middle-income earners, this represents 70.1% of the residents. While 1.1% and 21.8% accounted for low and high-income earners in the transition residential zone respectively.

Differences in the income of residents across the three residential zones were found to be statistically significant. The result of the analysis of variance (F=27.663 and p=0.000) confirmed the variation in the income of residents in the three identified residential areas in Osogbo.

4.6 Household Size

Household size is an important demographic characteristic in the explanation of residential mobility. Normally, it is expected that the size of a household tends to influence its residential mobility propensity. It is unquestionable that the space requirement for larger households might make them relocate, but also members of the household had to be considered before any residential movement. This implies that efforts on the part of individuals not to relocate might be stronger if their household members are larger as compared to those with smaller members.

For the purpose of this study, household size categorization used in this study was adopted from Yusuf et.al. (2011) and Afon (2011). Thus, household size was categorized into three. These are household with 6 members and below, household that contains 7 to 10 members and household with more than 10 members. These were respectively regarded as the small sized, medium and large size household size.

Table 8 Household Size

Household Size	**Core**		**Transition**		**Suburban**		**Total**	
	Freq.	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*
6 and below (Small Size)	100	54.3	55	20.1	24	82.8	179	37.7
7-10 (Medium Size)	72	39.1	218	79.6	5	17.2	295	59.5
Above 10 (Large Size)	12	6.5	1	0.4	0	0.0	13	2.6
Total	**184**	**100**	**274**	**100**	**29**	**100**	**487**	**100**

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

From the summary presented in Table 6, the predominant household size in Osogbo is the medium household size (7-10 persons), this accounted for 59.5% of Osogbo' residents. The case is not different in the transition zone where majority of the residents (79.6%) in the area have household medium size. Other household sizes in Osogbo include small household size (6 persons and below) and large household size (above 10), these represented 37.7% and 2.6% respectively. The core and suburban residential zone had the largest proportion of residents with small sized household. The group accounted for 54.3% and 82.8% of the residents in those areas respectively. Similarly, it was evident that 20.1% of residents in transition residential area had also small sized household.

4.7 Tenure Status

There are two major opinions on the influence of tenure on residential mobility. While some scholars believe that residential mobility is mainly the characteristics of the renters (Okpala, 1981; Boyce, 1971; and Maris, 1962). Other scholars' observation was that there is an increasing transition from owner occupier to renter (Konstantinos, 2006; Buck, 1994)

Presented in Table 9 is the tenure status of residents in the study area. 55.6% of the residents are owner occupiers, while 44.4% are tenants. 50.5% of the residents in the core residential zone are owner occupiers, while 59.9% and 50.0% of those in the transition and suburban residential zones are also owner occupiers respectively. On the other hand, 49.5% of the core area residents are tenants, 40.1% from the transition and 50.0% are from the suburban residential zone.

Table 9 Status of Tenure

Status of Tenure	Core		Transition		Suburban		Total	
	Freq.	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*
Owner Occupied	93	50.5	164	59.9	19	50.0	276	55.6
Tenancy	91	49.5	110	40.1	19	50.0	220	44.4
Total	**184**	**100**	**274**	**100**	**38**	**100**	**496**	**100**

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

4.8 Occupation of Residents

Table 10 presents information on occupation of residents in Osogbo. It is discovered that 80 residents (16.1%) are traders, 214 residents (43.1%) are self-employed, 98 residents (19.8%) are civil servants, 83 residents (16.7%) are in the private sector, 10 residents (2.0%) are retiree while others like artisans, builders among others account for 11 residents and 2.2%.

