

**MIGRATORY PATTERNS AND LIVELIHOOD ACTIVITIES OF FEMALE
MIGRANT WORKERS IN RURAL AREAS OF ONDO WEST LOCAL
GOVERNMENT AREA, ONDO STATE, NIGERIA**

BY

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DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to Almighty God who made it all possible.

To the memory of my father, Pastor (Prof) Viscount Emmanuel Akorede whose love for me made me fall in love with one of the things he lived for - the teaching of Geography. I love you still Baba Seun.

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ABSTRACT

Globalisation, harsh economy and insecurity are catalysts for most migrant workers in Nigeria. International and national migrant workers streams are increasingly dominated by females. Extant literature has focused largely on the livelihood activities and health concerns among male migrants in the urban areas, with little attention paid to the migratory patterns and livelihood of female migrant workers in the rural areas. This study, therefore, focused on the identification, determinants of the migratory patterns and livelihood activities of female migrant workers in rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area, Ondo State.

The Push-Pull Theory by Everett Lee and the Rural Livelihood System by Niehof and Price provided the framework, while the cross-sectional research design was adopted. A multi-stage sampling technique was employed. Ondo West Local Government Area (LGA) was purposively selected because of the large number of female migrant workers in its rural areas. Five political wards (Wards 2, 4, 5, 6, and 12) were randomly selected from the LGA, and six rural villages were randomly selected from each of the wards. A sample size of 1047 female migrant workers was chosen using Slovin's sample size determination formula. A questionnaire was administered to obtain information on demographic characteristics, migratory process, livelihood activities, and problems facing female migrant workers in the rural areas. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics, Getis Ord Gi statistics, correlation and t-Test at $p \leq 0.05$.

Female migrant workers (30.3%) aged between 50 and 59 years, 74.8% were married, 39.1% had at least primary school education, while 39.3% did not possess formal education. Majority of the female migrant workers were from Osun (34.1%) and Oyo (16.0%) states. The female migrant workers were significantly clustered in space (z -value = 2.978). The reasons for migration among female workers included economy (49.8%) and marriage (24.0%), while 11.7% accompanied their parents. Livelihood activities included farming (58.8%), trading (14.5%), farm labour (7.9%), cottage processing (11.5%), lumbering (4.2%) and civil service (3.1%). These livelihood activities varied significantly among the thirty villages at t -value of 47.261. There was no significant variation between female migrant workers socio-demographic characteristics and their livelihood activities. Challenges faced by female migrant workers in pursuit of livelihoods included poor road network (30.9%), lack of access to funds (25.6%) and inadequate support from spouses (23.9%).

Economic gains drive the migration of female workers to rural Ondo West Local Government Area with their livelihood activities clustered in a few settlements. Establishment of rural banks, which will provide access to funds in terms of loans and the establishment of developmental schemes and projects in rural areas will create more livelihood opportunities for female migrant workers.

Keywords: Female migrant workers in Ondo, Livelihood of rural women, Rural – rural migration

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Females are increasingly getting involved in the migration stream to destinations which were hitherto the preserve of their male counterparts (Awumbila, 2014; Babou, 2008; United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), 2018). This has therefore opened up the postulations in migration theories on the feminization of migration. The feminization of migration has thus been one of the most important changes in population studies in recent years. It is widely regarded as one of the most considerable transformations in migratory patterns in the last fifty years (Afolayan, 2009, 2011; Lipszyc, 2014; Makinwa, 1994, Yinger, 2006). Studies reveal that women now migrate alone or with family members as against the former trend where women only migrated with their husbands (Hennerbry & Williams, 2021; International Organization for Migration, 2021; Makinwa, 1993, 1994; Tanja, 2009). These women make up a sizable portion of the socially marginalized population in developing nations who view migration as a way to achieve independence, self-worth, and a means of subsistence (Curran and Saguy, 2001; IOM, 2008; 2010; 2011; 2018, Siddique, 2003).

Female migration has greatly increased in recent years as a result of the expanding social acceptance of women's economic independence and mobility as well as the increased need for women's labor in various sectors and industries (Afolayan, Ikwuyatum and Abejide, 2011; Awumbila, 2015; Deshinkar & Grimm, 2005; Masanja, 2012; International Labour Organization, 2015, 2018; UNDESA, 2020, UNFPA, 2006). There have been significant movements of female migrants into various locations across the world, in Nigeria and especially in the rural areas of South-West Nigeria (Akinbani, 2021; Akorede, 2002; Awumbila, Owusu & Teyel, 2014; Flahaux & De Hass, 2016; Ikuomola, 2015; Olaiya, 2020, Dumont, Martin & Spielvogel, 2007). Females in this category are involved in various forms of livelihood activities in search of economic advancement for themselves

and their households (IOM, 2009; Makinwa, 1994; Olaleye, Ogunboye & Olanusi, 2014). There exists a significant shortage of empirical data on the factors responsible for female migration into the rural areas of Ondo State. Furthermore, elements such as selectivity based on age, distance traveled, livelihood activities pursued, and the problems experienced by female migrants in their day to day activities in rural regions remain uncharted.

In this study, livelihood activities refer to a set of financially viable actions, relating to self-employment and or salary or income services engaged in through the use of one's endowments, in terms of human and substance (Kapur, 2019). One of the main reasons for different types of migration has been the desire for better living conditions. This search makes people change locations with the expectation of the attainment of an improved standard of living (Ajaero and Madu, 2014; Awumbila, Owusu and Teye2014; Nwaogwugwu and Matthews-Njoku, 2015; Mberu, 2005; UNPFA, 2015). The search for greener pastures propels individuals to migrate from places of fewer opportunities to zones where such dreams can be achieved (Awumbila, 2014; Awumbila *et al*, 2014; Ekong, 2003).

The participation of migrant women in livelihood activities is not a new phenomenon. They dominated important marketplaces in the Niger Delta, Yoruba and Igbo territories, and the Middle Belt region during the colonial era (Ogbomo and Ogbomo, 1993; Oyeniyi, 2013). Some of these women started out by visiting the areas periodically to purchase agricultural products like Kolanut, Cocoa, Rubber, Groundnuts and so on. However, overtime, some of the traders decided to stay for longer periods after the market days to serve as links for traders who were coming from both distant and neighbouring settlements (Mberu, 2005; Oyewale and Olusanya, 2019, Tijani, 2004). Several studies (Adepoju and Kadejo, 1987; Afolayan, 2009; Afolayan, Ikwuyatum and Abejide, 2011; Fadayomi, 1998; Makinwa-Adebusoye, 1994; Ikwuyatum, 2006; 2018; IMS, 2010; Yaro, 2007) have been done on the determinants of migration at both local and international levels however the livelihood activities available in South-West Nigeria, the processes and patterns of female migration have remained unexplored.

Numerous livelihood opportunities and attractions exist in urban areas (Adewale, 2005; Asmah, 2011; Awumbila, 2008; Olujimi, 2008), yet more migrant workers have moved to rural areas in the last four decades (Adewale, 2005; Adibe, 1995; Afolayan, 1990; 1991; Akinbani, 2021; Awumbila, 2008; De Hann, 2007; Ikuomola, 2015; Makinwa, 1994; Olujimi, 2008). People migrate into urban centres in Nigeria in search of livelihood activities majorly because of the existence of several opportunities and facilities (Afolayan, Ikwuyatum and Abejide, 2011; Aworemi and Opoola, 2011; Awumbila, Owusu and Teye, 2014; Iruonagbe, 2009; Mustapha, 2009; Onyebueke and Geyer, 2011).

Available literature (Lutz, 2010; Mberu, 2005; Fielding-Muller et al, 2016; Ikwuyatum, 2006; Lipszyc, 2014; Iruonagbe, 2009; Mustapha, 2009; Ogunwale, 2016; Terlingen, 2015) confirms that much has not been done on female migrants in the rural areas of Ondo State. Also, most migration studies focus more on the situation in destination areas especially in areas of rural-urban migration with little or no emphasis on situations when the rural areas are the areas of destination (Akinyemi, 2007; Ejiogu, 2009; Nwaogugwu, 2015; UN Women, 2020; Yaro, 2013; Yeboah et al, 2015). Furthermore, studies have revealed that the interconnection between gender, migration and livelihood activities in rural areas is complex and there exists a noticeable and undeniable paucity of information and data on the topic (Andall, 2018; Awumbila&Ardafo, 2008; Awumbila, 2015; Griffin, 2011; Siddique, 2003; Sundari, 2005; Schmidt & Franke, 2014; World Bank, 2010).

The rationale for studying female migration as it connects with the livelihood activities available in rural areas is diverse. The study is hinged on the fact that research works on internal migration in Nigeria have seemingly concentrated on male migration with female migration, especially into rural areas receiving passive attention, if any at all (IOM, 2011; 2018; Kharel, 2016; Klugman & Twigg, 2015; Lipszyc, 2014; Morris & Little, 2015; Ofuoku, 2012). It is important to conceptualize migration as an active livelihood strategy which enhances the fiscal and social classes of individuals. The origin and destination of female migrants who choose to find solace in rural areas in a bid to carry out livelihood activities and derive income is important for academic postulations (Ajaero, 2014; Ajede, 2020; Aworemi & Opoola, 2011; Chambers & Conway, 1992; Ellis, 1998; McDowell & De Hann, 1997; Nwaogugwu, 2015; Kapur, 2019; Scornes, 1998).

Existing migration based research works have been carried out on rural-urban migration which almost gives an impression that internal migration in Nigeria is synonymous with rural-urban form of migration. In the same vein, also research works on migration have seemingly concentrated more on the determinants of migration with the migrants' engagement in livelihood activities at the destination receiving very little or no attention (Adefila, 2013; Afolayan, Ikwuyatum & Abejide, 2011; Ajede, 2020; Aworemi et al, 2011; Awumbila, Owusu & Teye, 2014; Farinde et al, 2004; Forisa, 2014; Ikwuyatum, 2006; Nnadi et al, 2012; Ofuoku, 2012; Oyeniyi, 2013)

First, one of the major drawbacks to studying females in internal migration is a lack of data in terms of volume, direction of movement, and the category of migrants. Second, available literature on migration focuses more on male migrants to the exclusion of any detailed mention of female migrants (International Organization of Migration; 2006). As a fall out to the above, the United Nations Population Fund (2018) stated that migration should be considered from a feminism viewpoint since almost half the number of migrants is of the female gender. It also stated that women are increasingly migrating autonomously or as leaders of their households. Women now migrate into new areas for economic reasons and as an escape from conflicts as women constitute the vast majority of all migrant domestic workers. This trend represents a significant opportunity for them to achieve economic autonomy and empowerment.

Masanja (2012), Tanja (2009) and Makinwa-Adebusoye (1990) utilized information from the few evidences on female migration and described the lack of data on female migration as male chauvinism. The paucity of data on women are regarded as associational migrants. Even in instances of autonomous migration of unattached females, they are often assumed to be motivated by marriage or for prostitution. Despite this, there are evidences, though few and not well documented, to show that female migrants are neither passive followers nor dependents.

Understanding the migratory trend of female migrants in terms of the origin, identity, reasons for migrating from their origin coupled with the reasons underlying the choice of specific rural areas as destinations form an interesting debate in migration studies

(Masanja, 2012; Ogunmakinde et al. 2015; Oishi, 2005). The decision of migrants to explore other available destinations other than urban areas provides government and other agencies with developmental options which when properly harnessed could tackle the problems of congestion and pollution in urban areas. In the light of these identified gaps in migration studies as established in the findings of existing literature (Adeoye, 2019; Aworemi et al, Fabusoro, 2010; Ogunwale, 2016; Akorede, 2004; Morris and Little, 2015) which revealed that much work has not been done on the livelihood activities available to female migrants in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area, this research work therefore intends to bridge some of the gaps by providing answers to some of the above listed issue.

The factors that pull female migrant workers into rural areas in Nigeria, particularly in terms of the means of subsistence or employment prospects, are not well studied or known. According to established internal migration theory in Nigeria, (Adepoju, 2005; Chete, Adeoti and Adeyinka, 2015; Afolayan, Afolayan and Idris, 2015; Okafor, 2014) a sizeable portion of those who migrate from rural areas end up settling there at least temporarily. Literature does not, however, adequately capture the prospects and challenges of the various livelihood options available to female migrant workers in rural areas (Ellis, 2000; Mberu, 2005; McDowell and De Hann, 1997). As a result, further investigation is required to characterize the migration of female migrant workers into the study region with greater clarity. This study seeks to better understand the peculiarities of migration into rural regions, including the socioeconomic traits of female migrant workers, the migration pattern, and the livelihood activities available to migrants in the area of study.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The rising proportion of females in migration streams is one of the startling shifts in the last fifty years, migrating alone as the key financial providers for their households or migrating with members of their households (Awumbila, 2015; IOM, 2009; Makinwa, 1994; Jones, 2020; World Bank, 2018). There is a shortage of empirical literature in Nigeria on female migrants at state and local government levels. Early migration research

focused more on rural-urban migration and portrayed female migrants as primarily dependent. There has not been much emphasis on rural areas as the destination of migration, and or of women's search for economic empowerment as a factor necessitating their migration (Afolayan, 1991, 2009; Makinwa, 1994; Masanja, 2012; Rabiano-Matulevich and Beegle, 2018).

Since the major livelihood activity practised in rural areas is agriculture, it is necessary to identify the existence of alternative livelihood activities which exist in the area of study and examine the connection between the activities and the area of origin of the female migrants (Abiodun and Olutumise, 2019; Kapur, 2019; Mphande, 2016; Fabusoro, 2010). Several scholars have worked on different aspects of migration (Adepoju and Wiel, 2010; Afolayan, Ikwuyatum and Abejide, 2011; Awumbila, 2008, 2015; Makinwa, 1993, 1994; Mberu, 2005; Udo, 1975) but the characteristics, periodicity and determinants of female migration into rural areas have not been adequately looked into and this is crucial for understanding internal migration in Nigeria. The types, underlying causes, and livelihood activities that rural women migrants can access are sections which need to be researched into as there exists paucity of data on the choice of rural areas as destination of migrants when urban areas would have presented more opportunities instead of rural areas of Ondo State.

There are inadequate empirical studies on female migration within the country and the few studies on female migration are silent on migration into rural areas and livelihood activities available to female migrants. Most works have focused on rural-urban migration, almost portraying it as the only form of migration (Adepoju and Wiel, 2010; Awumbila and Ardafo, 2008; Iliya and Oppon-Kumi, 2011; Awumbila, 2015). It is crucial to conduct research on the available livelihood options in rural areas and determine the drivers of female migration there (Abiodun *et al*, 2019; World Bank, 2016).

There exists the need for empirical data on factors responsible for female migration into areas erstwhile considered as abandoned regions (United Nations Development Programme, 2009; World Bank, 2010; Yaro, 2013; Yeboah, 2015). The focus of this

present research therefore is to advance our understanding of the migratory patterns and livelihood activities of female migrant workers in rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State. The findings will serve as a platform for scholarship and a springboard for better planning by the various government agencies and other stakeholders.

Globally, there is an increase in female migration as the search for employment and better livelihood activities to support the family income rises continuously (Lefko-Everett, 2007; Makinwa, 1993; 1994; Masanja, 2012). However, the pattern and form of migration, socio-economic characteristics, livelihood activities, challenges encountered by female migrants in rural areas of Ondo State require further examination. Some empirical studies in the literature indicate that the feminization of migration has been going on unobserved. It has been argued that the phenomenon has existed for some time but that earlier studies have not captured it adequately because of the way it was conceptualized (Afolayan, 1991; Makinwa-Adebusoye, 1993; 1994; Awumbila and Ardafo, 2008; Iliya and Oppon-Kumi, 2011; Awumbila, 2015).

There exists a scarcity of data on female migration, and available literature makes it appear that males outweigh females in the migratory stream (Adepoju, 2016; Adepoju and Adepoju, 2017; Aderanti and Balogun, 2019; Okafor, 2014, Ola-David, 2017). Focus has not been on the significance of wives accompanying their husbands but are portrayed as 'invisible' or at best mentioned only in passing or as associational migrants (Abiodun et al 2019; Andall, 2018; Adepoju, 2005; Afolayan, 2001; Bartolomei, 2010, Makinwa, 1994). There are significant cases of 'marriage migration' where women migrate to join their husbands or where females meet and marry people at destinations or while in transit (Awunmbila, 2015; Dosekun, 2015; IOM 2015; Kharel, 2016).

This study would be an invaluable addition to the existing body of knowledge on female migrants in Nigeria as there exists very few data on female migrants into rural areas. This among several other factors may be due to the patriarchal system of subjugation of females under male authority, the low exposure of females to formal education and the

restrictions placed on female migrations by cultural norms to control independent female migrants from becoming 'free women' when they are away from the restraining control of parents and their significant other (Adepoju and Wiel, 2010; Afolayan, 1997; Awumbila, 2015; Eklund, 2000; Elmhirst, 2002; Makinwa, 1993; 1994))

This study therefore aims at analyzing the migratory patterns of females in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government and the specific livelihood activities available to female migrants in the study area. This will be done with consideration on the relationship between the socio-demographic characteristics of female migrants and their livelihood activities, with focus on the examination of the factors responsible for the variations which exists in the livelihood activities available for female migrants in the rural areas of Ondo State will also be examined.

1.3 Significance of the Study

By shedding light on the dynamics, causes, and effects of human movement, this study makes a substantial contribution to the larger subject of migration studies. Researchers can spot trends in migration flows, such as the most frequent origin and destination locations, movement frequency, and time, by analyzing migratory patterns. The results provided will aid the study of elements that affect migration decisions and help in mapping out mobility. The study of migratory patterns reveals the underlying causes of migration, including economic opportunities, social networks, political unrest, environmental changes, and other factors. Understanding these patterns can help researchers better understand the reasons why people migrate.

Analyzing migratory patterns enables evaluation of the impact of migration on both areas of origin and destinations. To do this, one must comprehend how the demographic, economic, and social influences at both the origin and destination affect local communities and cultures. People may migrate in seasonal or cyclical patterns, going back and forth between different places periodically. To understand the cyclical nature of migration and its effects on communities and economies, it is imperative to comprehend the patterns created. Migration policy may be developed by governments and international

organizations using information from migratory trends. Addressing issues with integration, labour markets, and social services is made easier by policymakers having a better understanding of where migrants are coming from and departing.

The study of migration patterns also reveals the dangers and challenges migrants face at destination. This information will help guide efforts to better protect, assist, and support migrants, especially those who are more vulnerable to abuse and exploitation on gender basis. Migration patterns are subject to change throughout time as a result of changing economic, political, technical, and environmental conditions. Researchers can forecast future migration trends and make informed plans by studying these shifts. Fundamentally, the study of migratory patterns offers the background knowledge of human mobility, which is crucial for understanding the complex character of migration as a universal phenomenon. It aids in the creation of migration ideas, guidelines, and tactics that meet the difficulties and possibilities brought on by human movement.

It is essential to comprehend how female migrants make a living in rural regions if the promotion of rural development and sustainable communities are to be encouraged. Female migrants frequently work in a variety of economic sectors, including agriculture, informal employment, and small-scale business. Rural development initiatives may use their labour and talents to promote economic growth and diversity by recognizing and appreciating their contributions to local economies. The capital which accrues to female migrants in the pursuit of their subsistence directly affects the families left behind. This additional revenue can raise living standards, increase access to healthcare, education, and nutrition, which will help to reduce poverty and enhance general well-being in rural communities. In conclusion, tapping the potential of female migrants to contribute to local development requires an awareness of the livelihood activities they engage in in rural regions. Rural communities may use their talents and contributions to build more dynamic, resilient, and sustainable rural economies by acknowledging their economic, social, and cultural roles.

Due to its ability to provide insight into a variety of socio-economic, cultural, and gender variables, an understanding of the migratory patterns and livelihood options obtainable to female migrant workers in rural regions is crucial. It is important to recognize the

migratory patterns and livelihood activities of female migrant workers in order to raise awareness of social justice and gender equity concerns. It puts emphasis on the difficulties and chances that women encounter when they move for job, sometimes in search of greater financial prospects. This study will shed light on how female migrant workers contribute to the rural economy. It can assist academics and policymakers in determining if their labour is sufficiently acknowledged and paid for its impact to regional and national economies.

