RESIDENTIAL MOBILITY IN KADUNA METROPOLIS AND ITS IMPLICATIONS ON URBAN MANAGEMENT

.

BY

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B.Sc (HONS) GEOGRAPHY

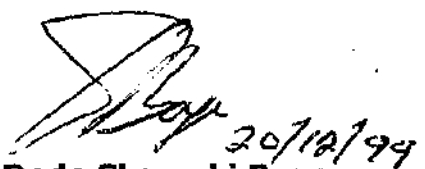
UNIVERSITY OF MAIDUGURI

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEAN, POST GRADUATE SCHOOL, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF M.Sc (URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING) DEPARTMENT OF URBAN AND REGIONAL PLANNING FACULTY OF ENVIRONMENTAL DESIGN, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA.

DECEMBER ,1999.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this Thesis has been composed by me and that it is the outcome of my own research work. It has not been presented or accepted in previous study for higher degree. Quotation marks are used to denote direct quotations from existing literature and sources of information are appropriately acknowledged by means of references.


20/12/99

Dodo Shamaki Bage

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CERTIFICATION

This Thesis Report entitled "Residential Mobility in Kaduna Metropolis and its Implications on Urban Management" meets the regulations governing the award of the degree of Master of Science of the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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DEDICATION

To the loving memory of my father, Dodo Bage Makeri

Mother, Assel Dodo Bage and Son, Stanley.

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ABSTRACT

During the last three decades, Nigerian Urban centres have witnessec unparalleled upsurge in both human numbers and structural configuration. This was predicated by the oil boom of the 1970s with its attendant emphasis on Urban Development, the glitter of which "pulled" the rural populace towards these Urban Areas. Increased urbanism resulted in a general increase in mobility. This was especially evident in housing in which the growing population had to be provided with adequate housing. But urban development programmes has too often produced only a tiny fraction of housing requirements for the teaming population and where private enterprise has produced housing whose price is beyond the reach of a greater percentage of the population. Low income groups have therefore been left to the exigencies of market forces and the filtering process.

Under this, housing units may shift from owner-occupier to rental status or rental status to owner occupier depending on downward or upward shifts in income and social status of property owner and Renters. The characteristics of occupants alter over time; hence a given unit may serve a family at different stages of its life cycle.

The extent to which residential mobility takes place is a function of the variations in price of new construction, spatial location, rent differentials, the information network, the demand for housing at particular points in time, the

effectiveness of estate agents and the degree of adherance to rent controls by landlords. In short, there is a ferment of physical, economic, social and legal movement that takes place in residential mobility as the process is continually adapting to the changing requirements of the society.

This Thesis is an attempt to examine the characteristics and determinants of residential mobility in Kaduna Metropolis. It has five chapters.

Chapter one is an introductory chapter which defines the research problem, its aim and objectives, methods of data collection and analysis and a background to the study area. It also identifies types of residential movements and their spatial components.

Chapter two provides an in-depth literature on the concept, pattern and process of residential change.

Chapter three examines the characteristics and determinants of the phenomenon in the metropolis while chapter four considers the implications of residential mobility on urban management.

Chapter five makes recommendations and proposals on the methodology of measuring residential change.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.10 INTRODUCTION

1.1.1 Background to the Study

The urban realm is characterised by a mosaic of interrelated activity systems. These activity systems permeate the urban landscape weaving the behaviour of social groups and activities into distinctive networks and spatial patterns. This gives the urban environment its spatial character distinguished by land use zoning. One of such activity systems is intra-urban residential mobility, which has attracted considerable interest in planning studies especially among urban planners and social ecologists.

The foundations, which theories and concepts pertaining to such movements dated back to 1923 when, Burgess, in an attempt to explain the internal structure of the city, identified the pattern of residential mobility within the city. Indeed, the concept of residential mobility is as old as man himself and the desire to move from one dwelling unit to another is as compelling as ever before. Right through history therefore, man is known to be continuously on the move either in search of better shelter or security. However, with positive changes in commerce, industry and technology there is a corresponding shift from whole settlement mobility to intra-city single family residential mobility.

During the pre-industrial and industrial eras in Europe, residence and workplace were in close proximity. This was not only to minimise the

rigours of commuting to and from work but to maximise productivity. However, the automobile brought ease in transportation and workers were no longer compelled to remain close to their workplace. There was thus residential mobility away from workplace.

Early theories on residential mobility in Western countries suggest residential dispersal from a ring at the city centre based on determinants such as income, family requirement and social status. The situation is not exactly the same in developing countries. In Nigeria for example, socio-economic development is not only urban oriented but urban biased. The rural areas remain economically depressed and deprived in form and structure. Hence the influx of the rurai populace into urban centres. The increases in urban population set off waves of successive stress in the urban environment resulting in residential mobility. But, because most cities in developing countries are unplanned, they are unable to absorb this stress. The inability of the urban environment to cope with this together with movements within the city, has resultant implications on urban management especially in areas of housing, infrastructure, transportation, spatial expansion and administration. In our own specific context too, religion and natural disaster have resulted in massive residential mobility in recent times. In Nigeria, this form of mobility has in part brought about physical deficiencies in areas of poor living environments, congestion and stress o n public services. These have brought about an added dimension to the known factors of urban residential pattern.

1.1.2 **Statement of the Research Problem**

The urban environment remains one of the most dynamic of all spatial forms. Its dynamism is reflected in its movement systems in the areas of transportation, spatial sprawl, occupational mobility and residential mobility. The household, one of the dynamic organs of the city structure, is involved in residential mobility. In an attempt to understand the nature, pattern and process of this type of movement, western writers have focussed attention on the situation as it relates to cities in developed countries. Hence, available literature on residential mobility has been at the level of broad generalisation that are most obvious only in the developed countries. In the developing countries, appropriate attention has not been given to it nor sufficient details to show the true nature of its complexity and implications on the urban environment. In both cases however, the link between residential mobility and the spatial implications on urban management has neither been established nor clearly investigated. The most general approach to both concepts has been to treat them as appendices of other urban activities such as employment, transportation, commerce and the nature of the neighbourhood. Western models clearly establish the role of income, new housing vacancies, family aspirations and preferences etc. as major determinants of residential mobility.

The concern here is that urban management issues such as waste disposal, administration, spatial growth and maintenance of existing residential units have not been fully incorporated in the study of residential

mobility to appreciate its impacts on the housing environment and character of the settlement which in most cases posses urban management problems.since urban planning process also involves transportation, utility and residential planning, it is worthwhile that residential mobility be integrated into such planning processes.

The situation in developing countries has therefore remained obscured. Since urban management issues also involve transport management, the economics of land acquisition, residential area development etc., it is worth while that the issue of residential mobility and urban management be linked and investigated. Moreover, man is the subject and object of planning. Therefore all the precepts and principles of planning revolve around him. This underscores the relevance of this study.

This research therefore wants to establish a link between residential mobility and urban management, the character of residential mobility and the implications of residential mobility on the character of the settlement and urban management problems associated with this movement. The focus is the Kaduna Metropolis. This is because it is important to study residential mobility to understand how it affects urban management issues such as the quality of the living environment, administration, urban sprawl etc.

1.20. **Aim and Objectives of the Research**

1.2.1 **Aim**

1.2.2 The aim of the research is to investigate the characteristics and determinants of intra-urban residential mobility in Kaduna metropolis and its implications on the management of the metropolis.

1.2.3 **Objectives**

The aim of the research will be achieved through the following objectives.

I. To review the concept, pattern and process of residential mobility

II. To investigate the characteristics and determinants of residential mobility in Kaduna.

III. To identify the extent to which residential mobility has affected urban management.

IV. To make recommendations and proposal on methodology of measuring residential mobility.

1.30 **Definition of Key Concepts**

For clarity, a few concepts used in this report need to be defined.

Household:- "refers to a person or group of persons living together under the same roof or in the same building or compound who acknowledge one adult male or female as a head usually referred to as the head of household (UN)"[1].

Place of Residence:- "This is the living quarter where a person sleeps, keeps his clothes and other belongings (personal and other household

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1. The population association of Nigeria (1990) p. 115

effects) and from where he goes to look for means of livelihood or school or shop or recreate (UN)[2]".

Stressor:- A term conceived and defined differently by different authors in different circumstances. For the purposes of this research however, stressors for a given household will be perceived as a situation which disrupts or threatens to disrupt the established and desired pattern of household behaviour.

Place Utility: This is a measure of an individuals level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a given residential location.

1.4.0 Research Methodology

1.4.1 The Thesis Framework

Chapter one of the thesis deals with the statement of research problem, definition of they concepts, aim and objectives, research methodology, the establishment of types of movement and their spatial component.

In chapter two, the concept, pattern and process or residential mobility will be discussed through extensive literature review.

Chapter three is an investigation of characteristics and determinants of residential mobility in Kaduna metropolis.

In chapter four, the implications of residential mobility on urban management will be reviewed.

Chapter five deals with recommendations and proposals on methodology of measuring residential mobility, Figure 1.1 is an illustration of the thesis framework.

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2. ibid. p.115

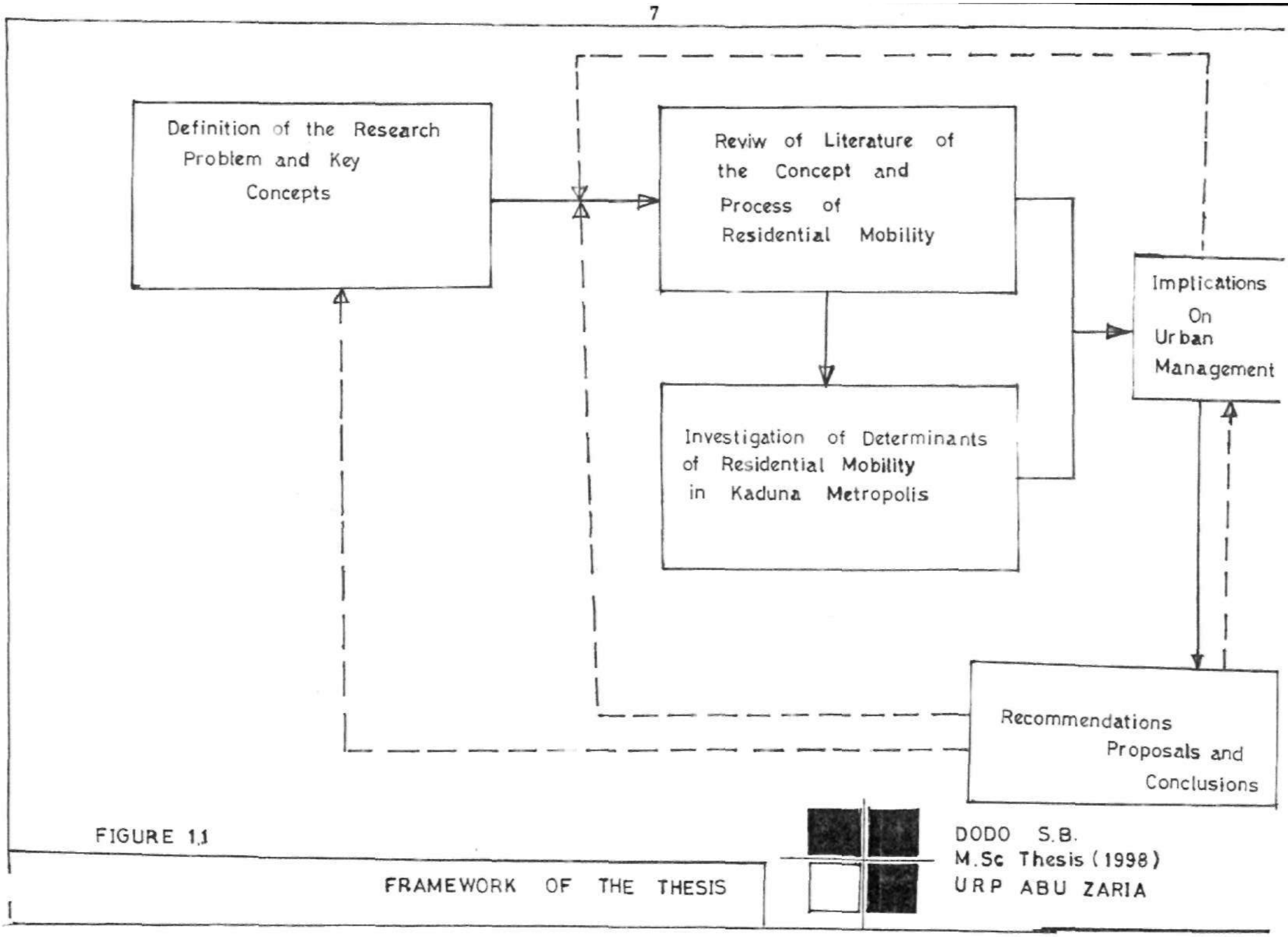


FIGURE 1.1

FRAMEWORK OF THE THESIS

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M.Sc Thesis (1998)
URP ABU ZARIA

1.4.2 **Methods of Data Collection**

The main methods for data collection and analysis in the study include

i. Review of published and unpublished literature on the subject of residential mobility.

ii. Field observation and photographing of relevant features

iii. Questionnaire survey of households in selected residential sectors on both horizontal and vertical determinants of residential mobility and implications on residential area quality etc. through sampling.

iv. Informal interviews with staff of relevant ministries/department.

1.4.3 **Methods of Data Analysis and Presentation**

i. Simple descriptive techniques are used to analyse data.

ii. Maps, tables and charts are used to present the result of data analysis

iii. Where necessary and for practically illustrative purposes, photographs are used particularly in the assessment of the implications of residential mobility.

1.4.4 **Scope and Limitations**

This study is mainly concerned with the examination of the concept of residential mobility, its character and determinants in Kaduna Metropolis. The major focus is on cities of developing countries with specific emphasis on the metropolis.

1.50 **Background to the Study Area**

1.5.1 **Location and Boundary Limits of Kaduna Metropolis**

Kaduna is a town on the high plains of Northern

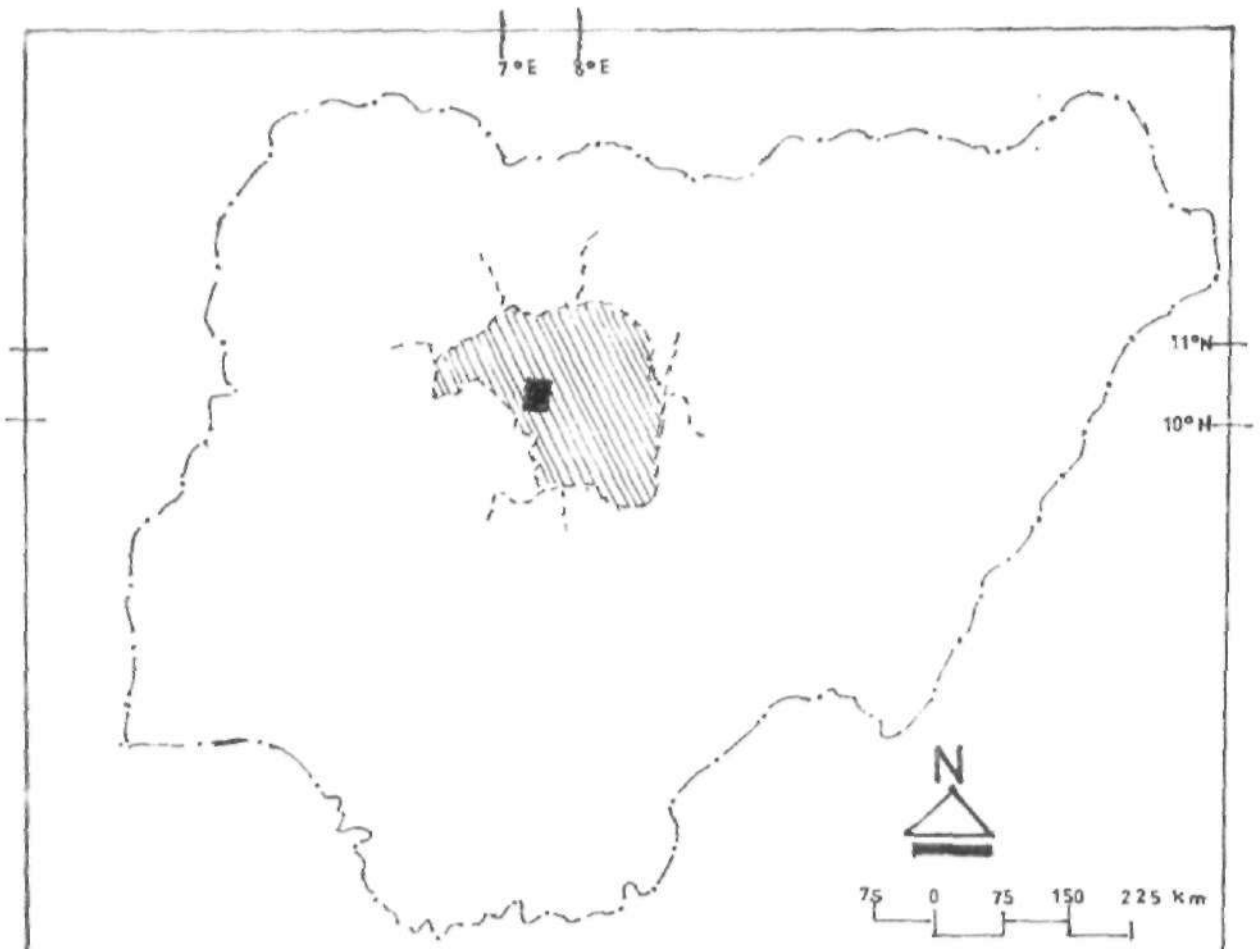


FIGURE 1.2

LOCATION OF KADUNA STATE IN NIGERIA & THE METROPOLIS

SOURCE: Kyom AB (1992) P.9b

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Nigeria. The metropolis is located between latitudes 10° N and 11° N and longitudes 7° E and 8° E (figure 1.2). It is approximately 80 kilometres from Zaria in the North and 154 kilometres from Abuja in the south. The metropolis is surrounded by an agrarian countryside largely inhabited by the Gbagis. It is bounded by Romi and Gonin Gora in the south and the Nigerian Airforce Base and the National Teachers Institute in the North.

In the west, it is bounded by Rafin Yashi and Rigasa and in the east by the Kaduna River respectively (Figure 1.3). Presently however, spatial residential growth has spilled beyond these limits and residential movement is expected to be in these directions.

1.5.2 Historical Antecedents of the Metropolis

Kaduna derived its name from the Hausa plural noun for crocodiles (Kadanna) which is the Gbagi intonation for crocodiles.

Prior to the arrival of the British Colonial Administration, Kaduna Area was inhabited by the Gbagi and Fulani communities who scattered in small farmsteads. Today, it is a cosmopolitan centre in which a multiplicity of diversed tribal groups live. In unofficial circles, Kaduna is regarded as a "mini Nigeria" owing to the complexity of its tribal composition (Kyom 1992, p.11).

In 1912, Kaduna was established as a military garrison and administrative stronghold of the Northern Region by Lord Lugard. Its choice was informed by its rich physical terrain, vast fertile fadama lands, centrality within the northern protectorate, adequate water supply and a pleasant climate. These attributes encouraged the growth of Kaduna as an urban centre. It is not only a military stronghold but an expanding

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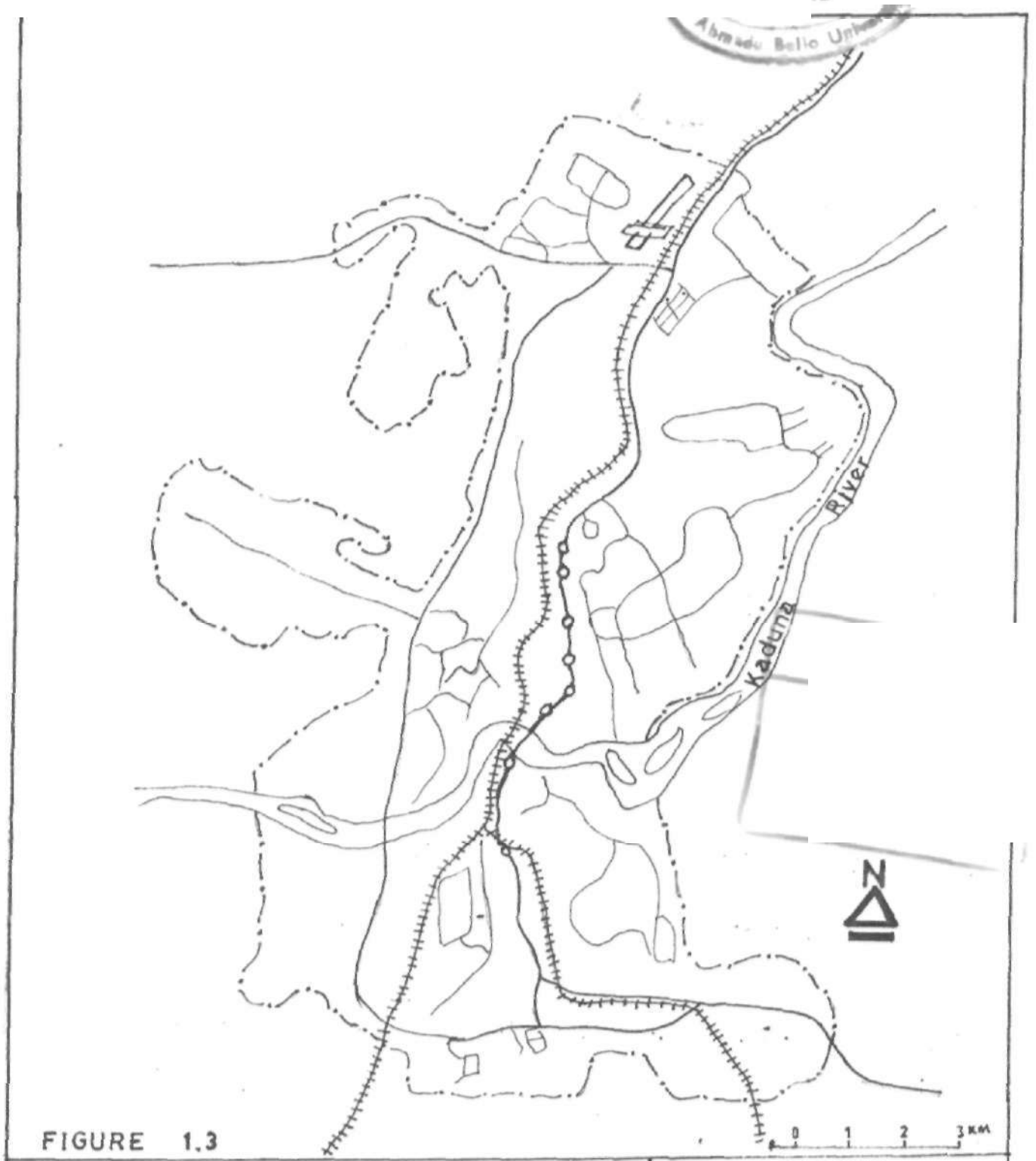


FIGURE 1.3

BOUNDARY LIMITS OF KADUNA METROPOLIS

SOURCE: Kyom A. B (1992) P. 9c

LEGEND

Metropolitan Limits

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commercial and industrial town. It still maintains its status as a military base with a military university, an airforce base and several military cantonments.

Since inception, every activity has increased many fold in proportion to its size as projected by Lugards plan of 1917 and the Max Lock plan of 1967 – 2017. Increases in commercial and industrial activities and the ever expanding bureaucracies have attracted people from far and wide into the metropolis. This, in turn, increased the demand for accommodation and a corresponding expansion in residential areas. These increases imply obvious increases in residential movement, It is against this backdrop that residential mobility and factors underlying this movement can be understood. Again, the diversity of the ethnic and other background of the inhabitants of the metropolis underscores the significance of the study of social factors in residential mobility in Kaduna.

1.60 Types of Residential Mobility and their Spatial Components

Mobility is a broad-based word that covers a wide spectrum of different types of moves. It includes social mobility, occupational mobility etc. Because of its diversity in application, there is need to identify the type of mobility relevant to this report.

Residential mobility falls within the framework of both social and occupational mobility. It is a process of the total or partial movement of some or all the members of a household from one dwelling unit to another. It is the sum total of the process involved in change of residence from the decision making stage to search activity and the eventual movement of the

household. Residential mobility can be within the city or between cities, Both can be viewed from two perspectives.

1.6.1 Vertical Mobility

This is a term associated with class structure referring to movement up and down within it i.e. class movement up and down the residential strata. This type of residential mobility is mainly influenced by Socio-economic determinants such as income, occupation and educational attainment.

These three factors determine the class and status of each household. These factors are strongly dependent on income. Hence, where one resides and the class in the society into which he fits is a direct reflection of his level of income. Status is a socially rooted phenomenon identifying different positions of individuals within the residential strata. The type of residence desired will be expected to reflect the status of the occupant. It is based on occupation, wealth and education.

1.6.2 Horizontal Mobility

This is another type of residential mobility referring to a change of residence without a change in status. It is influenced by socio-cultural factors such as family needs and aspirations, racism and ethnicity, proximity to leisure grounds, religious affiliation etc.

1.6.3 Migration

Residential mobility should be clearly distinguished from migration which, in contrast, is the permanent or semi-permanent change of residence from one administrative unit (district, province, state or country) to another. It usually involves large scale movements, long distances and

is undertaken into hitherto unknown destinations. Unlike in residential mobility, in migration, there is no specific intention into which neighbourhood or category of residence to move into.

There could however be an overlapping of these two concepts when intra and inter-city residential mobility are considered together.