Table 10 Occupation of residents

Occupation	Core		Transition		Suburban		Total	
	Frequency	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*
Trader	69	37.5	11	4.0	0	0.0	80	16.1
Self Employed	37	20.1	164	59.9	13	34.2	214	43.1
Civil service	27	14.7	66	24.1	5	13.2	98	19.8
Private sector	30	16.3	33	12.0	20	52.6	83	16.7
Retiree	10	5.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	10	2.0
Others	11	6.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	11	2.2
Total	**187**	**100**	**274**	**100**	**38**	**100**	**496**	**100**

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

However, in the core residential zone, majority of the residents are traders accounting for 69 residents (37.5%) out of the 82 residents, followed by self-employed 37 residents (20.1%), private sector 30 residents (16.3%), civil servants 27 residents (14.7%), retiree 10 residents (5.4%) and others like artisan 11 residents and 6.0% of the total residents in the core area of Osogbo. In the transition residential zone, most of the residents are self-employed and this is 164 residents (59.9%). This is followed by those who are civil servants 66 (24.1%), after these are traders which account for 11 residents (4.0%). While in the suburban residential zone, majority of the residents are private sector works, 20 residents representing 52.6%, next in rank are residents who are self-employed, 13 residents (34.2%), then followed by those that are civil servants 5 residents (13.2%).

To test whether there is spatial variation in the occupations of residents, chi-square was computed. The chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant difference between residential zones and the occupational distribution of residents in the study area as shown by the chi-square value of 2.008 and p, which is significant at 0.00. It can be concluded that occupation requiring formal education increase as distance increase from the high-density areas to the low-density areas.

4.9 Ethnicity of Residents

In most cases urban residents have different geographical origins. This present study also confirms the reality of this situation. As observed from Table 9 below, majority of the residents (96.6%) are Yorubas. This is not surprising due to the fact that the study area being in southwestern Nigeria is the headquarters of the western region in the second republic. The rest of the residents included other ethnic groups like the Igbos, Hausas and other tribes who are just 3.4% of the total residents.

In disaggregate form, in the core residential zone, all the residents (184 residents) are Yoruba. This may be due to the fact that Osogbo is a traditional Yoruba settlement, and the occupants of the core residential zone includes the families of the first settlers. There are 261

residents (95.3%) that are Yorubas in the transition zone and 13 residents (4.7%) that are Igbos. In the suburban residential zone, 34 residents are of the Yoruba tribe, 2 residents are Igbo while 1 resident is Hausa and 1 resident from the other tribes.

In general, it can be argued that one's place of origin as an impact on the level of accessibility to land and housing. This undermines one of the objectives of the land use act which purportedly give all Nigeria's citizens irrespective of his/her ethnicity equal right to acquire land in any part of the country.

Table 11 Residential zones and ethnicity of residents

Ethnicity	**Core**		**Transition**		**Suburban**		**Total**	
	Frequency	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*
Yoruba	184	100	261	95.3	34	89.5	482	96.6
Igbo	0	0.0	13	4.7	2	5.3	15	3.0
Hausa	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.6	1	0.2
Others	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.6	1	0.2
Total	**184**	**100**	**274**	**100**	**38**	**100**	**499**	**100**

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

4.10 Effects of Socio-economic Factors on Residential Mobility

Discussed below is the relationship between residential mobility and six socio-economic variables. However, it could be argued that besides socio-economic factors, factors such as housing and neighbourhood factors might also explain residential mobility. The objective here therefore is to examine the relative effects of gender, age, marital status, years spent for formal education, income and household size (independent variables) on residential mobility (dependent variable) in Osogbo. Considering the binary nature of the dependent variable, logistic regression is deemed the most appropriate statistical technique (Hagenaars, 1993; Demaris, 1992; Clark and Hosking, 1986).

The results of the analysis are presented in Tables 12 and 13 comprises both the Logistic Regression Model Summary and the summary of Logistic Regression predictors for the analysis. Overall, the mode1 is a fairly good fit for the data. The Model $\chi 2$ of 40.212 indicate that the model is significant at 1% (0.000) level of probability. Nagelkerke R^2 value of 0.415 implies that the predictors (independent variables) predict 42% of the variation in residential mobility. The percentage correct prediction is 92.6% which is quite high. Three of the six independent variables (Age, income and household size) were found to have significant influence on residents' decision to relocate.