Examining the forms of livelihood activities female migrant workers partake in might indicate their coping mechanisms. It will also determine the industries in which they are most likely to find work, which may have an impact on policy choices and targeted interventions. Researchers can gain a better understanding of female migrant workers' degrees of agency and empowerment by analyzing the actions and choices made in relation to migration and livelihoods. Initiatives aiming at enhancing their capacity for decision-making and general wellbeing can be informed by this. The families left behind by migrants frequently suffer. Studying the effects of migration can show how migration affects local customs, family relationships, and community cohesiveness on a social level. The knowledge acquired from the study can guide the formulation of efficient policies and initiatives suited to the requirements of female migrant workers. Issues including healthcare, education, legal protection, and social assistance may be covered by these regulations.

Understanding the migratory behaviours and livelihoods of female migrants provides insight into their health and welfare. It can aid in identifying potential threats and weak points they might experience at different points in migrating. Mixing cultures and backgrounds is common in migration. Researchers can learn more about the interactions and adaptations that take place between various cultures in rural areas by studying the experiences of female migrant workers. Studying this subject advances academic knowledge of gender studies, rural livelihood opportunities, national economic potential concealed in rural areas, and labor economics. It contributes to the building of a knowledge foundation that may be used for future research and theoretical advancement.

In summary, examining the migratory patterns and livelihood activities of female migrant workers in rural areas is significant because it helps unravel the complexities of gender roles, economic dynamics, empowerment, and community well-being. The insights generated from such studies can inform policies, empower individuals, and contribute to a more inclusive understanding of society.

1.4 **Research Questions**

Despite the existence of several livelihood activities and attractions in urban centres, it has been discovered that more migrants are moving into rural areas (Adepoju&Obayelu, 2015; Adewale, 2005; Afolayan, 1990; 1997; 2009; Desinghkar, 2005). Several questions remain unanswered because of the dearth of empirical studies on pattern of female migration and livelihood activities of female migrants of rural areas in Ondo State. The essential questions are as follows:

- (a). Who are the female migrant workers in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government of Ondo State?
- (b). What are the factors responsible for the female migrant workers' choice of Ondo West Local Government as preferred destination region?
- (c). What are the implications of female autonomous migration on the source and receiving regions?
- (d). How have the prevailing livelihood activities associated with female migrants' source regions influenced their current livelihood activities in the destination region?
- (e). Do female migrant workers move independently into rural areas?
- (f). What are the impacts and effects of migration on the well-being of children and family left-behind?
- (g). Do the livelihood activities of female migrant workers vary across rural localities?

- (h). What is the relationship between migrant's livelihood activities and length of stay in the rural areas?

1.5. Aim and Objectives

The study aims to examine the migratory pattern and livelihood activities engaged in by female migrant workers in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government.

The specific objectives are to:

1. Examine the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of female migrant workers in the study area.
2. Analyze the migratory pattern of and factors influencing female migration into the study area.
3. Examine the link between the socio-economic characteristics of female migrant workers and their migration processes.
4. Analyze the explanatory factors responsible for the nature of livelihood activities engaged in by female migrants in the study area.
5. Analyze the relationship between livelihood activities and the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of female migrant workers.

1.6 Hypotheses

The following are the hypothesis for the study:

1. There is no significant difference in the socio-economic characteristics of the female migrant workers in the study area.
2. There is no significant difference in the migration pattern of female migrant workers in the study area.
3. There is no significant relationship between the level of involvement in livelihood activities and female migrant workers' migration processes.
4. There is no significant relationship between the volume of migrants in the study area and the distance from the various source regions.
5. Female migrant workers' livelihood activities do not vary significantly across the study area.

1.7 Study Area

Ondo West Local Government Area, situated in Ondo State, covers an area of 970 square kilometres and lies between latitudes 5° 45' and 7° 52' N and longitudes 4° 20' north 6° 05' E (Ondo State Handbook, 2014). Ondo West Local Government Area is bounded on the west by Osun State, on the north by Ile-Oluji/ Oke-Igbo Local Government and on the south by Odigbo. The study area is located within the Tropical Rainforest with mangrove swamps in the south and Guinea Savanna to its North which supports both cash and food crop farming, palm oil processing, cassava grinding, garri processing, food gathering and trading.

The vegetation found across the study area consists of the moist lowland forest which supports very high farming activities and forms a means of livelihood for both migrants and indigenes. Agriculture is an extremely important livelihood activity, employing a sizable portion of the state's labour force. In Ondo, cocoa is the most important cash crop: other crops cultivated are yam, cassava, oil palm, kolanut, coffee, cashew, rubber, timber, maize, plantain, cocoyam, rice and banana (Ondo State Handbook, 2014).

The population of Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State according to the 2006 Census is 283, 672. There are 141, 759 males and 147, 109 females. The population density of the area under study is 481.4/ km². Ondo West Local Government is very rich in migrant workers because of the cocoa plantation and the presence of rich, fertile soils available for agricultural practices. Migrants seen in the rural areas include the Igbiras, Tivs, Bachamas, Urhobos, Agenebodes, Oyos, Modakekes, Fulanis etc from Benue, Cross River, Kwara, Osun, Oyo, Kogi, Plateau, Abia and Bayelsa (Akorede; 2002; Adefila, 2013). Ondo West Local Government Area is one of the major destinations of rural tenant farmers and these migrants are mainly from landless areas especially places of the North Central and South East where the economic situation is not conducive. These include

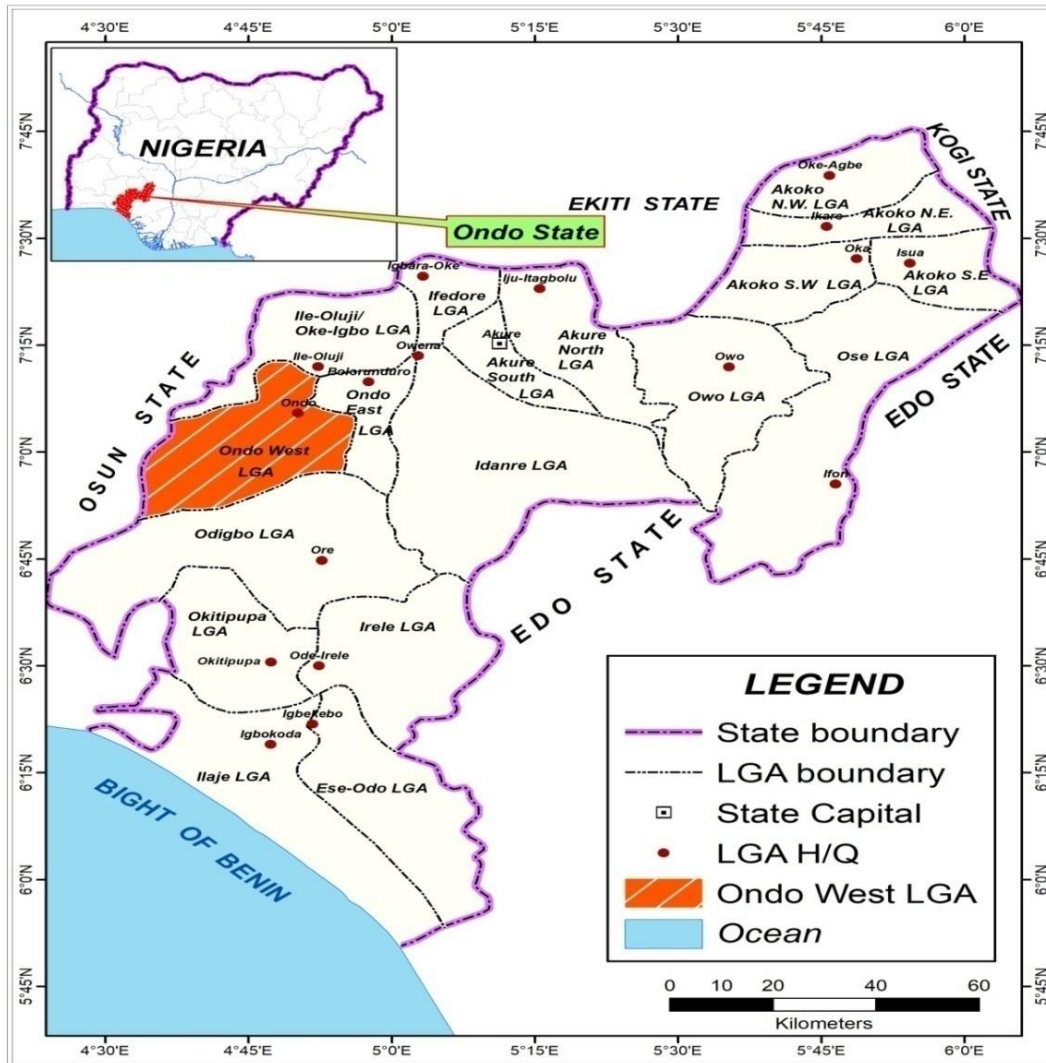


Figure 1.1: Map of Nigeria showing Ondo State
 (Source: Ondo State Surveys Department, Akure.)

Taraba, Benue, Ebonyi, Enugu, Niger, Nassarawa, Kwara. Such migrants chose to reside in some of the rural areas of study (Adepoju and Obayelu, 2013; Udo, 1971).

The Urhobo female migrants settle in the rural areas of Ondo State because of the existence of opportunities in the form of special jobs (e.g. palm oil production, gari production, basket weaving, food crop farming etc) which the local people do not consider either sufficiently lucrative or prestigious. The Igbira food farmers leave their home districts in search of new farmlands for the planting of yam while the Osun and Oyo women migrate into the rural areas of the study area to engage in the sale of kolanut.

Farming is the most prevalent livelihood activity of the people of Ondo West Local Government Area, and it offers income and job possibilities for a considerable proportion of its population. Palm fruit, cocoa, and lumber are among the major commercial crops grown in the state. Other livelihood activities available to female migrants in rural areas include cultivation, trading, garri processing, palm oil production, fruit gathering, food gathering, lumbering, hawking, basket weaving, wood fetching, cloth weaving among many others. Migrants who are settled in the rural areas of Ondo west Local Government engage in the cultivation and sale of farm products like cocoa, palm oil, kolanut, yam, gari, cassava, citrus fruits, vegetables and so on



**Figure 1.2: Ondo State showing the Study Area
(Source: Ondo State Surveys Department, Akure.)**

1.8 Scope of the Study

The study centres on the migratory patterns and livelihood activities of female migrant workers in rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area in Ondo State, South-West Nigeria. Ondo West Local Government provides the right geographical location for a study of this nature due to the presence of a diverse migrant population from various states in the country. The feminization of migration is the highlight of the study and covers a wide range of issues which include the socio-economic characteristics of the migrant workers, reasons underlying migrants' choice of destination, implications of autonomous female migration on source and destination regions and the relationship between the type of livelihood activities engaged in and the migrants' origin. It also studies the variations in the activities of female migrant workers across localities and the factors which determine the livelihood activities practiced.

1.9 Operational Definition of Terms

- **Livelihoods:** These include the methods or approaches utilized to obtain the necessities for survival. This may be considered as an avenue of subsistence or support, and could encompass activities such as agriculture, trading, fishing, handicrafts, agricultural work, public service, and a variety of other possibilities.
- **Rural Livelihoods:** These include the various fields and diverse methods employed by rural dwellers in the pursuit of income generation and distribution. These are influenced by ecological, socioeconomic, and systems of government.
- **Remittances:** Remittances are the transfer of funds or resources from foreign workers, diaspora members, or residents with family ties abroad, to support household income in their country of origin. These transfers can be made between individuals or households, and may take the form of either cash or non-cash items.
- **Rural Area:** A rural area is a sparsely populated region with limited buildings and inhabitants, located beyond the densely populated urban areas of a town or city. These areas are known for their low cost of living, scarcity of social amenities, relatively low wages, and an aging population.
- **Migrant Worker:** A migrant worker is someone who moves either within their home country or abroad in search of work, often in the form of temporary or

seasonal employment. Migrant workers are people who have moved into a new area in search of a means of livelihood or who are presently utilized.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Chapter Overview

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section presents a systematic review of relevant literature covering the specific objectives of the study while the second section focuses on the conceptual framework for the study.

2.1 Review of Literature

2.1.1 Concepts

The concepts guiding this study are those of migration, migrant workers, livelihood activities and migratory patterns.

2.1.1.1 Migration

Migration has been a prominent feature of human society for centuries, and it has been an important means of seeking better opportunities and improving livelihoods (Adepoju, 2005; Afolayan, 2009; Makinwa, 1993; Udo, 1975). In Nigeria, migration has been a critical component of the socio-economic landscape, with millions of people moving from rural to urban areas and across borders to seek better opportunities (Ofuoku&Emerhi, 2014; Ogunwale, 2018; Oyeniya, 2013). Female migrant workers play a vital role in the Nigerian economy, contributing to various sectors such as agriculture, trade, and services (Aderanti and Balogun, 2019; Afolayan, 1991; Makinwa, 1993, 1994). The Ondo West Local Government Area in Ondo State is no exception, and this literature review seeks to analyze the migratory processes and livelihood activities of female migrant workers in the area.

Migration can be categorized into two types: internal and international. In developing countries, like those found in tropical Africa, migration tends to be semi-permanent,

temporary, or seasonal since most migrants eventually return to their home country (Aworemi and Opoola, 2011; Fadayomi, 1998; ILO, 2006). Three major forms of migrations are most common in Nigeria, they are rural-urban, urban-urban, and urban-rural (Oji, 2006; Oyeniya, 2013). People move from areas with scarce resources to locations with better prospects for survival. This is because communities experiencing instability are often plagued by low wages, barren lands, poor climate, lack of social infrastructure, and political and religious crises. In normal situations, individuals move to areas with more favorable resources in order to thrive. Therefore, the influx of migrants to a particular region is largely based on the availability of resources (Adepoju 2000, 2005; Afolayan et al, 2011; Fellman and Getis, 2004) support and facilitates their migration. Social networks are also crucial for accessing information about job opportunities and housing options.

2.1.1.2 Livelihood Activities

Livelihood activities refer to the various economic activities that people engage in to earn a living (De Hann, 2007; Ellis, 2000; Forisa, 2014). Female migrant workers are involved in various sectors such as agriculture, trade, and services. Agriculture is a critical sector in most rural areas, and many female migrant workers are engaged in crop production and livestock rearing (Ejiogu, 2009; Fadayomi, 1998). They work as farm labourers or operate their farms, selling their produce in local markets or to wholesalers. In addition to agriculture, female migrant workers in rural areas are also involved in trade, crafts and farm labour. Many of them operate small-scale businesses such as food vending, hairdressing, and tailoring. These businesses are sustained by supplies from traders often located in urban centers and are targeted at low-income earners.

Female migrant workers are also involved in the service sector, working in hotels, restaurants, and other hospitality establishments. They also work as domestic staff, providing services such as cleaning, cooking, and childcare. Despite the significant contributions of female migrant workers to the economy of Ondo West LGA, they face various challenges. One of the most significant challenges is the lack of legal protection. Many female migrant workers operate in the informal sector, which means they do not

have access to social security and other legal protections. This makes them vulnerable to exploitation and abuse by employers.

The lack of access to credit and other financial services is another major challenge faced by migrants in rural areas. Many female migrant workers operate small-scale businesses, but they often struggle to access credit, which limits their ability to expand their businesses. Although, they are disadvantaged in terms of corporate loan facilities, however, they have been able to turn the tide around by facilitating “egbe omo-ilu” (particular to the Yoruba migrants) periodic contributions or certain contributions necessitated by livelihood relationship or in some cases age grade. These contributions have helped migrant workers to cushion the effects of ceremonial events, remittances or in other cases the admission provisions of their wards on their finances.

2.1.1.3 Migrant Workers

There is no universally accepted definition of who a migrant is, however, the International Organization for Migration (2019) defined migrants as a general term, not characterized under universal law, mirroring the basic comprehension of an individual who moves from a place of common living to another location, regardless of whether inside a nation or over a worldwide spectrum; for all time, and for an assortment of reasons. Therefore, migrant workers are every migrant who are right now utilized or jobless and looking for work in their present nation of living arrangement (International Labour Organization, 2015); The United Nations Statistical Division (UN SD) considered migrant workers as foreigners conceded by a host State for the particular motivation of practicing a financial movement compensated in the host nation; whose length of stay is normally confined similar to the sort of business they can get involved with (UN SD, 2017).

According to ILO's report in 2017, the number of migrant workers was over 164 million. Almost half (around 47 percent) of these migrant workers were located in two broad sub-regions: North America and Northern, Southern, and Western Europe, where 55.4 percent of all female workers and 40.9 percent of all male workers were found. In contrast, the Arab States and Southern Asia had the highest and lowest proportions of

migrant workers, with 40.8 percent and 1.0 percent, respectively (ILO, 2018). In 2017, female migrant workers made up about 41.6 percent (68.1 million) of all migrant workers worldwide, while male migrant workers accounted for 58.4 percent (95.7 million) of the total number of migrant workers. However, there were regional differences in the proportion of male and female migrant workers. Additionally, approximately 8 percent of all migrant workers in 2017 were between the ages of 15 and 24. In 2013, out of the estimated 150.3 million migrant workers, 11.5 million were classified as domestic migrant workers (ILO, 2015).

2.2 CHARACTERIZATION OF FEMALE MIGRATION

2.2.1 The Dynamics of Female Migration

According to Kingston (2016), there is a rising trend of female migration globally, however, until recently, the experiences of female migrants have been largely overlooked in the literature (Kharel, 2016). Historically, migration has been viewed as a male phenomenon, with female migrants being perceived as dependents and supporters of male migrants. Despite Ravenstein's (1885) migration laws which indicate that females are more transient than males, migration literature largely ignored the experiences of female migrants for over a century until the 1980s (Lutz, 2010). Therefore, it is important to examine the experiences of female migrant workers separately because, as Belanger and Rahman (2013) discovered, the reasons for migration among male and female migrant workers are not always the same.

The migration of women has increased in recent times, and they are now moving independently for economic reasons as opposed to family reunification or accompanying male migrants. Consequently, the number of women migrants is either equal to or greater than that of men in some regions (Masanja, 2012; UN Women, 2020). Although migration is sometimes involuntary, such as during conflict, security threats, discrimination, famine, or environmental hazards, it is often a conscious livelihood strategy based on societal norms and structures to improve one's economic status (Ajaero, 2014; Siddique, 2003; Sundari, 2005; Collison et al., 2009).

Apart from economic factors, several non-economic reasons may prompt female migration. These include escaping from domestic violence and abusive relationships, patriarchal traditions and community surveillance limiting opportunities and freedom, and a desire for equal opportunities (Afolayan, Ikwuyatum & Abejide 2011; Awumbila, 2015; Boucher, 2004; Makinwa, 1994; Masanja, 2012). However, the primary motivation for most female migration is for better living conditions. Economic and social instability can also drive educated women to migrate in search of better-paying jobs that utilize their skills (UNFPA, 2016). Women migrants' origin and destination can be seen as a unified economic area where they carry out livelihood activities to earn a living. The search for better livelihoods is a key reason driving women's recent moves (Bell, 2002; Haupt and Kane, 2004; De Hann, 2007). When women relocate from their native regions to work and earn wages in the destination region, either permanently, short-term or seasonally, they are referred to as female migrant workers (Mberu, 2005; Ofuoku, 2012; Oyeniyi, 2013).

Despite earlier beliefs that women were passive and subservient to their male partners, in the late twentieth century (Lutz, 2010; Makinwa, 1994; UN 2020), more scholars have been interested in understanding the motivations of female migration due to the increasing number of independent female migrant workers seeking transnational opportunities mainly for economic reasons (Kharel, 2016). Today, women make up half of the total number of migrants (United Nations Population Fund, 2006), and many female migrant workers are located in various Asian countries. A growing number of women are migrating for economic reasons, rather than solely to join their spouses or other relatives (Yinger, 2006). The phenomenon of female migration worldwide is linked to the global trend of female labor migration, commonly known as the "feminization of migration," where a growing number of female workers in developing countries are migrating to affluent nations for employment opportunities. Scholars such as Manors and Miller (1993) regarded this trend of the "feminization of migration" as a hallmark of the "migration era." The number of female migrants has increased due to the demand for female workers in reproductive and service sectors in both affluent nations of the North and the South (Labadie-Jackson, 2008; Yinger, 2006).