1.6.4 Spatial Components of Residential Mobility

Residential mobility as a process has a number of component parts that aid it. The population is one vital component. Apart from the human component, there are spatial components that encourage this movement process. Land, its availability and location in the urban space is also an important factor. The availability of land or the lack of it determines the level of new housing construction vis-a-vis new housing vacancies, rate of urban renewal, access roads, the provision of infrastructure such as shopping centres, schools for teenagers and recreation ground.

As a spatial component of residential mobility the construction of new and affordable housing as well as the management of existing housing stock underscores the need for an integrated approach towards this issue in the metropolis. In the metropolis, the spatial distribution of existing facilities closely follows the spatial spread of residential housing and vice versa. Any attempt therefore at the study of residential mobility means an attempt at understanding how this movement affects the provision and management of these infrastructure.

CHAPTER TWO

2.10 A REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON THE CONCEPT, PATTERN AND PROCESS OF RESIDENTIAL MOBILITY

2.1.1 INTRODUCTION

The city remains the main flash point of all spatial structures, and spatial planning has focussed more attention on its evolution, development and dilemma. Again, spatial studies have clearly established the dominance and supremacy of the city over other spatial forms as a centre of commerce, industry and innovation. This is partly because urbanisation as a process also implies a process of enlarging peoples opportunities, aspiration and choice including a choice of where to live, work, shop and recreate and partly because the city as a dynamic entity continuously offers people what other areas ordinarily do not. But, most importantly, the city remains the centre-piece of most spatial studies because of its functional ability to accommodate people of diversed creed, race, religion and professional pursuits.

The city's complexity is as a result of different types of activities including social mobility i.e. movement to and from work, recreation grounds, one residence to the other etc. As cities become increasingly complex and cosmopolitan in nature, so the degree of movement within them. Indeed, the degree of movement within the city increases in direct response to the city's increasing complexity. There are however established links among the city's movement systems. Hence, where a person resides or recreates in the city can be as a direct consequence of where he works. And in situations in which public transportation System is inadequate and

erratic and the cost of commuting to and from work prohibitive, residential mobility to residences close to work place becomes necessary.

Adjusting to family circumstances such as size, preferences for specific neighbourhood, fortunes, attractions of some locations as against repulsion by others, access to the Central Business District (CBD), shopping and learning centres are factors that can lead to a change of residence. Residential mobility has come to be an indispensable part of urban life and urban studies have shown a strong correlation between residential mobility and the resulting form of the city.

2.1.2 Conventional Concepts of Residential Mobility

The concept of residential mobility as an urban phenomenon has its roots in America's Chicago. A study of Chicago by Burgess (1923) provided the background to the study of the structure of the city in general.

Exponents of the concept of residential mobility have argued that economic prosperity is a veritable index in the measure of this concept. Economic prosperity by individuals and families is translated into desires, aspirations for better housing, neighbourhood and space. The concept of residential mobility can be better understood from the point of view of the theory of invasion and succession in which vertical residential mobility results in succession whereby dwelling units, through a trickle down process, filter down from higher income groups to lower income groups. The income groups themselves filter up the residential ladder. But in real life, there are a number of intervening variables between income and the desire to move; the housing market, the neighbourhood, family taste, size and composition and the cost of commuting to and from other functional

areas of the city. In contrast, inter-city residential mobility is not restricted to economic prosperity only as migrants into cities of developed countries tend to reside at the city centre because they rather grapple with the cost of land in the centre than with the cost of commuting and long term effects. In Nigeria, although the poor pay less for land at the urban fringes, it is assumed that the price an individual will pay is sufficient to offset his satisfaction and the cost of commuting from and to the periphery. Moreover, migrants to any city are from diversed income and ethnic backgrounds and are most likely to settle in those parts of the city that best suit them and not according to their earning powers.

Several exponents of the concept of residential mobility have also expounded the importance of income as a potent factor in vertical mobility. To back up this claim, Timms observed that "however great the desire to move to a more favoured location and however much information the household has at its disposal concerning the existence of suitable vacancies, the realisation of movement reflects the availability of the necessary economic resources"[3]. He further observed that "for those families above some absolute minimum income, there is a range of possible decisions concerning the proportion of income to be spent on residential location"[4]. Kain, drawing on the work of Alonso et al, show "how residential location by status can be expressed as a function of income, space preferences and economic rent"[5].

3. D.W.G. Timms (1971) The Urban Mosaic. P.118
4. Ibid p.119
5. J.f. Kain (1962) The Journey to work as a Determinant of Residential Location. P.147

In a study of Destroit, he demonstrated that

> "if household had the same locale, same rent function the same space preference and the same valuation of time but different incomes, the length of household journey to work would increase as an increasing function of income"[6]. Thus, a household will attempt to maximise the utility of its income by locating where the marginal cost of transport intersects marginal savings in location rent".

This also means that with increasing income, the tendency is for he ousehold to keep moving. There is thus a strong and established link between income and the frequency at which residential mobility occurs. But is it a rule that, the rate of residential mobility is proportional to increasing economic prosperity? Or would residential mobility be more prevalent or be the prerogative of the rich? Grigsby (1963) argued that the lower income groups, rather than the higher income groups, move more frequently.

Proponents of the income factor argue further that "if a family can pay the cost, then it may exercise any conceivable motive. If it cannot pay, then, it must switch its attention to a lower price range and attempt to satisfy its desires from within this latter set of vacancies"[7].

Broadly speaking, it appears the economic factor serves as a discriminator between desirable locations and the common assumption that income is the sole determinant of grade of residence. The difference is the extent to which the situation in the developed countries differs from that of developing ones. In both cases, changes in taste, preferences and

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6. Ibid p. 147
7. A.H. Hawley (1950) Human Ecology p. 286.

aspirations can apparently override many straight economic considerations. The assumption that rapid economic well-being of the individual will translate automatically into a desire for a new residence should be avoided. This is because the real world offers too many contradictions in household behavioural patterns.

2.1.3 The Social Factor in Residential Mobility

The family is the single most important unit in the residential mobility process. The pattern of its life-cycle and changes accompanying such cycles is certainly one of the major precipitors of household movement. Families evolve through time and are so dynamic in nature that neither family composition nor size is static. The birth and growth of children, health and age and the changing fortunes of family members as well as shifts generated by family income can trigger of residential mobility. This point has been most stressed by Rossi who showed that "the changing housing requirements of a family as it undergoes developmental changes in structure and composition form the most important general springboard for movement"[8]. It has been established that high rates of residential mobility are common with certain periods of the family's life cycle including:

i. those immediately following marriage

ii. initial stages of child bearing and

iii. the period after children have attained the age of 18years and have left home. As a result of this, houses in different locations in the city have different appeals to different families at different stages of their development. A family in its youthful stage will need all the

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8. D.G.W Timms (1971) p. 197

necessary space to accommodate new arrivals and to ensure privacy of every member. On the contrary, a contracting family needs quietude and free unpolluted air which is only guaranteed at the urban periphery.

2.1.4 Access to Major Landuses

Advocates of the concept of residential mobility view this as an important factor. It is argued that although the automobile brought ease in transportation, commuting time and cost may be such that could rule out what will otherwise be a desirable location. Only a fraction of the population can afford to commute to any part of the city. The differences in residential accommodation and access to various urban facilities are viewed by Jones (1971) as "opportunity structure composition within the city structure by persons with different household requirements"[9].

2.1.5 Racial Influence

The racial factor tends to produce residential clustering of persons of like origin and colour at different points in the city. Racism is broadly related to the concept of territoriality which defines those parts of the city acceptable to the household. Consequently "early negro settlement in American cities were found concentrated around the older blighted parts of the central area. This was attributed to the availability of low cost housing and the presence of friends, relations and people of the same race"[10].

The above observations portray situation studies of residential mobility in western cities. In the developing countries, in addition to the

9. Jones (1971)
10. Kerner et al (1968) Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorder p.243-4

factors above, occupation, religious affiliation and natural disasters account for horinzontal residential movement.

2.1.6 Occupational Mobility

This is related to income level and it is to some extent determined by the level of Education, social rank and prestige. It could result in vertical residential mobility in which case a household moves up the residential strata in response to attained educational status or horizontal in which case a household moves from one location to the other without a change in status. Policy statements can dictate the direction of movement in this case. The contention here is that the location of a residence has a prestige value and is a measure of personal contact and potentials. Families moving up the 'occupational ladder' are particularly sensitive to the social aspect of location and use residential choice to bring their residence into line with their prestige needs[11].

But even where policy statements dictate the direction of household movement, a household may be institutionally constrained to remain at a certain location if its income cannot sustain certain alternative location outside the institutional framework.

2.1.7 The Religious Factor

The religious factor is responsible for horizontal movement. Until recently, its role in residential mobility has been unknown. As a society becomes more pluralistic and sophisticated, so individuals and group views and interests become more divergent. Ordinarily, a household will locate almost any where within the city in-as-much-as such location is not at

11. D.W.G. Timms (1971) The Urban Mosaic p.98

variance with its preferred way of life, income and social status. However, recent sporadic religious and communal outbursts have resulted in a careful assessment of neighbourhood by moving households. Such outbursts as typified in Kaduna in 1992 are explicit examples of forces that could spark off massive inter or intra-city residential mobility. Many theorists of the concept of residential mobility have not emphasized on this aspect before because of its hitherto unknown impact and limited scope.

2.20 The Dynamics of Residential Mobility

The process of residential mobility is a multidimensional combination of the elements of the entire residential system. As a process, it involves positive feed backs induced by the pattern of information flow, decision making and search activity (figure 2.1). Timms (1971), observed that "the principal spatial effect of this complex combination involves individual aspirations, 'mental maps' of the entire urban landscape, capabilities etc'[12]. The process reveals not only behavioural patterns of individuals but the degree of link or separation between parts, the nature of parts of the system and what category of the population uses what part and why. The interactions between these parts are important in the assessment of the differentials in access, choice and use of the residential system. Through the process of residential mobility, the population is segregated into distinct residential clusters organised in terms of the basic socio-economic differences among groups.

2.2.1 The Decision Making Process

The initial decision to relocate and the subsequent decision of where and into what to move is a constituent of the

12. Ibid p.122

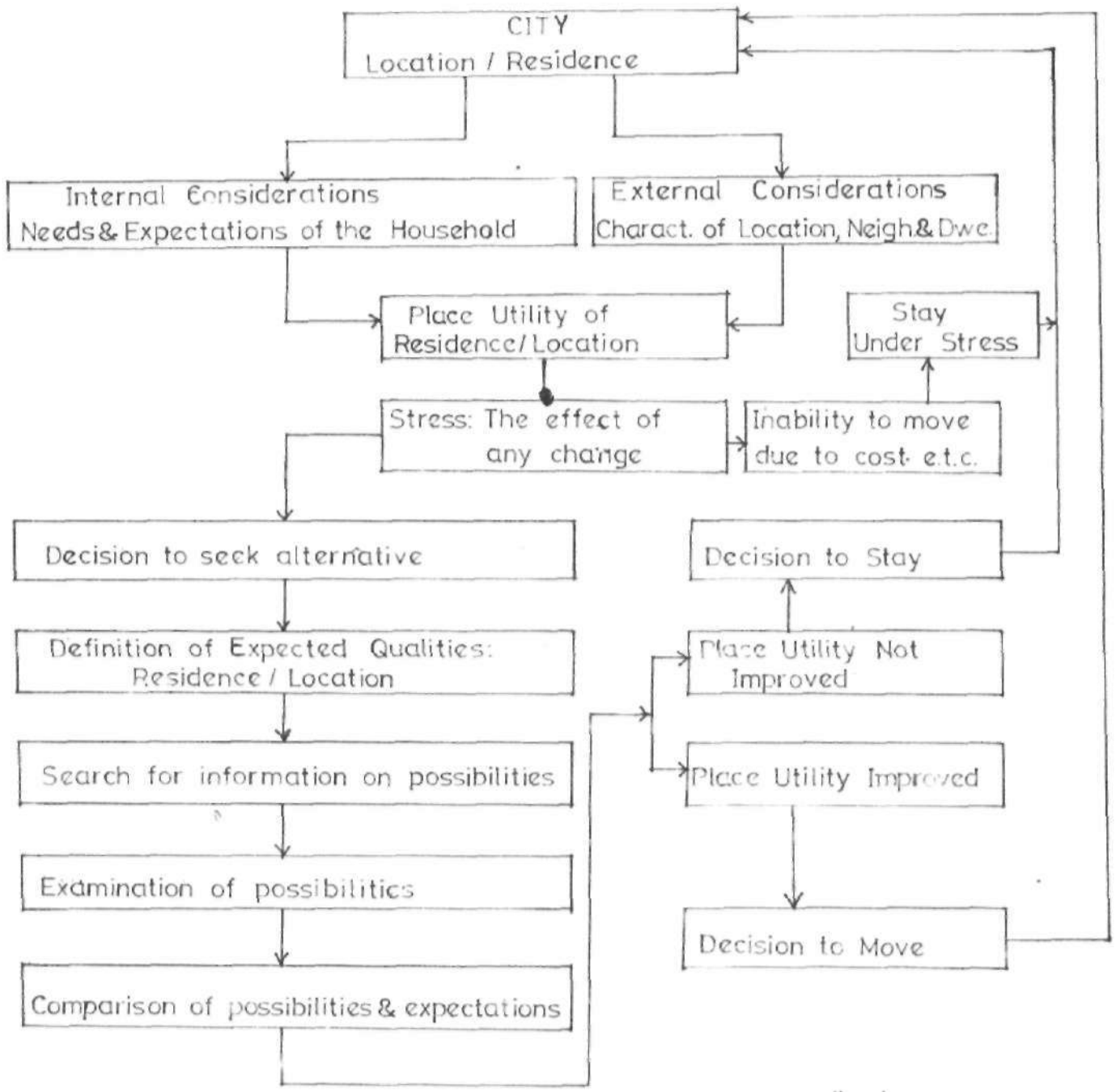


FIGURE 2.1

A RESIDENTIAL LOCATION DECISION MODEL

SOURCE: Carter H (1981) p 281

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intra-urban residential mobility process. It leads to a series of other related decisions set in motion by an imbalance between needs and aspirations in housing. "This imbalance, according to Bourne, translates into stress – strain situation in which the household is seen as responding to a stimulus for change"[13]. In later stages, as search and evaluation of housing alternatives continues, there is subsequent modification of the imbalance. Changes are thus reflected in the information available to the household, spatial distribution of this information and in the feed-back involved in the decision making process.

The choice of a residence is the second of two related decisions. First, a decision to relocate must be borne in mind and its correlation with previous residential characteristics understood. This often precedes the search for a new residence. The second decision provides opportunity to link the housing mobility process with land conversion process. But, "until the decision is made to seek a new residence, the households requirements with respect to characteristics of dwelling unit and its environment remain implicit and is identified only in terms of a transition from an expression of satisfaction to one of disatisfaction"[14]. Once a decision to move is made, the requirements are then made explicit.

At various levels of its life cycle, household experience one form of stress or the other. Threshold stress must have been passed on the previous residence before any decision to relocate is made. There are two categories of stressors identified by Timms.

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13. L.S. Bourne (1971) Internal Structure of the City p.
14. Ibid p.

> "The first category are stressors internally generated by the household itself and defined in terms of its own needs, aspirations and expectations. The second category are external, stimulated by the environment and expressed in-terms of the characteristics of present location, neighbourhood, dwelling unit and their relative location in urban space"[15].

These two provide a continuous source of inspiration to which the household responds and could operate independently or in combination to bring about stress (Fig. 2.2). However, both the perception of given internal or external elements as stressors and the response to specific stress vary from household to household. Different households will therefore respond differently to the same stressful condition. Stress can however be minimised to tolerable limits by adjusting household needs or reorganising the urban space.

Stress will ultimately lead to the concept of 'place utility' as put forward by Bourne (1971). But, because needs, values and the housing market and its modus operandi differ significantly, the concept of stress will equally differ accordingly between developed and developing countries. For, while an offending neighbourhood or colour of the next house may constitute stress and lead to residential mobility in the developed countries, eviction or threats resulting therefrom may constitute stressors in developing countries and not the former. Once the decision to relocate is made, search and evaluation of other dwelling units commences based on information available to the household.

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15. D.W.G. Timms (1971) p.203

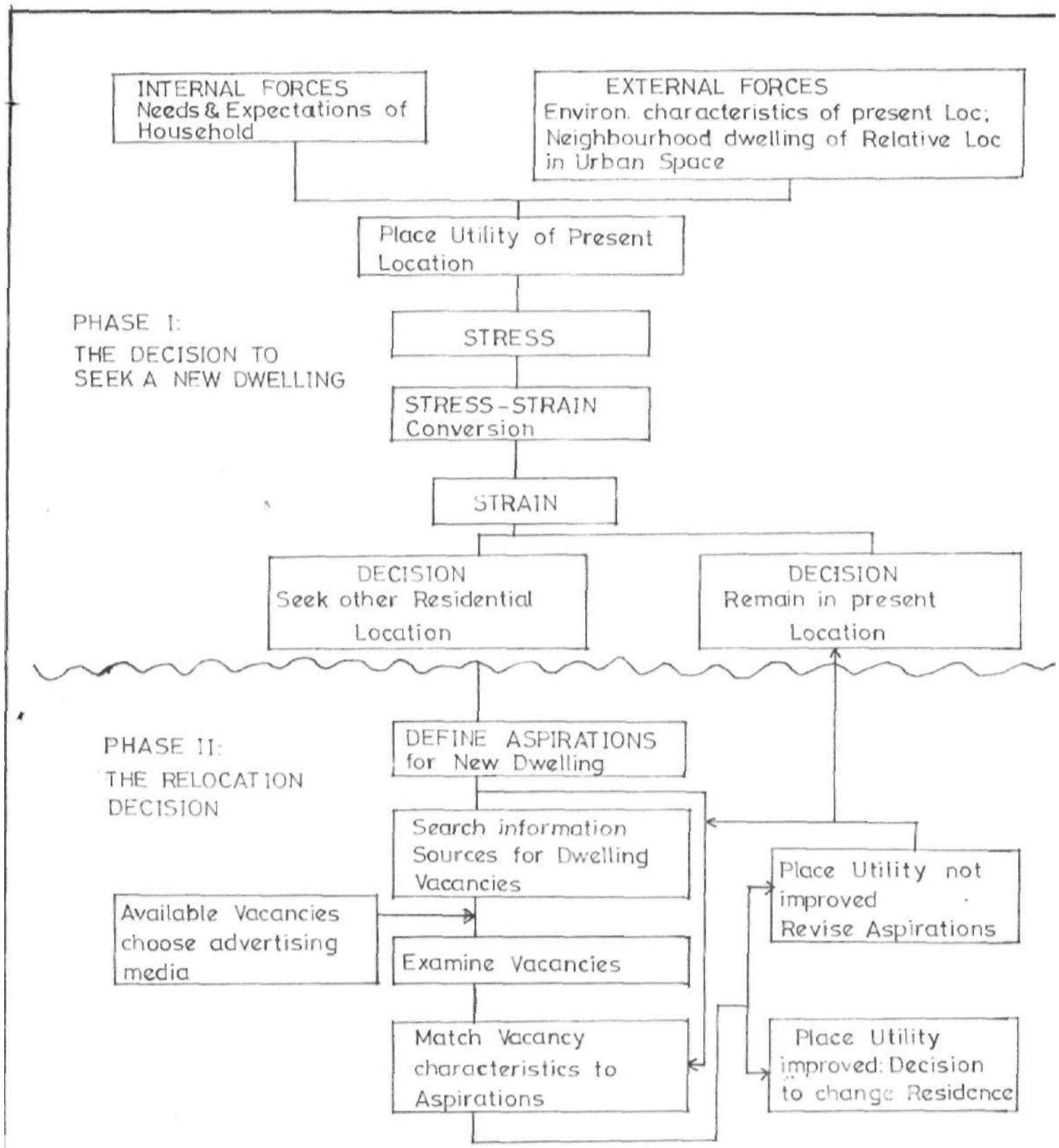


FIGURE 2.2

A MODEL OF THE RESIDENTIAL LOCATION DECISION PROCESS

SOURCE; Bourne L.S(1971) P.203

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2.2.2 Information Sources, Characteristics and Outreach

The search for a new dwelling is often preceded by the information available to the household concerning the characteristics and quality of the house, neighbourhood, environment, services, and even aesthetics. Information about the characteristics of the urban area derives from two sources and is transmitted to the household through various media. The first defines the household's urban space or sphere of influence. Each information has its medium of transmission, spatial spread and intented target socio-economic group within the consuming market.

According to Bourne, "there are four information channels or sources at the households disposal. They are the mass media, real estate agents, display of information at site or elsewhere and information passed through personal contacts"[16]. These constitute the second source of information. An important characteristic of information is its selectively with respect to the information carried and the target audience it reaches out to. Information regarding specific vacancies at specific locations tend to decrease with increasing distance from the information sources. Even at this stage of bringing available vacancies to the awareness of household's, information sources are bias and segregative. Information quality and extent of coverage differs from one medium to the other. For example, the electronic media has a far greater outreach than the print media. The electronic media also has more patronage than the print media especially in the developing countries. This is because the print media is expensive, in comparative terms, and has greater patronage in the urban centre than

16. L.S. Bourne (1971) p. 205

elsewhere. Similarly, information obtained by personal contact or direct observations are far more comprehensive than information carried by newspapers. Information is important if the household's needs and expectations are to be translated into concrete realities. However, whether or not a particular vacancy is filled, depends partly on the effectiveness of the information media, the extent of coverage and partly on the supply and demand of the specific type of house at a point in time.

2.2.3 **The Search Process**

This is closely related to information flow and dispersal. Search activity is a function of the concept of 'place utility' which Bourne (1971) viewed as "an expression of the level of individuals satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a given location; a reflection of the disparity between household needs and environmental challenges"[17]. Place utility leads to a desire either to relocate or remain in situ. In the words of Carter (1975), "it is a complex notion determined by a complex series of 'trade offs' – a desired house in an undesirable location against an inadequate house in a desired area"[18]. This observation is oblivious of other housing characteristics such as the housing market, socio-economic status of the household etc.

Information on dwelling vacancies provide the household the necessary tool for the search, a foreknowledge of the entire urban area and so on. The potential mobile residents image about the urban environment will be spatially

17. Ibid p.202
18. H. Carter (1975) The Study of Urban Geography p.

selective in so far as he has limited knowledge regarding certain parts of the city and some locations better known than others. Search takes place within defined territories and may lead to the knowledge of areas not previously known to the household. This means that areas outside search territory may come into focus necessitating a redefinition of search space having acquired additional information on areas outside its defined search zone. Depending on the magnitude of stress, the household might decide to discontinue search and attempt to readjust in place by altering its preferences or continue search.

2.2.4 The Final Review Process

Having searched, found and considered the qualities of new locations, the household will proceed to review all the options, with a view of comparing them with the existing location. Grigsby (1963), considered cost and benefit to be derived from movement by observing that "in contemplating to move, a family weighs the benefits to be derived at the new location against its financial ability to absorb these costs"[19]. Alonso (1964), butressed this point by stressing that individuals who choose a peripheral location over a central one may do so as a trade off of commuting for space. "This must be paid for either in monetary terms or time equivalent"[20]. Also considered is the sheer physical effort and inconvenience of residential mobility. But, there is also the sheer mental vision of a different neighbourhood, a better residence and new acquaintances. These factors, visualised positively, could be as exciting as

19. W.G. Grigsby (1963) Housing Market and Public Policy p. 77
20. W. Alonso (1964) Location and Land-use in L.S. Bourne p.135

physical mobility is inconveniencing. Indeed, beyond the residential mobility process is an inherent desire by every household to own a house.

2.30. **Theorical Concepts of Residential Mobility:**

The emergence of a few theories with bearings on the concept of residential mobility help in the understanding of the phenomenon in the city. The theories are used as a basis for explaining this concept. Although the theories provide a general picture of the growth pattern of the city in western countries, their evolution provide a background to the study on the pattern of residential mobility.

The earliest theory was that of Burgess (1923) who saw Chicago as a monolithic entity whose growth pattern is ring like. He introduced the concept of income as a factor responsible for vertical residential movement by arguing that households move out in grades from an inner city centre to the periphery with steady economic prosperity. The theory, though relevant in 19th century Chicago lacks credibility in modern day application of the concept of residential mobility because

a) it is anarchromistic and pre-dates modern day town planning
b) cities don't grow in rings and in real life, the pattern of residential mobility is not so defined.
c) it has a limited application and scope viz income, space and Chicago.
d) cities in developing countries have their peculiar nature, growth and history.

However, the theory is a source of reference for the study of the concept in both developed and developing countries.

The wedge sector theory was postulated by Hoyt (1939). The theory limits its contribution to the concept to the influence of rent in the distribution of dwelling units and the resultant residential process. Again, it recognises the role of income, lines of transport ease and land economy of choice. To him, the differences in residential area is substantiated by the varying rents that exist in different parts of the city. Therefore, the change in residence is not on an outward basis as in the concentric theory but on an axial basis that develop into wedge.

Perhaps, of more relevance to the concept of residential mobility in developing countries is the multiple nuclei theory put forward by Harris and Ullman (1945). Without refuting the argument advanced by both Burgess and Hoyt, they modified earlier concepts by stressing that most large cities usually contain a number of subsidiary centres. These growth centres have separate outward growths that contradict the concentric and wedge sector theories which assumed a unifocal central nucleus. Each village and satellite suburb in its expansion, acts as a minor node of economic and social activity in response to demands made by the spatial growth of residence; with a view to serving the interest of residential sectors located within these suburbs. In Kaduna Metropolis, residential growth and mobility portrays both the wedge sector (The Kawo-Sabon Tasha alignment) and the multiple Nuclei theories (Satellite Settlement along Kaduna – Abuja Roads). Similarly, a member of residential suburbs are visible beyond Ung. Rimi, Kakuri, Kawo, U/Romi, Rigasa etc.