Table 12 Logistic Regression Model Summary

Step	**-2 Log likelihood**	**Cox & Snell R Square**	**Nagelkerke R Square**
1	217.572[a]	.201	.415
Step	**Chi-square**	**df**	**sig**
1	40.212	8	.000

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

Table 13 Summary of Logistic Regression for Predictors

		B	**S.E.**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(B)**
Step 1[a]	**Gender(1)**	.089	.419	.045	1	.833	1.093
	Age	-.188	.030	39.069	1	.000	.829
	Marital(1)	-.053	.641	.007	1	.934	.948
	Years	.074	.046	2.638	1	.104	1.077
	Income	.000	.000	6.916	1	.009	1.000
	Household	-.185	.081	5.195	1	.023	1.203
	Constant	3.761	1.042	13.015	1	.000	42.981
a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Gender, Age, Marital, Years, Income, Household.							

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

Gender is one of the dependent variables in the equation. It is not significant (0.833; $p < 0.05$) but positively related to residential mobility (0.089). The odds ratio of 1.093 implies that the males are 1.1 times more likely to move than females. In other words, males move or relocate more than females. This might be because most household heads are males and the decision to move or not to move depends on them. Also, male children leave their parent homes earlier than the female children. Most female child live with their parent until they are married before relocating to their husband house. Age is significant in the mobility equation. The result for Age is b= -0.188, this shows that it is negatively related to residential mobility. This implies that with old age mobility decreases and young households move or relocate more than the older households. Its odds ratio value of 0.829 suggest that younger persons are 1.2 times more likely to move than older people. Older persons are less likely to relocate probably because of consideration of other family members. It might also be because they are already living in their own personal homes or close to their workplace.

Marital status is negatively related to residential mobility (b= -0.053) and is not significant. The odd ratio of 0.948 implies that single is almost 1.1 time more likely to move than married person. This is probably because married persons have to consider all members of their household. Years spent in pursuit of formal education (b=0.074) is not significant, but it is positively related to residential mobility. This means the higher the number of years a person spent in pursuit of formal education the higher the chances of them relocating. Its odds ratio of 1.077 implies that persons with higher number of years are 10% more likely to move than those who spent lesser number of years in pursuit of formal education.

Income is significant and positively related to residential mobility. It odd ratio of 1.000 implies that there is no difference in the mobility rate of lower income and high-income earners in Osogbo. Household size is significant (0.023<0.05). It is however negatively related to residential mobility, which implies that residents with larger household size are less likely to relocate. It has an odd ratio of 1.203, which means larger households are 1.2 times (20%) less likely to move or relocate. Larger household might move less probably because of space requirement. Also, such relocation decision will have to take all members of the household into consideration

4.11 Residents' Residential Mobility Characteristics

This section discusses the characteristics of residential mobility in Osogbo. Characteristics of mobility such as frequency of relocation, residents' mobility history (past 10 years), and pattern of residential mobility in Osogbo among others were discussed below.

4.11.1 Frequency of Residential Relocation

Residents were asked to report their mobility histories by indicating how many times they have moved within Osogbo. Table 12 compares the number of moves residents have made in the three residential zones in Osogbo. Based on findings from the study, majority of the residents (87.1%) have moved at least once within the study area. Also indicated in the table 10 below, 12.9% of the residents in Osogbo have not moved. Similarly, 19.4%, 8.8% and 13.2% of residents from the core, transition and suburban zones of Osogbo respectively are yet to move.

Most residents in Osogbo have moved once, this represented 34.7% of the sample population. Closely followed by this group are those residents (31.4%) that have moved twice. The case is similar in the core area of Osogbo, where 46.9% of residents in the area have moved once and 28.0% have moved twice. Furthermore, the suburban areas recorded the highest number of residents who have moved twice within Osogbo. More than half of the residents (52.6%) in the suburban residential area have moved twice. Of the three residential zones in Osogbo, the core has the highest number of residents (5.7%) who have moved more than three times.