Gender-based disparities are pervasive in the global labor market for women, with most female migrants finding work in conventional gender roles, such as domestic and reproductive labor (e.g., cleaning, cooking, childcare), or low-wage, part-time jobs such as waitressing (Yinger, 2006). Although women account for around half of all international migrants, the inflow of highly skilled migrant workers is balanced between genders (Dumont et al., 2007). Women were typically viewed from a domestic perspective (Becker, 1991) and often went unnoticed in discussions related to skilled migration, labor supply, and employment integration (Boucher, 2007).

Studies that explore the gender implications of migration are few and have mainly focused on the disparities in earnings (Adsera and Chiswick, 2007) and unemployment rates (Kogan, 2006) among female migrant workers (Donato et al, 2014). In their research on migrant workers in Europe, Fleischmann and Dronkers (2010) found no significant gender differences in the risk of unemployment, or in how individual and macro-level factors affect male and female migrant workers. However, Rubin et al. (2008) and Donato et al. (2014) discovered that the gender gap in labor market outcomes of migrant workers varies across countries.

The phenomenon of female migration encompasses a diverse range of backgrounds and situations, as observed by the International Organization for Migration (2018). This process has significantly improved the lives of women in origin and destination countries, presenting opportunities for individuals worldwide. Migration is a complex process that affects people or families with specific economic, social, and welfare characteristics (Ellis, 2000; Adewale, 2005). Female migration can promote gender equality and women's empowerment by providing them with income, status, autonomy, freedom, and self-esteem derived from employment (Le Golf and Salome, 2015). Poverty and gender inequality play a significant role in female migration, with limited access to information for decision-making acting as a powerful force. These factors also influence the size of migration, with women mostly migrating to enhance their livelihoods at intermediate stages of the economy (Lipszyc, 2014).

2.2.2 Challenges of Female Migrant Workers

Female migrant workers in rural areas face numerous challenges, such as discrimination, exploitation, and limited access to social services. Despite these challenges, they continue to migrate in search of better livelihood opportunities. Rural areas in developing countries are characterized by low-income levels, limited economic opportunities, and inadequate social services. Many rural residents, especially women, migrate to urban areas in search of better livelihood opportunities (Adepoju, 2016). However, female migrant workers in rural areas face unique challenges, such as discrimination based on gender and ethnicity, limited access to education and healthcare, and poor working conditions (Ogunbameru, 2018). These challenges are compounded by a lack of legal protection, which exposes migrant workers to exploitation and abuse by employers.

Despite these challenges, female migrant workers in rural areas continue to migrate in search of better livelihood opportunities. Many migrate to work in agriculture, forestry, and fishing industries, where they work as laborers, farmhands, and seasonal workers (OnuohaandEzeh, 2019). Others engage in petty trade and artisanal activities, such as food vending and tailoring, to earn a living (Umejesi, 2018). In some cases, female migrant workers engage in sex work to earn a living, exposing them to numerous health risks and social stigmatization (Olawoyeand Adedeji, 2018).

The migration of female workers to rural areas has both positive and negative impacts on local communities. On the one hand, female migrant workers contribute to the rural economy through their labor and entrepreneurial activities, which provide essential goods and services to local residents (Salami and Balogun, 2018). They also remit a significant portion of their earnings to their families, contributing to poverty reduction and economic development in their home communities (Aderanti and Balogun, 2019). On the other hand, the migration of female workers can have negative social and cultural impacts on rural communities, such as the breakdown of family structures and traditional gender roles (Adetunji, 2018).

To address the challenges faced by female migrant workers in rural areas, policymakers and stakeholders should develop strategies to protect their rights and improve their living

and working conditions. This can be achieved through the enactment and enforcement of labor laws and policies that protect the rights of migrant workers, provide access to education and healthcare, and promote gender equality and social inclusion (Afolabi, 2019). Additionally, stakeholders can promote the establishment of social protection programs that target vulnerable groups, such as female migrant workers, to provide them with essential services and support.

Female migrant workers are women who move from their place of origin to another location, within or outside their country of birth, in search of employment or better economic opportunities (Ogunbameru, 2018). These women often leave their families and support networks behind, and undertake work in a variety of sectors, including domestic service, agriculture, manufacturing, and healthcare (Salami and Balogun, 2018).

The socio-economic characteristics of female migrant workers vary depending on their country of origin, destination, and the sector in which they work. However, several studies have highlighted some common characteristics that are shared by many female migrant workers. Studies have claimed that age and marital status could characterize female migrant workers. Female migrant workers are often young and unmarried, with a majority falling within the age range of 18-35 years (Olawoye and Adedeji, 2018). Also, many female migrant workers have low levels of formal education, with a significant proportion having only completed primary education or less (Aderanti and Balogun, 2019).

Socio-economic characterization of Female migrant workers could also be categorized through their occupational status. Female migrant workers are often employed in low-skilled and low-paid jobs, such as domestic work, factory work, and agricultural labor (Umejesi, 2018). Some also engage in petty businesses as a primary livelihood or secondary livelihood. Female migrant workers often send remittances back home to support their families, with their income levels varying depending on the sector in which they work (Adepoju, 2016)

Living and working conditions has also affected how female migrant workers are categorized. Many female migrant workers live in crowded and substandard housing conditions, and are exposed to various forms of exploitation and abuse (Onuoha and Ezeh,

2019) The socio-economic characteristics of female migrant workers suggest that they are a vulnerable group that requires targeted support and protection from governments and other stakeholders.

2.2.3 Source Regions (Origin) of Female Migrant Workers

Majority of people who dominate the rural parts of the study area are majorly migrants from neighbouring states like Osun, Oyo, Kogi, Kwara among others, since the flow of people has to do with the attributes of the location of origin and destination, the friction between the origin and destination.

There exists strong and healthy inter-group relation among the people of Ondo West Local Government Area and this is what draws people from other places, especially from the neighbouring states and the south-south region of the country to the rural areas. Many reasons have been established by previous authors on the probable reasons why migrants are drawn to the rural areas of Ondo West. The historical factor is one of the factors responsible for the influx of migrants into the study area. The Ondo people, just like the people of the other South-West states share common ancestral origin and this has promoted unity among neighbouring states (Ajayi and Omojeje, 2019). Trade, language, religion and cultural institution similarities are also recognised as factors which promote inter-group relations. This was established in the ways rural dwellers are able to live together (Ofili, 2016; Okpeli, 2007). Marriage is another factor which draws many people into the rural areas of Ondo West. Many women had no choice than to move with their husbands (Omaide, 2007).

The origin of female migrant workers into rural areas varies depending on the specific context and country. However, several factors have been identified as contributing to female migration into rural areas. Economic hardship and lack of employment opportunities in rural areas often force women to migrate to urban areas or other countries in search of better economic prospects (Fasakin, 2018). In some cases, women migrate to rural areas to work in the agricultural sector, which is often characterized by labor shortages due to rural-urban migration and aging rural populations (Oladejo, 2019).

The desire for education and better employment opportunities also drives some women to migrate to rural areas (Adetula and Adedokun, 2017) Women who have completed their education in urban areas may move to rural areas to work as teachers, healthcare workers, or in other professions where there is a shortage of skilled workers (Oluborode, 2018)

Family and social networks may affect the origin of female migrant workers particularly into rural areas. Women may migrate to rural areas to join their families or to be closer to their social networks (Adepoju, 2017). In some cases, women may marry and move to rural areas to join their husbands, or return to their rural communities after living and working in urban areas for a period of time (Afolayan, 2018). Natural disasters and conflicts can also lead to female migration into rural areas, as women may be displaced from their homes and forced to seek refuge in rural areas (Chukwuezi&Udejaja, 2019).

2.2.4 Trends in Female Migration

The dynamics of female migration have evolved over time, with changing economic and social conditions affecting the reasons why women migrate and the nature of their migratory experiences. Historically, women have migrated for various reasons, including marriage, family reunification, and labor migration. In many societies, women's migration for marriage was a common practice, often leading to the formation of transnational families (Parreñas, 2005). However, in the 20th century, labor migration emerged as a significant reason for female migration, particularly in the developing countries (Kofman et. al, 2000). The expansion of export-oriented industries and the increasing demand for low-wage labor in developed countries created opportunities for women to migrate for work related reasons.

The nature of female migration has also changed over time. In the early 20th century, female migration was predominantly rural-to-urban, with women leaving rural areas for work in factories and other urban industries (Lewis, 1954). However, in recent decades, there has been a shift towards more diverse migration patterns, including urban-to-urban, rural-to-rural, and transnational migration (Skeldon, 1997). According to statistics from UN DESA (2013), the number of international migrants worldwide was approximately 232 million. Of this figure, 59 percent were located in developed regions while the

remaining 41 percent were in developing regions, with half of the total representing female migrant workers. The trend of migration has shifted towards female migrant workers since the late 1990s. Analysis of migration data spanning six decades reveals an increasing trend in the flow of female migrant workers, with an annual increase of around 0.2 percent since 1960. The proportion of female migrant workers has steadily risen from 47.2 percent in 1970 to approximately 49 percent in 2010.

Another significant development in female migration is the rise of irregular migration. While irregular migration has long been a feature of male migration, in recent years, an increasing number of women have been migrating irregularly, often for economic reasons (Piper, 2017). This has led to a range of challenges for female migrants, including increased vulnerability to exploitation and abuse. Irregular female migration is a complex phenomenon that has been prevalent in Africa for several decades. This type of migration is characterized by the lack of proper documentation and the use of illegal channels to move from one location to another. Women make up a significant proportion of irregular migrants in Africa, and their reasons for undertaking such a risky journey vary from economic reasons to political and social factors. One of the factors contributing to irregular female migration in Africa is poverty. In many African countries, women are disproportionately affected by poverty, and they often lack access to employment opportunities and social services. This leads many women to seek better economic opportunities elsewhere, including in other African countries and Europe, through irregular migration. Studies have shown that women who migrate irregularly are more likely to come from poorer households and have lower levels of education than their male counterparts (Adepoju, 2006).

Another factor contributing to irregular female migration in Africa is the lack of legal channels for migration. Many African countries have restrictive migration policies that make it difficult for people to migrate legally. As a result, irregular migration becomes the only viable option for many women who seek to move to other countries for work or other reasons. Furthermore, the cost of obtaining legal migration documents, such as visas and work permits, can be prohibitively expensive for many women, which further fuels the demand for irregular migration (Mangala, 2016). Gender-based violence and

discrimination are also significant factors driving irregular female migration in Africa. Women who face abuse and discrimination in their home countries may seek to escape to other countries through irregular channels. Furthermore, women who migrate irregularly are often subjected to various forms of violence and exploitation, including sexual abuse, forced labor, and human trafficking (Adepoju, 2006).

Finally, conflicts and political instability in many African countries have also been a significant factor in irregular female migration. Women who are displaced from their homes due to conflict may seek to flee to other countries, including neighboring African countries and Europe, through irregular channels. However, they are often subjected to various forms of violence and exploitation along the way (Mangala, 2016). Although it is apparent that a lot of scholarly works have been done on female migration but there exists a noticeable gap in the migratory processes and livelihood activities of female migrant workers in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State, it is on this premise that the present study is hinged on.

2.2.5 Migratory Processes of Female Migrant Workers

Migratory processes are often complex and multifaceted, involving a range of factors that influence the decision to migrate. One of the main factors that drive migration is economic opportunities, and this is particularly true for female migrant workers. Migratory processes refer to the various stages and steps involved in the movement of people from one location to another. These processes may be voluntary or forced and may involve both internal and international migration (Osabohien, Beecroft and Uwubanmwun, 2021). The stages involved in migratory processes include the decision to migrate, preparation and planning for migration, the actual movement or travel, and resettlement and adjustment to the new location. The decision to migrate can be influenced by various factors such as economic opportunities, political instability, environmental factors, or social factors. The decision-making process may involve individual or family decisions, and it may also involve consultation with friends, relatives, or other members of the community. (IOM, 2020)

Migratory processes can be further categorized into different types based on various factors, including the distance covered, the purpose of migration, and the duration of stay.

One way to categorize migratory processes is based on the distance covered, which includes international migration, internal migration, and local migration. International migration involves the movement of people across national borders, either permanently or temporarily, with the intention of settling or working in a foreign country. According to the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA, 2020), there were an estimated 272 million international migrants worldwide in 2019, representing 3.5% of the global population. Many factors contribute to international migration, including economic, social, and political factors, such as seeking better job opportunities, reuniting with family members, or fleeing conflict or persecution.

Internal migration, on the other hand, involves the movement of people within a country, either from rural to urban areas or from one region to another. In Nigeria, for instance, internal migration is driven by various factors, including economic opportunities, education, and social amenities, as well as conflicts and insecurity in certain regions. According to the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), the rate of internal migration in Nigeria increased from 12.8 percent in 2009 to 14.3 percent in 2017. (National Bureau of Statistics, 2018)

Local migration, also known as short-distance migration, involves the movement of people within a local area or community, typically for daily or seasonal activities such as farming, fishing, or trading. While local migration may not involve significant distances or complex processes, it can still have important implications for the livelihoods of individuals and communities. Female migrant workers in rural areas are involved in various migratory processes, which are driven by multiple factors. One of the primary reasons for migration is the search for better economic opportunities and livelihoods. Women who migrate from rural areas to urban centers or other rural areas in search of work usually come from poor households with limited access to resources and opportunities. They migrate to improve their economic situation and support their families back home (Okafor, 2014).

The migratory process of female migrant workers in rural areas is also influenced by social and cultural factors. For instance, in some parts of Nigeria, it is considered taboo for women to migrate alone or without the support of their families. Therefore, some

women migrate with their families or as part of a larger social network. Such networks provide emotional support and access to information about job opportunities and other resources (Adepoju, 2016). The migratory processes of female migrant workers in rural areas are affected by gender-specific challenges. Women who migrate for work often face discrimination and exploitation in the workplace, as well as social stigma and violence. For instance, some women who work as domestic servants or factory workers may be subjected to long working hours, low wages, and poor working conditions. They may also face sexual harassment or other forms of gender-based violence (ILO, 2013).

Another important factor that influences migratory processes of female migrant workers in rural areas is the education level. Women with low levels of education are more likely to migrate for work than those with higher levels of education. This is because they have limited access to formal employment opportunities and are often forced to seek work in the informal sector (Adepoju, 2016). Moreover, female migrant workers in rural areas often face challenges in accessing social services, such as healthcare and education, which can affect their wellbeing and the wellbeing of their families. They may also face challenges in accessing credit and other financial services, which can limit their ability to invest in their own businesses and improve their economic situation (Okafor, 2014).

The relationship between migration and rural development is a factor that must be considered. Migration can have both positive and negative impacts on rural areas. On one hand, migration can lead to increased remittances, which can contribute to local economic development and improve living standards for those who stay behind. On the other hand, migration can also lead to a brain drain, as skilled workers leave rural areas for better opportunities elsewhere (Adepoju, 2016). Migration is an important phenomenon in West Africa, particularly in Nigeria where there are high levels of internal migration, including rural-rural migration. Ondo State has experienced significant rural-rural migration in recent years, particularly as a result of economic and environmental factors (Adenegan and Udo, 2018)

The migratory process in West Africa, particularly Nigeria, is often influenced by economic factors such as lack of employment opportunities and poverty (Okafor, 2014). This is particularly true for rural areas where there are limited job opportunities and lack

of access to basic social amenities. In Ondo State, for instance, the migration pattern is driven by the search for greener pastures and better living conditions (Akinbode and Obamiro, 2019). Environmental factors, such as climate change, also play a significant role in rural-rural migration in West Africa. Drought and desertification have led to the displacement of people from rural areas in search of more habitable environments (Welle and Birkmann, 2018). In Nigeria, the degradation of the Niger Delta region as a result of oil exploration and pollution has also contributed to rural-rural migration (Orubu & Omofonmwan, 2016).

Rural-rural migration is a significant phenomenon in West Africa, particularly in Nigeria and Ondo State, driven by economic and environmental factors. The migratory process is complex and influenced by various social, economic, and environmental factors, which have significant implications for development in the region. Rural-rural migration in Nigeria is driven by factors such as search for employment, better agricultural opportunities, and access to social amenities such as health facilities and education (Oladele et al, 2019). The study showed that rural-rural migrants tend to move from poorer and less developed areas to more prosperous and developed rural areas, where they can have better access to resources and opportunities.

Urban-rural migration in Nigeria highlights that migration is driven by economic factors such as lack of job opportunities and high cost of living in cities (Osabohien et al; 2021). Urban migrants return to rural areas in search of agricultural opportunities and a lower cost of living. Migratory processes of female migrant workers in Ondo State, Nigeria have been studied by several scholars (Akinbode & Obamiro, 2019; Bello, 2018; Fasakin, 2018; Ojo and Oyelere, 2020, Ola-David, 2017) and showed that female migrant workers in Ondo State are mainly involved in informal sector activities such as trading, hairdressing, and food vending. These women migrate from other states in Nigeria, such as Ekiti, Osun, and Lagos, to Ondo State in search of better economic opportunities (Bello, 2018). The migration of female workers in Nigeria is often motivated by the need to supplement household income (Adepoju and Adepoju, 2018). Many of these women are the sole breadwinners of their families and are motivated to migrate by the desire to provide for their families (Ojo and Oyelere, 2020). However, migration can have negative

impacts on the migrants, such as increased vulnerability to exploitation, sexual harassment, and other forms of abuse (Adebayo, 2021)

In Ondo State, female migrant workers face additional challenges due to their gender. These challenges include limited access to credit and finance, lack of support from local authorities, and social stigma (OgunsinaandAkinbobola, 2017). Despite these challenges, female migrant workers in Ondo State have been able to carve out a niche for themselves in the informal sector. They have formed informal networks that provide them with support and opportunities for economic advancement (OgunsinaandAkinbobola, 2017).The migratory processes of female migrant workers in Ondo State are complex and are influenced by a variety of factors, including economic opportunities, household income, and gender-based challenges. Further research is needed to fully understand the dynamics of female labour migration in Nigeria.

2.2.6 Factors Responsible for Migratory Patterns

Migration has been a fundamental phenomenon that has significantly shaped the continent's social, economic, and cultural dynamics. Africa has a rich history of migration, influenced by diverse factors such as economic opportunities, political changes, environmental conditions, and social dynamics (Adepoju, 2006; Fasakin, 2019; Okafor, 2014). Migratory processes in Africa have been deeply intertwined with trade routes, colonialism, and natural resource distribution across the continent (Tsegaye andAzzarri, 2014). Migratory processes are shaped by both internal movements within and migration flows to and from other regions (Ogunbameru, 2018; Osaghae andSuberu, 2005).

Over time, migratory processes in Africa have evolved into more structured and predictable migratory patterns due to various factor (Mangala, 2016; Welle and Birkmann; 2018). Urbanization and industrial development have led to the emergence of structured migratory patterns in Africa. Rapid urbanization, driven by economic opportunities and better living conditions in cities, has attracted rural migrants in search of employment (Crush andTevera, 2014). This has resulted in predictable patterns of rural-to-urban migration and the formation of urban-based communities (Amadi, 2017;

Ikelegbe, 2013). Additionally, rural-urban migration has been driven by the allure of urban centers and the promise of better economic prospects.

Rapid urbanization and industrial development have led to the emergence of structured migratory patterns in Nigeria. Urban centers like Lagos, Abuja, and Port Harcourt have attracted migrants from rural areas in search of employment, education, and better living conditions (Falola and Heaton, 2008; Owusu, 2006). This has resulted in predictable patterns of rural-to-urban migration, leading to the formation of urban-based communities and economic hubs. Cultural ties, ethnic networks, and regional mobility have influenced migratory patterns in Nigeria (Akinbode and Obamiro, 2019; Chukwuezi and Udeaja, 2019; Ogunbameru, 2018). Some migratory patterns are shaped by historical, cultural affiliations or ethnic networks that foster migration between specific regions. For instance, the movement of people from the northern region to southern Nigeria for trading or educational purposes has informed a strain of migratory pattern (Adepoju, 1995). Additionally, cross-border migrations to neighboring countries within the West African region have been influenced by cultural, linguistic, and economic ties.