Although Harris and Ullman also identified low, medium and high class residential clusters, the factors responsible for this distribution is the spatial set up of the city and not income or the economics of land within the metropolis.

CHAPTER THREE

3.10 THE CHARACTERISTICS AND DETERMINANTS OF RESIDENTIAL MOBILITY IN KADUNA METROPOLIS

3.1.1 INTRODUCTION:

Mobility generally is an essential element in the smooth running of the Kaduna Metropolis. In a quiet night, the distant but distinct humming of the metropolis reminds one of the very activities that are the life line of the city. Residential mobility is an integral part of such movements. Unlike transportation, commerce and industry, little attention has been given to this vital type of city life, the spatial component which tends to, more than any other land-use, shape the spatial character of the metropolis.

We have seen the factors that determine residential mobility in advanced countries. What determines the phenomenon in Kaduna Metropolis. Are the factors the same or are there marked differences. This chapter investigates the characteristics and determinants of residential mobility in Kaduna metropolis.

All forms of movements in urban centres take place within defined geographical and socio-economic settings. Residential mobility therefore operates in a complex matrix of the city's socio-economic and cultural realities. Differences abound in ideologies of what factors are more important in developed and developing countries. Any attempt to explain the character of residential mobility however must be concerned with the factors underlying the locational behaviour and decisions which characterise individual households.

It has been noted that situation studies of the concept of residential mobility in developing cities show similar trends in the pattern of moment. In principle, this concept will not be clearly understood without reference to certain fundamental economic changes in Nigeria. The oil boom of the early 1970s for example brought about increased urbanisation, earning power (the Udoji Award) and changes in taste in the housing industry. And, although the creation of more states in 1967 brought about the emergence of more growth poles in the country, the rural areas remained depressed in form and structure. This resulted in rural-urban drift which in turn set off successive waves of stress in urban housing needs. The oil boom also witnessed the evolution of a socio-economic elite group with immense powers and resources. This gave rise to social areas in the metropolis with distinct homogenous residential outlooks and purchasing powers. These areas form urban ecological zones into which residential mobility takes place. Below is an example of the concept of urban ecology and social areas in Nigerian urban areas.

3.1.2 Aspects of Social Determinants of Residential Mobility in a Named City

Urban ecology is a concept derived from the ecology of biology which tries to establish the relationship between two variables: organisms and their environment and how organisms adapt to the environment to suit their needs.

In a similar manner, urban ecology tries to establish the relationship between "space and people" in the city and how mutual competitions among individuals or groups could lead to principles such as invasion,

colonization, adaptation, succession and dominance. The entire urban area is about space and people and, although people in the city remain largely unaware of their surroundings, in the environmental process, these surrounding's continue to exert considerable influence on their behaviour. Through various land –uses, man wants to adapt to the urban environment to suit his needs which are manifest in different forms – the need to live in a decent place, to move about freely, to shop where he wants, to recreate etc. By this, man "gives clear evidence of territorial behaviour" and "human beings no less than lower animals, define particular boundaries of the city and assume the right to determine who can and who cannot move across these boundaries"[21].

This behavioural pattern evidently leads to colonialism and dominance in which specific parts of the city are colonised and dominated by one ethnic group. For example in Kano municipality, there is the clustering of the Igbo speaking communities in the Sabon Gari area (Figure 3.1). It is further argued that "associations, which follow ethnic or geographical inclinations, aim at over coming specific isolations, affirming meanings, beliefs and values and the attainment of group goals."[22] This observable trend is not unusual because of the Igbos flare for commerce and Sabon Gari is the commercial nerve centre of the city. To this ethnic group, commerce and residence, though two non-conforming land-uses, is seen to operate in close proximity. Because of its numerical strength, this group maintains a monopolistic position and exert a high degree of socio-

21. R.H. Whittaker (1975) Communities and Ecosystems p.179
22. H. Carter (1981) The Study of Urban Geography p. 271

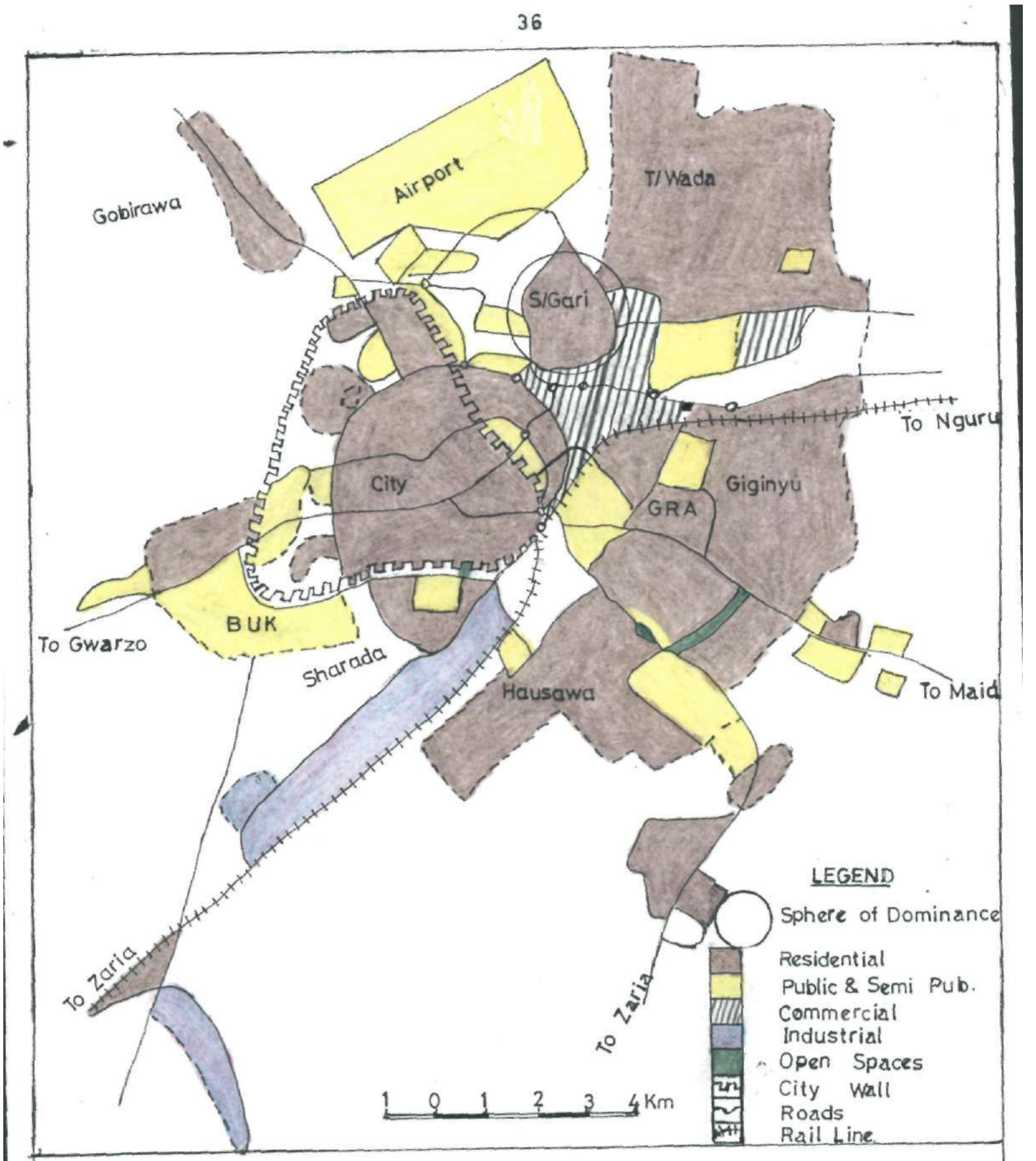


FIGURE 3.1

IGBO ETHNIC GROUP SPHERE OF RESIDENTIAL INFLUENCE IN KANO METR

SOURCE: Tahir M.L (1989) P. 45)

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economic control in this area. By clustering together the group tries to establish and maintain group identity. There is a residential spill over in the Brigade area of the city. Other parts of the city are largely occupied by the Hausa speaking ethnic group.

3.1.3 Residential Area Zoning Regulations in Kaduna Metropolis

In physical planning, land-use zoning regulations are important tools in the formulations and implementations of master plans. The Max Lock (1967-2017) plan for Kaduna gave the general pattern for land-use. Different zones in the metropolis were allocated to different activities including residential, commercial and industrial uses. Figure 3.2 shows the then and proposed future residential areas by Max Lock. These zonings are meant to guide and regulate current and future developments as specified by the plan, curtail the activities of land speculators, minimise the incidence of haphazard and illegal building of structures and to ensure an aesthetic and healthy environment.

The Max Lock plan zoned residential areas in Kaduna metropolis into high, medium and low density with high density at Kakuri, Kawo, Tudun Wada and Ung. Rimi, medium density at the Federal and State Government Housing Estates at Malali, Ungwar Rimi and Barnawa and low density at the G.R.A.s in Ungwar Rimi and Malali (Figure 3.3).

3.1.4 The Evolution of Large Scale Residential Areas

The evolution of residential areas in the Kaduna metropolis is closely related to the steady increases in the growth of the population. Kaduna Metropolis by the 1991 population census hit the million mark, a close

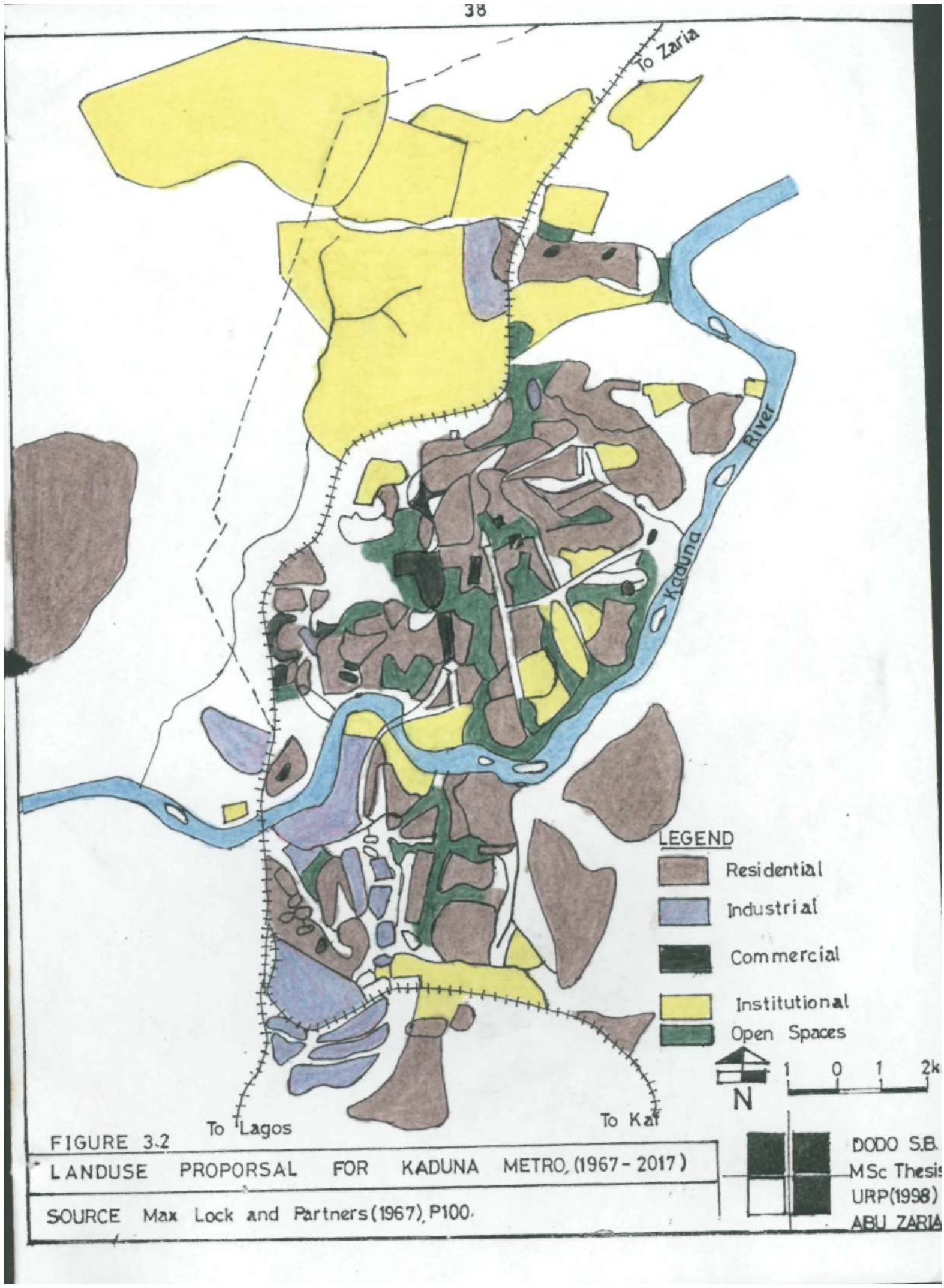


FIGURE 3.2

LANDUSE PROPORSAL FOR KADUNA METRO, (1967 - 2017)

SOURCE Max Lock and Partners (1967), P100.

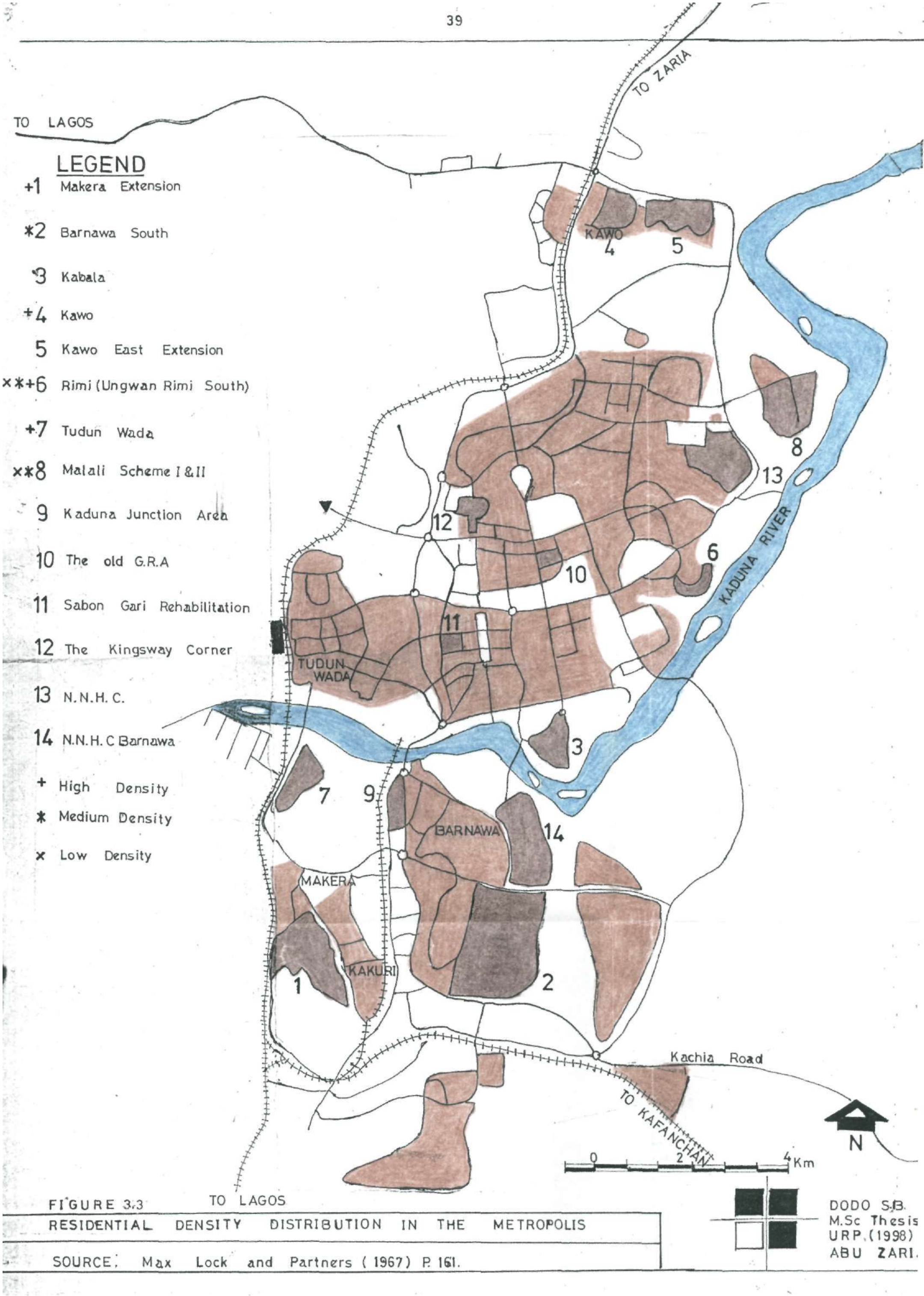


FIGURE 3.3

RESIDENTIAL DENSITY DISTRIBUTION IN THE METROPOLIS

SOURCE: Max Lock and Partners (1967) P. 161.

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approximation of Max Lock's projection of the million mark by 1990 (Table 3.1).

TABLE 3.1 1991 Population Distribution and 1996 projection at Residential Sectoral Level.

AREA	1991	1999 PROJECTION
1. Badiko	16,265	19,010
2. Barnawa	32,684	38,200
3. Kawo	37,107	43,369
4. Malali	32,677	26,504
5. Sabon Tasha	27,251	31,850
6. Tudun Wada	60,299	70,476
7. Ung. Dosa	19,658	22,976
8. Ung. Romi	8,182	9,563
9. Ung. Rimi	52,727	61,614
10. Ung. Television	28,344	33,128
TOTAL	**315,194**	**356,690**

Source: National Population Commission, 1991 Population Census.

When the population of the metropolis is taken as whole, the million mark projection becomes clearer.

With this rapid increase, practically every activity in Kaduna has grown to larger proportion than was earlier envisaged by both the post war plan of 1963 and the Max Lock Plan, 1967-2017. What this translates to is a proportionate increase in the demand for accommodation and a consequent increase in the housing market and residential mobility. This is an indication of the extent to which residential growth has taken place.

Residential mobility can therefore be expected to have increased towards these lines of growth. This can be compared to Figure 3.2, the Max Lock envisaged future Residential Area growth and the extent to which new urban development has proceeded.

Large scale residential development was first embarked upon by the then Northern Nigerian Housing Corporation. The aim was to provide housing accommodation for low, medium and high income civil servants – the Marafa Estate. Later plans made provisions for high, medium and low density housing at locations earlier mentioned in section 3.1.3. above. These are situations where public sector participation in the provision of housing became evident. However, in a city like Kaduna, where the supply of residential housing is often in shortfall, and the bureaucracy involved in acquiring a house from public housing schemes cumbersome, it is not unlikely that the allocation of housing units in the Estates were likely to exclude the very group for whom, in theory, the houses were meant.

The foregoing is a prelude to the movement process in the metropolis. The succeeding part of this chapter deals with the characteristics and determinants of residential mobility in Kaduna Metropolis. To this effect, a structured questionnaire survey (Appendix I) of tenants and landlords/caretakers (Appendix II) in selected residential sectors was conducted in the metropolis, the result of which is analysed below.

Altogether, a target 200 tenants and 100 landlords/caretakers respondents respectively was envisaged. To give a fair and equitable

coverage of the metropolis, 10 residential sectors were surveyed (Figure 3.4). In each case, 20 household heads (tenants) and 10 landlords/caretakers were interviewed at random on the different dimensions of housing mobility. For, although other planning and urban management bureaucrats are involved, the supply of appropriate housing stock by landlords, forms the springboard on which tenants, the instrument in the entire residential movement process depends. Although the survey achieved a high degree of success, the prevailing socio-economic climate of the State and Nation typified by the industrial action by civil servants and the protracted fuel shortage in the country had negative effects on the total success of the survey.

3.20 **<u>The Determinants of Residential Mobility in Kaduna Metropolis</u>**

The determinants of residential mobility are many and varied. They shape the Character and pattern of movement. They are grouped into two viz.

1) **Determinants of Vertical Mobility**

   a) Income (b) Occupational status and

   (c) educational qualification and

2) **Determinants of Horizontal Mobility**

   including (a) Access to the CBD (b) Rent

   (c) advertisement (d) Stressors

   (e) New Housing Construction

   (f) Demand and supply of Housing.

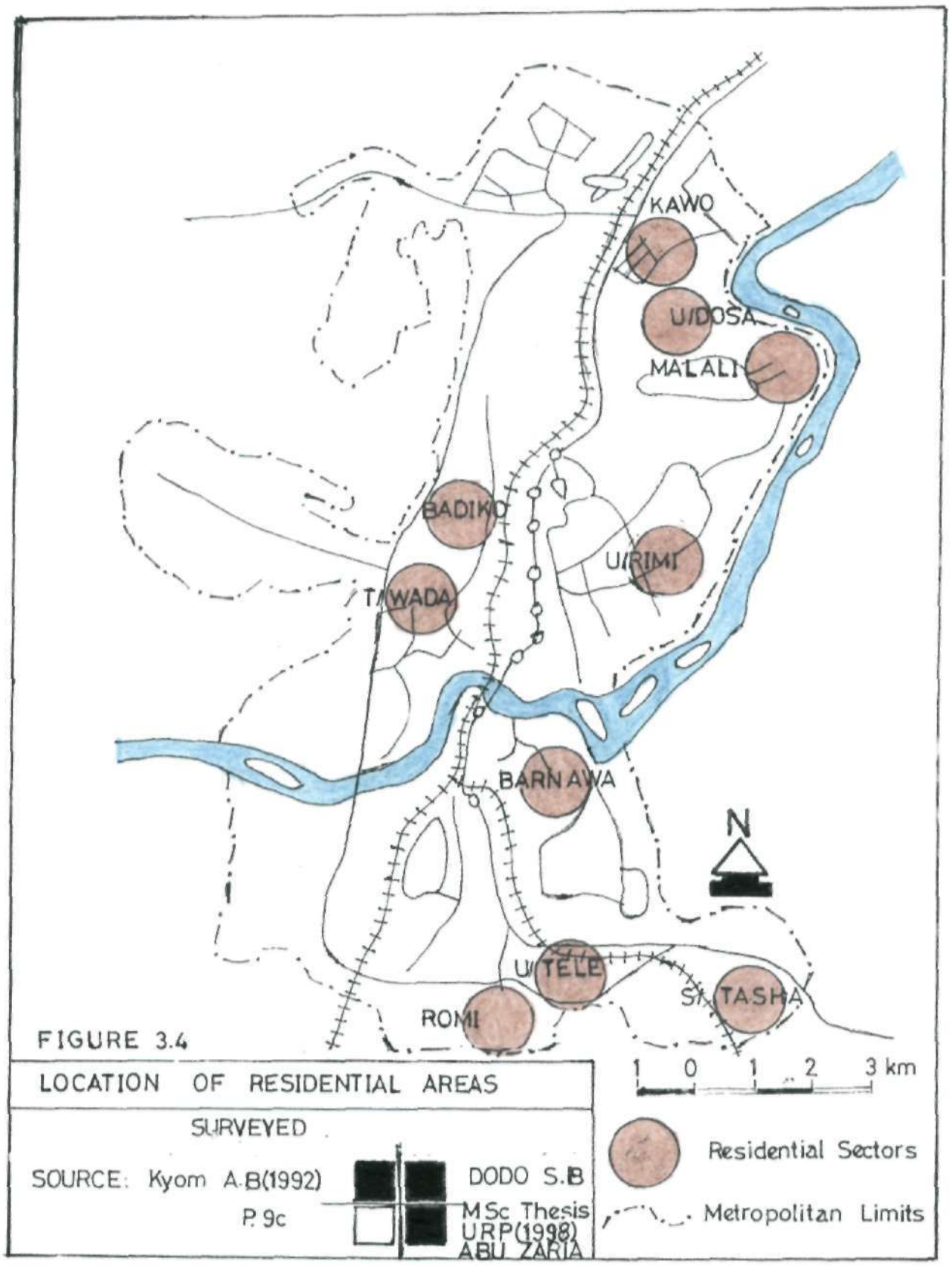

KAWO
U/DOSA
MALALI
BADIKO
U/RIMI
T/WADA
BARNAWA
N
U/TELE
S/TASHA
ROMI
1 0 1 2 3 km
LOCATION OF RESIDENTIAL AREAS
SURVEYED
SOURCE: Kyom A.B(1992)
P. 9c
DODO S.B
MSc Thesis
URP(1998)
ABU ZARIA
Residential Sectors
Metropolitan Limits

FIGURE 3.4

3.2.1 **Determinants of Vertical Mobility**

3.2.2 **Income**

Family income or earnings determine its scale of preferences, social status, behavioural pattern, how and where the family lives.

The first question on the questionnaire dealt with the issue of household income grouping/brackets. The objective was to test two suppositions. The first being the earning power of the respondents and the second whether or not type of residence occupied and change of residence is proportional to income levels (Appendix I and II).. The 200 tenants interviewed responded to this question positively. Of this total, 21 tenants earned less than 1000 Naira/month each representing 10.5%. Similarly 21 respondents earned between 1500 and 1700 Naira monthly (10.5%). Another set of 21 tenants earned

	Income (in ₦)	No. of Households	Percentage
1	⊂1000	21	10.5
2	1000-1200	22	11.0
3.	1200-1500	21	10.5
4.	1500 – 1700	21	10.5
5.	1700-2000	24	12.0
6.	2000-2500	27	13.5
7.	2500-3000	26	14.0
8.	⊃3000	36	18.0
	Total	**198**	**100%**

Table 3.2

Source: Field Survey, 1998.