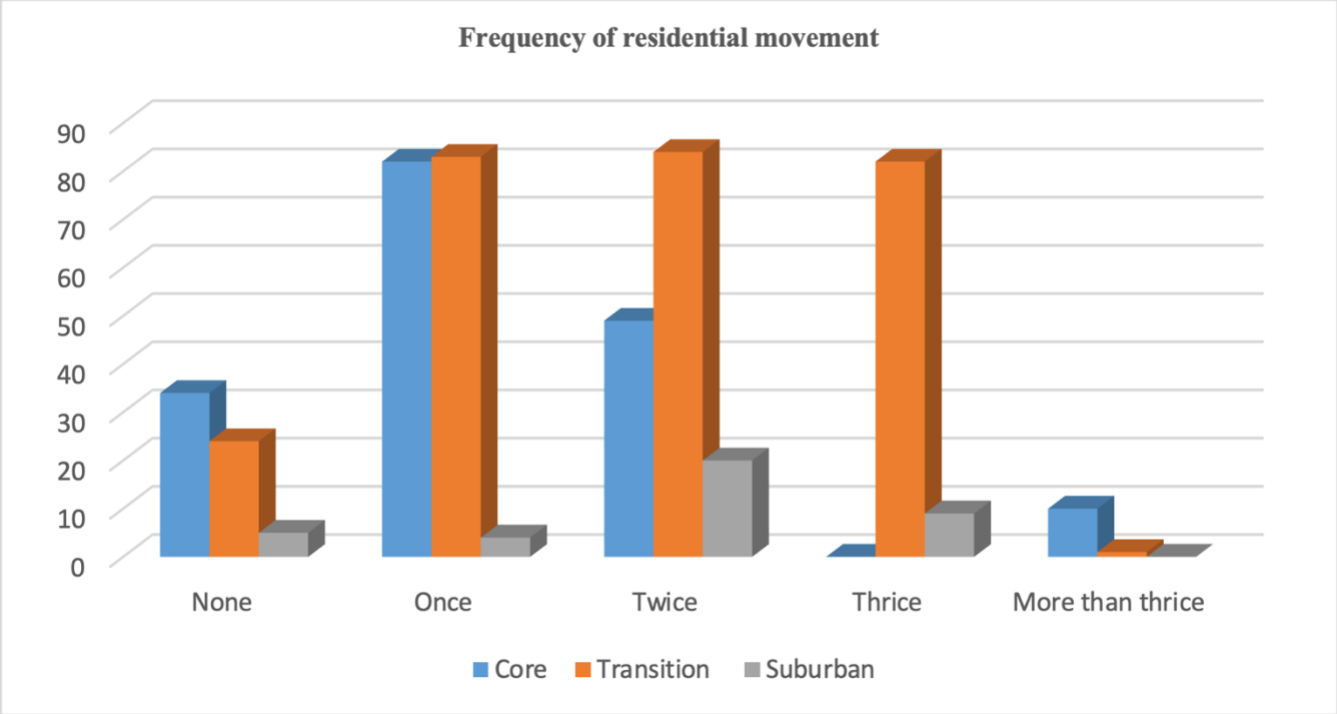

Figure 3 Frequency of residential movement

It can be established from above that frequency of residential movement within Osogbo is relatively high. The reason for this is not farfetched, Osogbo is a commercial centre and the administrative hug of Osun state. The city housed thousands of both skilled and unskilled populations who are constantly looking for a means of livelihood. The findings above also established that majority of these residential movements occurs within the core and transition zone. This collaborates findings (Vaughan & Feindt, 1973; Afoloyan 1982; and Ozo, 1986) both within and outside the country.

4.12 Direction of Residential Movement

The direction of intra city movement of the study population is obtained by examining the previous location vis-a-vis the current location. Majority of moves were from the core to the transition and suburban zones. There were only a few inward moves from the suburban to either the core or the transition zone. Table 13 examines the direction of intra-city movements.

According to the Table, movement within the core and transition residential zone are apparent. That is residents moving within the residential zone (core to core/transition to transition). 96.2% of the residents move within the core residential area of Osogbo and 63.5% moved within the transition zone. Major movement between the residential zones occurs from the core zone to the suburban zone. 42.1% of the residents in the suburban zone accounted for this. Another notable movement between the residential zones occurred from the core to transition zone, representing 35.0%. On the other hand, movement from the suburban to the transition and the core zone is relatively small, these account for 1.5% and 1.0% respectively.