Nigeria as a whole, not excluding the southwest geopolitical zone has been affected by historical event such as trade routes and commerce in the precolonial era, colonial administration, and post-independence developments hence influencing migratory patterns in Southwest Nigeria. Economic disparities within the region, varying job opportunities, and the pursuit of better livelihoods are some of the factors that drive internal migration. For instance, the development of agriculture and the cocoa industry in Southwest Nigeria during the colonial period attracted migrants from other parts of the country seeking employment and economic prospects (Aderinto, 2011; Fasakin, 2018; Oladele et al, 2019). Cultural ties, ethnic networks, and regional mobility have influenced migratory patterns in Southwest Nigeria. Historical cultural affiliations, shared languages, and ethnic networks have fostered migration between specific regions within Southwest Nigeria. For example, the Yoruba ethnic group, which is predominant in Southwest Nigeria, has a history of migration within the region, driven by cultural ties, trade, and educational pursuits (Afolayan, 2014; Onuoha & Ezeh, 2019). These cultural influences

have contributed to the formation of migratory patterns centered on specific regions or ethnic groups.

Over time, migratory processes in Southwest Nigeria have transformed into more structured and predictable migratory patterns due to various factors. Rapid urbanization and economic development have led to the emergence of structured migratory patterns in Southwest Nigeria. Urban centers such as Lagos, Ibadan, and Abeokuta have experienced significant population growth due to the concentration of economic opportunities, education, and infrastructure (Akinjogbin, 1999). This has resulted in predictable patterns of rural-to-urban migration, leading to the formation of urban-based communities and economic hubs. The migratory processes have been shaped by both internal movements within the local government area and migration flows from neighboring areas (Ogunsanwo& Babalola, 2021). Agricultural development, infrastructural developments, and urbanization have influenced migration patterns in Ondo West Local Government Area (Oluborode, 2018). The presence of economic opportunities has played a significant role in shaping migratory patterns in Ondo West Local Government Area. Economic disparities within the area, varying job opportunities, and the search for better livelihoods have driven internal migration. For instance, the presence of agricultural activities, such as farming and trading of agricultural products, has attracted migrants from neighboring areas in search of employment and economic prospects (Adebusuyi, 2020). Additionally, the availability of industries, commercial activities, and government institutions in Ondo West Local Government Area has influenced migration patterns.

Infrastructural development, urbanization, socio-cultural factors have influenced migratory patterns in Ondo West Local Government Area. Cultural affiliations, shared languages, and social networks have fostered migration within the area. Cultural ties and traditional practices, such as family ties, marriage, and community support systems, can influence the choice of migration destinations within Ondo West Local Government Area (Olayemi, 2017; Babatunde and Afolayan, 2020). These socio-cultural influences contribute to the formation of migratory patterns centered around specific communities or social networks.

2.3 The Feminization of Migration

The growing tendency of women and girls making up a sizable share of the migratory population both inside and outside of geographical areas is known as the "feminization of migration". Due to its extensive ramifications for both gender dynamics and development, this phenomena has drawn attention in academic literature and policy discussions. There has been a noticeable rise in the number of Nigerian women and girls traveling in recent decades, both domestically and abroad. The increase of Nigerian women working abroad, especially in the Gulf, Europe, and North America, is a reflection of this trend (Afolayan, Ikwuyatum & Abejide, 2011; Awumbila, 2015; Lipszyc, 2014). Nigerian women participate in a variety of migratory activities, such as international labor migration, domestic rural-to-urban migration, urban-rural migration, rural-to-rural migration, and relocation as a result of armed conflicts and natural catastrophes. Each of these kinds has distinct traits and motivations.

The feminization of migration is mostly driven by economic concerns. Women are driven to look for work overseas, notably in the domestic service, healthcare, and other industries, due to the high unemployment rate and restricted economic possibilities in Nigeria (Ogunbameru, 2018; Olaleye, Ogunboye & Olanusi, 2014). Family and social dynamics also play a part. While some women are sent by their families as remittances from female migrants may be sizable and add to household income, others go to join family members who have previously migrated. Gender-based discrimination and limited access to education and employment opportunities in Nigeria push women to seek better prospects in areas outside their previous places of residence (Labadie-Jackson, 2008; Awumbila, 2015). The different forms of religious and political conflicts in Nigeria's North-East and other regions has displaced many women and girls, forcing them to seek safety and livelihoods elsewhere (Adebayo, 2021; Chukwuezi & Ogden, 2014).

The availability of possibilities to earn better earnings than may be feasible in the migrant's source location might be considered as a way for migration to contribute to the economic empowerment of the migrant and the enhancement of the well-being of the relatives left behind (UN DESA, 2020). After relocating, many women acquire new knowledge and experiences that improve their chances generally should they decide to go

back to their original regions. Remittances are frequently sent by female migrants to their families after they leave, which may be a crucial source of income for families and help reduce poverty (National Bureau of Statistics, 2018; Okafor, 2014). As they obtain control over their life and finances via migration, women may experience an increase in autonomy and independence (Akinbode & Obamiro, 2019). Women who migrate are exposed to a wide range of cultures and networks, which broadens their perspectives and may encourage cross-border trade and cultural interaction. In the long term, more equal gender relations may result from the experience of migration challenging established gender roles and conventions (Adewale, 2019; Donato, Piya & Jacobs, 2018).

One interesting trend in Nigeria is the rural-to-urban migration of young and adult women in quest of better economic prospects. Nigeria's fast urbanization has resulted in increased migration of women from rural to urban regions, with main destinations being Lagos, Abuja, and Port Harcourt (Awumbila, 2014; Ejiofor, 2017). This movement is frequently motivated by a desire for formal work, education, and access to services. Many young Nigerian women relocate on their own to pursue further education, vocational training, or skill development programs. This is frequently viewed as a means of advancing one's career and personal development (Ekong, 2003; Onyeonoru & Agbontaen-Eghafona, 2015). Another pattern is for women to move independently in search of marriage. Even though it has been a long-standing custom in many Nigerian cultures, female migration is still significant because of this practice. Some Nigerian women who left the country in search of education or work opportunities later returned with fresh knowledge and experiences. This pattern aids in the transmission of information and skills and may improve national growth (Agunias, 2019). Autonomous female migrants in Nigeria occasionally start their own modest companies. They could launch enterprises in industries like commerce, services, or agriculture, aiding in the growth of the local economy (Fayomi, 2018).

It's essential to recognize that the trend of autonomous female migration in Nigeria is multifaceted, driven by various factors, including economic, social, and cultural. While migration offers opportunities for personal development and empowerment, it also poses

challenges such as gender-based discrimination, exploitation, and the need for effective policy measures to protect the rights and well-being of female migrants.

2.4 Characterization of Livelihood Activities

2.4.1 Livelihood Activities of Migrant Workers

The livelihood activities of female migrant workers vary widely across different regions and countries, and are shaped by a range of factors, including their skills, education, and social networks, as well as local labor market conditions and legal frameworks. The employment sectors in which female migrant workers are engaged vary widely across different regions and countries. In many cases, women work in low-skilled and low-paying jobs in sectors such as domestic work, agriculture, and manufacturing (International Labour Organization, 2018). However, women also work in higher-skilled and higher-paying sectors such as healthcare, education, and information technology, particularly in countries with strong economies and education systems (Kofman and Raghuram, 2019). The economic conditions of the countries that female migrant workers reside in also play a significant role in shaping their livelihood activities. In some countries, there may be a shortage of jobs, particularly in certain sectors such as healthcare and construction, which can limit employment opportunities for women (OECD, 2019).

In Asia, the skills and qualifications of female migrant workers also play a significant role in shaping their livelihood activities. Many migrant women in Asia have low levels of education and limited job skills, which can limit their employment options to low-skilled and low-paying jobs (United Nations Women, 2018). However, some women are highly skilled and educated, and may work in sectors such as healthcare, education, and finance (Lee, 2017). Education is a crucial factor that influences the livelihood activities of female migrant workers particularly in Africa and North America. Women with higher levels of education may have more employment opportunities and access to better-paying jobs. However, many migrant women may lack formal education, which can limit their job

prospects and earning potential (Gomberg-Muñoz, 2016) (African Development Bank Group, 2019)

The skills and qualifications of female migrant workers also play a significant role in shaping their livelihood activities. Many migrant women in Europe have low levels of education and limited job skills, which can limit their employment options to low-skilled and low-paying jobs (Eurostat, 2019). However, some women are highly skilled and educated, and may work in sectors such as healthcare, education, and finance (Kofman, 2019; Lee, 2017; Piper, 2018; Gomberg-Muñoz, 2016). Many female migrant workers are also engaged in the informal economy, which includes activities such as street vending, home-based work, and small-scale farming (United Nations, 2015).

In some countries, the informal economy accounts for a significant share of female migrant workers' livelihoods, particularly in urban areas where formal employment opportunities are limited (Standing, 2019). Social networks play a key role in shaping the livelihood activities of female migrant workers. Women may rely on friends, family members, or other migrants from their home country for job leads and support in navigating the local labor market (Piper, 2018; IOM, 2018). These networks can also provide access to informal credit and other resources that are important for starting small businesses and other livelihood activities (Koser and Pinkerton 2019; Levitt and Jaworsky, 2007).

The legal frameworks that govern migrant workers' rights and protections also play a critical role in shaping their livelihood activities. In many countries, female migrant workers are subject to discriminatory laws and policies that limit their ability to work, access social services, and organize collectively (Hagan, 2019). However, some countries have taken steps to improve legal protections for migrant workers, such as by providing pathways to citizenship, extending labor rights, and reducing restrictions on the mobility of migrant workers (ILO, 2019).

Undocumented migrant women face numerous barriers to employment, including limited access to social services, fear of deportation, and exploitation by employers (IOM, 2017;

ILO, 2017; Gammage, 2019; IOM, 2020). On the other hand, women who have legal status and work permits may have access to better-paying and more secure jobs, as well as social protections such as healthcare and pensions (EUAFR, 2018; ADB, 2018; UNDP, 2019; Bernstein, 2019). The economic conditions of the countries that female migrant workers reside in also play a significant role in shaping their livelihood activities. In some countries, there may be a shortage of jobs, particularly in certain sectors such as healthcare and construction, which can limit employment opportunities for women (OECD, 2019). On the other hand, countries with strong economies and labor markets may offer better-paying and more secure jobs for women.

Cultural norms can also shape the livelihood activities of female migrant workers in Asia. For example, women may face barriers to employment in certain sectors or face discrimination based on their gender or ethnicity (Human Rights Watch, 2019; United Nations Human Rights Council, (2019). On the other hand, some cultural norms may also provide support and opportunities for women, such as through the establishment of women's networks or the promotion of women's entrepreneurship (UNDP, 2017; 2019).

Additionally, some women may experience difficulty in accessing childcare, which can limit their ability to work outside of the home (Chakravarty and Cantwell, 2018; Omilola, 2018). Language barriers can also affect the livelihood activities of female migrant workers in South America. Many women who migrate to South America may not speak the local language, which can limit their employment options and their ability to navigate the local labor market (Kofman, 2018). However, some women may find employment in sectors such as domestic work or agriculture, where language skills are less critical (UNW, 2018; Guzman and Kalil, 2019).

Female migrant workers in South America engage in a variety of livelihood activities, including domestic work, agriculture, and small business ownership (UNW, 2018; CSG, 2019). Domestic work is a particularly common employment option for female migrant workers, as it is often informal and does not require advanced language skills (ILO, 2018). Many women also work in the agricultural sector, either as wage laborers or as small-scale farmers. Additionally, some women may start their own small businesses, often in sectors such as food service or retail (ILO, 2019)

West Africa is home to a significant population of female migrant workers who engage in a variety of livelihood activities. Domestic work is a common employment option for female migrant workers in West Africa, particularly in urban areas. Many women work as cleaners, nannies, or cooks in households. However, domestic work is often informal, and workers may not have access to legal protections or social benefits (ILO, 2020). Agriculture is another important sector for female migrant workers in West Africa, particularly in rural areas. Women work as laborers, harvesters, and traders in agricultural markets (IOM, 2019; UNDP, 2019). However, agricultural work is often seasonal and may not provide stable income throughout the year, within this period, migrant workers could resort to a secondary livelihood different from agriculture or farming, and some would go to the urban centers in search for source of livelihood within this period but return back to the rural settlements during agricultural peak periods.

In West Africa, there is the prevalence of women who are involved in cross-border trade, buying and selling goods such as food, clothing, and electronics. Women may also engage in informal trading, selling goods in markets or on the streets and some engage in petty market business where there is no capital to start their business as head portage. (UNDP, 2019). Some of these female migrant workers work in the healthcare sector, particularly as nurses, midwives, or community health workers. However, healthcare work is often undervalued and underpaid, and workers may lack access to training and resources (WHO, 2019). Women in Nigeria work as hairdressers, makeup artists, and beauty therapists. These jobs often require skills and training, but they can be lucrative and provide a stable income for workers (Olajide, 2019). While others engage in the artisanal sector, such as weaving, pottery, and bead-making, this is particular to female migrants in southwest Nigeria. These skills are often passed down through generations and provide a source of income for women (Adeyemi, 2016).

2.4.2 Livelihood Diversification among Rural Households

Livelihood diversification means accomplishing livelihood from a wide range of sources of income. It is, all the more, frequently conjured in the rural setting to suggest diversification away from farming as the essential methods for survival in the rural areas (Ellis, 2000). With regards to rural livelihood, diversification can be characterized as the

procedure employed by rural families to endure and improve their way of life by building variety of household portfolios and resources. It is becoming more apparent that rural households in Nigeria are expanding into non-formal activities as a means of improving livelihoods (Asmah, 2011; Khatum and Roy; 2012). In developing countries, income is unstable and they tend to develop different complex strategies to succeed (Clemen and Ogden, 2014; Olujimi, 2008).

The reasons that family units or people seek diversification as a livelihood methodology are based on needs or decision. Need refers to automatic and distress explanations behind diversification (Forisa, 2014). Decision, on the other hand, means deliberate or proactive explanations behind diversification. The broadening of rural livelihood can be characterized into three exercises which are Farm Exercises, Off-Farm and Non-Farm Exercises (Ellis, 2000). Farm exercises can produce income from agricultural activities, regardless of whether on proprietor involved land, or land got through buying or rentage. It encompasses farm animals, crop pay and involves both utilization in-sort of claimed farm yield and the money obtained from sold yields (Forisa, 2014; Mustapha 2009). Off-farm exercises encompass wage or labour on other farms and within the realm of agribusiness. It includes work installments; for example, harvest- share frameworks and other non-wage work contracts. It likewise incorporates pay acquired from neighborhood ecological assets, for like kindling, charcoal, house building materials, wild plants, etc, in which these can be estimated and a worth joined to them (Forisa, 2014).

Non-farm pay incorporates non-agrarian income sources. Generally, it may be characterized into a few classifications: which are non-farm rural pay or salary work; non-farm rural independent employment also known as business income, rental pay got from renting land or property; urban-to-rural remittances emerging within national boundaries, other urban exchanges to rural families, such as, pension to retirees and international remittance emerging from cross-outskirt and abroad migration (Forisa, 2014). Elmhirst (2002) included that numerous rural livelihoods are portrayed by support in non-farm work by applying multi-nearby livelihood. It implies that earnings are created from work topographically far off spots, as individuals look for an individual spatial fix to the vulnerabilities of life particularly in rural area. Many female migrant workers have

utilized the livelihood diversification strategy given that it is seen as helping to spread risks and manage uncertainty, especially when such activities do not rely on the same resources. It is also viewed as a measure that aids in dealing with inadequacies caused by flaws and failures in a major source of income (Ellis, 2000; Forisa, 2014; IMF, 2017). Many rural women rely on a combination of activities to meet their daily needs. The ability of the rural poor to make income diversification is crucial to their survival. This is on the grounds that poor households are more vulnerable than wealthier families. It is likewise brought about by the absence of asset of poor family units; they are possibly landless or close to being landless, and have few or no livestock, with the goal that the poor must diversify their salary sources so as to survive (Ellis, 2000).

2.4.3 Remittances as outcome of Livelihood Activities

There are various outcomes: positive and negative, derivable from livelihood activities embarked upon by female migrant workers. Remittance is one of the positive results of these movements (Adams, 2005; Adams et al, 2005; Otupuru, 2014). Remittance is the segment of migrant laborers' income sent from the target nation where employed to the origin of the migration, which assume a focal role in the livelihood of numerous families and have turned into a point of convergence in the progressing discussion concerning the suitability and supportability of this livelihood choice (Ratha, 2003).

Remittances are a significant outcome of migration, particularly for migrants who move from rural areas to urban areas or other countries. Remittances refer to the transfer of money, goods, or services by migrants to their families or communities of origin. In many cases, remittances are a vital source of income for families left behind by migrant workers, especially those living in rural areas where access to jobs and economic opportunities is limited.

Migrant workers' remitting behavior can be categorized into three types: regular, irregular, and occasional. Regular remitters are migrants who consistently send money back to their home country at fixed intervals, often monthly or bi-monthly. This type of remitting behavior is generally more stable and predictable, providing a reliable source of income for the recipient families. Irregular remitters, on the other hand, send money infrequently and unpredictably. This type of remitting behavior is often influenced by the

migrant worker's employment status and earnings. Occasional remitters are migrants who only send money back to their home country on special occasions, such as holidays or family emergencies (Hossain & Mahmud, 2013).

Migrant workers' remitting behavior can also be influenced by factors such as the migrant worker's age, gender, marital status, and education level. A study by Hossain and Mahmud (2013) found that female migrant workers were more likely to engage in regular remitting behavior than male migrant workers. The study also found that migrant workers who were married with children were more likely to engage in regular remitting behavior than single migrant workers. Furthermore, the study found that migrant workers with higher education levels were more likely to engage in regular remitting behavior than those with lower education levels.

According to the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), rural areas receive a substantial amount of remittances from migrants, estimated at around \$500 billion annually (IFAD, 2019). This represents a significant contribution to the livelihoods of rural communities, as remittances can help reduce poverty, improve access to education and healthcare, and stimulate economic growth (Adams, 2009). Remittances are often linked to livelihood activities, such as agriculture and livestock production, in rural areas. Migrants may use their earnings to invest in their families' farms or businesses, buy livestock, or purchase agricultural inputs such as seeds and fertilizer (IFAD, 2019). In this way, remittances can contribute to the development of rural economies by promoting agricultural productivity and enhancing the resilience of rural communities (Ratha et al., 2011). However, there are also concerns that remittances may have negative effects on rural development. For instance, they may lead to a dependence on migrant earnings rather than promoting local economic growth and investment. Additionally, there may be a brain drain effect, where skilled workers migrate to urban areas or other countries, leaving rural areas with a shortage of human capital (Adams, 2009).

However, according to the World Bank's latest report on remittance flows, global remittances are expected to reach \$553 billion in 2021 and \$574 billion in 2022, representing a growth rate of 1.6 percent and 3.8 percent respectively (World Bank, 2021). It's worth noting that the COVID-19 pandemic has had a significant impact on

remittance flows in many countries. Nonetheless, remittances continue to be a crucial source of income for many families and communities around the world. According to the World Bank, remittance inflows to Sub-Saharan Africa were estimated to have declined by 5.4 percent to \$41 billion in 2021, due to the economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. However, the World Bank forecasts a rebound in 2022, with remittance inflows expected to increase by 3.9 percent to \$42.6 billion (World Bank, 2022). According to the World Bank, in 2020, the total remittance inflow into sub-Saharan Africa was \$48.6 billion USD, which is a 12.5 percent increase from the previous year (2019) when it was \$43.2 billion USD.

In comparison, the official development assistance (ODA) to sub-Saharan Africa in 2020 was \$44.3 billion USD, which is a 2.7 percent increase from the previous year (2019) when it was \$43.1 billion USD. This means that in 2020, remittances exceeded the amount of ODA to sub-Saharan Africa by \$4.3 billion USD. It is worth noting that remittances are private transfers from individuals living and working abroad to their families and friends back home, while ODA is official assistance provided by governments and international organizations to support development initiatives in recipient countries (World Bank Migration and Development Brief, 2021; OECD, 2022).

According to the World Bank's Migration and Development Brief, remittances to Nigeria totaled \$17.2 billion in 2020, a decline of 27.7 percent from the previous year due to the economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic (World Bank, 2021). As of 2021, there is no available data on remittances to Nigeria for that year. According to the Central Bank of Nigeria, the total remittances inflow to Nigeria in 2021 was \$26.3 billion (CBN, 2022). In comparison, the total Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) inflow to Nigeria in 2021 was \$2.6 billion (UNCTAD, 2022). This shows that remittances inflow into Nigeria is significantly higher than FDI inflow in the same year.