Table 3.3

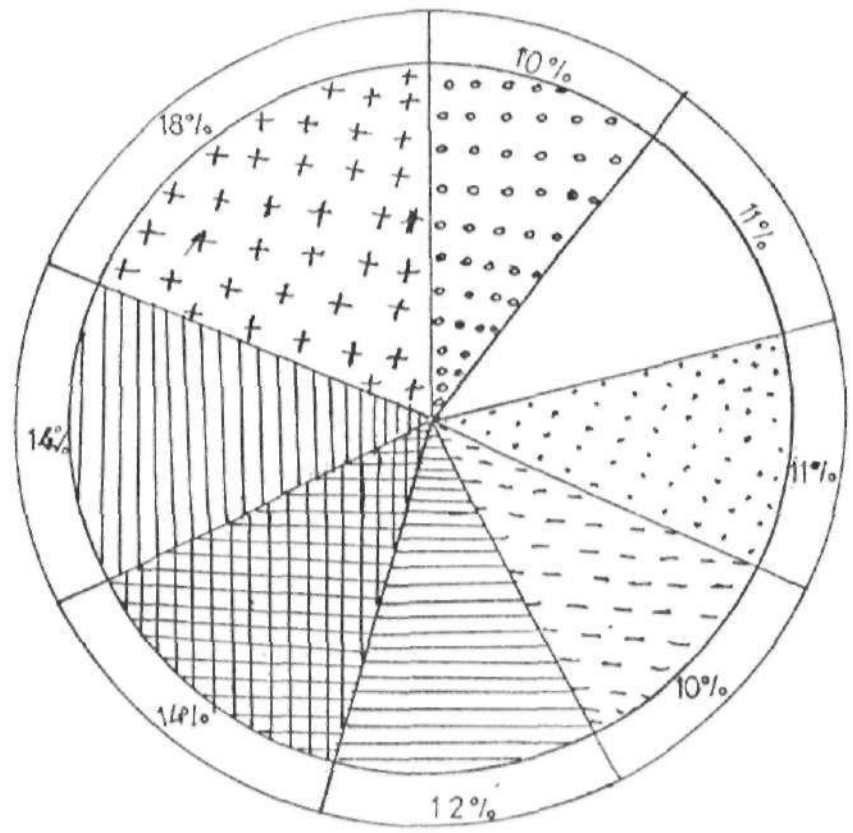
Residential Sector	Total Responses	Percentage
Ung. Television	15	12.3
Ung. Rimi	11	8.9
Tudun Wada	13	10.6
Kawo	14	11.5
Ung. Dosa	10	8.1
Barnawa	18	14.6
Malali	10	8.1
Badiko	11	8.9
Sabon Tasha	11	8.9
Ung. Romi	10	8.1
TOTAL	**123**	**100**

Total percentage of responses to income as a factor of residential mobility at sectoral level.
Source: Field Survey 1998.

Table 3.4

Residential Sector	Total Responses	Percentage
Ung. Television	6	8.0
Ung. Rimi	9	12.0
Tudun Wada	8	10.7
Kawo	5	6.6
Ung. Dosa	9	12.0
Barnawa	3	4.0
Malali	11	14.7
Badiko	7	9.3
Sabon Tasha	8	10.7
Ung. Romi	9	12.0
TOTAL	**75**	**100**

Fig. 3.5(a) Income Brackets of Tenants (in Naira)



LEGEND

- Less than 1000
- 1000 - 2000
- 1200 - 1500
- 1500 - 1700
- 1700 - 2000
- 2000 - 2500
- 2500 - 3000
- More than 3000

Source: Field Survey 1998

Dodo S.B.
M Sc Thesis (URP)
ABU Zaria (1998)

between 1200 and 1500 naira monthly (10.5%), 22 respondents (representing 11%), earned between 1000 and 12000 naira. 24(12%) tenants had income between 1700 and 2000 naira while 27 tenants earned monthly wages between 2,000 and 2,5000 naira representing 13.5%. 26 (14.0%) of the respondents had monthly income between 2500 and 3000 naira. 36 tenants whose monthly income was above 3000 naira accounted for 18% of the total responses sampled. (Figures 3.5) (a and b) and table 3.2 respectively.

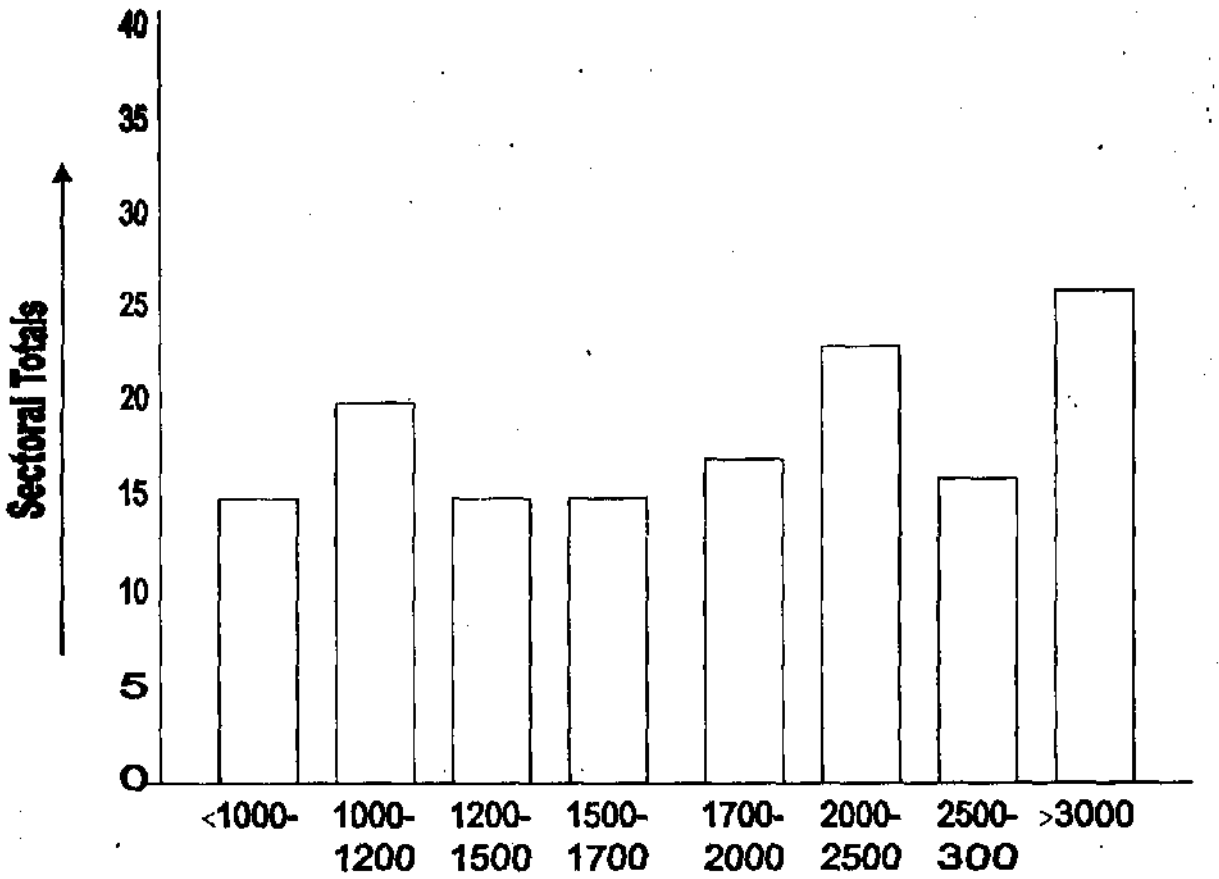
The survey further showed that only 2(1.0%) of the sample earning more than 3000 naira monthly lived in three bedroom bungalows, 3(1.5%) in two bedrooms and as high as 195(97.5%) lived in room and parlour apartments. Of the total sample 198, 123 (62.1) changed residence as a result of income while 75(37.9) did not attribute their movement to income. Table 3.3 above represents the sectoral residential summary of those who change residence due to income as against those who did not (in table 3.4). While table 3.3 shows that more residents in Barnawa move due to income with 18(14.6%), table 3.4 shows that Malali has the highest sectoral total 11(14.7%) whose movement is not associated with income.

Similarly Ung. Dosa, Malali and Ung. Rimi recorded the least number of residential movement 10(8.1%) each in table 3.3 as against Barnawa 3(4.0%) and Kawo 5(6.6%) in table 3.4. From this analysis, it can be inferred that income remains a critical factor in residential mobility process.

3.2.3 Occupational Status as a Determinant

This factor can be viewed from the perspective of colonialism which introduced a legacy of distinctive urban land-uses exemplified in the GRAs,

Fig. 3.5(b) Income Brackets



Source: Field Survey, 1998.

ministers quarters and such other areas in the Kaduna metropolis. The GRAs became status symbols into which indigenous civil servants moved at the end of the colonial rule. That was in 1960. To assess the influence of occupation on residential mobility, a total of 320 responses was obtained of people of different occupational backgrounds in the metropolis the result of which is analysed in table 3.5 below.

Respondents in category G attributed movement to short supply of official housing while those in C said they moved due to the special nature of their occupational call. Respondents in category H said their movements are dictated by the economics of demand and supply while category E did so because of change in workplace and status.

Table 3.5

Category		No. Sampled	No. & % that Moved	No & % that did not
A.	Artisans (Mechanics, Bricklayers)	40	17(42.5)	23(57.5)
B.	Civil servants	40	19(47.5)	21(52.5)
C.	Health Workers	40	25(62.5)	15(37.5)
D.	Farmers	40	16(40.0)	24(60.0)
E.	Military Personnels	40	31(77.5)	9(22.5)
F.	Judiciary Workers	40	33(85.5)	7(14.5)
G.	Teachers (Primary & Sec. Schools)	40	18(45.0)	22(55.0)
H.	Traders (including Hawkers)	40	35(87.5)	5(12.5)
	Total	**320**		

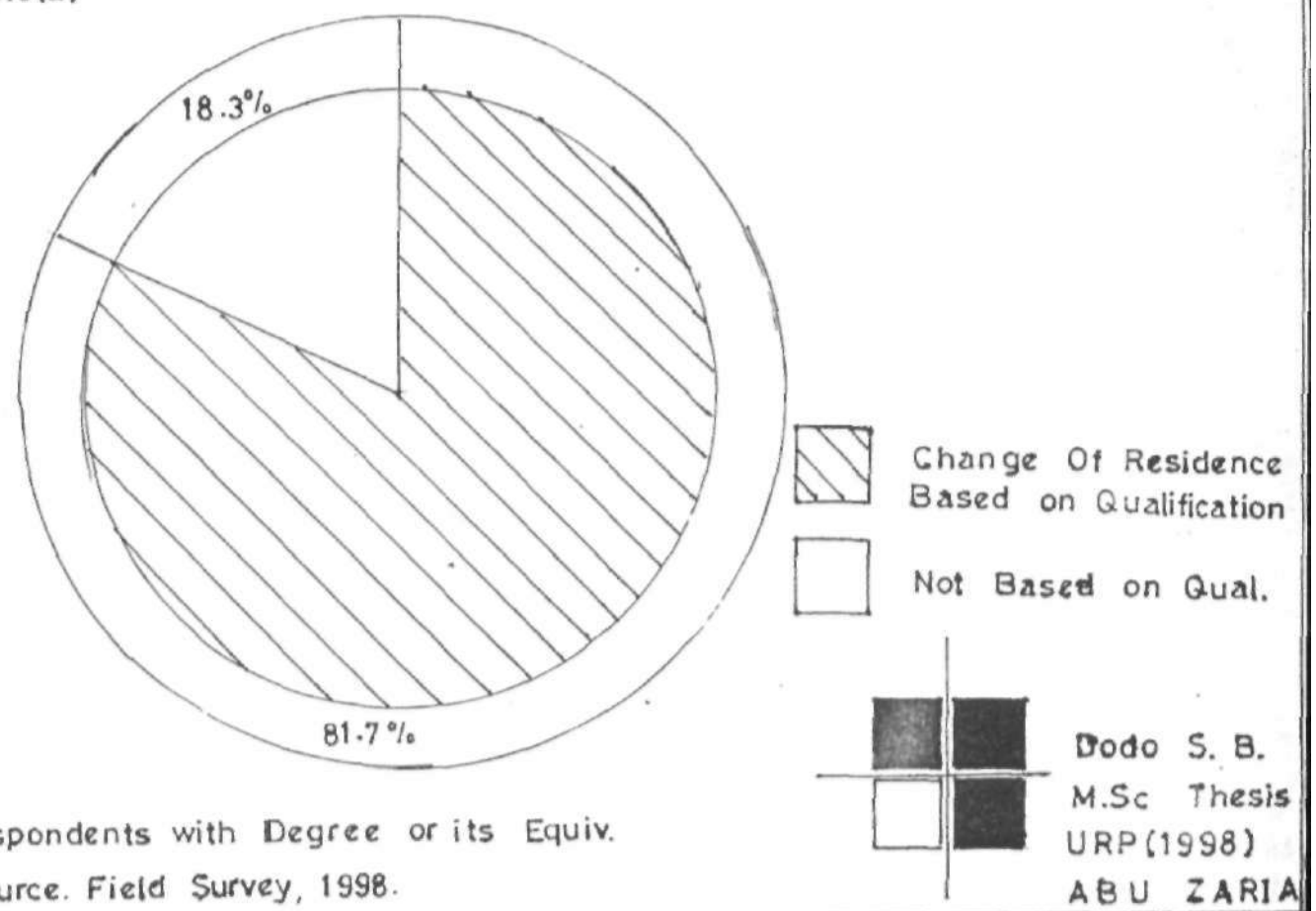
Occupational status as a basis of residential mobility

Source: Field Survey 1998.

3.2.4 Educational Qualification as a Determinant

This is an important feature of residential mobility which early theories have not investigated. It is closely associated with occupation. It

Fig. 3.6(a)



Respondents with Degree or its Equiv.

Source. Field Survey, 1998.

is indeed a true measure of vertical mobility as can be seen from the sample below. Samples were drawn from respondents with different educational qualifications including holders of degrees, Higher National Diplomas, Nigeria Certificate in Education, Ordinary National Diplomas as well as others– 60 had degree/HND, 120 were NCE/OND holders while 20 were holders of other qualifications. Of the 200 responses, 49(81.7%) of degree/HND holders said they changed residence because they had obtained additional qualifications and are therefore qualified to move from their previous residences while 11(18.3%) said their change of residence was due to other factors other than qualification. 50(41.7%) of the 120 NCE/OND holders linked their residential change to educational level while 70(58.3%) did not. Respondents of other qualifications, Higher Certificates etc, 3(15.0%) ascribed their movement to long years of service which has earned them greater recognition in the public service hierarchy. 17(85.0%) changed residence for reasons other than their educational qualifications (*Figures* 3. 6(a) (b) (c) *respectively*.

Two things are clearly manifested from this determinant.

i) that the rate of residential mobility increases with higher qualification and

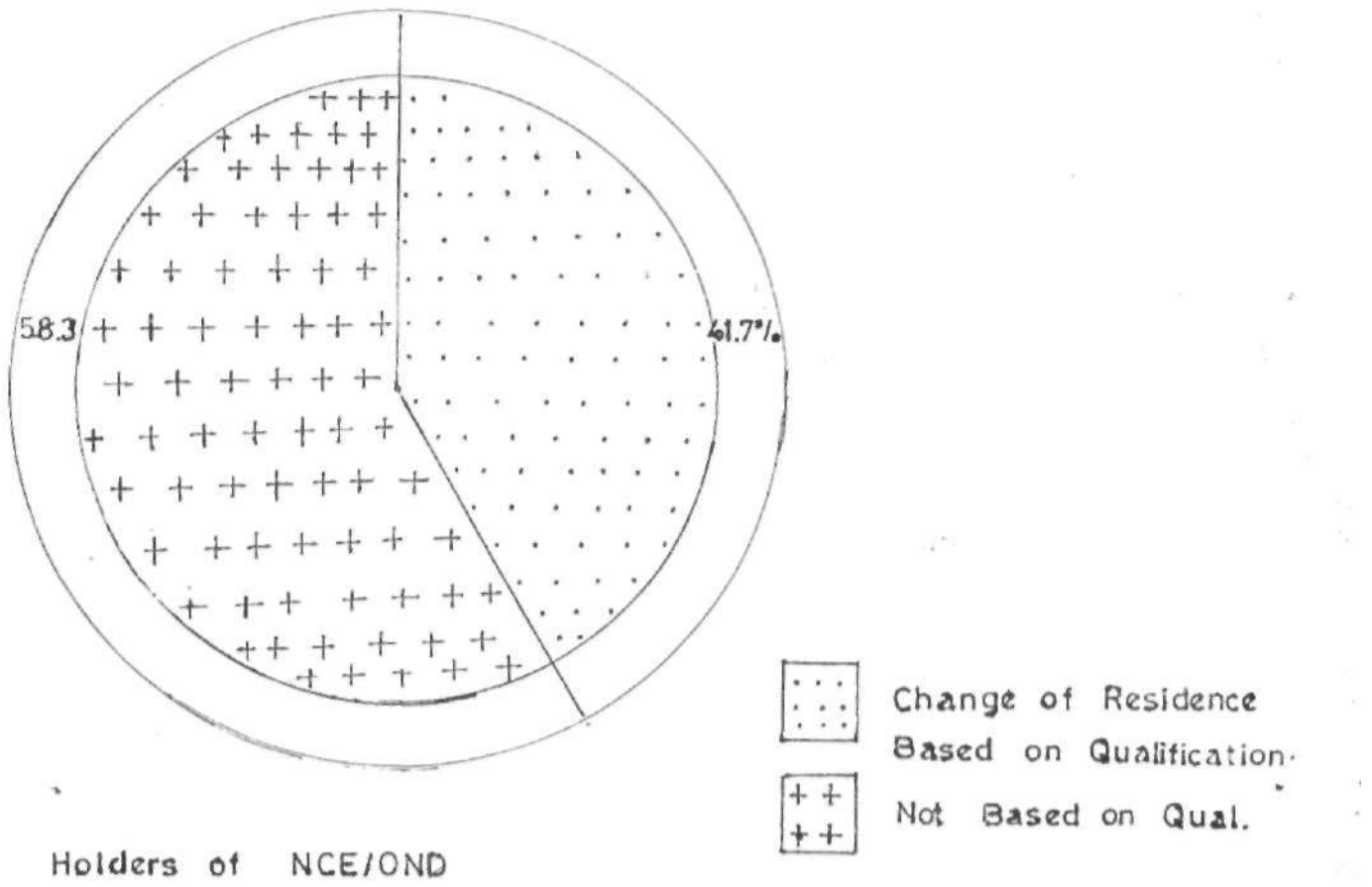
ii) that the duration of stay in the service can influence mobility ie. Change of residence for reasons other than educational attainment.

3.30 Determinants of Horizontal Mobility

3.3.1 Access to the CBD and other Functional Areas

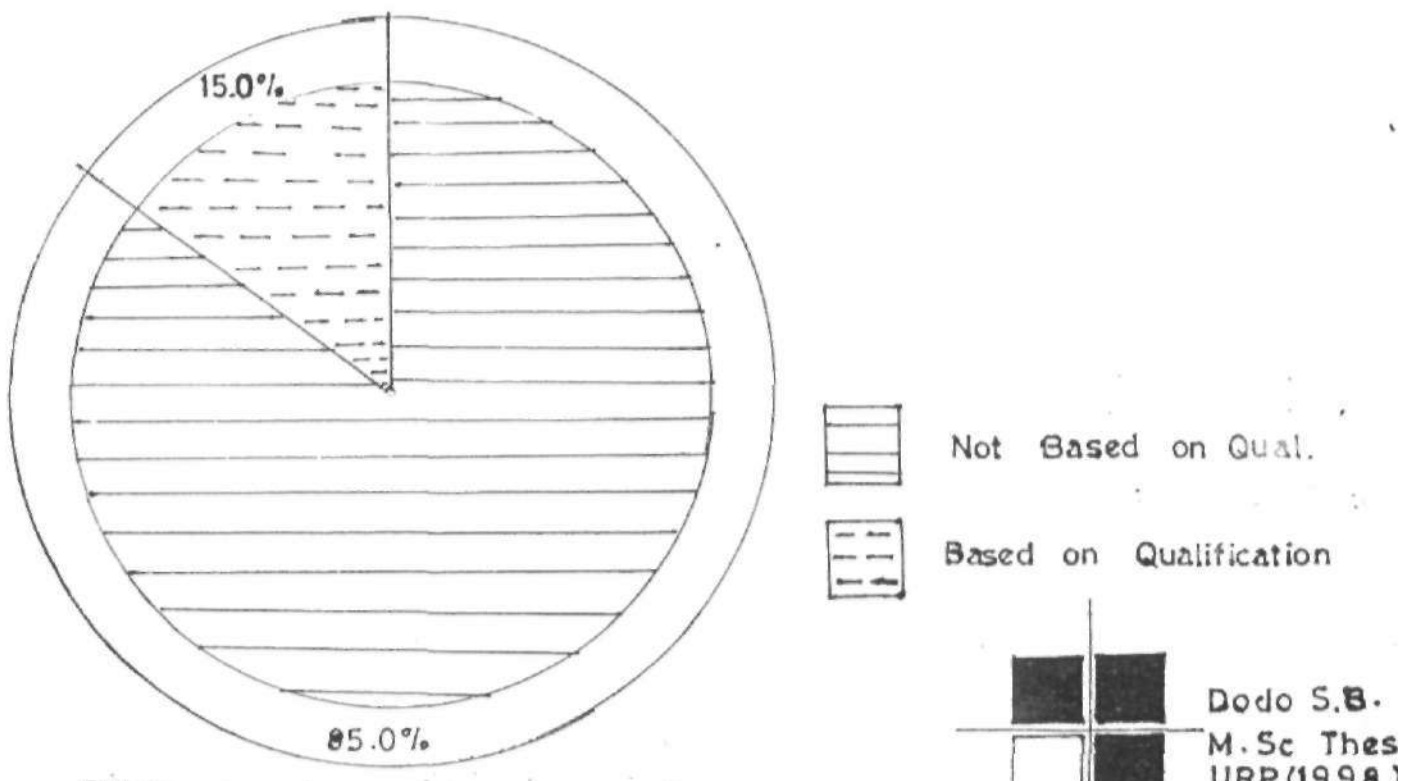
To assess the importance of access to the Kaduna Central Area, residential sectors surveyed were ranked (Table 3.6) in terms of their

Fig. 3.6(b)



Holders of NCE/OND

Fig. 3.6(c)



Others

Source. Field Survey 1998

accessibility to and from these functional areas. The assessment enabled the determination of preferred areas, which sectors are more accessible and why.

From the table, it is clear that 45(20%) of the respondents in the sample preferred living close to their jobs with 11 tenants each from Barnawa and Kawo wanting to do so representing 24.4% and none from Tudun Wada. Hence proximity to job ranked first in the order. A peaceful environment (ie. devoid of violence/insecurity) ranked second with 39(18.1%) responses, 13(33.3%) of which lived in Barnawa, 8(20.5%) in Sabon Tasha, 7(17.9%) in Ungwar Television, 3(7.7%) in Ungwar Rimi, 2(5.1%) each in Badiko, Kawo, Malali and Romi respectively and non from Tudun Wada and Ungwar Dosa. Proximity to public transport ranked third with 30(14.0%) responses, 9(30.0%) in Ungwar Rimi, 7(23.3%) in Kawo, 6(20%) in Sabon Tasha, 3(10.0%) in Tudun Wada, 2(6.7%) each in both Barnawa and Malali, 1(3.3%) in Ungwar Television and non in Romi and Ungwar Dosa respectively.

Closeness to blood relations ranked fourth with 24(11.2%) tenants responding positively. Sector breakdown showed that Barnawa came first with nine responses representing 37.5%, Ungwar Television 4(16.7%), Romi and Sabon Tasha 3(12.5%) each, Kawo and Ungwar Dosa 2(8.3%) each, Ung. Rimi 1(4.2%) and non from Badiko, Malali and Tudun Wada.