Table 14 Direction of residential movement

Direction of movement	**Core**		**Transition**		**Suburban**		**Total**	
	Frequency	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*
Core	177	96.2	96	35.0	16	42.1	291	58.3
Transition	6	3.3	174	63.5	10	26.3	190	38.1
Suburban	2	1.0	4	1.5	12	31.6	18	3.6
Total	**184**	**100**	**274**	**54.9**	**38**	**100**	**496**	**100**

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

This observation tends to support the outward move hypothesis put forth by Turner (1968) and found valid in other studies (Ozo, 1986; Afolayan, 1982; Ahmad, 1992; Lindert, 1991). The transition and suburban have the high influx of movers probably because of job availability and need for space of permanent settlement. As discussed earlier, high population density and low residential vacancy rate coupled with poor housing and neighbourhood quality in the core might be some of the underlying reasons for the observed mobility trend in Osogbo. From another dimension, the observed mobility trend may be as a result of residents' desire for home ownership. The relative availability of land for residential use in suburban zone will attract those who desire home ownership.

4.13 Source of Information

This section examines the various sources of information residents consulted when they relocated. The assumption here is that during residential mobility process, after making the decision to move. Household consults some sources for information on available vacancies in the housing market. Table 12 presents sources of information consulted by residents. The most used source is the suggestion from friends, which accounts for 34.3%. This explains why neighbourhood forms a social areas and classes. Most neighbourhood are composed of residents related in one way or the other. The second most consulted source of information is the real estate agents (29.7%). This is one of the most consulted sources for information on housing vacancies in the country. Self-search is also one of the most frequent means of information on housing vacancies in Osogbo, accounting for 28.7%. To avoid real estate agent's charges and rent inflation some residents conduct the search themselves.