In developing countries, remittances are a crucial source of foreign exchange for many families. Although remittances cannot be considered a replacement for foreign direct investment (FDI) and other forms of official development assistance (ODA), they can help alleviate short-term foreign exchange requirements. Occasionally, other monetary flows may decline due to external factors. Several studies, such as Bouhga (2004) and

Mamba & Ratha (2005), have examined the importance of remittances in Morocco as a source of foreign exchange that can be positively utilized for development. Additionally, Ranjan and Subramanyam (2005) find that remittances have significantly contributed to local interest. However, few studies have evaluated the macroeconomic impact of remittances on employment in recipient countries.

According to Frank (2001), the receipt of global remittances by families significantly reduces their labor efforts, while Rodriguez and Tiongson (2001) suggest that remittances reduce labor supply. However, these studies do not consider the endogeneity of remittances in relation to labor supply. Rodriguez and Tiongson (2001) propose that, in the event of migration, non-migrant family members receive remittances, which they view as additional non-labor income. An increase in non-labor income then decreases their participation in local labor markets. In contrast to these studies, Cox-Edwards and Rodriguez-Oreggia (2006) found that remittances have no effect on the labor supply of household members in Mexico. However, on a macro level, when the inflow of remittances is used for investment, non-migrant families benefit by seeking employment.

The effects of migration are not only experienced by the migrants themselves who maintain a continuous connection with their source region, but also by those who remain in the source region. Remittances are a significant outcome of migration and a driving force for improving the socioeconomic well-being of households, leading to an increase in wages and income, improved employment opportunities, technological advancements, better access to social amenities, and advancements in labor and agriculture (Ikwuyatum, 2006). The International Organization for Migration (IOM) in 2006 and 2018, as well as the World Bank in 2006, has documented substantial annual remittances from economic migrants in Nigeria, particularly on an international level.

2.5 Rural Development Projects and Schemes as Pull Factors for Migration.

Various attempts have been made in Nigeria through rural and agricultural development programmes to raise rural income and livelihood opportunities for potential migrants. Most of the rural developments programmes however, tend to disproportionately benefit those who are already better-off and seriously neglect the most disadvantaged groups,

thereby widening the socio-economic gap within the rural areas (Asaju, 2017; Ogunbameru, 2018). An example is that of farm mechanization which, though often, leads to increased productivity and income for the large farmers but brings unemployment to the tenant farmers and farm workers, especially female migrant workers in the rural areas, on which production once depended (Nchchuweand Adejumo, 2012).

The Federal Government recognized the importance of improving the overall living conditions in the rural areas with the intention of reducing rural-urban migration among others. Rural development was first introduced by government as a means of ensuring national development in 1971 (Babangida, 2006; Fadayomi, 1998). The World Bank made recommendations based on an agricultural survey of the country and the Federal government embarked on the implementation of three pilot integrated agricultural and rural development projects in Funtua, Gusau and Gombe in 1975.

These pilot schemes were sponsored by the Federal government, with partnerships with the affected State governments and the World Bank. In 1978/79, five additional pilot schemes were established in Lafia, Ayangba, Ilorin, Oyo North and Ekiti-Akoko (Asaju, 2017; Babangida, 2006). By 1980, the positive impact of the projects on agricultural production and rural development had become so evident that it became advantageous to duplicate the projects across the Federation. The concept signaled the main thrust of efforts made by government at stimulating increased food production and enhancing the earnings of the rural population.

The major objective of the Federal Government towards the development of rural areas during the previous plan periods were executed on the platform of the various Agricultural Development Projects (Adepoju and Obayelu, 2013; Nkom, 2000). The influence of the Agricultural Development Projects in rural areas was restricted mostly to agricultural production as the program did not embrace the construction of socio-economic infrastructures that would augment the quality of life of settlers in the rural areas. The implementation of this phase of rural development became effective in 1986 with the establishment of the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) (Asaju, 2017; Fadayomi, 1998). The scheme was established through Decree No. 4 of 1987 and saddled with the responsibility of implementing rural development

activities that were geared towards the amelioration of the inequalities in social and economic infrastructures between the country's urban and the rural areas. The primary responsibility was the improvement of the living and working conditions of the rural masses through the provision of basic social and economic infrastructures which in turned increased the available livelihood opportunities (Nchchuwe and Adejumo, 2012; Oladele, Omonoma & Adenegan, 2012).

The rural development schemes are multi-sectored as they are programmed to complement the activities of the other agencies with a view to achieving a more inclusive and incorporated strategy in the achievement of the general well-being and living conditions of the rural populace. The agency, at inception, highlighted road construction as one of its major concerns in the rural areas (Adibe, 1995, Ogunsina and Akinbobola, 2017; Ola-David, 2017). It also has as one of its focal points the promotion of livestock farming, fishery, horticulture (fruit, trees and vegetable production), the provision of construction materials for rural housing and the provision of storage and processing services. Therefore, at the end of June 1988, the Directorate had constructed a total of 15,773 kilometres of roads in 16 states. Under the horticulture programme, some 6.2 million fruit seedlings and almost 4 tonnes of vegetables seedlings were produced as at June, 1989 (Fadayomi, 1998; Nnadi, Chikaire, Atoma, Egwuonwu and Echetama; 2012). The Directorate in collaboration with the Rural Agro Industrial Scheme, Ibadan, designed and fabricated a set of multi-fruit processing equipment which sorts, washes, homogenizes, pasteurizes and bottles various fruits including mangoes, tomatoes, pawpaw, guava etc. It also embarked on the provision of electricity to various rural communities in the country.

During its inception, Directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) was involved in a number of projects in the rural communities. These include the following: Rural infrastructures like roads, rural electrification and rural water supply, agricultural development, rural housing, health institution and mobilization of people for self help and self realization (Fadayomi, 1998; Nkom, 2000). Along the same line, Better Life for Rural Women embarked on the disbursement of soft loan to women, encouragement of cooperative societies for self help, and establishment of rural cottage industries for rural

women among others. Despite the somewhat appreciable success of DFRRRI and the Better Life Programme within their few years of existence, there are still a number of problems and bottlenecks which seem to have reduced the impact of the programmes in the upliftment of the socio-economic lives of the people in the rural areas. For example, most rural roads are not tarred and these roads are susceptible to run-offs whenever there is heavy rainfall. Added to this, is that owing to the light traffic on the roads, the unused part of the roads get weedy from time to time and required constant weeding if the roads are to be used for all seasons.

Nonetheless the establishment of DFRRRI seemed to be a major improvement on rural development drive in Nigeria and Ondo State. DFRRRI succeeded the immediate challenges of tackling serious problem of rural poverty and underdevelopment, among others. It also achieved rapid and dramatic rural development and transformation in Ondo State during its short period of existence. It is also pertinent to note the contribution of the Better Life for Rural Dwellers particularly in enhancing the capability of rural women in Ondo State to be fully involved in developmental activities and cooperative organizations. The Better Life programme helped the rural women to identify suitable machines and equipment for agro-allied small/medium scale industrial projects. All these were indication that the state government had realized the importance of rural settlements, the rural women and rural development as vital instruments of any meaningful strategy for the development of the nation.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

2.6.1 Push-Pull Theory (LEE, 1966)

Lee's Push-Pull Theory of Migration (1966) is a widely recognized framework used to explain the factors that influence an individual's decision to migrate. This theory suggests that migration is caused by both the push factors, which compel individuals to leave their home country, and the pull factors, which attract them to the destination country. The pull factors stress the advantages and attractions produced by the opportunities and prosperities at the destination.

According to Lee, push factors are the negative conditions or circumstances that exist in an individual's home country that motivate them to migrate (Lee, 1966). The push factors

represent the deteriorating socio-economic conditions at the origin. These may include political instability, conflict, natural disasters, poverty, unemployment, and lack of access to basic services (Todaro & Smith, 2014). These conditions create a sense of dissatisfaction or discomfort, and individuals may feel compelled to migrate in search of better opportunities or a better quality of life.

According to Lee (1966), factors which influence a migrant's decision to migrate and the process of migration are factors associated with the areas of origin, factors associated with the area of destination, intervening obstacles and personal factors. The theory opines that there exists a direct relationship between the volume of migration and the socio-economic differences between the origin and destination.

On the other hand, pull factors are the positive conditions or opportunities that exist in the destination country that attract individuals to migrate. These may include better job prospects, higher wages, better living conditions, education, and opportunities for social and economic advancement (Todaro and Smith, 2014). These factors create a sense of optimism or hope, and individuals may feel drawn to the destination country in search of better opportunities. The push-pull migratory theory suggests that migration is not solely determined by the conditions or circumstances in the home country, but also by the opportunities and conditions available in the destination country (Portes & Rumbaut, 2001). The theory emphasizes that the decision to migrate is a complex process that involves the evaluation of both push and pull factors. However, the push-pull migratory theory has been criticized for its oversimplification of migration decision-making and its failure to account for the complexity of individual experiences and motivations for migration. For instance, it has been suggested that social networks, cultural factors, and family ties also play a crucial role in migration decision-making (Massey et al., 1993).

The model is useful because of its ability to analyze the motivation for migration of all kinds; however the model has been criticized for its mechanical handling of forces which attract potential migrants and for the assumption that an alternative locality has only either positive (attractive) forces or negative (repulsive) ones. Several studies (Afolayan 1991, 2011; Udo 1971, 1975, 1978; Murphy, 2002) asserted the relevance of the push-pull model to migration studies.

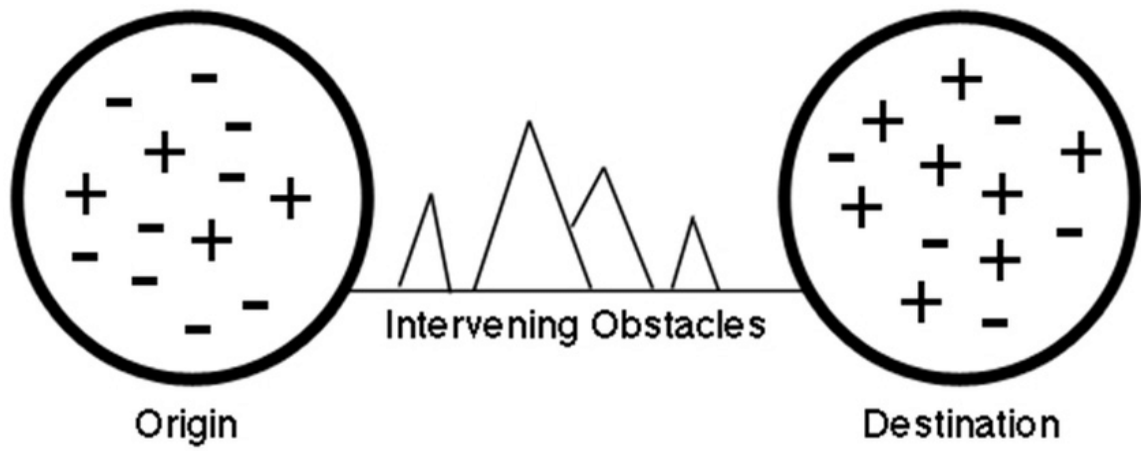


Fig 2.1 The Push-Pull Theory
(Source: Lee, 1966)

2.6.2 The Rural Livelihood System

Rural households in Nigeria employ different livelihood strategies and activities in a bid to increase their income and create wealth. It is becoming more apparent that rural households are expanding into non- farm activities as a means of improving livelihoods (Asmah, 2011). The Rural Livelihood System, propounded by Niehof (2001), establishes the crucial linkages that relate desired output (livelihood security) to the activities and means (inputs and throughputs) required to achieve it. The Livelihood System is embedded in a wider environment and interface with other systems. For rural livelihoods, the ecological, economic (markets) and socio-cultural environments are of particular importance. It is also noteworthy that people do not carry out livelihood activities in a haphazard manner, there exists strategies by which livelihood activities are structured and on the basis of which they are planned. These strategies are embedded in the system's throughput as the decision-making and management needed for strategy implementation.

The Rural Livelihood System encompasses the integrated whole of arrangements and activities carried out by households to achieve livelihood security including the resources and assets needed for this within the rural areas (Figure 2.2). Some of the activities that fall under rural livelihood include agriculture (cultivation, farming); animal herding including livestock farming; hunting and gathering, wage labour, trading and hawking, artisan work for example, weaving and carving; transport; fetching and carrying; bakery; and basket weaving. Livelihoods are an important part of human existence. For a population to survive there is need for livelihoods that would sustain and support their households.

Livelihoods, according to the Rural Livelihoods System, are determined by factors which range from unintended birth into a predisposed livelihood, gender, inherited livelihoods, spontaneous livelihoods, education and migration, wealth etc. The framework views the household as the locus of livelihood generation and the links between livelihoods and rural dwellers. Since livelihoods encompass the outcomes of activities people undertake to provide for their basic needs or surpass them, the framework discusses the

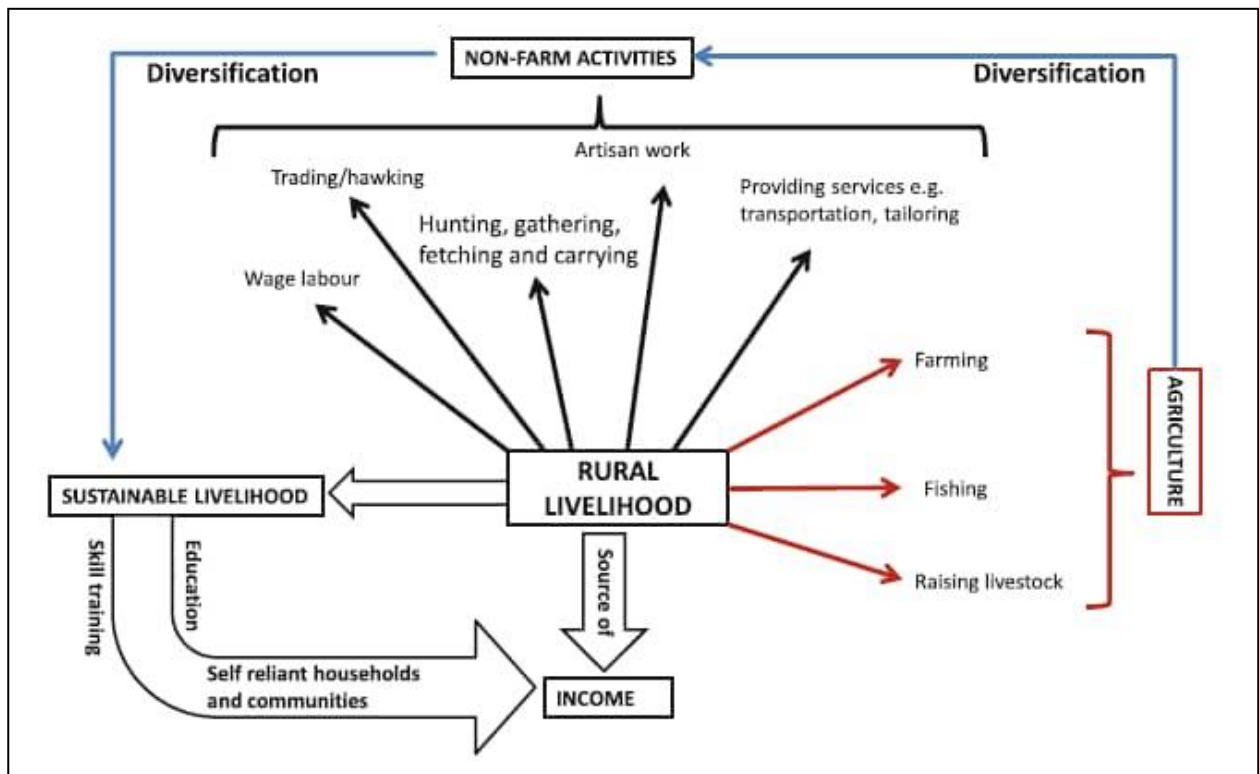


Fig 2.2 The Rural Livelihood System

(Source: Niehof, 2001)

inter-relationships that exist in the course of generating livelihoods. It displays the workings of a multifaceted and dynamic system by applying the ecosystem perspective, outputs are generated by using resources.

The assumptions the Rural Livelihood System are relevant to the study of livelihood activities of female migrant workers, especially in rural areas. Thus, the study of livelihood activities of female migrant workers in rural areas is conceptualized based on the rural livelihood system.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Chapter Overview

This chapter discusses the research methodology in terms of sampling framework and design, data collection methods, and analyses done. The chapter is divided into three sections, each of which describes the data sources, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

3.1 Types of Data Sources

This study made use of both primary and secondary data. Primary data were gathered using questionnaire forms (details can be found in the appendix) that revealed the socioeconomic characteristics of female migrant workers (age, gender, marital status, educational qualification, occupation prior to migration, household size and income), remittance, and place of origin. The data also included the time of arrival in the rural area (year/month), duration of absence from home, previous place of residence, and facilitator of movement. Data on female migrant workers' experiences and the different types of difficulties they faced were also gathered for analysis. In addition to the aforementioned, data were gathered on the different ways that relatives, the community, and government organizations responded and assisted, as well as on potential incentives needed to support sustainable livelihood in rural areas and the future plans and desires of the female migrant workers.

3.1.1 Primary Sources

The primary data for the study was obtained through extensive fieldwork in the study area. The administration of a structured questionnaire focusing on the socio-demographic characteristics of female migrant workers and questions associated with their involvement

in livelihood activities in the study area was the primary data collection instrument for this research. For the questionnaire administration, a multistage sampling technique was adopted, beginning with the purposeful selection of five rural political wards. Thereafter, six villages were selected randomly from each ward. Individual respondents for questionnaire administration were also chosen using systematic random sampling.

Due to the peculiarity of the study, a sample size that was skewed toward females was selected since the targeted respondents were mainly women. To ensure representation across the study area, respondents were selected from the five rural political wards in the study area. A total of 1047 respondents were sampled in the survey, using questionnaire schedule that was designed in open and close-ended and pre-coded form. The questionnaire comprised thirty-nine items which comprise topics on socio-economic characteristics, spatio-temporal pattern of migration, reasons for selecting specific rural area, livelihood activities, problems and prospects of livelihood activities.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first section comprised of information about the female migrant workers' socio-economic characteristics such as sex, age, marital status, educational qualification, household composition, the reason for migration, employment history and income. The second section was designed to gather information about the origin, mode of migration, duration of stay and remittances. The final section comprised of questions concerning the migration pattern, female migrant workers' periods of migration to their destination and the livelihood activities engaged in, with a special emphasis on their plan for sustainable livelihood, challenges encountered by female migrant workers in the rural areas and government intervention in the rural areas.

3.1.2 Secondary Sources

The population and lists of settlement used for the study were obtained from the National Population Commission. Population data, maps of the study area, and the estimated number of females residing in each village are examples of secondary data relevant to the objectives of this study. The list of rural settlements in the study area was extracted from the study area map, Population Commission (NPC), Ondo West Local Government Council; and the Interdependent National Electoral Commission (INEC) Database

(2015). Additionally, libraries and the internet provided related books, journals, atlases, and official publications (see list of references).

3.2 Research Design

The study adopted a survey research design, specifically the cross-sectional survey of respondents who are female migrant workers. The field survey was conducted in randomly selected rural settlements in Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State. Female migrants who reside in the selected rural areas form the study's target population. In the absence of the female head, the oldest female migrant worker in the household who is engaged in one or two productive activities and is above 18 years old was interviewed.

The field survey was divided into two parts, namely the reconnaissance visit to the study area and the main survey. The reconnaissance survey involved making contact with people in the study area to facilitate acceptance, making arrangements to employ support staff and testing of research instruments to check their validity. The main survey involved the actual administration of the questionnaires to randomly selected female migrant workers in the rural settlements of the study area.

3.3 Sampling Frame and Size

3.3.1 Selection of Settlements

Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State was purposively chosen for the research work because of the researcher's prior knowledge of a large presence of migrant workers due to the presence of cocoa and kolanut plantations in the area (Adedokun & Karzanova, 2019; ILO, 2022; Lawal & Okeowo, 2014; Oyewale & Olusanya, 2019), Ondo West Local Government Area was further sub divided into twelve political wards based on the Independent National Electoral Commission (2015) Directory. This became necessary so that there can be a distinction between the areas which can be classified as rural and urban. Seven of these political wards were categorized as urban since they are located within Ondo Township while the remaining five wards categorized as rural areas were purposively selected.