23(10.7%) of the tenants interviewed preferred qualitative environment (in terms of cleanliness) and ranked fifth, 5(21.7%) in Sabon Tasha, 4(17.4%) in Barnawa, 3(13.0%) each in Malali and Ung. Rimi, 2(6.7%) each in Kawo, Ung. Television and Tudun Wada, 1(4.3%) each in

TABLE 3.6

Aggregate Scores & Rank Importance of Access/Environmental Quality on Housing Choice

Proximity to	Residential Sector										Total (%)	Rank
	Badiko	Barnawa	Kawo	Malali	Romi	S/Tasha	U/Dosa	U/Rimi	U/Tele.	T/Wada		
Job	3	11	11	2	6	5	1	5	1	-	45 (20)	1
Friends	-	5	1	-	1	2	2	1	-	-	12 (5.6)	7
Relations	-	9	2	-	3	3	2	1	4	-	24 (11.2)	4
Public Transport	-	2	7	2	-	6	-	9	1	3	30 (14.0)	3
Services	-	6	3	4	2	1	-	4	1	1	22 (10.2)	6
Accomm. Avail	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 (0.4)	10
Good Neighbours	-	3	1	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	6 (2.8)	9
Qualitative Environ.	1	4	2	3	1	5	-	3	2	2	23 (10.7)	5
Low Rent	1	1	1	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	6 (2.8)	9
Peaceful Environment	2	13	2	2	2	8	-	3	7	-	39 (18.0)	2
Quietude	-	4	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	7 (3.3)	8
Total/(%)	7(3.3)	59(27.4)	30(14)	15(7)	16(7.4)	32(14.9)	5(2.3)	28(13.0)	16(7.4)	7(3.3)	215	
Rank	7	1	3	6	5	2	8	4	5	7		

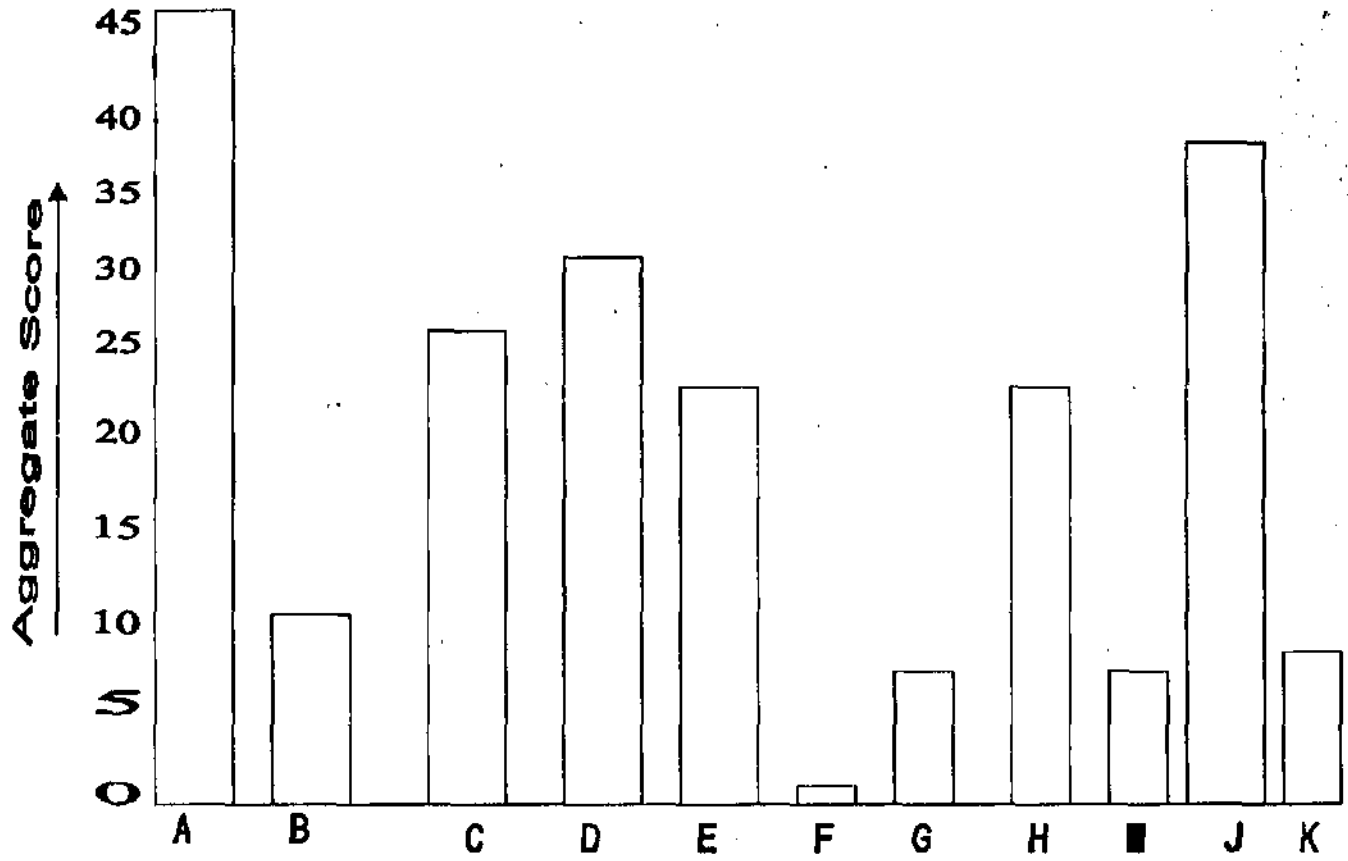
Badiko and Romi and non responding to this question in Ung. Dosa. 22(10.2%) of the responses preferred being accessible to public services. The group occupied the sixth place in the rank order. Of this total, Barnawa had 6(27.2%), Malali and Ung. Rimi 4 each representing 18.2%, 3(13.6%) in Kawo, 2(9.1%) in Romi, 1(4.5%) in Sabon Tasha, Ung. Television T/Wada and non in Badiko and Ung. Dosa respectively.

12 or 5.6% of the sampled responses like living close to their friends and ranked seventh. Out of this, Barnawa had 5(41.7%), Sabon Tasha and Ung. Dosa had 2(16.7%) each, Kawo, Romi and Ung. Rimi. 1(8.3%) of total responses while there was non from Badiko, Malali, Ung. Television and T/Wada.

A calm environment (without noise, sound blast) was the choice of 7(3.3%) respondents ranking eighth in the order. 4(57.1%) of the surveyed responses were in Barnawa, 1(14.3%) each in Malali, Ung. Rimi and T/Wada and non in S/Tasha, Ung. Dosa, Ung. Television, Romi, Kawo and Badiko (figure 3.7).

Good neighbours and low rent ranked nineth respectively with 6(2.8%) responses in each case and a 1(16.7%) in each of the following residential sectors – Malali, Ung. Rimi, Badiko, Barnawa, Kawo and Romi and non in S/Tasha, Ung. Dosa, Ung. Television and T/Wada for good neighbours and 3(50.0%) in Barnawa, 2(33.3%) in S/Tasha, 1(16.7%) in Kawo and non in the remaining sectors for low rent. The availability of accommodation had the least influence with only 1(0.4%) responses. This was recorded in Barnawa which had a sectoral score of 100% for this parameter and non for other sectors.

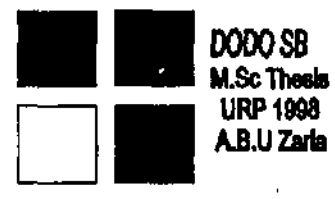
Figure 3.7 Ranked Importance of Economic Considerations on location Choice



Source: Field Survey 1998

KEY
Proximity to

A	Job
B	Friends
C	Relations
D	Public Transport
E	Services
F	Accomm. Available
G	Good Neighbours
H	Qualitative Environ
I	Low Rent
J	Peaceful Environ
K	Quietude



It can be inferred from these findings that the cost and rigours of commuting daily to and from work is responsible for proximity to job taking the first rank in the order. Respondents argued that meagre earnings can be used in other areas such as food and shelter. Low rent, qualitative environment and accommodation available ranked nineth and 10th respectively because rents either in the public or private housing are fairly uniform in the metropolis and accommodation, the 10th rank due to the dearth of supply of housing.

Dwelling units hardly remain vacant for too long to allow for long time advertisement. Moreover, the availability of accommodation or the lack of awareness of it depends on a number of intervening variables including the cost of construction, the demand and supply of appropriate housing and tenants purchasing power or income. Also on sectoral basis, Barnawa ranked first with 59(27.4%), Sabon Tasha second with 32(14.9%), Kawo third having scored 30(14.0%), Ung. Rimi Fourth with 28(13.0%), Romi and Ung. Television fifth 16(7.4%) each, Malali is sixth with 15(7.0%). Both Badiko and T/Wada ranked seventh with 7(3.3%) responses and Ung. Dosa 5(2.3%) ranking eighth. Living close to the CBD did not attract any score. Respondents said what the CBD offers can also easily be obtained in subsidiary economic nuclei in the metropolis and secondly the CBD is accessible from every corner of the metropolis.

Findings in figure 3.7 show that households relocate with due consideration to the cost of commuting to and from job, the cost of public transport and or its availability, services and whether or not rents in the desired environment are low in comparison to other neighbourhoods.

Hence the factors A + D + I + E in figure 3.7 are based purely on economic considerations expressed in terms of income as against B,C,F,G,H,J and K on the other hand which are environmental factors based on the household's preferred neighbourhood which in addition to economic considerations stimulate residential movement.

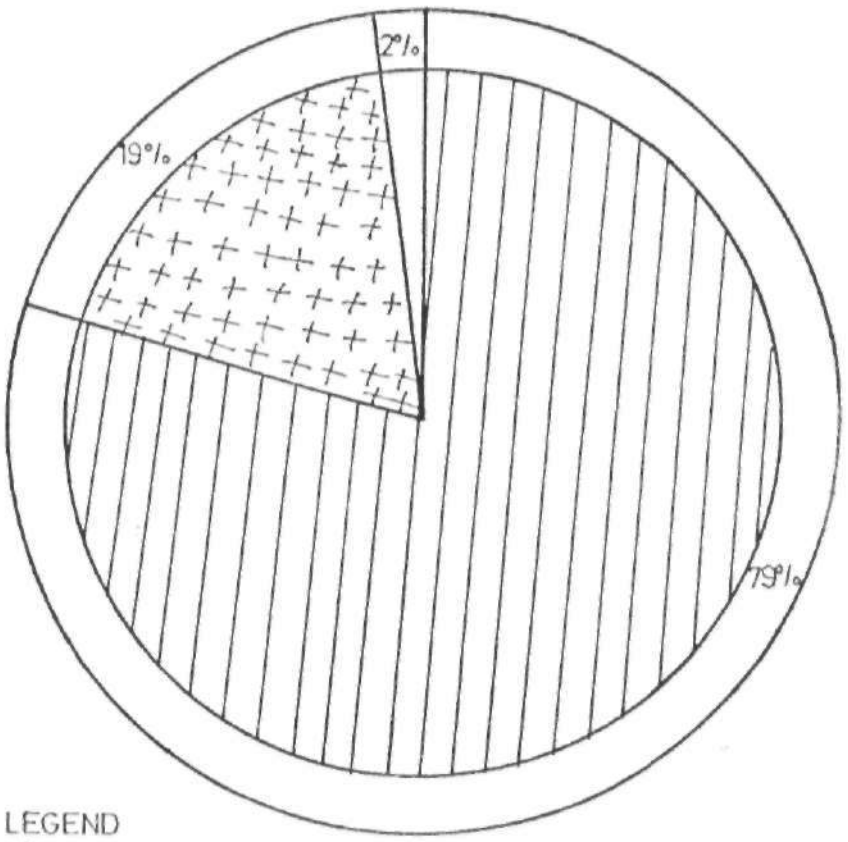
3.3.2 **Rent Differentials as a Determinant**

The Rent control and Recovery of Premises Edict No. 4 of 1996 provides the basic frame-work and mechanism of rent control in the metropolis and other urban areas in the State. To ensure compliance and enforcement of the provisions of the Edict, an enabling law was enacted and a tribunal to try rent cases set up.

In a survey of the metropolis, it was observed that inspite of this control mechanism, only 2(2.0%) out of a total of 87 respondents (landlords) actually adhered to the provisions of the edict while as much as 67(79.3%) of rents charged was determined by individual landlords. 16(19.0%) of respondents said rents charged were determined by the Association of landlords (Figure 3.8a). For proper understanding of the role of rent in residential movement, the provisions of the Edict and what operates at public and private sector housing are compared below.

Table 3.7 and 3.8 below provide for rent payable per room/month for two categories of residential housing – concrete and mud bricks respectively.

Fig. 3.8a Rent Determinant



LEGEND

Self

Association of Landlords

State Govt/Rent Tribunal

Dodo S.B
M.Sc Thesis
URP(1998)
ABU Zaria

Source: Field Survey 1998

Table 3.7

Rent Payable for Different Categories of Houses within Kaduna Metropolis as specified by the Rent Control Edict of 1996

Permanent Structures (Concrete)

Type	Roofing with Ceiling	Plastered Walls	Roofing without Ceiling	Electricity	Pit. Lat	Kit	Bath Room	W.C	Rent (N) Payable
1	X	X	-	X	-	x	x	x	300=
2	-	X	X	X	-	X	X	X	300=
3	X	-	-	-	-	X	X	X	250=
4	-	-	X	-	X	X	X	-	200=
5	-	-	X	X	X	X	X	-	150=
6	-	-	X	-	X	X	X	-	120=

Source: Kaduna State of Nigeria, Gazetter No.11, Vol.30, p. A18.

Table 3.8

Rent payable for different Categories of Houses in Kaduna Metropolis as specified by the Rent Control Edict of 1996

Temporary Structures (Mud Bricks)

Type	Roofing with Ceiling	Plastered Walls	Roofing without Ceiling	Electricity	Pit. Lat	Kit	Bath Room	W.C	Rent (N) Payable
1	X	x	-	X	-	x	x	x	250=
2	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	-	200=
3	X	X	-	-	X	X	X	-	180=
4	-	X	X	X	X	X	X	-	150=
5	-	-	X	X	X	X	X	-	130=
6	-	-	X	-	X	X	X	-	100=

Source: Kaduna State of Nigeria, Gazette No.11, Vol.30, p. A19.

Note:

1 x- means facilities available

2 - means facilities not available

3 The rent specified does not include the cost of electricity and water consumed by tenants.

These two tables can be compared with field surveys of tenants responses to rents charged at sectoral levels.

Table 3.9

Rent Charged (N)/Room/Month for Different Categories of Houses within Kaduna Metropolis at Residential Sectoral Level

Residential Sector	Perm. Structure (Concrete)	Temp. Structure Mud Bricks
Badiko	400	300
Barnawa	350	300
Kawo	400	320
Malali	350	300
Romi	300	250
Sabon Tasha	350	300
Ungwar Dosa	400	350
T/Wada	400	300
Ungwar Rimi	350	300
Ungwar Television	350	300

These figures show non-adherance to the provisions of the Rent Control Edict in all the residential sectors sampled. Due to the differentials in rents charged/room/month in the different residential sectors, residential mobility is more towards areas with slightly lower rents. Such areas include Barnawa, Malali, Romi, S/Tasha, Ungwar Rimi and Television (Table 3.9). But even within the same residential sector, depending on location and facilities available, there are slight differences in rents charged.

For example, from 87 respondents, 7(8.0%) lived in areas where rent/room/month was 300 Naira, 9(10.0%) paid 250 and more than 300 Naira respectively, 29(33.0%) paid 400 Naira/room/month, 17(20.0%) lived in areas where the rents charged are 350 Naira while 16(11.0%) paid

420 Naira per month (Figure 3.8b). Respondents attributed this trend to the level of investment by landlords, the age of the property, facilities available, demand and supply for housing and the landlords benevolence and socio-economic orientation.

The study further revealed that the maximum rent pay- able/annum for four bedroom, bungalows in public housing schemes are as follows.

Table 3.10

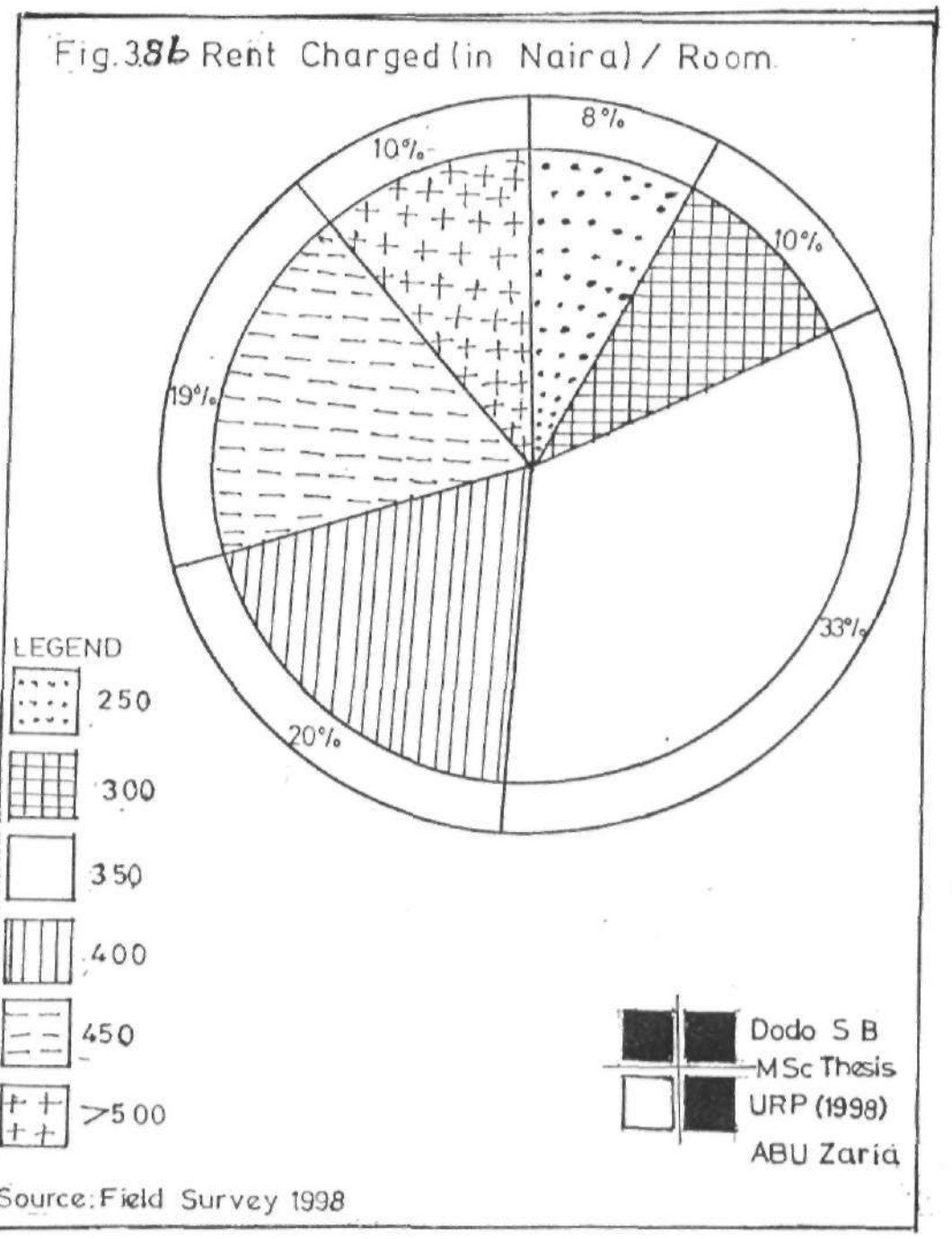
Rents Charged/Annum in some Residential Categories in Kaduna Metropolis

Category	New G.R.A/Extensions	Old G.R.A
4 bedroom flat	N30,000.00	N25,000.00
4 bedroom bungalow	N40,000.00	N30,000.00

Source: New Nigerian, March 12, 1999, p.16.

In the private sector however, a two bedroom flat goes for N70,000 =/annum while a three bedroom attracts an annual rent of 120,000 naira, four times more than a four bedroom bungalow in public housing in the old GRA and three times as much in the New GRA/Extensions. These rents again vary slightly from one location to the other.

For instance a two room apartment was offered for 26,000 naira per annum at Ung. Dosa and 25,000 naira at Barnawa. It can be inferred that rents in private housing schemes are not better off either. But, because public housing schemes are always grossly inadequate, tenants are forced to patronise private housing schemes. However, if the argument above, appears to be a difficult task for prospective tenants, it is even more difficult when it comes to buying and owning a house in the metropolis.


Fig. 3.8b Rent Charged (in Naira) / Room.
8%
10%
10%
19%
33%
20%
LEGEND
250
300
350
400
450
>500
Dodo S B
MSc Thesis
URP (1998)
ABU Zaria
Source: Field Survey 1998

For example, a survey of the Shehu Shagari housing estate at Barnawa shows that a

1. 1 bedroom unit costs N495,000.00
2. 2 bedroom unit costs N680,000.00 and a
3. 3 bedroom unit costs N1.2 million

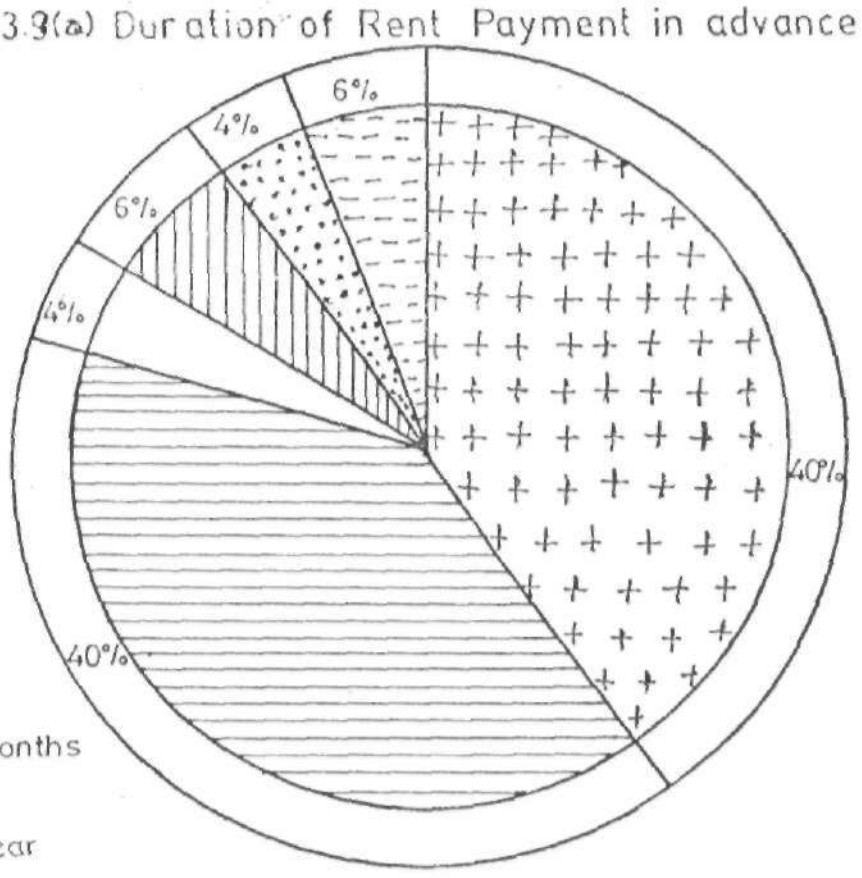
Again the rent Control Edict provides that rents for residential accommodation other than one room apartment or temporary structure shall not be demanded or offered by:

a) any landlord or private residential tenant for a period of more than one year in advance.

b) Any landlord or commercial institutional tenant for more than two years in advance and that rent for one room apartment or temporary structure shall not be demanded or offered for a period of more than one month. Against this background, the responses of 166 tenants were sampled. 67 tenants, representing 40.0% of the sample, made six months advance payment of rent, 6(39.8%) made advance payment for one year, 7(4.2%) advanced rent payment for one and a half years before tenancy, 10(6.0%) for two years, 6(3.6%) for more than two years. 9(5.4%) respondents did not pay rent in advance before occupation while 1(0.6%) paid rent in advance for less than six months. Figures 3.9(a) and 3.9(b) further illustrate this.

Although the demand for rent payment in advance by landlords for two years and above contradicts section 6(1) and (2) of the Rent Edict, this attitude of landlords is not a deterrent to residential mobility because time

Fig. 3.3(a) Duration of Rent Payment in advance



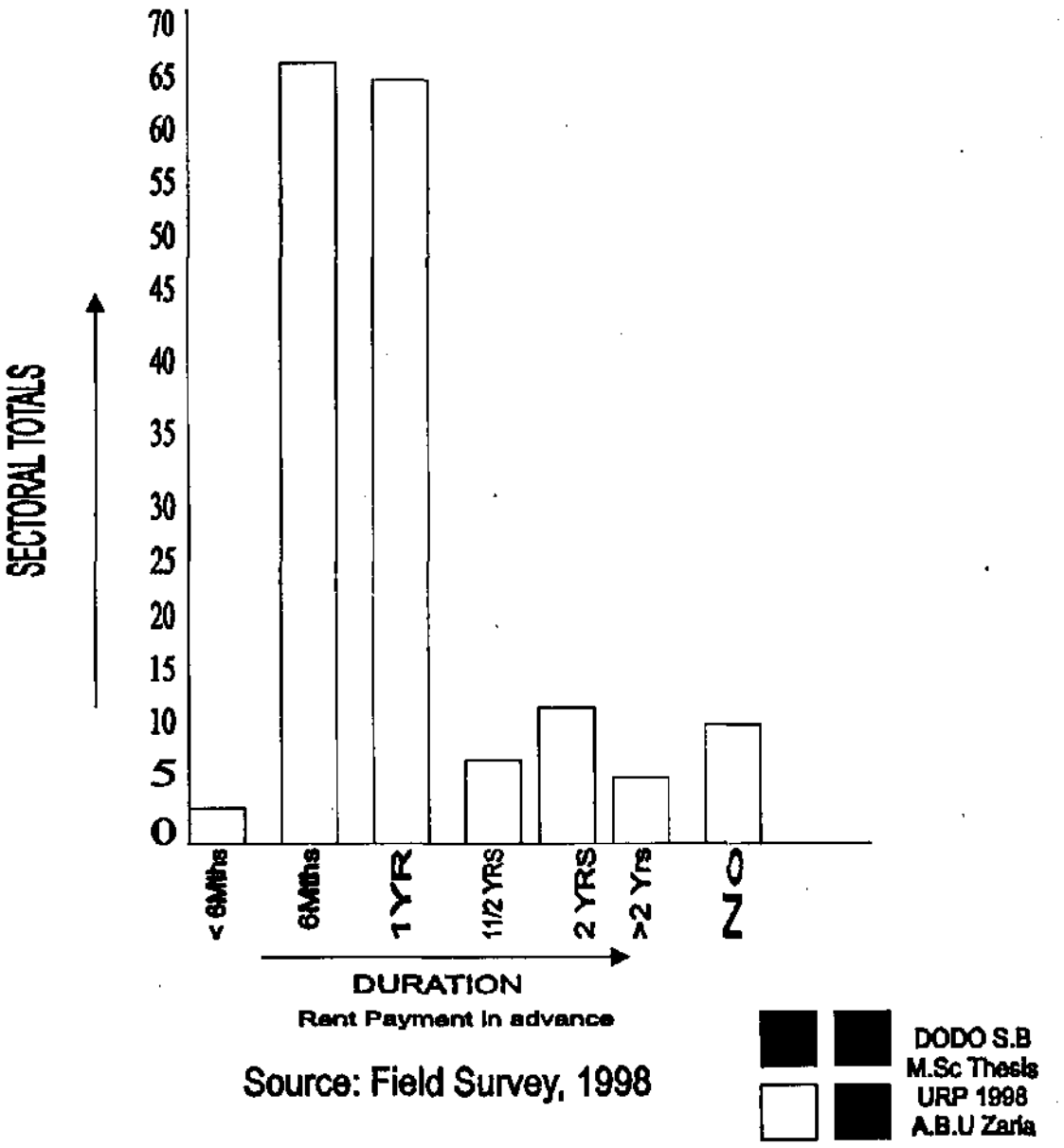
LEGEND

- 6 months
- 1 year
- 1½ years
- 2 years
- > 2 years
- No / < 6 months

Source: Field Survey 1998.