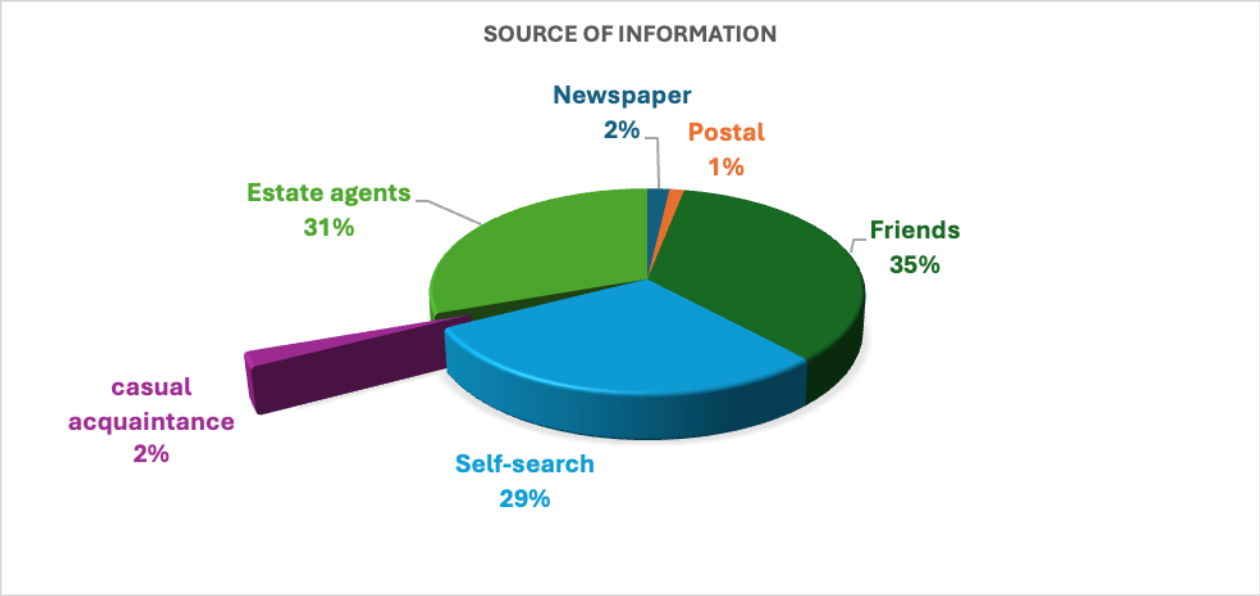

Figure 4 Sources of information

4.14 Residential Relocation Intensions

There seem to be some controversies in migration literature on the relevance of intentions in migration research. While Elkan (1976), for instance, points out that intentions are subject to change and may not therefore, be a reliable measure of future action, other opinion seems to be that intentions are a major determinant of future action regardless of whether or not the expectations are realised (Fuller et al., 1986). Some even suggest that intention is a more useful predictor of future action and may be more accurate than previous migration experience. Fuller et al. (1986) have been able to establish a close relationship between intention and actual mobility.

Thus, considering the relevance of intentions in migration research, residents in this study were asked about their residential relocation intentions within the next five (5) years. Majority of the residents do not intend to change their residential location, this accounted for 71.8%. This was also the case across the three residential zones. Majority of the residents in the core, transition and suburban does not have the intension of moving in the next five years, this accounted for 66.3%, 78.1% and 52.6% respectively. Residents who intended to relocate within the next five years represented 28.2% of the residents. It is important to note that, workplace location, environmental conditions and affordable housing were the predominant reasons for this choice.

Table 15 Residential Relocation Intension

Relocation Intension	**Core**		**Transition**		**Suburban**		**Total**	
	Frequency	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*	*Frequency*	*%*
Yes	62	33.7	60	21.9	18	47.4	140	28.2

No	122	66.3	214	78.1	20	52.6	356	71.8
Total	**184**	**100**	**274**	**54.9**	**38**	**100**	**496**	**100**

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

4.15 Logistic Modelling: Residential Relocation Intensions

This study has established that many factors influence residential mobility. Tenure and length of stay in current residence have been identified to affect relocation intentions. Studies in developed countries suggest that the longer a person stays in a particular residence the lower the likelihood of moving. The question here is does the length of stay in current residence affect moving intentions of Osogbo residents? If it does, what is its relative explanatory power?

Table 16 Logistic Regression Model Summary

Step	**-2 Log likelihood**	**Cox & Snell R Square**	**Nagelkerke R Square**
1	581.771[a]	.025	.035
Step	**Chi-square**	**Df**	**sig**
1	22.530	8	.004

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

However, in this section, the analysis overlooks other possible determinants of mobility intentions and their relative explanatory powers. The analysis was performed using logistic regression, the results are presented in Tables 14 and 15. The independent variables in the model are current residential tenure (Tenure) and the length of stay in current residence (Length). While moving intention is the dependent variable.

Table 17 Summary of Logistic Regression for Predictors

		B	**S.E.**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(B)**
Step 1[a]	Tenure(1)	-.485	.216	5.045	1	.025	.616
	Length	.027	.016	2.600	1	.107	1.027
	Constant	.820	.284	8.332	1	.004	2.270

(Source: Author's fieldwork, 2024)

The model correctly predicts 78 percent of moving intention. As the Table indicates, the effect of length of stay in current residence on moving intention is not statistically significant (0.107>0.05). Current tenure is the only statistically significant variable in the analysis. The negative co-efficient (*b*= -0.485) for Tenure means that as one moves from tenant to owner-occupier status, the probability of not moving increases while the probability of moving decreases. In addition to confirming the earlier Chi-Square analysis, the logistic regression model has shown that length of stay in current residence is not a significant predictor of relocation intention. The overriding significance of tenure in explaining relocation intention illustrates its positive impact on mobility.