The following are a list of five wards which fall within the rural localities from which respondents were drawn:

- (a) Ward 2: Gbaghenga/Gbongbo/AjagbaAlaafia
- (b) Ward 4: Ilunla/ Bagbe/ Odowo I
- (c) Ward 5: Ilunla/ Bagbe/ Odowo II
- (d) Ward 6: Litaye/Obunkekere/Igbindo
- (e) Ward 12: Orisumbare/Araromi

Conclusively, six rural settlements were randomly selected from each of the five political wards in the study area. Hence, a total of thirty rural settlements were selected for consideration. The following are the randomly selected rural areas from each of wards.

(a) Gbaghenga/Gbongbo/AjagbaAlaafia

- i. Okesa
- ii. Ayetimbo
- iii. Ilutitun
- iv. Orisumbare
- v. Laje
- vi. Temidire.

(b) Ilunla/ Bagbe/ Odowo I

- i. Aponle
- ii. Igbado
- iii. Oloruntedo
- iv. Igunshin
- v. Kudola
- vi. Odowo

(c) Ilunla/ Bagbe/ Odowo II

- i. Fabusuwa
- ii. Modebiayo
- iii. OkeAlaafia
- iv. Olugbogi
- v. Mofere

- vi. Gbelewu
- (d) Litaye/Obunkekere/Igbindo
 - i. Okegbonawa
 - ii. Egure Oba
 - iii. OkeIpa
 - iv. OkeOnipetesi
 - v. Loyigbo
 - vi. Litaye
- (e) Orisumbare/Araromi
 - (i) Lekere
 - (ii) Abusoro
 - (iii) Igbokuta
 - (iv) Igbose
 - (v) Ikonja
 - (vi) OkeElebi

The projected population was derived from the 1991 population census using the expression:

$$P_1 = \frac{(r \times P \times N + P)}{100} \dots\dots\dots(3.1)$$

- Where P_1 = Projected Population
- P = population as at the last census
- N = number of years since the last census (12 years)
- r = annual growth rate (2.6%)

After a careful selection of settlements for the study, a systematic random sampling method was adopted in the selection of one thousand and forty-seven (1,047) adult females. The respondents were chosen in direct proportion to the population size of each settlement. Table 3.1 shows the number of respondents drawn from each ward. Two hundred and twenty respondents were sampled from Gbaghenha/Gbongbo/AjagbaAlaafia locality, two hundred and forty-nine (249) respondents from Ilunla/ Bagbe/ Odowo I; one

hundred and sixty-seven (167) respondents from Ilunla/ Bagbe/ Odowo II, two hundred and fifty-seven (257) from Litaye/Obunkekere/Igbindo and one hundred and forty-nine (149) respondents from Orisumbare/Araromirespectively.

Table 3.1: Selected rural villages and sample size

WARDS	VILLAGES	1991 TOTAL POPULATION	1991 MALE POPULATION	1991 FEMALE POPULATION	2018 PROJECTED FEMALE POPULATION	10% OF FEMALE PROJECTED POPULATION AS SAMPLE
WARD 2: Gbaghenga/G bongbo/Ajagba Alaafia	Okesa	229	116	113	226	23
	Ayetimbo	679	351	328	656	66
	Ilu Titun	603	331	272	544	54
	Orisumbare	104	57	47	94	9
	Laje	472	237	235	470	47
	Temidire	273	143	130	260	26
Total		2360	1235	1125	2250	225
Ward 4: Ilunla/ Bagbe/ Odowo I	Aponle	239	119	120	240	24
	Igbado	761	403	358	716	72
	Oloruntedo	205	108	97	194	19
	Igunshin	192	105	87	174	17
	Kudola	889	481	408	816	82
	Odowo	355	180	175	350	35
Total		2641	1396	1245	2490	249
Ward 5: Ilunla/ Bagbe/ Odowo II	Fabusuwa	449	248	201	402	40
	Modebiayo	267	142	125	250	25
	OkeAlaafia	425	225	200	400	40
	Olugbogi	264	136	128	256	26
	Moferere	146	69	77	154	15

	Gbelewu	227	125	102	204	21
Total Ward 5		1778	945	833	1666	167
Ward 6: Litaye/Obunke kere/Igbindo	Okegbonawa	500	268	232	464	46
	Egure-Oba	592	297	295	590	59
	Oke-Ipa	336	180	156	312	31
	OkeOnipetesi	308	173	135	270	27
	Loyigbo	276	147	129	258	26
	Litaye	742	403	339	678	68
Total Ward 6		2754	1468	1286	2572	257
Ward 12: Orisumbare/ Araromi	Lekere	328	173	155	310	31
	Abusoro	270	144	126	252	25
	Igbokuta	207	108	99	198	20
	Igbose	225	123	102	204	21
	Ikonja	259	133	126	252	25
	Oke-Elebi	303	167	136	272	27
Total Ward 12		1592	848	744	1488	149
Overall Total		11125	5892	5233	10,466	(1047)

Source: Author's calculation, 2019

3.3.2 Selection of Respondents

Residential buildings in the selected settlements within the study area were selected in a systematic manner. This was done by selecting the first building at the entrance of the settlements; this is because there are no delineated streets in rural settlements as there are in urban settlements. The next two buildings were skipped and the fourth, seventh, tenth, thirteenth...etc. were equally selected (x...1st...4th...7th...10th... 13th...nth) until the desired number is achieved in each settlement. In cases where the next building needed for the exercise was uninhabited or without the needed respondent, the next habited building was selected. The basis for selecting the buildings to be skipped was largely dependent on how many buildings were available in the selected settlements and the households (respondents) to be sampled. This procedure was followed until the targeted number of respondents was achieved.

The selection of respondents was done in direct proportion to the population size of rural settlements within the rural wards. Using 1991 population census as the base year and 2.6 percent growth rate (NBS, 2016; World Bank, 2016), the population of the villages were projected for 2018. This became necessary as the 1991 Census figure provided population data at rural (settlements) levels while the 2006 census only gave aggregate population at local government area levels.

Therefore, the total estimated population of Ondo West Local Government Area as at 2018 was four hundred and nineteen thousand, four hundred and seventy-two (419,472) comprising of two hundred and seven thousand, six hundred and fifty-four (207,654) males and two hundred and eleven thousand, eight hundred and eighteen (211,818) females and total target female population of thirty selected villages was ten thousand, four hundred and six hundred and sixty-six (10,466).

3.3.3 Sampling Size

All female migrant workers in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State constituted the sampling frame. The proportional sampling technique based on percentages was adopted to determine the respondents for the study due to the large number of female migrants in the study area. Thus, ten percent of the female population

in each of the randomly selected settlements were adopted as the sample size. This was based on researchers' recommendations that the sample size in studies of rural areas should not exceed 10 percent of the target population (Ogunsanya 1987; Olawole 2003; Turner, 2003; Singh and Masuku, 2014).

3.3.4 Sampling Technique

The multi-stage sampling technique was adopted for the study. Ondo West Local Government was purposively chosen due to prior knowledge of the high presence of migrant workers who are drawn to the study area to engage in farming and other lucrative livelihood activities. There was the purposive sampling of five rural wards as the remaining seven wards that made up the local government under study are urban in nature. Six rural settlements were randomly selected from each of the rural wards making a total of thirty settlements. The one thousand and forty-seven respondents, which were derived from the ten percent of the total female migrant that is to be interviewed, were proportionately allocated based on the population of each rural settlement selected.

According to the National Population Commission (2011), there are 154 settlements in Ondo West LGA with Ondo town as the only urban centre while the remaining 153 settlements were classified as rural villages. Ondo West LGA comprised 12 political wards; seven of these (Ward 1, Ward 3, Ward 7, Ward 8, Ward 9, Ward 10, and Ward 11) are within Ondo Township while the remaining five are located in the hinterlands (Figure 3.1.). Although the actual figure of each settlement was not stated in the 2006 census, estimates were calculated from the 1991 census figures which put the total population of Ondo West LGA at 209,736 (103,827 male, and 105,909) and 2018 estimated population of 419,472 (207,654 male and 211,818 female). Segregation of rural areas from urban areas is based on National Population Commission (2006) which defined urban centre as an area with population of twenty thousand people and above.

There were no standard registers of in-migration into the designated rural areas but estimates from the National Population Commission (2011) showed a steady increase. Ondo township with 1991 population of 143,397 (69,756 male and 73,641 female) was estimated to have a population of 286,794 (139,512 male and 147,282 female) in 2018.

The remaining 153 villages located in five rural wards, with 1991 population of 66,339 (34,071 male and 32,268 female) were also estimated to have a population of 132,678 (68,142 male and 64,536 female), hence, the sampling framework for the study was about 64,536.

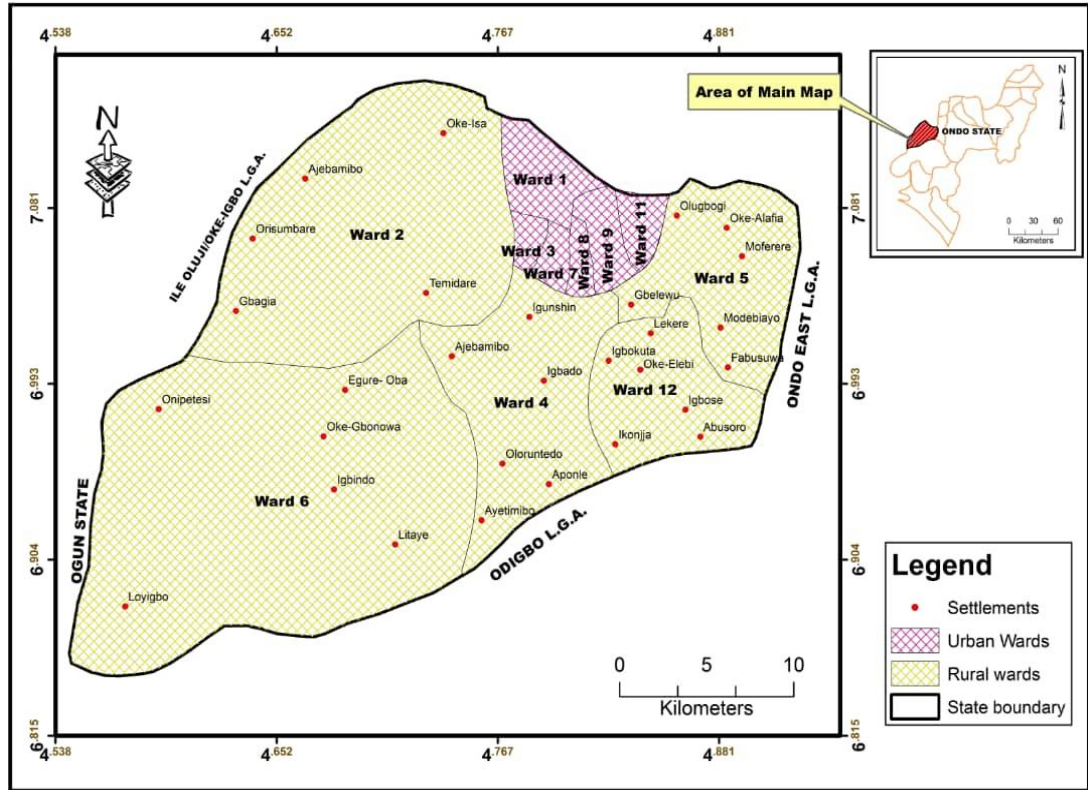


Figure 3.2: Ondo West LGA showing Political Wards
Source: Independent National Electoral Commission, Akure

3.4 Data Collection

Data collection was carried out in two phases; the reconnaissance survey and the detailed fieldwork. The reconnaissance survey which is the first phase involved periodic visits to the villages. These periodic visits involved preliminary dialogues with village heads and interaction with the migrant women in the rural areas.

The second phase involved the administration of a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire had variables such as the socio-demographic characteristics such as age, educational qualification, state of origin and livelihood activities engaged in. Other variables include length of stay in rural areas, involvement in migrant association, reason for engaging in livelihood activity, reason for migrating to rural area, average annual income, period and interval of visit home, challenges encountered by female migrant workers, among others.

3.5 Data Analysis

Using descriptive and inferential approaches, survey data were taken from the administered questionnaires and evaluated. Multivariate frequency distributions were used to analyze the data descriptively. Descriptive statistics including frequency count, mean, mode, sum, and cartograms were used to illustrate demographic data such as age, marital status, religion, educational background, employment, income, and marital status. These served as explanation aids by helping to summarize the data and show trends in the data.

Quantitative information gathered through questionnaires was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. To test the hypotheses in this study, inferential statistics were employed. The most often employed inferential statistics are One sample t-test, One Sample t-Test and Pearson Product Moment Correlation. In later portions of the thesis, several of these statistics were covered in more detail. The Getis Ord G_i^* tool in ArcGIS 10.8 was utilized to test the second hypothesis on the movement patterns of female migrant workers in the research area, and ArcGIS 10.8 symbology was also used to create the maps.

3.5.1 T-test

The One Sample t-test was used to test the first and fifth hypotheses. The first hypothesis states there is no significant difference in the socio-economic characteristics of the female migrant workers in the study area while the fifth hypothesis states that female migrant workers' livelihood activities do not vary significantly across the study area. The t-test is a statistical tool that is employed in attempting a comparison of the averages of two groups. It was used to assess the degree of variation in the sampled number of female migrant workers in each ward as well as the reasons for the variations. This is important in determining how significant the differences in the number of female migrant workers and the impact on the livelihood activities they engage in within various rural areas are. It is used in testing hypothesis to determine if an item has an effect on the study population or whether the groups are different from one another.

3.5.2 Correlation Analysis

The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) analysis was used to test the third and fourth hypotheses. It is used to determine the relationship between the volume of migration and the distance from female migrant workers' source regions. Correlation was also used to ascertain the relationship between migration processes and the level of involvement of female migrant workers in livelihood activities as stated in the third hypothesis. The third hypothesis states that there is no significant relationship between the level of involvement in livelihood activities and female migrant workers' migration processes. It involved complex calculation and mandated the presence of a satisfaction in the six-sigma team. The data collected (Livelihood activities and number of female migrant workers from each political ward) were plugged into a formula developed by Karl Pearson. Correlation analysis typically yields a result that is between +1 and -1. The +ve or -ve symbol denotes the correlation's direction. Direct correlation is shown by a positive sign, and inverse correlation is indicated by a negative sign. Zero signifies a lack of association. The association becomes stronger as the number approaches one. A correlation typically has to be 0.5 or higher in either direction to be deemed significant (Orojo, 2009).

3.5.3 Getis Ord G_i^*

The Getis-Ord G_i^* was used to test the second hypothesis which states that there is a significant difference in the migration pattern of female migrant workers in the study area. It is a statistical method used in spatial data analysis to identify and quantify local spatial autocorrelation. The Getis-Ord G_i^* statistic is used to identify statistically significant clusters of high or low values for a particular variable across the study area. It calculates a Z score for each location, indicating whether the value is unexpectedly high or low compared to the values in neighboring locations. It is commonly used in Geographic Information System applications to identify hotspots of crime, disease outbreaks, or natural resource depletion. It can also be used to explain variation across locations. The statistic measures local spatial autocorrelation, which is the degree to which similar values are clustered in neighboring locations. Areas with high positive G_i values indicate spatial clusters of high data values, while areas with low negative G_i values indicate spatial clusters of low data values. By analyzing these spatial patterns of clustering, the G_i statistic can provide insights into the underlying factors driving variation across locations. This can be useful in a variety of applications, including urban planning, transportation planning, and environmental analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Chapter Overview

This chapter examines the socio-economic and demographic variables of female migrant workers in Ondo State. It analyses the migratory processes of migrants as well as factors responsible for the involvement of female migrant workers in livelihood activities in Ondo State.

4.1 Socio -Demographic Characteristics of Female Migrant Workers

As a result of the peculiarity of the research work, the study adopted a sample size which was heavily skewed toward females hence all the respondents were women. Early studies on voluntary migrant labour in Nigeria (Afolayan, 1990, 1991, 1997; Akorede, 1997; Makinwa- Adebusoye, 1994, Udo, 1971, 1975) have identified certain general traits of migrants which include high proportion of females accompanying their spouses or fathers in the migration streams. Recent studies (Agbonlahor and Phillip, 2015; Masanja, 2012; Tanja, 2009, United, 2015; Yinger, 2006) however have shown that the proportion of single women migrating autonomously has increased. According to the tables below, the sample is diverse in terms of its geographic origin, level of education, occupation, age, marital status, as well as its urban versus rural origin.

4.1.1 Age Distribution of Respondents

The Table 4.1 shows the age distribution of female migrant workers in the study area. Out of one thousand and forty-seven respondents sampled in the selected rural areas, thirteen respondents which accounts for 1.2 percent of the respondents are aged below 20 years while one hundred and thirty respondents (12.4 percent) fall into the 60 years above age

group. Nine hundred and four respondents which account for 86.3 percent of the total respondents are aged between 20 and 59 years which form the active, working population. This shows that young females, like their male counterparts, choose to migrate into rural areas even though there are opportunities that could have drawn them into surrounding urban areas.

Three hundred and seventeen respondents which account for 30.3 percent of the total number of respondents fall between the 50-59 years' age bracket while three hundred respondents, a similar high-rate accounting for 28.7 percent of the respondents make up the 40-49 years' age bracket. Two hundred and six respondents which account for 19.7 percent of the total respondents are aged 30-39 years, ninety-four respondents are below 30 years of age which account for only 8.9 percent of the total respondents.

The age distribution of the female migrant workers in the study area shows an abundance of female migrants occupying the youthful, working population in the migration chain. This is in line with the findings of previous researches on female migration in Nigeria (Ikwuyatum, 2006; Masanja, 2012; Ofuoku and Emerhi, 2014; Ogunwale, 2018; Oyewale and Olusanya, 2019) where majority of migrants were young school leavers and working-class people. This shows that females who migrate into rural areas of Ondo State do so not because they are old or sick but they migrate when they are still capable of fruitful economic productivity.

Table 4.1: Age of Respondents

Age (in years)	Frequency	Percent
Below 20	13	1.2
20 – 29	81	7.7
30 – 39	206	19.7
40 – 49	300	28.7
50 – 59	317	30.3
60 above	130	12.4
Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

Figure 4.1 shows the average age of female migrant workers across the study area. The average age of respondents for Gbaghenga/Gbongbo/AjagbaAlaafia axis which represents Ward 2 and comprises of Okesa, Ayetimbo, Ilutitun, Orisumbare, Laje and Temidire as selected rural settlements is 46.5 years. The average age of respondents for Ilunla/ Bagbe/ Odowo I axis which represents Ward 4 and comprises of Aponle, Igbado, Olorunto, Igunshin, Kudola, Odowo as selected rural settlements is 45.6 years. The average age of respondents for the Ilunla/ Bagbe/ Odowo II axis represents Ward 5 and comprises of Fabusuwa, Modebiayo, OkeAlaafia, Olugbogi, Mofere, Gbelewu as selected rural settlements is 45.7 years. The average age of respondents for Ward 6 which is named the Litaye/Obunkekere/Igbindo axis and comprises of Okegbonawa, Egure Oba, OkeIpa, OkeOnipetesi, Loyigbo and Litaye as selected rural areas is 45.2 years while the average age of respondents drawn from Ward 12 which is the Orisumbare/Araromi axis and has Lekere, Abusoro, Igbokuta, Igbose, Ikonja, OkeElebi as the selected rural settlements is 45.7 years. The average age of respondents across the entire study area is therefore 45.7 years.

This again goes on to emphasize that migration into the study area is in pursuit of livelihood activities since the average age of respondents across rural wards fall within active working age.