Dodo S.B.
M.Sc Thesis
URP (1998)
ABU ZARIA

Fig.3.9 (b) Rent Payment in advance



Source: Field Survey, 1998

equivalent of length of stay without rent payment is accounted for in monetary terms.

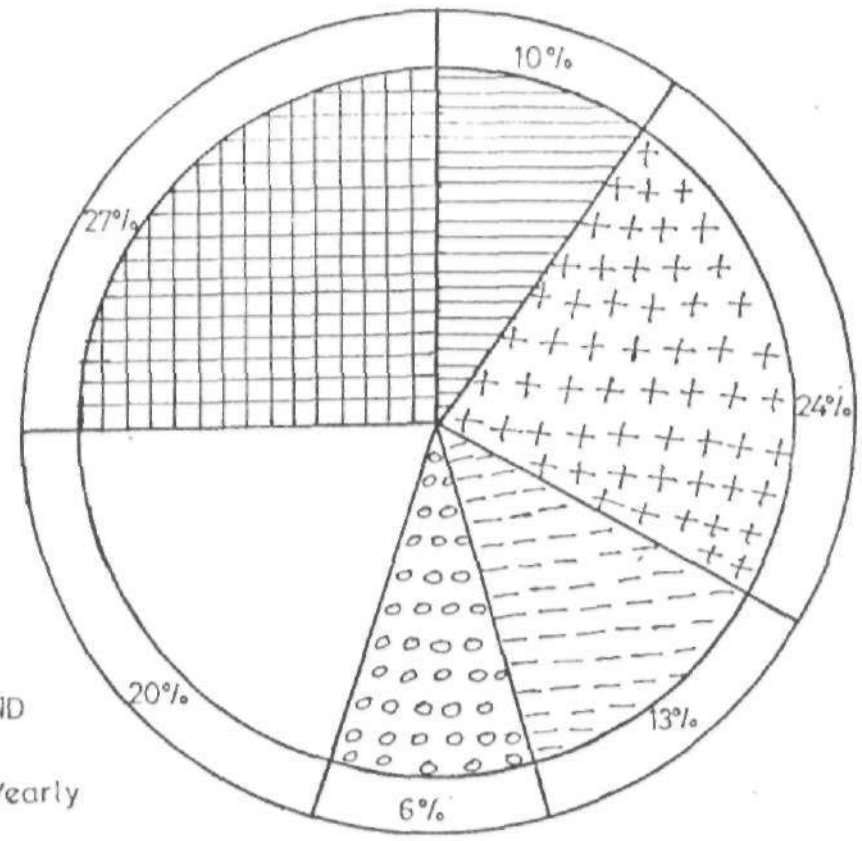
79 landlords responded to the question on the frequency of rent reviews. Of this total, 8(10.0%) said they reviewed rent on a yearly basis, 19(24.0%) did so every two years, 10(13.0%) in every three years and 5(6.0%) in every four years. 16 respondents, (20.0%) of the sample, reviewed rents with every salary review while as much as 21(27.0%) landlords increased rent when the cost of building materials increased (Figure 3.10).

Tenants responses indicated that landlords advanced reasons such as renovation or house needed by owner before rents were reviewed upward. In a free market economy without prize control mechanism such as ours, market forces, in whatever crude form, can dictate who moves where and why. The State Consumer Protection Agency, the body responsible for stabilizing these market forces only exists in principle.

Indeed, there is considerable difficulty in enforcing the Rent Control Law. Firstly, while such a law is necessary, it is difficult to say whether it takes into consideration the landlords usual complaint of the rising cost of building materials. These complaints are genuine and valid especially in respect of new construction. Secondly, it is equally difficult to say whether or not the Edict makes provision of a periodic review of rent.

The tribunal, which should give legal interpretation of the Edict in the event of conflict between tenant and landlord is empowered to determine the appropriate rent in respect of any accommodation, usually inspect the facility before fixing the rent payable. But, because the Edict

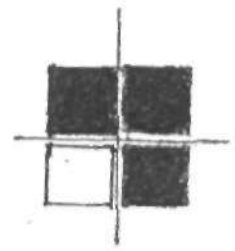
Fig. 3.10 Frequency of Rent Review



LEGEND

- Yearly
- Every 2years
- Once in 3years
- Every 4years
- With every Salary Review
- When Cost of Building Materials Increase

Source: Field Survey 1998



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provides for maximum rent payable, the tribunal is not enpowered to fix an amount above the maximum provided in the edict. This is a source of conflict between landlords and tenants and landlords and the tribunal. Sometimes the tenant finds it difficult to exercise his tenancy right by challenging an upward review of rent at the tribunal because doing so in the court is seen as testing the will of the landlord and the threat of a quit notice.

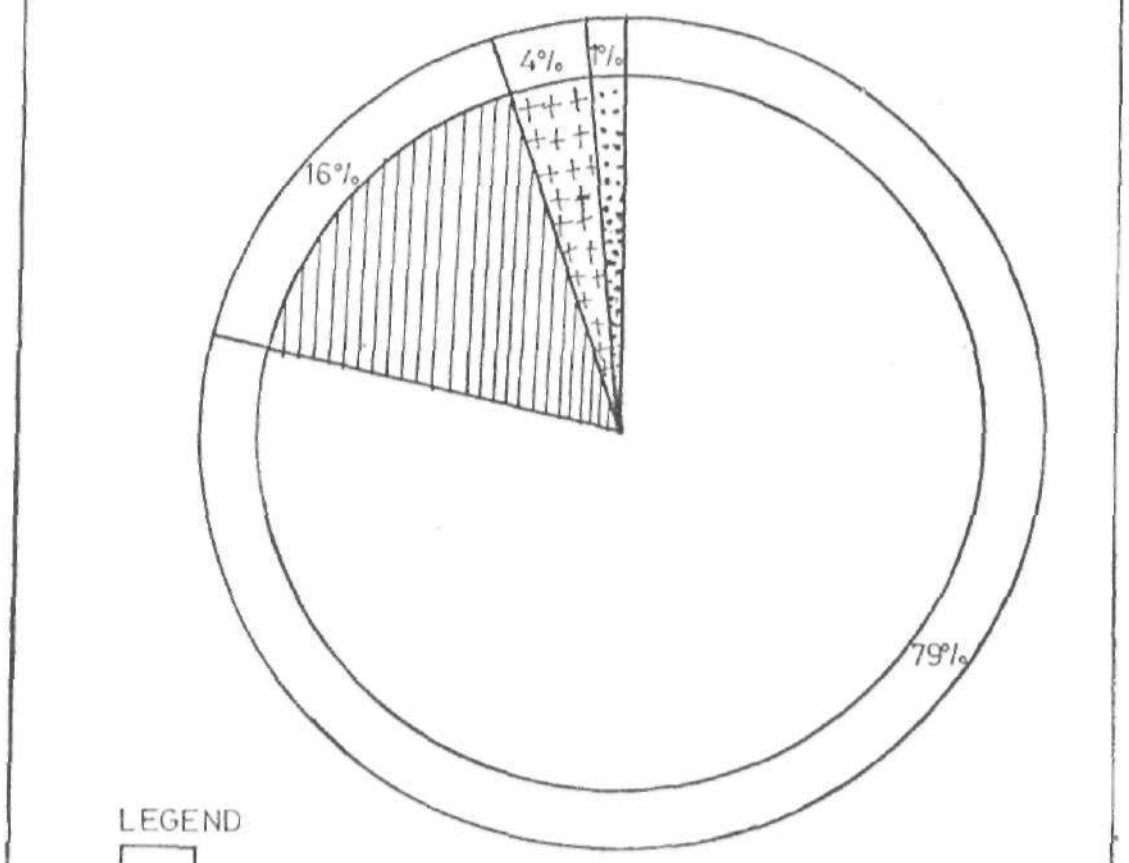
3.3.3 The Influence of Advertising Agents

The medium of advertising vacancy is important. Each channel has its impact, reach and intended target. 80 responses were obtained from landlords/caretakers. The responses illustrated in figure 3.11 showed that 63(79.0%) advertised vacancies through personal contacts by friend, 13(16.0%) by notices on Billboards, 3(4.0%) by other means not specified by respondents and 1(1.0%) through the radio. None of the respondents indicated advertisement through the television or the print media. The television and the print media recorded no score because of their limited outreach, selective viewer and readership, cost of advertising and circulation.

3.3.4 The Role of Estate Agents

Agents, be they formal or informal, play key roles in residential movement. They are the sole link between landlords and prospective tenants. In all the cases sampled involving agents, the tenants did not know who their landlord was. The agents collected registration fee from would be tenants. Such fees could be up to 1,000 naira. The agent does so from as many tenants as possible. This money does not form part of

Fig. 3.11 Channel of Advertising Vacancy



rent in the event a house is found but is meant to assist the agent in finding a house.

When he eventually gets one, he arranges with the landlord and makes advance payment of rent to the landlord from his personal earnings. It could be one, two or more years. The agent then bargains with the different tenants who have registered with him. The highest bidder takes the property, though not in the same monetary terms and conditions as he (agent) arranged with the owner of the property. In this case, the tenant has no access to the owner of the property.

This report observed that there is a great difference between the amount quoted by the agent and that offered by the owner of the property. Example, while landlords offered 1000 naira for room and parlour, the agent offered 1,500 naira/month to tenants at Ungwar Dosa. An agent can describe a house as sold if the client seems inappropriate.

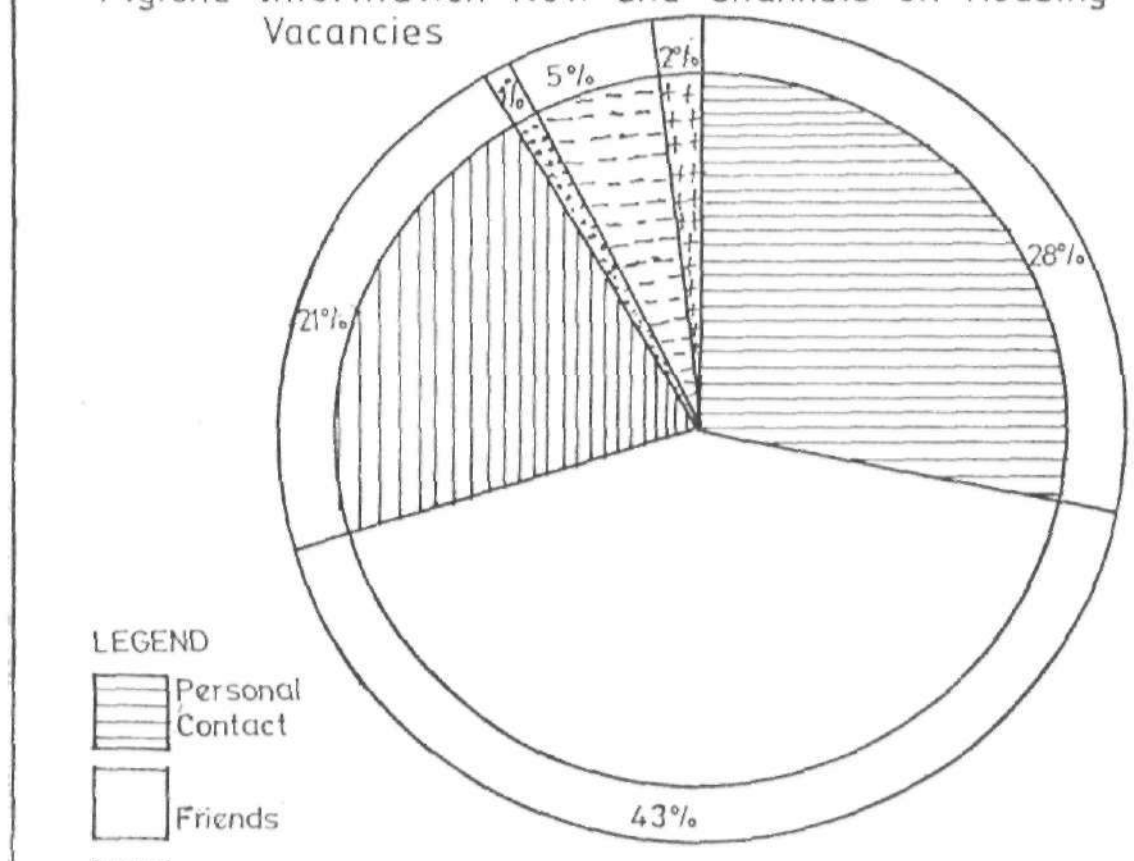
It can be inferred that under this type of arrangement, it is near impossible for rents to remain static for too long. Besides, this attitude runs counter to the provision of the Rent Control Edict of 1996.

3.3.5 **The Religious Determinant**

This is a recent phenomenon which could culminate in urban violence. It has a latent effect on residential mobility.

A survey of the residential sectors showed that the 1992 communal clashes sparked off unprecedented residential movement hitherto unknown in the metropolis. The survey showed that out of 200 responses, 27(13.5%) said they moved (between 1990 and 1991) due to religious acrimony. Between 1992 and 1993, 115(57.5%) changed residence due to this

Fig. 3.12 Information flow and Channels on Housing Vacancies



LEGEND

- Personal Contact
- Friends
- Relations
- The Print Media
- State Agents
- Others

Source: Field Survey 1998

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phenomenon while between 1994 and 1995 the percentage of household movement due to this factor dropped to 46(23.0%). 12(6.0%) of the sample did not comment as can be seen in Table 3.11 below.

Table 3.11

Religion as a Basis of Residential Mobility

Period	No. that Moved	Percentage
1990-91	27	13.5
1992-93	115	57.5
1994-95	46	23.0
1990-95	12	6.0
TOTAL	**200**	**100**

The table shows that residential movement was highest between 1992 and 1993. The survey further showed that residential movement was in two ways – namely towards the north and south of the river. For example, many non-Muslim respondents moved from Tudun Wada to Romi and Ung. Television while non-Christian respondents moved from S/Tasha, Ung. Television and Romi to T/Wada, kawo and Ung. Sanusi. This created corridors of social areas based on ethnic and religious bias. These ethnic residential clusters infact became a complex mechanism for the provision of defence, preservation of culture and bases to lauch attack on hostile groups.

Added to this is the fear of life as a result of increase in crime rate. Oral interviews with residents in the Kawo new extension showed that there was marked movement of residents out of areas that were constantly under the threat of armed bandits.

3.3.6 Information Flow on Housing Vacancies

Through advertisement, information on housing vacancy is expected to reach the tenant. A total of 161 responses were obtained in the survey. Figure 3.12 is an illustration of the responses. Out of the sample, 69 respondents (43.0%) got to know about their residences through friends, 45(28.0%) through personal contacts, 34(21.0%) through relations, 2(1.0%) through the print media, 8(5.0%) were through state housing agents while other means accounted for 3(2.0%). There was no response on electronic media.

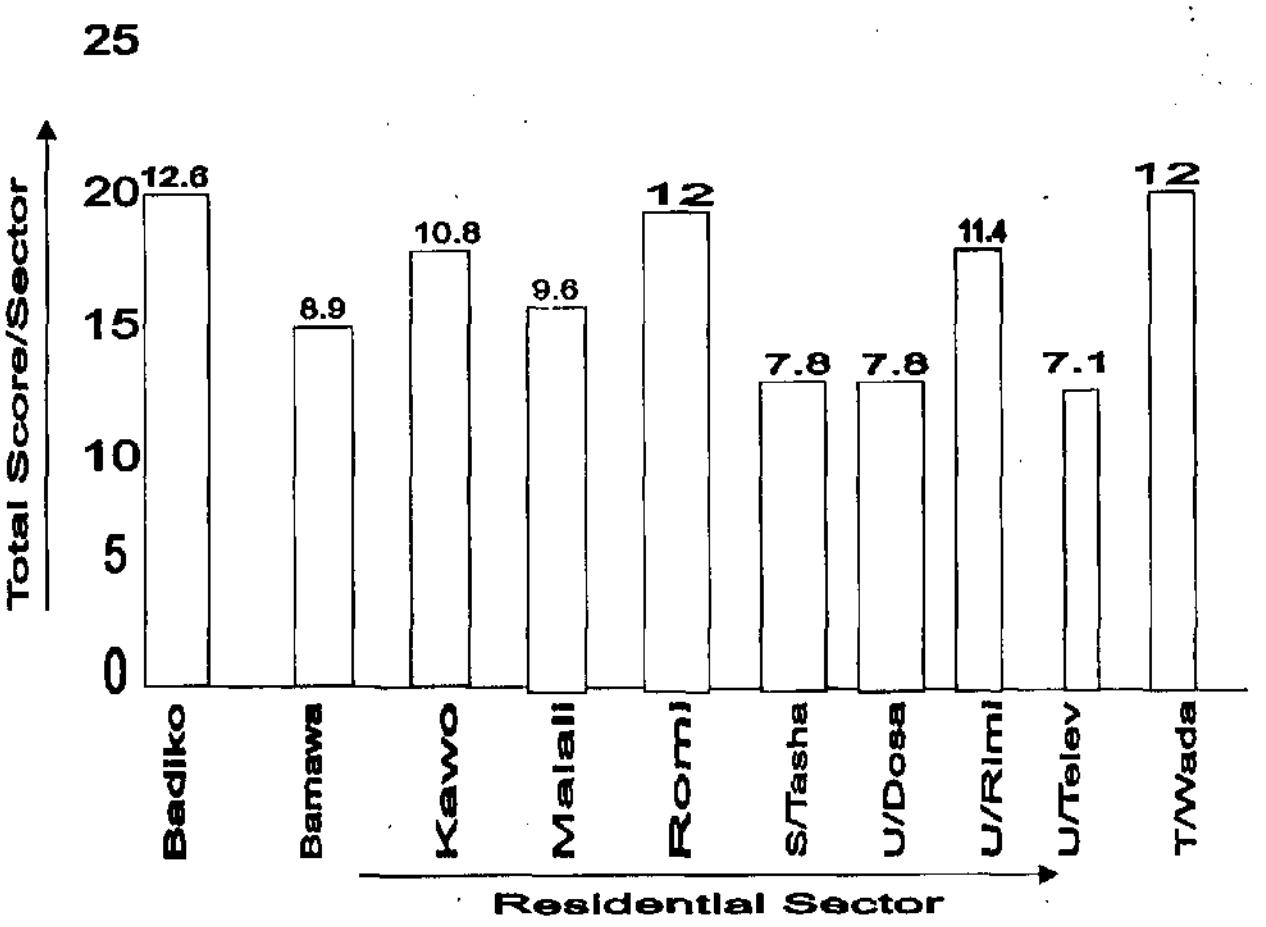
From the survey, it can be said that friends took the largest percentage of this aspect of contact because friends are scattered all over, and have direct links with every part of the metropolis and can be reached at ease. Personal contacts involved expenses, time and cumbersome searching. This explains its limitations. Blood relations are not as many and as widespread as friends and may not be seen as often as friends. The same can be said of state agents. The electronic media is expensive.

Sectoral residential totals in (figure 3.13) indicate that tenants in Badiko are better informed than any other sector with 21(12.6%) out of a total of 167 responses. Romi and T/Wada had 20(12.0%) each, Ung. Rimi 19(11.4%), Kawo 18 (10.8%), Malali 16(9.6%), Barnawa 15(8.9%), both Ung. Dosa and S/Tasha 13(7.8%) each while Ung. Television had 12(7.1%).

3.3.7 Ejection and other Stressors

Ejection or threats of ejection as well as other factors combine together to form stress for households. Stress occur at different times in

Fig.3.13 Information flow and Channel on Housing Vacancy
Total Sectoral Score



Source: Field Survey 1998

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different degrees because each household has its own background, history and social orientation.

Ejection or threats of ejection were surveyed with reference to the provisions of the Rent Control Edict of 1996. It has been noted that the Rent control Edict and the Rent Tribunal are the two bodies established to keep the effects of stressors such as threats of ejection at tolerable limits. To effect this, section 20(2) of the Edict provides that any person who

a) forcibly ejects or attempts to eject a tenant.

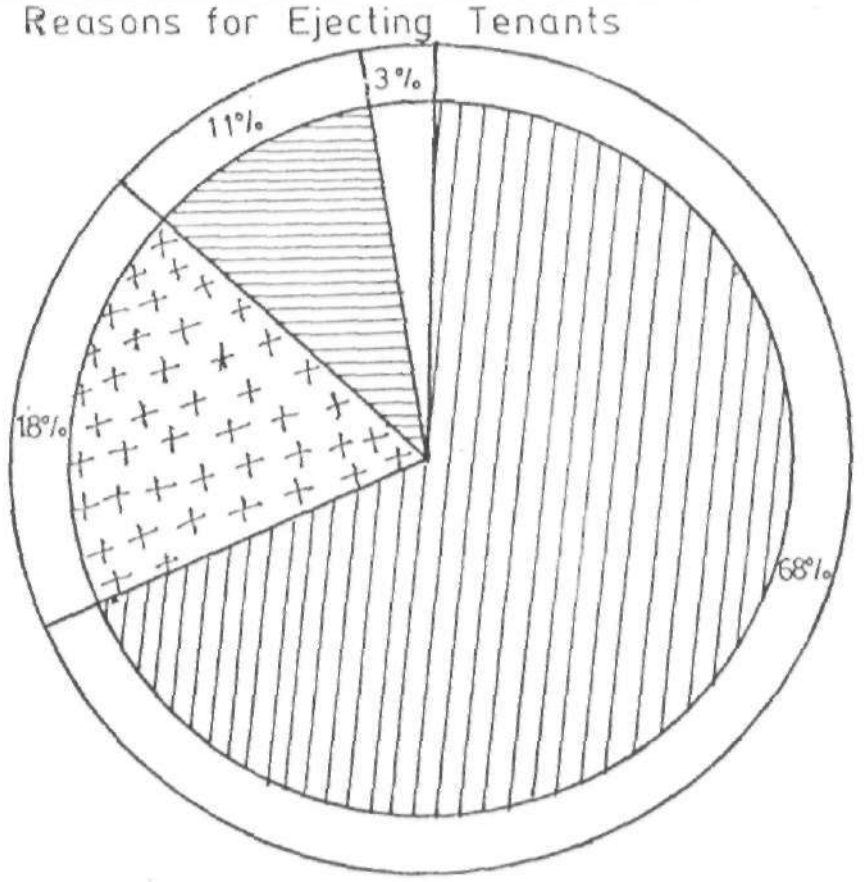
b) harasses or annoys a tenant by words or actions.

c) does anything contrary to any provision of the law or

d) does any act or thing whatsoever calculated or likely to

stultify the provisions of this law shall be guilty of an offence..... a fine not exceeding 2,000 naira or an imprisonment for six months or both. Similarly, section 20(3) of the Edict also provides that "any tenant who harasses or annoys a landlord or the representative of the landlord shall be guilty of an offence and liable on conviction as stated in section 20(2) above. Inspite of this provision on the eviction of tenants, a survey of the metropolis showed that out of a total of 38 responses, 26(68.0%) landlords said they ejected tenants for non payment of rent, 7(18.0%) did so because the house was needed by the owner, a subtle way of forcing eviction, 4(11.0%) to facilitate renovation works and 1(3.0%) due to conversion (figure 3.14(a). Landlords were silent on how long it takes for eviction to be effected as a result of non-payment of rent. It is either that either the landlords are ignorant of the provisions of the edict or there are deliberate attempts to circumvent its provisions.

Fig. 3.14a Reasons for Ejecting Tenants



LEGEND

Non payment of Rent

House needed by owner

To facilitate renovation

Conversion

Dodo SB
M Sc Thesis
URP (1998)
ABU Zaria

Source: Field Survey 1998

When tenants were asked to access a range of stressors and their degree of influence on residential mobility, the following responses were obtained as shown in figure 3.14(b) below. 213 responses were sampled, 40(18.8%) of which said increase in rent was the most worrisome stressor. It ranked first. Religious intolerance ranked second with 30(14.1%) responses, renovation works 39(13.6%) ranked third, change in workplace 27 or 12.7% - fourth in the rank order, increase in space requirement 24(11.3%) or fifth rank, bad neighbours accounted for 17 responses or 8.0% and ranked sixth, inaccessibility ranked seventh with 15(7.0%). Threats of ejection accounted for 14(6.6%) and ranked eighth while proximity to friends and blood relations ranked nineth with 10(4.7%). Proximity to workplace 5(2.3%) – 10th in the rank order, non payment of rent 2(1.0%) ranked 11th while increase in income took the 12th rank with no response.