Home ownership seemed to be the most significant factor predicting moving intentions. One would have also thought that length of stay in current residence would affect one's decision to move as studies in the developed countries suggest. As the Logistic analysis demonstrated, however, current tenure proved the most significant predictor of relocation intentions. While majority of those who intended relocating within the next five years were living in a non-owner residence, only a tiny fraction of current owners intended moving. The logistic regression showed the odds of moving increased as one moves from owner to non-owner status. This confirms evidence in the mainstream literature.

■5.0 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Findings from the study showed that majority of the residents (87.1%) have moved at least once within Osogbo. On the other hand, 12.9% of the sampled population have not moved. 7%, 4.9% and 1% of this are from the core, transition and suburban zones of Osogbo respectively. The direction of residential movement in Osogbo was obtained. It was revealed that residential movement within each residential zone are apparent. 35.9%, 34.9% and 2.4% of the residents moved or relocated within the core, transition and suburban residential zones of Osogbo respectively. Major movement (19.2%) across the residential zones occurs from the core zone to the transition zone. Another notable residential movement is from the core to the suburban, representing 3.2%.

Suggestion from friends (34.3%) is the major sources of information consulted by residents when sourcing for residential vacancies. The second most consulted source of information is the real estate agents (29.7%). Self-search is also one of the most frequent means of information on housing vacancies in Osogbo, accounting for 28.7%.

■6.0 CONCLUSION

The findings of this study have important implications on residential mobility prevention and resolve the identified forces such as push factors that drive people out of neighbourhood and pull factors that bring household into a neighbourhood in the study area. First, it provided a basis for understanding the residents' socioeconomic characteristics and the pattern of residential mobility in the core, transition and suburb of Osogbo as these determinants are intrinsic in residential mobility issues. It was also discovered that housing attributes of residents varies across the three residential zones of Osogbo. The study has established that these three socioeconomic characteristics, age, income and household size have a very strong influence on residents housing mobility.

Again, the fact that there seems to be little difference between the results of this study and the findings of existing studies demonstrates that the truth about a matter can be established from households involved in the residential mobility using body of knowledge as a balance. It also reveals the underlying issues of residential mobility and the effects it may have on the eruption of urban economy, environment and infrastructure. The study has shown that residential mobility is common in the study area. It is obvious that the residential mobility has the potential effects on urban spatial structure and housing market. This implies that special consideration must be given to the factors influencing household residential movement including the residents' socioeconomic characteristics, housing qualities, infrastructure and services, and neighbourhood attributes among others, which varied along the different residential areas of Osogbo.

6.1 Recommendations

It has been established that some factors are responsible for household's decision to move or stay in a residence at a particular point in time (Okoko, 1999; Li & Tu, 2011). Based on the conclusion of this study, it was generally established that socioeconomic characteristics influence the pattern of residential mobility in all the three residential zones in Osogbo.

From the foregoing, it is posited that if these identified factors persist in the study area, it would be very difficult to stem the tide of the residential mobility, and its potential affect on urban spatial structure and housing market in the study area. Subsequently, sustainable goals of reducing sprawl, building strong institutions, and discouraging of overstress on available infrastructure will not be achieved. Therefore, rather than relying on intuition and guess work, the following are recommended. These could serve as guidelines for policy and decision makers as well as urban planners to enhance sustainable planning for residential areas in Osogbo and beyond. There is therefore the need for the new towns be close to the workplaces of the target population for those employed in private and civil service. Such towns should also include commercial hugs and service centres for traders and artisans. The State Government should implement policy framework that would checkmate the landlord-tenant activities in Osogbo. Such policies should seek to protect the interest of both the landlord and the tenant. Also, access to land for residential development at affordable price is a major issue that should be considered. Equally, the State Government should encourage the private sector to also focus on the rental sub-market. Likewise, policies encouraging mortgage institutions should be implemented. Above all, there is need for frameworks to manage and control the inflow of residents into the transition and suburban residential zone which could result in urban sprawl in these residential zones.

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to express their sincere gratitude to all individuals and institutions who have contributed to the completion of this research. Special thanks are extended to our academic supervisors and colleagues for their valuable guidance, constructive feedback, and continuous encouragement throughout this study.

Conflict of Interest

The author(s) declare(s) that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

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