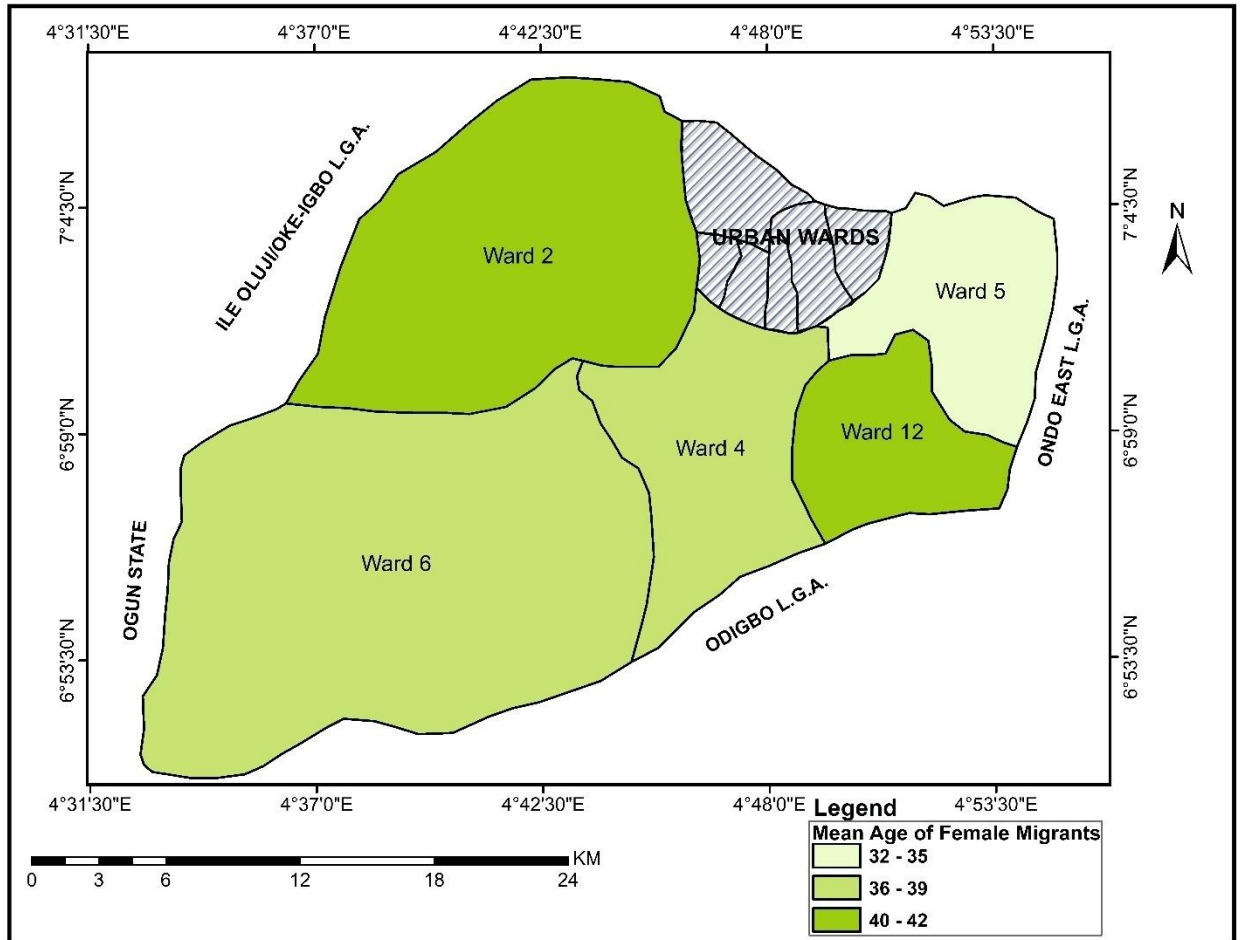


Figure 4.1: Average Age of Respondents

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.1.2 Marital Status of Respondents

Table 4.2 shows the marital status of respondents in the study area. Out of the one thousand and forty-seven respondents, ninety-two respondents (8.8 percent) were single females who had never been married while eight hundred and twenty-one (78.4 percent) were married. One hundred and twenty (11.8 percent) were widowed and this group of respondents comprised of aged women while the remaining ten respondents which account for 1.0 percent were divorced. This shows that the larger percentage of the respondents is married since the earlier age distribution had shown that the migration chain comprised mostly adult females. It also shows marriage does not pose a challenge to female migrant workers in the engagement of livelihood activities.

Five hundred and fifty- eight (53.3 percent) of the respondents live in the same household with their husbands while two hundred and sixty- three (25.1 percent) who are independent migrants as they live apart from their husbands. This set of women has their husbands living in neighbouring rural settlements and urban areas. These are respondents who are mostly migrants seeking for better livelihoods and who have migrated autonomously into the rural areas in search of better livelihood prospects which could not be found in their former places of residence.

On a regional basis, female migrants from the North-Central and South-South zones were generally single due to their youthful population. On the other hand, about 65 percent of migrants from the North Central zone were married before departure from home but are presently not living with their spouse. The information given by the respondent showed that while many of the female migrant workers are married and living with their husbands, others who live apart from their husbands had been married and probably came from families which are financially unstable where support was required from either relatives or friends. This situation might have acted as push factor necessitating their movement from their former places of residence.

Table 4.2: Marital Status of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Single	92	8.8
Married	821	78.4
Widowed	124	11.8
Divorced	10	1.0
Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.1.3. Educational Characteristics of Respondents

According to Table 4.3, four hundred and eleven (39.3 percent) out of the one thousand and forty-seven respondents possessed no formal educational qualification although some of them claimed to have dropped out of elementary schools from their respective source regions prior to migration. Four hundred and nine respondents (39.1 percent) which is an equally high percentage of respondents obtained the first school leaving certificate at the primary school level. One hundred and ninety-six (18.6 percent) respondents attended secondary schools but many of them, just claimed they completed their Junior Secondary School examinations while others possessed the Senior Secondary School (SSS) qualification.

Only thirty-one (3.0 percent) of the selected female migrant workers possessed either the National Certificate in Education (NCE) or the National Diploma (ND) or the Higher National Diploma or university degrees in various fields of study. A large percentage of the respondents stated that one of the fundamental reasons they opted to settle in the rural areas and engage in livelihood activities was due to their lack of formal education. According to the respondents, one major reason for their engagement in livelihood activities in rural areas instead of in urban areas is because their lack of formal education does not determine or hinder their active participation in livelihood activities which may pose a problem if they were to migrate to urban areas considering the complexities of the urban settlements.

There were differences on the basis of female migrant workers' educational qualifications based on their source regions. Twenty-nine out of the 31 (96.2 percent) respondents with tertiary education qualifications are from the South West geo-political zone. They are mainly employed as classroom teachers in the few schools in the rural areas as well as attendants in the rural health care centres. One hundred and thirty-two (67.4 percent) respondents out of the one hundred and ninety-six respondents who possessed the secondary school certificate holders are from the south-eastern states while the few respondents from both the North East and North West zones lacked any form of formal

education but claimed to have previously received Islamic education tutelage prior to migration from their source regions.

Table 4.3: Educational Qualification of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
No formal education	411	39.3
Primary School Education	409	39.1
Secondary School Education	196	18.6
Tertiary Education	31	3.0
Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.1.4. Size of Household

The distribution of the household size in the study area is illustrated in Table 4.4. According to the table, five hundred and eighty-four (55.8 percent) of the total number of respondents for the study are from the household size of between 4 and 6 members. This is followed by two hundred and eighty-two (26.9 percent) respondents who are from the household size of between 1 and 3 members which are considerably small households. Respondents from the 7 to 9 household size are one hundred and seventy-eight which represent 17 percent of the total number of selected respondents. Only three respondents (0.3 percent) have a household size of more than 10 members. In most cases, migrants from low household sizes are either single ladies or divorced women who migrated alone for livelihood in the rural area.

The female migrant workers' household size contributes to the ability of respondents to successfully participate in certain livelihood activities or otherwise. Large household sizes in some situations are beneficial especially to farmers who are opportune to access members of the household as free farm labour rather than employing other people for wages. Household size also impact on the mobility of female migrants, for instance, a single person household or one with about three members can relocate faster to a new location whenever better opportunity arises than other migrants with large household sizes.

Table 4.4: Size of Household of respondents

	Frequency	Percent
1 – 3 members	282	26.9
4 – 6 members	584	55.8
7 – 9 members	178	17.0
10 members and above	3	0.3
Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.1.5. Average Annual Income

Table 4.5 shows the average annual income of respondents in the study area. It was difficult to obtain accurate data on the income generated annually by respondents in the study area because many of them neither operate bank accounts nor keep any records of daily income and expenditure. Respondents however provided rough estimates of their annual income in the previous year which was used to infer their income and wealth status. One hundred and ten respondents (10.5 percent) reported they made below thirty thousand naira from their various livelihood activities. Four hundred and seventy respondents (44.9 percent) reported annual incomes of between N31,000 and N60,000 while those realizing between N61,000 and N90,000 are one hundred and seventy-nine respondents which account for 17.1 percent of the sample. One hundred and seventy-four (16.6 percent) respondents reported annual income between N91, 000 and N120, 000 while the remaining one hundred and fourteen respondents (10.9 percent) earned above N120, 000 in their various livelihood activities.

This rather low annual income suggests that many of the female migrant workers in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State opted to engage in livelihood activities in the study area due to the ease of entry and their poor economic status. It also showed that some of them are yet to fully achieve their aim of full economic improvement. Despite the dismally low income reported by the migrant workers, seven hundred and thirty-five respondents (70.2 percent) claimed that their present living conditions are better than their previous conditions and economic status.

Table 4.5: Average Annual Income

Amount (in Naira)	Frequency	Percent
Below 30, 000	110	10.5
30,001 – 60,000	470	44.9
60,001 – 90,000	179	17.1
90,001 – 120,000	174	16.6
120, 001 & above	114	10.9
Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

Figure 4.2 depicts the average annual income of female migrant workers in Ondo West Local Government. The mean annual income for respondents in Ward 5 is the lowest across the study area. It ranges between #53000 and #72733. The average annual income for respondents in Wards 6 and 12 fall between #72, 734 and #92, 467. The mean annual income of female migrant workers who live in Wards 2 and 4 range between #92, 468 and #112, 200 which account for the largest income which accrued to female migrant workers in the study area. This shows that there exist differences in female migrant workers' annual income on the basis of location as the mean annual income differ from one ward to another.

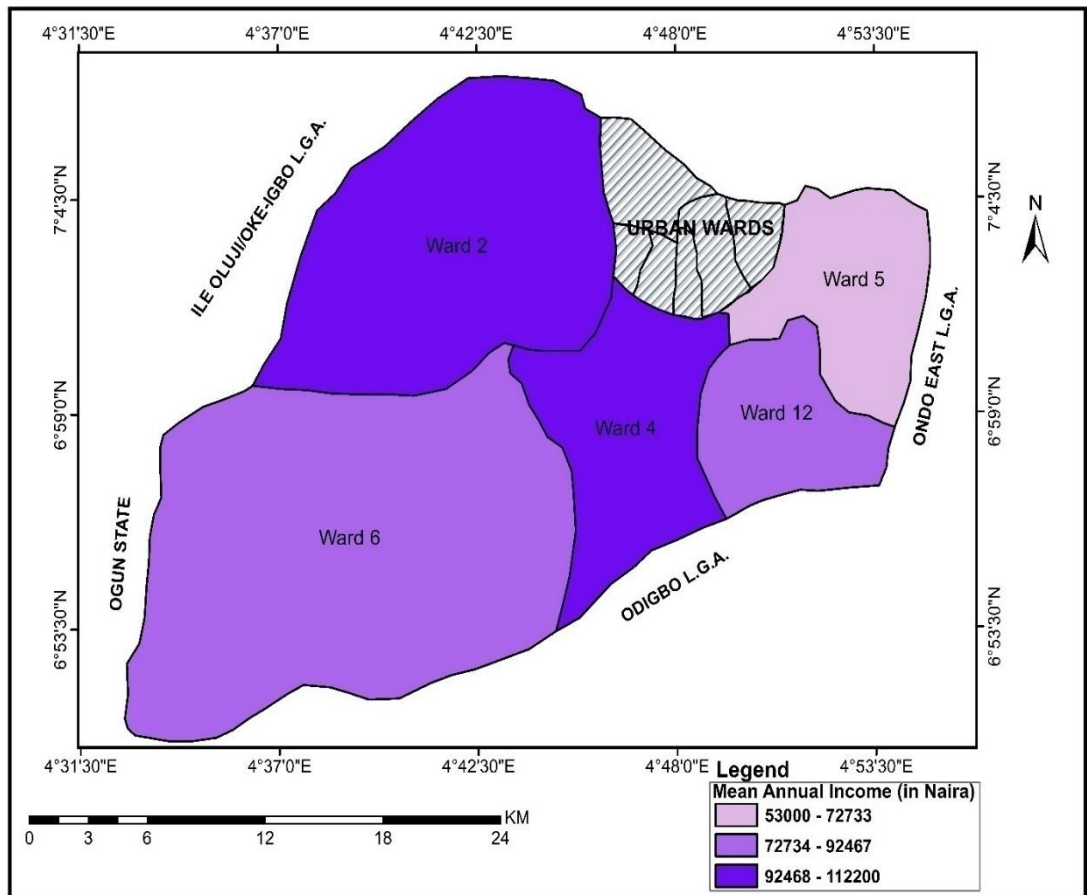


Figure 4.2: Mean Annual Income

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.1.6 Major Source Regions of Female Migrant Workers

The Table 4.6 shows the states of origin/source regions of female migrant workers. The respondents drawn into the study area are from seventeen states in Nigeria. These states are Kogi, Osun, Oyo, Benue, Delta, Cross River, Ebonyi, Kwara, Edo, Ekiti, Anambra, Enugu, Akwa Ibom, Abia, Ogun, Kaduna States which account for a total of one thousand and thirty-one respondents (98.48 percent) while the remaining sixteen (1.52 percent) respondents are from neighbouring countries from the West African region like Togo, Ghana and so on.

The table further reveals that the southwestern states of Osun and Oyo accounted for the highest number, three hundred and fifty seven respondents (34.09 percent) and one hundred and sixty-eight respondents (16.04 percent) respectively of female migrant workers in study area. The reason for the high concentration of females from these states is attributed to the proximity to the usual residences of those migrants. Apart from this, there are similarities in both the physical environmental factors such as climate and vegetation as well as the socio-cultural factors such as language which make integration very easy for the in-migrants (Akorede, 2004; Ofuoku and Emerhi, 2014; Ogunwale, 2018)

The study of the spatial pattern of female migrant workers encompasses an examination of the prevailing conditions which facilitate the migration process at both the origin and destination. The number of migrant women from each of the geopolitical zones may vary, as migration is a result of economic, social, and political disparities across various areas. Although internal migration is not a recent phenomena in Nigeria, the contemporary migratory processes involve a complex interplay of causes that deviates from previously noted migrations, which were often led by males and occasionally joined by their spouses.

Table 4.6: Major Source Regions of Female Migrant Workers

	State	Frequency	Percent
1.	Kogi	76	7.25
2.	Osun	357	34.09
3.	Oyo	168	16.04
4.	Benue	98	9.36
5.	Ondo	40	3.82
6.	Delta	47	4.48
7.	Cross River	30	2.87
8.	Ebonyi	50	4.77
9.	Kwara	82	7.83
10	Edo	38	3.62
11	Ekiti	13	1.24
12	Anambra	5	0.47
13	Enugu	6	0.57
14	Akwa Ibom	5	0.47
15	Abia	7	0.66
16	Ogun	3	0.28
17	Kaduna	6	0.57
18	Non-Nigerian	16	1.52
	Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

The direction of movement which was usually rural to urban has been altered with the recent experience of mass urban to rural migration. Also a lot of independent female migrants are involved in the current chains of internal migration. For simplicity, the female migrant workers are categorized according to their states of origin rather than individual town or villages. This generalization enables the researcher study groups of female migrants with similar characteristics rather than distinct individuals who might have diverse places of birth but share same culture and socio-economic ways of life.

The south-eastern region of Nigeria often has a significant shortage of agricultural land. Due to the population demand on arable land, fallow seasons have been shortened to two years, and in many places, land is farmed every year. Many of the people who lived in these crowded rural regions were compelled to leave and go farming and work in nearby towns. In light of this, individuals may have moved from rural regions with little arable land to those with an abundance (Udo, 2012). The South-East zone, which includes the states of Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu, and Imo, has a variety of socio-cultural practices that encourage independent migration for economic reasons in addition to a long history of labor migration brought on by land degradation, high rural population density, and landlessness among other factors (Oyewale and Olusanya, 2019; Tijani, 2004; Udo, 1975).

According to Table 4.6, the respondents from the South-Eastern zone of Nigeria are sixty-eight which account for 6.47 percent of the total number of respondents. Fifty respondents (4.77 percent) migrated from Ebonyi, five (0.47 percent) migrated from Anambra, six respondents (0.57 percent) migrated from Enugu while seven respondents (0.66 percent) migrated from Abia State into the study area. Edo state has thirty-six (3.6 percent) respondents, Cross River state accounts for thirty respondents (2.87 percent), forty-seven respondents (4.48 percent) migrated from Delta while Akwa Ibom has five migrants which represents 0.47 percent of the total number of migrants. Factors such as cultural differences coupled with unemployment, poverty and lack of adequate information have contributed to the high level of out-migration in these geopolitical zones. In addition, many rural areas from which some of the migrants originated are

faced with environmental problems such as severe gully erosion which had degraded the few available farm lands especially in the southeastern Nigeria.

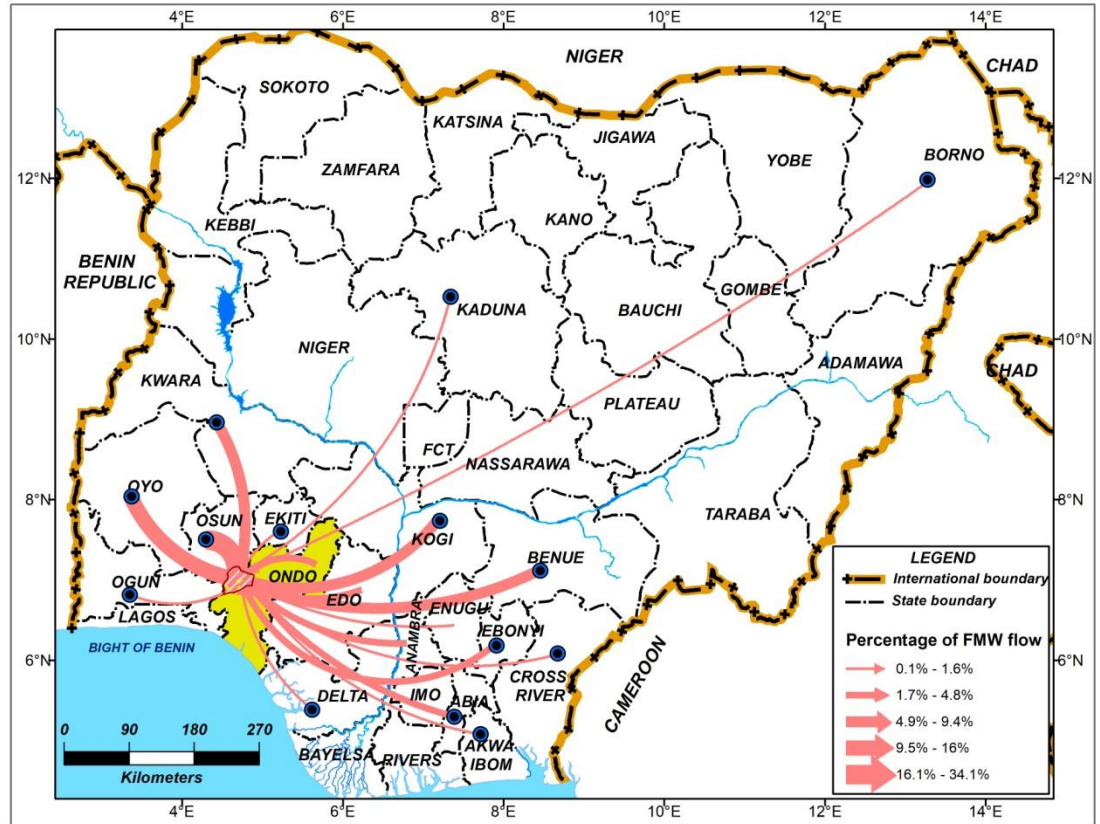


Figure 4.3: Major source regions of female migrant workers
Source: Author Analysis, 2019

People from the north-west and north-eastern areas have a history of significant mobility and migration to various locations both inside and beyond the nation for diverse objectives, despite the fact that there are few documented cases of female migrant laborers. There were only six respondents (0.6 percent) from Kaduna State which falls within the North West geo-political zone. Three factors appeared to be responsible for the low level of female migration from the North-West and North Eastern zones. Firstly, most of the states in North-West and North Eastern zones adopt the Sharia legal system in the country. Therefore independent movement by women is highly discouraged in the zone. Secondly, the type of climate and vegetation found in the region differ considerably from what is obtained in the rural areas of Ondo state, hence adaptability is difficult. The third contributing factor is the long distance involved in travelling from their origin to the rural area, many of them would rather prefer to engage in street begging in urban centres than choosing rural villages as destinations (Oyewale and Olusanya, 2019; Tijani, 2004).