Tenants moved more due to increase in rent because

1) such increases are not in line with the provisions of the Rent Edict and

2) the increases do not correspond with wage increases.

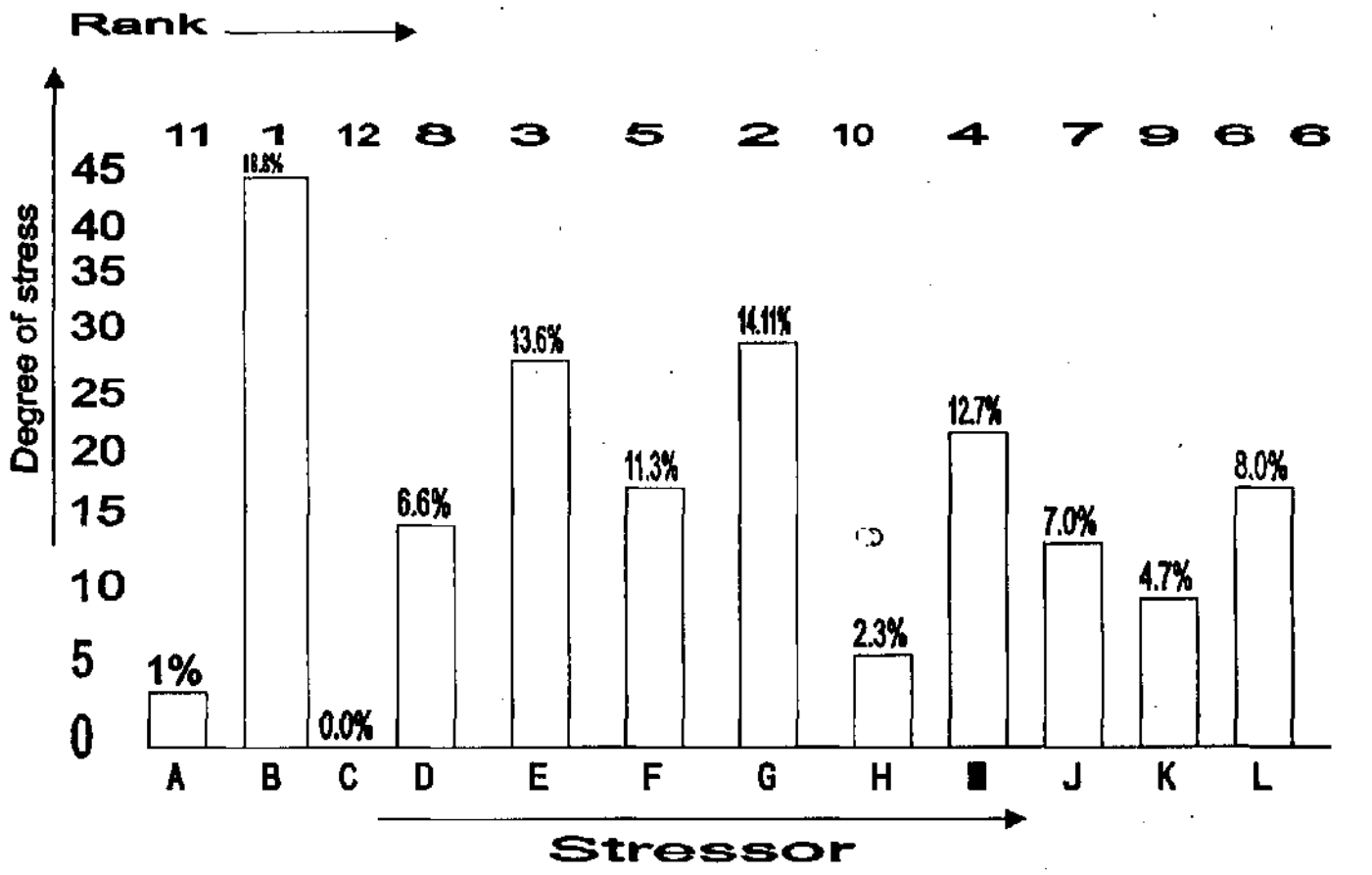
Increase in income ranked 12th because that aspect of the survey was erroneously thought to be in connection with taxation.

At the residential sectoral level, figure 3.14 (c) aggregate totals of these stressor, indicated that tenants in Malali were more uncomfortable with their locations. Again, out of a total of 213 responses in the ten residential sectors, Malali had an aggregate of 26(12.2%), Barnawa and Ung. Rimi 25(11.7%) each, Romi and T/Wada 24(11.3%) in each case,

Figure 3.14 (b) Rank Importance of Stressors

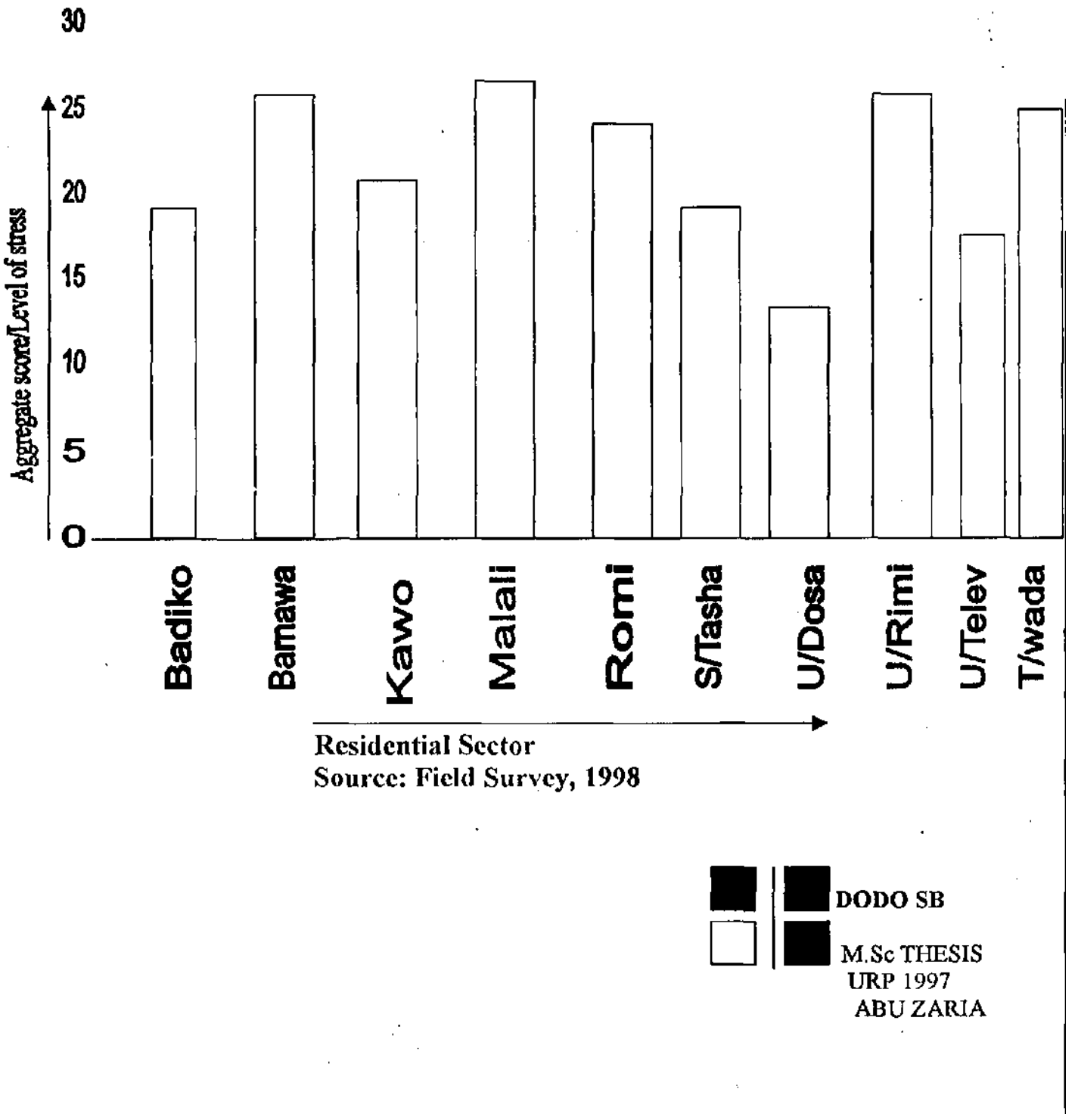
KEY

A – Non - Payment of Rent
B – In crease in Rent
C – In crease in Income
D – Threats of Ejection
E – Renovation works
F – Increase in space requirement by Household
G – Religious intolerance
H – Proximity to workplace
I - Change in workplace
J – Inaccessibility
K – Proximity to friends/Relations
L – Bad Neighbours.



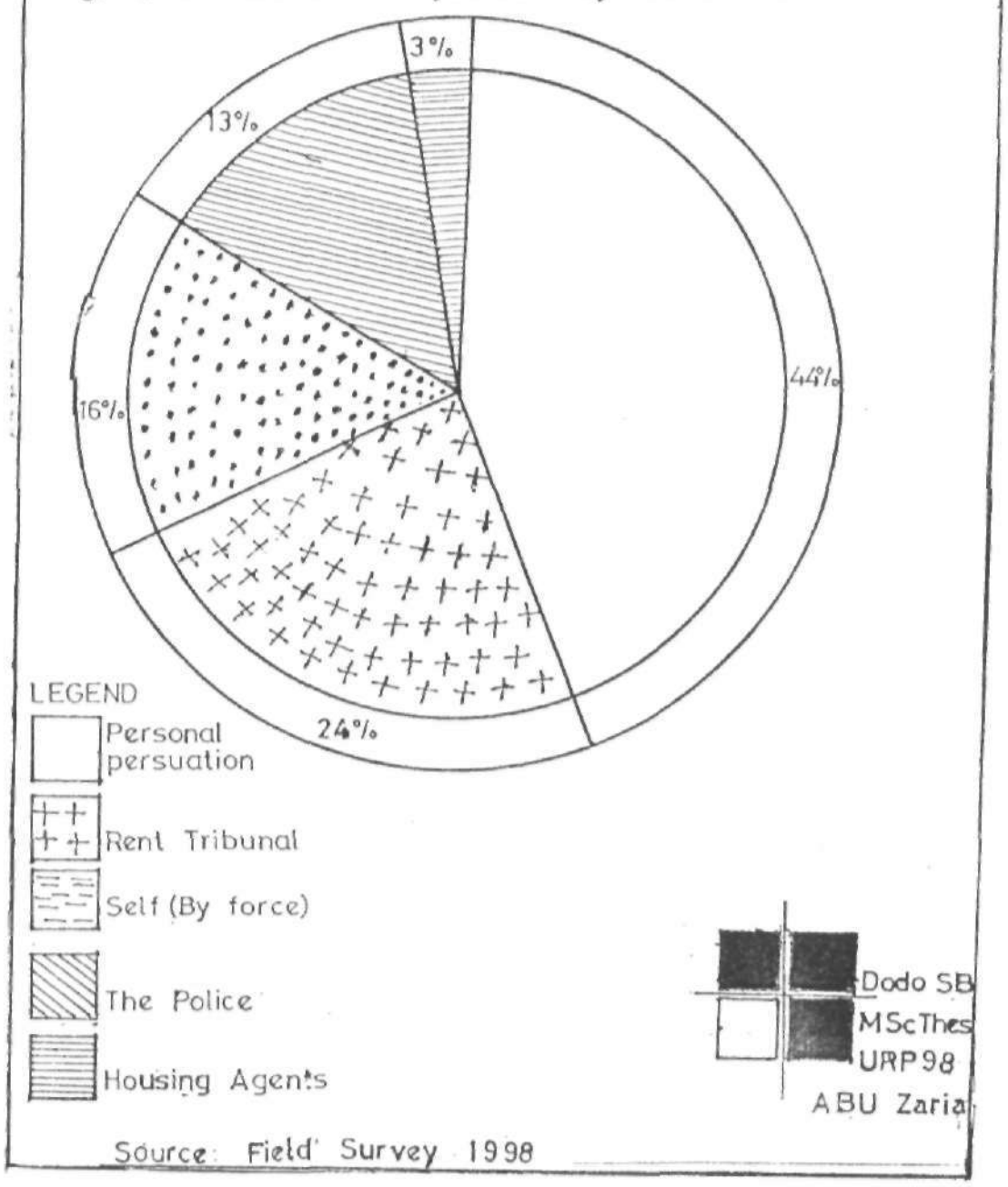
Source: Field Survey 1998

Figure 3.14(c) Stress at Sectoral level



Source: Field Survey, 1998

Fig. 3.15 Means of Ejection by Landlord



Source: Field Survey 1998

Kawo 21(9.9%), Badiko and Sabon Tasha 19(8.9%) each while Ung. Television had 16(7.5%) and Ung. Dosa 14(6.6%).

Figure 3.15 is an illustration of means of ejection of tenants by landlords. From a total of 100 landlords, 75(75.0%) responded to the question on means of ejection of tenants. 33(44.0%) said personal persuasion is a better means, 18(24.0%) went to the Rent Tribunal to effect ejection, 12(16.0%) did so by themselves through the use of force, 10(13.3%) of the respondents used the police while only 2(2.7%) used housing agents to do so. Ejection is an extreme condition whereby all means of reconciliation between tenants and landlords must have been exhausted.

From the findings, personal persuasion is a more civilised way of ejection. This accounts for its being preferred by a high percentage of the respondents. It is when personal persuasions failed that landlords went to the Rent Tribunal. Equally, a tenant who felt aggrieved can seek redress from the Tribunal which such cases mentioned before it shall be determined within 21 days. At the other extreme, housing agents scored the lowest of 2(2.7%) because it is not within their powers to determine when to eject a tenant.

3.40 Summary of Findings and Inferences

From the findings above, it is evident that residential mobility in Kaduna Metropolis has proceeded due to a number of reasons some of which are not within the immediate control of the household. Both vertical and horizontal determinants operated together to produce a residential

process whose character reflects the diversed ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds of residents in the metropolis.

The income determinant is critical and over-riding. The grade of residence occupied is not only synonymous with the level of income but a function of the type of occupation and educational standard. The study revealed the interrelations among vertical determinants of residential mobility. For instance, educational status enhanced occupational status and influenced the level of income of all the respondents sampled. On the other hand, both educational background and income influenced occupational status. Not all cases of educational enhancement accounted for vertical mobility as observed in the percentage of teachers who moved (41.7%) as against those who did not (58.3%).

Again, vertical mobility is dependent on the availability of appropriate housing supply. Without a clearly discernable class structure, households tend to remain in situ so long as they are satisfied with their locations. Apparently, class structure in the metropolis is inclined more towards the income side and is only visibly expressed in the lifestyle of the very rich. The findings also revealed the effects of rent adjustment, supply and cost of new housing construction as well as the role of advertising in the demand for residence. The survey also showed that of all the horizontal determinants, religion is an important factor inspite of its spontaneous and sporadic nature. Residential mobility in this respect produced areas of homogenous ethnic concentrations and the formation of associations. Hence, we have areas such as T/Wada, Roml, Ung. Television comprising of residents of predominantly one ethnic or religious

group or the other. But, inspite of this trend, it is practically impossible to cordon off any one area of the metropolis as exclusively comprising of one socio-economic or religious group.

Rent increase without a corresponding increase in income initiated the process of residential change. Some of the rent increases were not in line with the provisions of the Rent Control and Recovery of Premises Edict. Rent increase, income and the rate of residential mobility ought to be correlated. But this was not the case as landlords advanced reasons other than wages for forcing rents upward.

Finally, both the vertical and horizontal determinants produced a residential mobility whose process has spatial effects on the management of the metropolis, the implications of which are highlighted in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.10 THE IMPLICATIONS OF RESIDENTIAL MOBILITY ON URBAN MANAGEMENT

4.1.1 *Introduction*

Human action, in many ways, often produce a chain of either positive or negative reactions or both. Both the natural and the planned environment are usually responsive to these changes induced by man himself. The urban centres are affected more because they are the action points in space reordering and movements including housing movement, commerce, industry and socio-political intrigues.

Policy measures geared towards producing desirable development and smooth management of Urban centres often result in negative effects with wide ranging implications on the efficient management of these Urban Centres, Governments in both developed and developing countries have had to cope with issues relating to the management of these centres.

The issue of urban management is all embracing, comprehensive and involves resource mobilisation and utilisation in efficient manner in the fields of planning, programming, budgeting, development and operation in order to achieve desired development objectives. If the urban area is considered in its totality, then, the implications of residential mobility on urban management can better be appreciated.

With continuous residential expansion and physical outward sprawl of the Kaduna Metropolis, it is impossible to isolate conventional urban management issues from Urban management issues that are rooted in or are as a result of residential movement. In other words, there is an

overlapping of the issues resulting from both residential movement and those pertaining generally to urban management. However, some of the issues outlined below are a direct manifestation of the implications of the process of residential relocation on the Kaduna Metropolis.

4.1.2 Administrative Implications

The Kaduna Metropolis is administered by four Local Government Councils at the third tier level. In addition, the impact of Federal, state and Local Government is felt in all the Local Governments. This means that decisions arrived at shall take cognizance of this tripartite arrangement. The administrative implications of residential mobility at both the State and Local Government levels are visibly seen with the establishment of such bodies as the Kaduna State Urban Planning and Development Authority, KASUPDA-a-semi autonomous agency established by Edict No. 10 of Kaduna State of Nigeria 1985 whose role include the execution and enforcement of the provision of the Town and Country Planning law, chapter 130 laws of Northern Nigeria 1963 within the areas for which the Board has been appointed the planning Authority. Its functions include the following:

a) Prepare or cause to be prepared and keep under continuous review, land development plans for urban areas of the state;

b) Subject to the provision of any law control the use and development of land within urban centres;

c) Provide, manage and maintain public amenities within urban centres;

d) Provide the required infrastructure such as roads, drainage water, electricity in all approved layouts within its area of jurisdiction.

e) Provide and maintain roads and related structures in the designated urban centres;

f) Plan and carry out urban renewal programmes to upgrade the environmental quality of blighted parts of urban centres. The Board therefore, in conjunction with other planning agencies, is empowered to carry out its functions to the latter and spirit of the Edict establishing it. The Local Governments are required to assist KASUPDA by monitoring development in areas under them in the metropolis and to report illegal development to the Board.

Kaduna State Development and Property Company Ltd., (KSDPC) - Is to provide housing at affordable prices and carry out developments in designated residential areas. The Kaduna State Environmenal Protection Authority, KEPA. Section 5(c) of the edict establishing KEPA empowers the Authority to prevent, stop any act of omission or commission which consequences are likely to adversely affect the environment and to generally deal with any discharge, solid, liquid or gaseous, deposited willfully or otherwise in the environment and to deal generally with any violation which the authority may deem hazardous to the environment and the ecosystem. In this regard, to

i) monitor the whole state for any of such discharge;

ii) cause the responsible parties to stop or remove such discharges;

iii) remove or cause to be removed such discharge at the expense and account of the defaulting party;

iv) cause penalty to be paid for such violation and to negotiate appropriate compensation to be paid to the victims of such discharge etc.

In addition, the authority shall establish operational mechanisms for refuse collection, transportation, and disposal in conjunction with federal, state or local governments or any other such agencies. Issuance of final approval for all building plans in accordance with the Environmental Impact Assessment rules to ensure that they conform to environmental standards.

These parastatals together with the Local government Councils are the administrative machinery responsible for among others, the control and management of physical development in the metropolis. They are also involved in issues such as resource mobilisation, utilisation, waste management, provision of adequate and functional drainages and access roads at both public and private residential levels. Waste generated by households has not been adequately attended to by both the KEPA, KASUPDA and the Local Government Councils, because of lack of clearly defined roles among Urban management bodies. Plate II shows inadequacy in the planning of waste disposal system in residential units. With the construction of appropriate housing types by the Kaduna State Development and property Company (KSDPC) Limited residential mobility can be enhanced. This also means the establishment of schools for teenagers, playgrounds, shopping centres and the provision and management of services and infrastructure by municipal governments.

4.1.3 Implications on Rent Control

Rent control within the metropolis is an urban management issue which is the responsibility of the state government. The effectiveness or otherwise of rent control will depend on if the supply of housing is higher than demand or if both demand and supply are at equilibrium, the rate of new construction of residential areas by both the public and private sector, the rate of urban renewal, the cost of building materials within affordable limits.

For instance, a sample of building materials showed that between 1991 and 1998 there had been over 800% increase in the prize of corrugated roofing sheets i.e. from 400-3800 Naira per bundle, over 1000% in a gallon of emulsion Paint (60-611 Naira), a gallon of glossary paint 880% - 100 – 880 Naira, a bag of Cement 35-800 Naira and a tipper of soft sand 200-3,500 naira. With this rising trend in the cost of construction materials, it is not logical for rent to remain as provided for by the Edict for too long. This means that even when houses are constructed by either the public or private sector their high prizes may be beyond the reach of the low and medium income earners either at rent or pay and own level. This is a probable explanation for the non-occupation of the housing estate at the Shehu Shagari estate at Barnawa (plates VII and VIII) and urban management challenge to both the KSDPC and the Rent control Tribunal.

4.1.4 The Metropolis as an Industrial Base

The duality in the functional nature of the Kaduna metropolis (administrative North and Industrial South) has given the metropolis its

peculiar characteristic outlook. The establishment of the textile industries, the Defence Industries Corporation resulted in the growth of residential sectors at Kakuri, Makera, Ung. Television and Romi. Similarly, the emergence of Sabon Tasha, Ung. Boro and Mararraban Rido along Kachia Road and Rigasa and Rafin Yashi in the West is largely due to the impact of the Kaduna Refining and Petrochemical Industry and the various industries in the Kudenda Industrial layout respectively.

These developments, though with positive effects on job and location of residence, also have negative consequences on the residential landscape which is now a source of concern for urban management agencies such as the Kaduna State Environment Protection Authority, Kaduna State Development and Property Company Limited, municipal governments and Non - Governmental Organisations. Source of concern not because of their present respective locations but because of the emission of injurious solid, liquid and gaseous substance into residential and aquatic environments. The effects are already obvious and urban planning and management agencies are yet to find practical solutions to these environmental distortions.

4.1.5 The Implications of Job Location on Residential Areas and Transport Networks

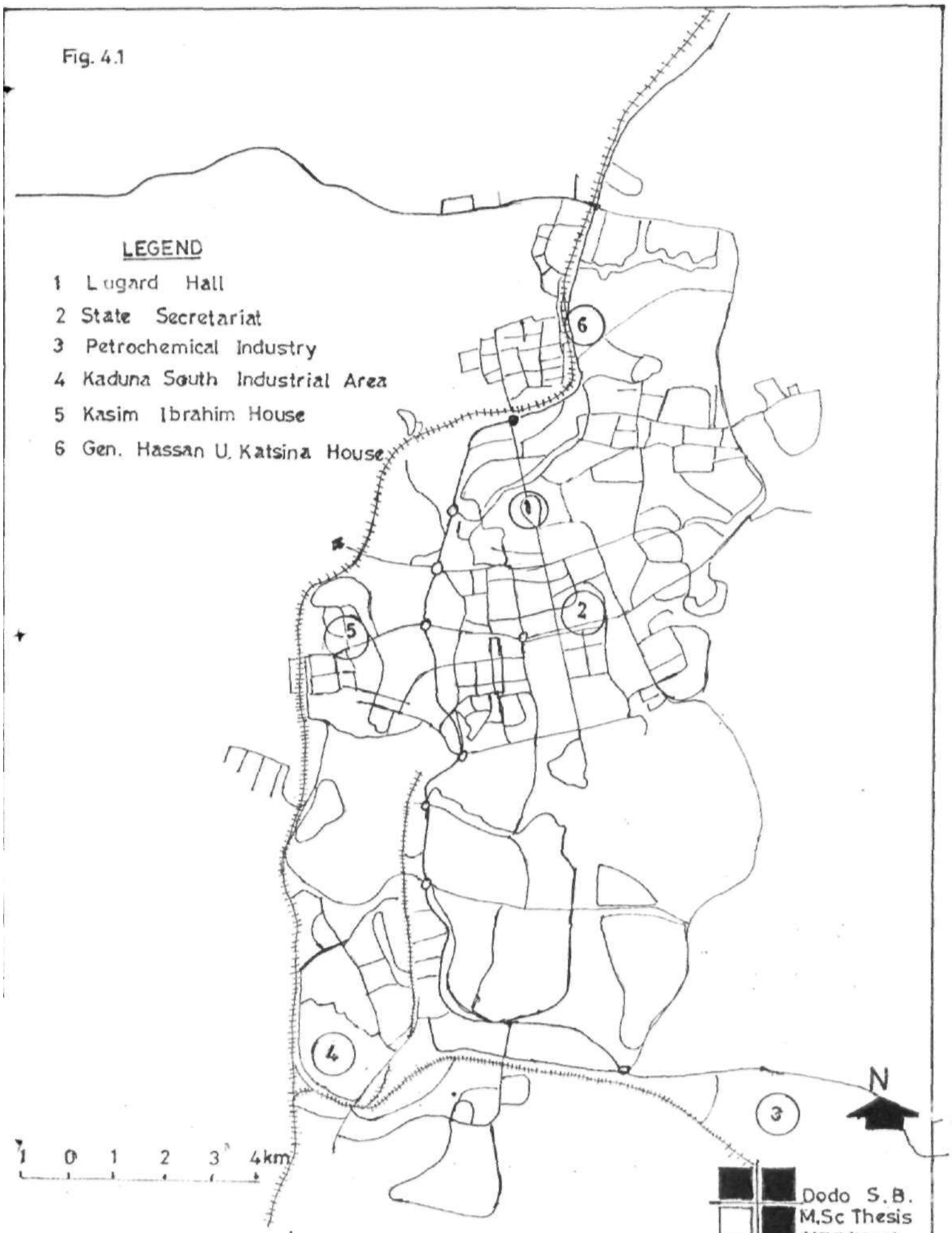
The Status of the Kaduna Metropolis opened up numerous job opportunities in different strategic locations. An important aspect of their locations is that they are found along major transport corridors and their impact on the siting of residential areas. The residential sectors in figure 3.2 above were meant to serve these job locations. Kawo, Abakpa and

ministers quarters came into being as a result of the location of the Lugard Hall, the office accommodation during colonial rule, General Hassan Usman Katsina House, housing the State Government office, the Nigerian Airforce Base, the Nigerian Defence Academy and other military formations. In a similar vein, Tudun Wada, Badiko and Ungwar Sanusi sectors evolved as a result of their proximity and serving the residential needs of civil servants at the Sir Kasim Ibrahim House, the 44 Armed Forces Barracks and the office accommodation of the then Public Service Commission. The location of the State Secretariat and some Federal Ministerial Parastatals such as the Nigeria Police College and the Federal Prisons Service and non-governmental agencies informed the choice of Ungwar Rimi and Marafa as some of the planned residential sectors in the metropolis by Max Lock. One major advantage of both residential estates and these governmental parastatals is their effective linkage by access roads. In the process, there is the evolution of desire-lines within the metropolitan urban transport system, increased volume of vehicular movement and a clustering of commuters at specific points at peak hours 7.30-8.30am and 3.30-4.30pm. The density and chaotic nature of traffic at these points pose challenges to traffic management and physical planning bodies (Figure 4.1).

4.1.6 Implications on Residential Area Quality and Management

The living environment is one of the most functional areas in the city. It is one area in the city where environmental quality has attracted a lot of attention and concern for the different levels of government in Nigeria. This concern is borne out of the fact that a healthy living environment is an expression of a healthy city and citizenry.

Fig. 4.1



EMPLOYMENT CENTRES IN KADUNA METROPOLIS
Source. Max Lock and Partners (1967 2017) P.161

Residential movement has had tremendous impact on this aspect of the environment because when people change residence, they carry along their habits and ideals. Some of these habits, because of limited environmental awareness and a general lack of concern for the environment, have negative effects on the quality of the environment. Plates I, II and III are typical examples of how living environments ought not to be.

The quality of the environment is adversely affected and is a health hazard to residents in the area. This is common in most of the planned estates in the metropolis.

The plates are an indication of the manner in which the estates were planned and managed. These untidy environments can lead to outbreaks of epidemics such as Cholera, Typhoid or Malaria which can result in large scale residential movement or huge expenditure on treatment and eradication.

The structure of the metropolis allows for unrestricted expansion of commercial activities. As a result, huge areas originally planned for other uses like street reservations have been engulfed at the city centre. In Malali Low Cost Housing, pieces of land initially meant for street reservations, open spaces and green belts, have been divided into plots and allocated as shops. Thus, there is the proliferation of small markets in the estates. The shops, apart from having overshadowed the estate, are likely to be a source of noise and security worry to residents. Unless the appropriate authorities exercise strict control on this development, informal trading and the conversion of residential dwellings or part thereof to such

PLATE I



Poor drainage outlet in one of the residential units at Malali.
A health hazard to occupants and neighbours.

PLATE II



An uncared for environment in some of the housing units at Malali
A sharp deviation from conventional environmental protection rule.

PLATE III



A general lack of amenity in residential estates in Malali and elsewhere in Kaduna as result of non - adherance to planning controls.

uses as restaurants, provision shops, beer parlours, beauty salons etc. will continue. Plates IV, V and VI. The free flow of traffic will be affected with time because of the unrestricted expansion in commercial activities.

These are alterations and a contravention of the Max Lock Plan. The trend is likely to continue on a larger scale with the introduction of the owner-occupier policy in housing by the government and as long as there is no reference being made to the master plan for the metropolis.

Oral interviews with Estate Managers indicated that it takes over 10years for a transfer of tenancy to ownership of a house and that the following fees are charged for the new prototype housing units at Barnawa for direct ownership occupation. N495,000 for one bedroom unit Plate VII, N680,000 for two bedroom unit Plate VIII and N1.2 million for a three bedroom bungalow.

This policy, good as it is, is most likely to bring alterations in residential units where there is no strict adherance to development control and where urban management bodies exercise weak statutory control over such developments in the metropolis.

Although the construction of new housing is meant to cushion the effect of housing shortages, the management of existing stock leaves much to be desired. Plate IX is one of the residential relics of the residential estates at Barnawa. For over a decade now, this housing estate has remained partly occupied and partly deserted by residents. Structural defects in construction resulted in the collapse of some of the blocks and households moved out of the estate. Consequently, the area is overgrown

PLATE IV



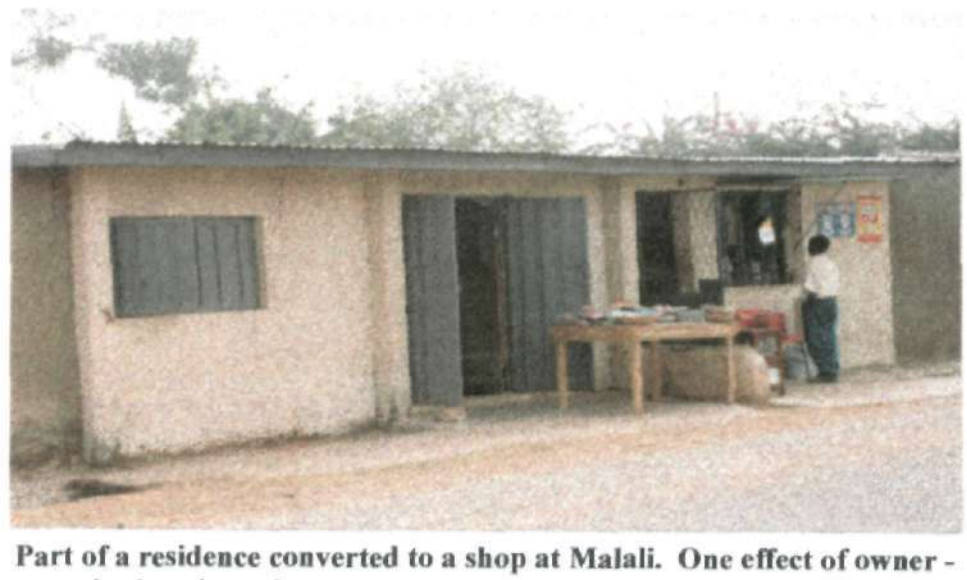
Shops along residential streets at Malali Housing Estate. Notice the stray animal on the right of way.

PLATE V



Shops (left) directly opposite residences (right). Two non - conforming landuses.

PLATE VI



Part of a residence converted to a shop at Malali. One effect of owner - occupier housing schemes.

PLATE VII



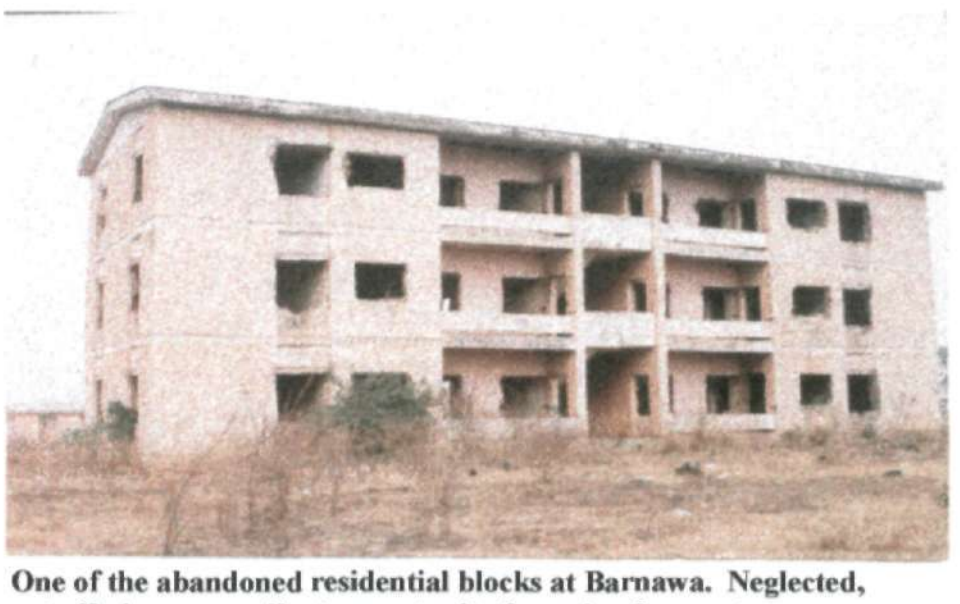
One bedroom prototype (semi - detached) residential unit at Barnawa. A match towards modernity and affordable housing for all.

PLATE V III



Two bedroom prototype (Semi-detached) residential unit at Barnawa. Modernity blended with taste.

PLATE IX



One of the abandoned residential blocks at Barnawa. Neglected, yet offering an excellent opportunity for redevelopment.

by weeds and the housing units vandalised as seen in Plates IX and X. It will now cost the government more to rebuild these structures.

But for this large estate to have laid waste for such a long time means the agencies responsible for the management of such development in the metropolis ought to be more responsive to such wastes.

4.1.7 Urban Ethnic Clusters and Squatters

The distribution of ethnic groups in the metropolis reflects the character of ethnic concentration. Smaller groups, in numerical terms, who feel threatened by larger ones, usualiy move out of areas dominated by larger groups. For example, during the 1992 communal clashes, household movement in the metropolis was in two major directions towards the north and the south with the bridge across the Kaduna river as the divide for ethnic groups with territorial claims of either north or south of the metropolis. These movements led to group associations whose interest is to advance and protect group interest, preservation and identity for socio-economic and cultural advancement. There is thus a conglomeration of ethnic groups with similar historical antecedents in T/Wada, Romi, U/Television, Kawo and other areas. But even in areas where one ethnic group predominates, clusters of other ethnic groups can be noticed.

In central areas where conditions are most unfavourable, the problems of migrant groups tend to be more conspicuous and the link between immigrants and environmental squalor becomes rooted in public mind. One problem with this migrant group is the development of squatter settlement around the central market in Kaduna Metropolis. Plate XI and XII.

PLATE X



Another view of the vandalised residential units at Barnawa. Yearning for rehabilitation and occupation.

PLATE XI



A squatter settlement in the central area of Kaduna metropolis, Notice the open drainage, the pot on fire on street reservation.

PLATE XII



The squatter settlement. A home, street and a place to earn a liverlihood. Child plays on the street while the mother begs for alms.

This group has been trapped and its location and condition is an expression and indication of urban poverty, squalor and neglect. Although located right on the right of way, this group also lays claims to the territorial area it colonises. The group has its needs, desires, aspirations and culture and may not willingly give up this territory or colony except if locations offered elsewhere promise better opportunities. Its proximity to the St. Joseph's Cathedral, the Central Mosque and the Abubakar Gumi Central Market offers it the opportunity to ask for alms from worshippers, customers and commuters. It is a highly vulnerable group made up mainly of women and children who are depressed and deprived and who could be used negatively by individuals or groups.

Any rehabilitation programmes for this category of immigrants is likely to be met with resistance as the dislocation of the residents might be seen as a deliberate attempt to further isolate them from the affairs of the metropolis.

If plates VII and VIII and XI and XII are compared, a sharp line of residential segregation comes into focus. Again, plates IX and X and XI and XII are indications of lack in the midst of abundance and a challenge for both Urban planners and Environmental Protection Agencies, governmental and non-governmental Organisations.

In situations such as ours, in which moving households are in the low income groups and tenancy is the rule rather than the exception, stress is brought to bear on facilities such as water, sewers, health etc. This encourages the development of substandard, subhuman environment (plate II

PLATE XIII



Accumulated refuse dump at Tudn Wada. Environmental distortion as a result of non-collection of refuse.

PLATE XIV



An ideal street layout at Malali Estate. Evidence of a healthy living environment.

and XIII) and a general lack of amenity. Plates III and XIV reveal the sharp contrast between the ideal situation and a poorly maintained sanitary environment.

4.1.8 Spatial Implications and the Resulting form of the Metropolis

One other implication of residential mobility is peripheral residential sprawl and encroachment on other areas of the city. A comparison of figure 3.2 and 4.2 shows non-compliance to the Max Lock proposal. For example, some of the areas proposed by the plan for industrial development and open spaces have been over-run by residential development. Peripheral residential extensions are common along major transport outlets. Examples include the residential development along Kaduna-Zaria, Kaduna-Mando, West of Nnamdi Azikiwe, Kaduna-Abuja and Kaduna-Kachia Roads (Figure 4.2). Furthermore, new extensions are visible in several other places east of the metropolis across the Kaduna River. When this is completed and the eastern by pass also completed, it will give the metropolis its near precinct character and cut off through traffic along Kachia-Kaduna junction-Ahmadu Bello-Zaria Road as well as ease traffic flow in the metropolis.

In most of the new areas, there is uncontrolled development because developers did not go through the due processes of obtaining building permits and certificates of occupancy before developing property. This, along with land speculation, is one of the problem area in the management of the metropolis because planning and environmental protection agencies do not have a clear perception of who is developing what, where and how. Besides, there are already visible urban problems

such as poor drainages and non-collection of solid waste. Undeveloped plots are now used as refuse dumps. Yet, urban facilities and infrastructure not only have to reach these residential extensions but have to be maintained to ensure a healthy livable environment. There is also noticeable increase in shopping and investment potentials for private business as well as recreational activities. Due to the increased demand for schools for children, poorly run and managed schools are established every where in defiance of land-use zoning regulations.

Its can be argued further that the resulting form of the city is due largely to unplanned and uncontrolled urbanization. Besides, development is proceeding at a faster pace than actual planning where such developments are concentrated in marginal land at the peri-urban. In addition, relevant agencies suffer from gross lack of capacity as a result of the paucity of professional manpower to monitor developments and effect planning controls in the metropolis. For instance, Kyom (1992) observed that KASUPDA with only ten professional planners in-charge of all the designated urban areas in the state, has only 31% of the required professional planners to cater for a population of 1.6million inhabitants.

Government ignorance of causes and effects, under-investment by both public and private sectors have resulted in blighted and substandard living environments.

It is as a result of the implications outlined above that the Kaduna State Environmental Protection Authority and others were established. Established by Edict No 1 of January 1994, the Authority is empowered to

a) enact and enforce State regulation control criteria procedures, guidelines and environmental quality standards for effective prevention of point and non-point sources of pollution and degradation.

b) Have access to any public or private property or premises for the purposes of inspection.

c) Stimulate public interest on environment by dissemination of information, seminar etc.

d) Carry out solid waste management for Kaduna metropolis etc. The last point includes the management of solid waste in residential areas.

From this point of view, it is evident that residential mobility has both positive and negative effects on environmental quality, Environmental control agencies are yet to find workable solutions to the negative effects of residential mobility on the environment.

This is the challenge for urban management agencies, individuals and non – governmental organizations. The next section makes recommendations on the methodology of measuring residential mobility and proposals. This will enhance the operational efficiency of the agencies and planning bodies.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.10 RECOMMENDATIONS AND PROPOSALS ON THE METHODOLOGY OF MEASURING RESIDENTIAL MOBILITY AND CONCLUSION

Findings of this study show that residential mobility has taken place due to a number of factors some of which are not within the immediate control of the household. It has occurred because of internally perceived stress by the household. The process has affected the spatial character of the settlement which possesses urban management problems to municipal administrations in the areas of slum clearance, urban renewal, sanitation and urban violence. But, policy statements and programmes as well as human actions are made meaningful when they are translated into space. Residential areas generate their own waste and require technical and managerial control.

5.1.1 General Recommendations

Residential mobility has both positive and negative effects. The positive effects are the built environment, increase in the number of residential accommodation and the emergence of subsidiary economic nuclei in different parts of the metropolis. The positive effects on the spatial character of the metropolis can be improved by integrating change of residence into the physical planning programmes of the metropolis just like transportation, infrastructural development and maintenance. In addition, positive effects such as community mobilisation and participation in programmes like improved sanitation, drainage and slum clearance should be emphasized instead of seeing it as the exclusive responsibility of municipal governments. Municipal governments and planning bodies

contentious issues of revenue sharing. In this case, resources meant for the four local governments can otherwise be controlled and managed by one central municipal administration whose policies and development programmes would be centrally planned, guided and implemented.

Group action, which often results in urban violence as a result of communal or religious clashes and the movement of residents across local government boundaries within the same municipality, will mean an uncoordinated approach to the management of such crisis.

Metropolitan administrations should improve tenant/landlord relationship through regular dialogues since the duration of tenancy depends on landlord/tenant relationship. Residents who move down because they have lost their tenancy status in high brow areas may filter down and occupy slump areas. In this case, KASUPDA and KSDPC will have to scale down their planning standards for residential areas so as to accommodate the effects of this type of filter down in housing.

The recommendations are made with a view to improving the process of residential mobility in the planning process, policy formulation on the development, growth and maintenance of the urban area.

5.20 Proposals on the Methodology of Measuring Residential Mobility

Throughout the duration of this study, the report did not come across any literature on the methodology of measuring residential mobility either in the developed or developing countries. For the Kaduna Metropolis, a multiple index method was adopted. The method can be applied and tested over time in other urban centres in Nigeria. This is

because although one determinant may have overriding influence in movement, the findings in chapter three show that a multiple of factors are responsible for the process. Indices of measure include income, rent, demand and supply, the rate of construction of housing schemes and the point of entry into or exit from houses.

5.2.1 The Income Index

It has been noted that income is a critical variable in residential movement and indeed a function of other variables such as education and occupation. Under normal circumstances, the rate of residential change is directly proportional to income if other variables such as family preferences, needs, rents and commuting costs are constant. This relationship can be presented in an equation i +x = rv where.

i – is income,

x – other variables and

rv – increase residential mobility

This formula was developed to show that if income remains unchanged for a long time, the rate of movement into either new or old residence is slowed. The formula needs to be tested over time and in other locations to ascertain its validity and acceptability. To create vacancies in the housing market, housing credit schemes by finance and mortgage institutions should be made available to low income households who want to build, extend or buy their own homes.

5.2.2 The Rent Index

Rent differentials can be used and tested to determine the rate of movement. Higher rents, as earlier observed, deterred movement while

lower rents attracted population towards those areas with lower rents. Tenants who moved out on the basis of inability to pay rent due to retirement or the loss of social status, create vacancies in houses they vacate. Increase in rent can however initiate movement towards areas of lower rents. So the higher the rent charged, the fewer the number of contenders for a particular residence and vice-versa. This does not imply that if rents are uniformly charged in all parts of the metropolis, people will not move from one house to the other.

5.2.3 The Demand and Supply of Housing

Demand and supply indices are an expression of the level of income, rent charged and the percentage of population that needs housing. In normal situations, demand and supply hardly attain the equilibrium state. When the demand index Di in figure 5.1 is greater than the supply index Si, a negative correlation is established. But when the supply index Si is greater than the demand index, a positive correlation is established between residential movement and demand and supply. Below is a hypothetical example of demand and supply curves for housing which can be used as an index of measure.

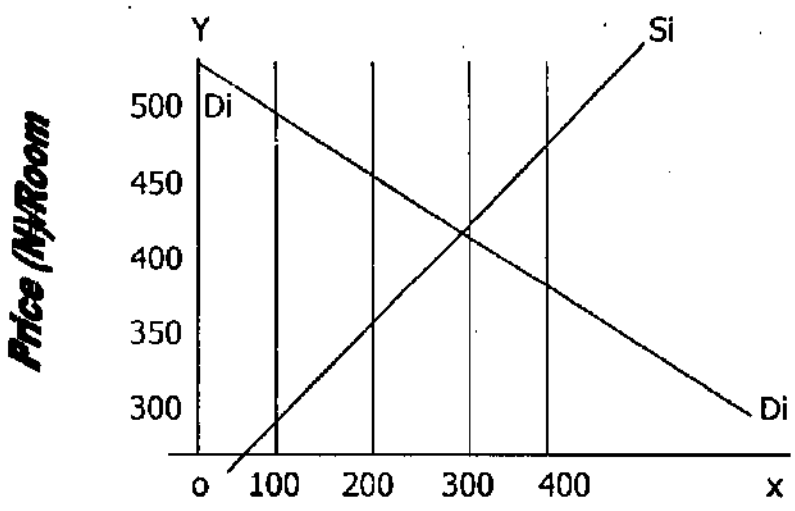


Figure 5.1. A hypothetical demand and supply curve

It will be expected that at 500 Naira a room the quantity demanded will drop from 200 to 100 units and that more houses will be demanded at the equilibrium price of 400 Naira/room and that more developers will invest more in housing with rising rents until such a time that demand equals supply at the equilibrium price of 400 Naira.

5.2.4 **The Construction of Housing Schemes**

Spatial residential expansion is a visible means of measurement. With short fall in housing supply, it is logical to insist that every newly constructed house will eventually be occupied. The filter up and down effect can create a cyclic movement pattern in which houses vacated by tenants or owners are now passed down to lower income groups. Movement can be measured using the number of new construction, occupation, available vacancies and the level of investment by both public and private investors.

with urban management issues such as slum development, urban violence, urban renewal programmes and the insufficient segregation of toxic/industrial waste from household waste (as is common in Kakuri and Romi), the inadequate procedures for separate disposal which adversely affect health conditions of residents and the general poor environmental quality in residential areas.

Socio-economic differentials of residents have led to the emergence of homogenous groups with different beliefs, wealth and poverty levels as seen in the GRAS, Tudun Wada, Romi and Ung. Television. The rate, direction and characteristics of movers greatly influence the spatial planning of residential areas in the areas of type and quantity of houses provided, access roads and drainage.

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10th July, 1998.

Dear Respondent,

I am a postgraduate student of the Department of Urban and Regional Planning of the Ahmadu Bello Universiy, Zaria, undertaking a research on "Housing Mobility in Kaduna Metropolis and its implications on Urban Management".

I would be most beholden to you if you could kindly answer the attached Questionnaire objectively.

I assure you that your responses will be treated in strict confidence and for the exclusive purposes of this study only.

Thank you most sincerely.

SHAMAKI B. DODO

APPENDIX I

Questionnaire for Tenants

1. What is your monthly income? (please tick)

   a) Less than 1,000 naira ☐

   b) Between 1,000 – 1,200 naira ☐

   c) 1,200 - 1,500 naira ☐

   d) 1,500 – 1,700 naira ☐

e) 1,700 – 2,000 naira ☐

f) 2,000 – 2,500 naira ☐

g) 2,500 – 3,000 naira ☐

h) more than 3,000 naira ☐

2. What percentage of this amount do you use for rentage?

a) 1 ☐ b) 2 ☐ c) 3 ☐ d) 4 ☐ e) 5 ☐

f) more than.

3. For how long have you lived here?

a) less than 1 year (b) 1 year (c) 2 years (d) 3 years

e) 4 years (f) 5 years (g) more than 5 years.

4. Did you pay rent in advance before moving in?

a) Yes b) No

5. If yes, for how long?

a) 6 months (b) 1 year (c) 1½ (d) 2 years

(e) more than 2 years (specify) . .

6. In which of the following areas of the metropolis did you live previously?

a) T/Wada (b) S/Tasha c) Ung. Television (d) Romi

(e) Malali (g) Ung. Dosa (h) Kawo (I) Barnawa

(j) Ung. Sanusi (f) Ung. Rimi.

7. What are your reasons for leaving your previous residence? (Tick as many as applicable)

a) Increase in rent (b) non-payment of rent

(c) threats of eviction (d) renovation works

e) increase in space requirement of household

(f) religious factor (g) Change in workplace

(h) inaccessibility (i) bad neighbours

(j) nearer to relations (k) others – (specify).....

Attach more details to your answer if necessary.....

.....

8. How much rent do you pay/monthly/room?

a) N250 (b) N300 (c) N350 (d) N400 (e) 450 (f) N500.

APPENDIX II

Questionnaire for Landlords/Caretakers

Please thick where applicable.

1. (a) Landlord (b) Caretaker

2. Which of the following categories of housing do you own/are you in charge?

   a) Multiple family compound (b) 2 bedroom flat

   © 3 bedroom flat (d) 4 bedroom flat

3. How much rent do tenants pay/room

   a) 250 (b) N300 c) N350 (d) N400 (e) N450 (f) N500

   (g) over N500 (specify).....

   .....

4. Who fixes these rents?

   a) rent tribunal (b) State Govt.

   (c) Association of Landlords (d) self

5. How often do you review rents?

   a) once in a year (b) once in 2 years

   (c) once in 3 years (d) once in 4 years

   e) with every salary review

   f) whenever cost of building materials increase

   g) any other (specify).....

   .....

6. do you have house owners Association? (a) Yes (b) No

7. if yes, what is it called? .....

   .....

8. What are the objectives of this association?.....

.....

9. Which of these channels do you use to advertise when your house is vacant?

a) Radio (b) Television (c) notices on bill-boards

d) Newspapers/Magazines (e) Personal contacts by friends

f) none of these (specify).....

.....

10. Have you ever ejected any of your tenants? (a) Yes (b) No.

11. If yes, what was/were your reason/s for doing so?

a) None payment of rent (b) To facilitate renovations

c) house needed by owner (d) change in use from residential to other uses (please say the uses).....

e) constant fighting by tenants.

12. which of the following means do you use to effect ejection?

a) Personal Persuasions (b) The police 9c) The rent Tribunals

(d) Self, through force.