The respondents in the study area from Kwara, Kogi, Benue, Ekiti and Ogun States who migrated into the study area in search of livelihood activities are eighty-two respondents (7.83 percent), seventy-six respondents (7.25 percent), ninety-eight respondents (9.36 percent), thirteen respondents (1.24 percent) and three respondents (0.28 percent) respectively. The analysis of the regional distribution of female migrant workers in terms of source region shows that the South-West zone has the highest proportion totaling five hundred and eighty-one respondents (55.5 percent), followed by the North Central zone with two hundred and fifty-seven (24.5 percent) while the South East zone recorded one hundred and thirty-three respondents (12.7 percent), North West and North East zones accounted for six respondents (0.6 percent) and one respondent (0.1 percent) respectively while the South-South has seventy respondents (6.7 percent).

The findings of the study records that, although at varied levels, female migrant workers migrated from all the six geo-political zones in the country into the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area for livelihood activities. The findings also showed that a high number of female migrant workers in the study area were drawn from the neighbouring southwestern states of Osun and Oyo who take the advantage of the short distance between the states. The North Central and the southeastern states also contributed

significant number of female migrant workers while the North West and the North East zones recorded the lowest number of female migrant workers. This is as a result of the large distance separating the two regions as well as socio cultural factors hindering independent migration of women from the region.

4.1.7 Difference in Socio- Economic Characteristics of Female Migrant Workers

Table 4.7 shows the significant difference in the socio-economic characteristics of female migrant workers across livelihood activities in the study area. Based on the results of One Sample t-Test, Table 4.7 reveals the significant mean difference (age = 46, number of children= 4, educational qualification= 2, and annual average income= 86,907) in the socio-economic characteristics of female migrants across livelihood activities in Ondo West Local Government Area. The result is shown at p-value < 0.05, and at t-value of 123.749, 61.561, 72.879, and 42.282 for age, number of children, educational qualification, and annual average income respectively. This indicates the significant difference in the socio-economic characteristics of female migrant workers across different rural wards in Ondo West Local Government Area. Therefore, the null hypothesis that states there is no significant difference in socio-economic characteristics of female migrants across livelihood activities is hereby rejected.

**Table 4.7: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Female Migrant Workers across
Livelihood Activities**

OneSample t-Test						
	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Age	123.749	1046	0.000	45.697	44.97	46.42
Number of Children	61.561	1046	0.000	3.712	3.59	3.83
Educational Qualification	72.879	1046	0.000	1.854	1.80	1.90
Annual Average Income	42.282	1046	0.000	86907.354	82874.12	90940.59

Source: Author Analysis (2019)

4.1.8. Livelihood Activities engaged in by respondents

The various livelihood activities engaged in by the female migrant workers in Ondo West Local Government Area are shown in Table 4.8. The livelihood activities prevalent among female migrant workers in the study area can broadly be categorized into farming, trading, artisan (tailoring, hairdressing and bag weaving), cottage agricultural produce processing (such as palm oil, cassava flour and gari), farm labour, civil service (teaching, health care attendants) and lumbering. Six hundred and sixteen (58.8 percent) respondents engage in farming as their livelihood activity. These respondents engage in the cultivation of both cash crops especially cocoa and food crops such as yam, cassava, plantain and cocoyam. This high percentage is justifiable since agriculture is the dominant livelihood activity of the rural dwellers of south-western Nigeria.

In this study, about 60 percent of the female migrant workers regard farming as the main occupation without any other secondary occupation. Farming as a livelihood activity is followed by trading which has one hundred and fifty-two (14.5percent) respondents which engage in the sales of agricultural produce, manufactured or processed materials, clothes, food items and so on. The other livelihood activities engaged in by female migrant workers across the study area include farm labour, cottage processing, artisanal activities, lumbering and civil service.

Eighty three (7.9 percent) respondents engage in farm labour, seventy-one (6.8 percent) of the respondents are involved in cottage processing which include the processing of agricultural produce like palm oil, cassava flour and so on. Forty nine (4.7 percent) of the total respondents are actively engaged in artisanal activities which include livelihood activities such as tailoring, hairdressing, bag weaving, cardigan and the traditional aso-oke weaving among others. Forty four (4.2 percent) of the respondents engage in lumbering while thirty two (3.2 percent) respondents engage in civil service in the form of teaching and health care activities.

The observed livelihood activities engaged in by the female migrant workers in the study area are clear reflections of respondents' educational qualification, available financial strength, dominant activities available in the respondents' source regions and availability

or non-availability of resources and infrastructures at the present locations. There is therefore some sort of restriction to the variety of available livelihood activities due to limited opportunities in the rural sector.

Table 4.8: Livelihood Activities practiced by female migrant workers

Activity	Frequency	Percent
Farming	616	58.8
Trading	152	14.5
Artisan	49	4.7
Cottage Processing	71	6.8
Farm Labour	83	7.9
Civil Service	32	3.1
Lumbering	44	4.2
Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

The livelihood activities engaged in by female migrant workers in Ondo West Local Government Area can be divided into two broad categories. These are farm activities and non farm activities. The Table 4.8 shows that majority of female migrants workers who chose to settle in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State engage in farming as their major livelihood activity although this does not rule out the fact that there are other livelihood activities that are off-farm activities. Out of the one thousand and forty-seven respondents, seven hundred and forty-three (70.96 percent) are engaged in farm activities which include farming, farm labour and lumbering while the remaining three hundred and four (28.65 percent) respondents engage in non-farm activities which include trading, artisanal activities, cottage processing and civil service.

According to the World Bank (2006), majority of households in developing nations are located in rural areas and depend on agriculture for their subsistence. Crop farming activities have strong ties to non-agricultural and/or off-farm livelihood activities that are prevalent in rural households. Hired labor, handicrafts, tailoring, trading, carpentry, blacksmithing and arts are non-agricultural activities that have assisted in meeting household needs while also serving the rural agricultural sector (Adebayo, 2021; Ellis, 2000; Adepoju & Adepoju, 2018).

Women have recently started to participate in lumbering activities, which were previously categorized as a livelihood activity reserved primarily for men, in rural areas. As part of this practice, many rural households of migrant women earn their living through sources other than subsistence agriculture, such as small-scale wood trading or serving as paid middlemen between indigenous landowners and lumbermen from other regions, while the remaining households of migrant women engage in menial tasks (Nwaogwugwu & Matthews-Njoku, 2015).



Figure 4.4: A female migrant worker harvesting Cocoa
Source: Author Analysis, 2019

Table 4.9: Livelihood Strategies available to female migrant workers.

Livelihood Strategies	Frequency	Percentage
Farm activities (e.g farming, farm labour and lumbering)	743	70.96
Non-farm activities (e.g trading, artisanal activities, cottage processing and civil service)	304	28.65
Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis (2019)

4.2 Migration Processes of Female Migration Workers

4.2.1 Factors Responsible for Migration into the Rural Areas

The study of migration involves an examination of the factors necessitating the process in both the core and periphery. It also involves an appraisal of the institutions and actions that facilitate and perpetuate the migration process. Migration is an essential agent of change as it significantly affects not only the welfare and economy of the left-behind households but also influences the source region at large. The Table 4.10 depicts the factors which necessitate the movement of female migrant workers into the study area. One of the most commonly cited reasons for the movement of female migrant workers into the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area was the search for employment and more profitable livelihood opportunities which has become unavailable in the former places of residence.

A total of five hundred and twenty-one (49.8 percent) respondents (which accounts for close to half of the entire respondents and is the reason with the highest frequency) reported that they migrated into the study area in search of more lucrative livelihood opportunities which will guarantee them an escape from poverty. Some of the respondents stated that they would not have migrated to the rural areas if they were not sure they would find them activities which guarantee economic yields and financial returns.

Another important factor which accounts for the migration of female migrants into the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government is marriage. Two hundred and fifty-four (24.3 percent) respondents migrated to the rural areas in a bid to join their husbands in the study area. Women accompanied their spouses to live and take part in the various livelihood activities in the area. One hundred and twenty-two (11.7 percent) respondents migrated into the rural areas because they had to accompany their parents when they migrated. These groups of migrants are associational migrants whose decision to migrate can be linked to another person's decision to migrate. Another closely related factor to marriage is migration as a means of escape from family problems and death of spouse. Sixty-seven (6.3 percent) respondents migrated into the rural areas of Ondo West Local

Table 4.10: Factors Responsible for Female Migration

	Frequency	Percent
Search for better livelihood opportunity	521	49.8
Marriage	254	24.3
Accompanying parents when migrating	122	11.7
Search for farmlands	50	4.8
Escape from family issues / Death of Spouse	67	6.3
Nature of Job	33	3.1
Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

Government Area as a means of escape from family issues like domestic violence, fear of attack from family members, stigmatization and death of spouse.

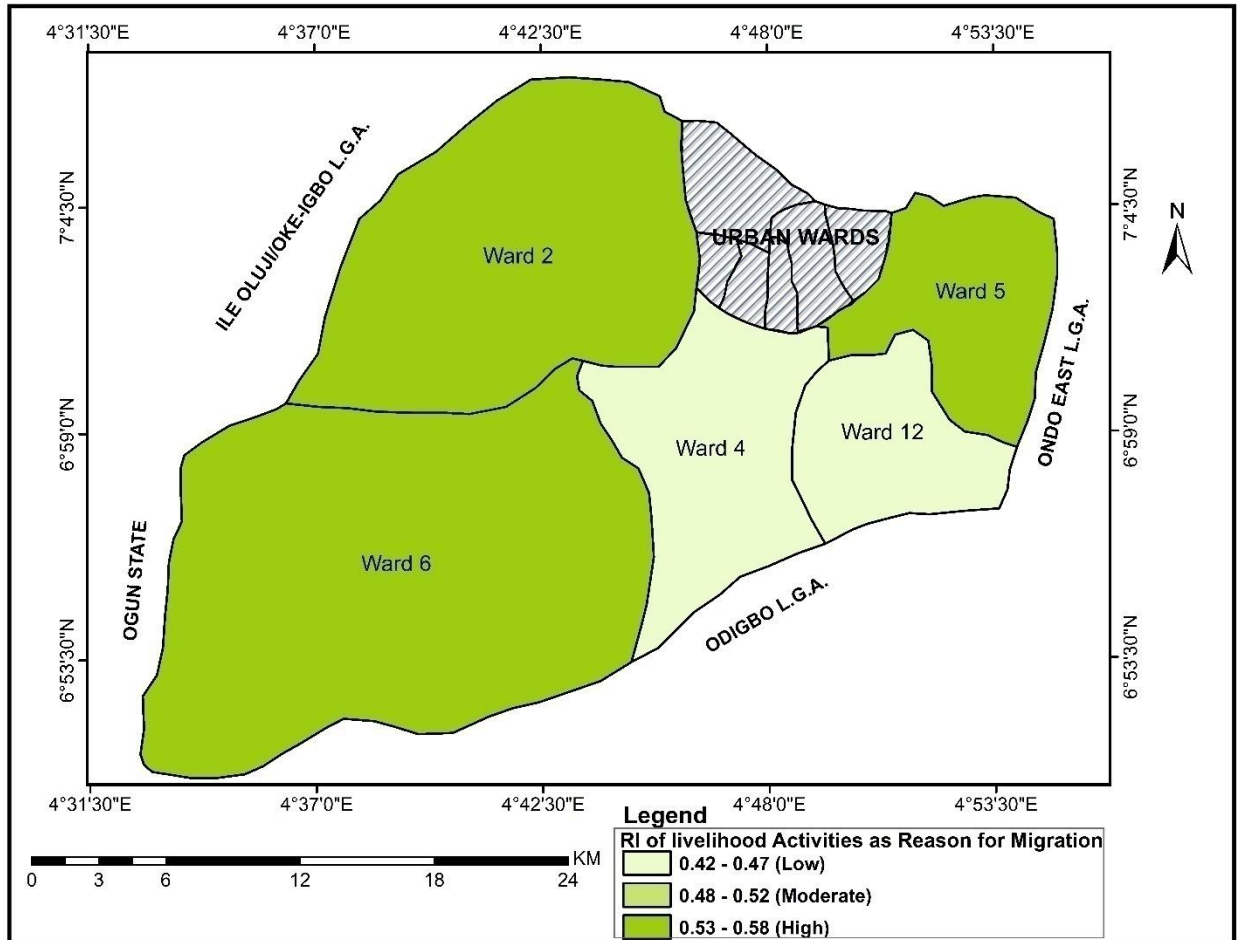


Fig 4.5: Relative Index of Search for Livelihood Activities as reason for Migration
 (Source: Author's Analysis)

The movement of female migrant workers into Ondo West Local Government Area is also necessitated by the search for farmland. This accounted for the movement of fifty respondents (4.8 percent) into the study area. Closely related to the search for farmlands and better livelihood opportunities is the respondents' nature of job which accounts for the reason thirty-three (3.1 percent) respondents migrated into the study area. Some of the respondents in this category are civil servants and traders.

The above discussion establishes the evolution of a recent trend of autonomous female migration where females migrate for the same reasons as males, that is, migration is not just to join husband or father but to meet personal as well as the socially ascribed financial obligations to children and relatives (Awumbila, 2014; Dumont et al, 2007; Ejiogwu, 2009; Ekpeyong, 2015; Forisa, 2014; Iliya and Oppon-Kumi, 2011; Ogunwale, 2016). Independent female migration for livelihood activities in Nigeria is closely related to economic situation and poverty at the source regions which make some household poor rather than the aggregate social and economic conditions of the society at large

The above results establishes the basic postulations of the Push-Pull Theory of Migration which asserts that migrants move into areas which provide advantages in form of attractions which are absent in the female migrant workers' former place of residence. The results show that the female migrants' decision to migrate into the study area is hinged on the presence of push factors in form of conditions in the migrants' origin which forced them to leave in terms of economic hardship, search for farmlands for farming, escape from family issues and death of spouse. The presence of pull factors such as livelihood opportunities and easy absorption into the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area which may be absent in the surrounding urban areas serve as pull factors for female migrants in rural areas of Ondo West Local Government.

4.2.2 Source of Information available to female migrant workers.

The Table 4.10 shows the respondents' source of information about the study area. When respondents were asked how they got information about the rural areas, the respondents gave answers which ranged from family and friends, radio and television, business or trade contact to relatives at destination.

A total of six hundred and sixty-three (63.3 percent) respondents got information about the study area from their relatives who had earlier migrated into the study area in search of livelihood activities while two hundred and twenty-five (21.5 percent) got information about the possibility of engaging in livelihood activities in the study area from their friends and relatives at the origin of migration. A total of eight hundred and eighty eight (84.8 percent) respondents asserted that they got information about the study area from relatives and friends. This source of information forms the primary source of information for the respondents.

A total of one hundred and thirty-seven (13.1 percent) got information about the availability of livelihood activities in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government from business and trade contacts at destination while twenty-two respondents (2.1 percent) got information about the study area via news and programs from radio and television. This shows that the presence of a friend or relative at the destination serve as the most important source of information for migrants intending to migrate into the rural areas (Ikuomola, 2015; Makinwa, 1994; Olaleye, Ogunboye and Olanusi, 2014; Makinwa, 2014).

Table 4.11: Migrants' Source of Information about Destination

Source of information	Frequency	Percent
Relatives at Destination	663	63.3
Family and Friends at origin	225	21.5
Business/Trade Contact	137	13.1
Radio/TV	22	2.1
Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

Figure 4.6 shows the relative index for relatives at destination being the source of information for respondents. When asked how the female migrant workers in Ondo West Local Government Area got information about the study area prior to migration, six hundred and sixty-three (63.3 percent) out of the total number of respondents got information from their relatives at destination. the relative index for respondents who got information from their relatives at destination in Ward 5 is low and ranged between 0.44 – 0.55. Respondents in Ward 4 have a moderate relative index which ranged between 0.56 – 0.67 while respondents in Wards 5, 6 and 12 have a high relative index which ranged between 0.68 and 0.97.

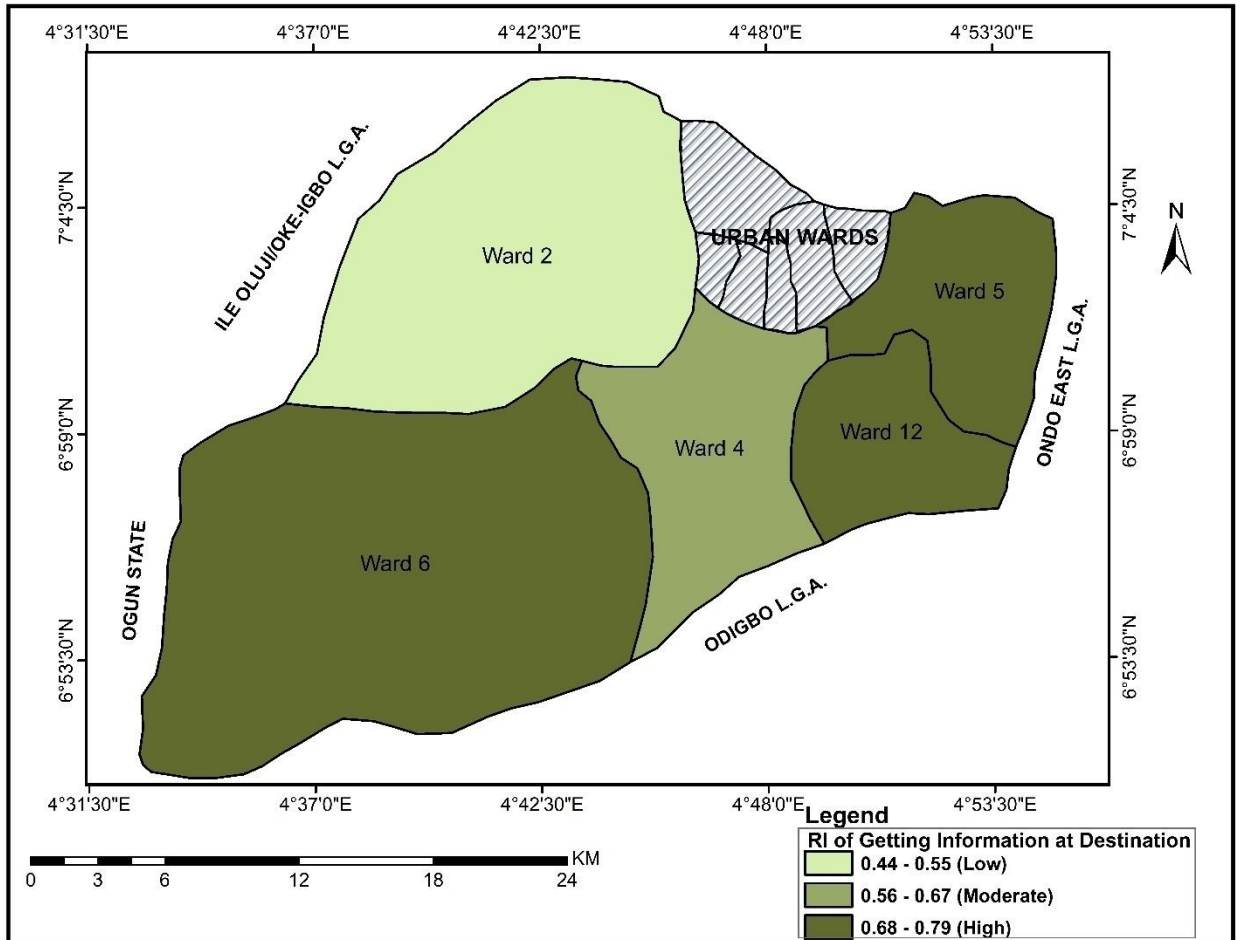


Figure 4.6: Source of Information (Only for Relatives at destination)

Source: Author's Analysis, 2019

4.2.3 Nature of Female Migration

Table 4.12 shows the nature of female migration into the study area. Eight hundred and thirty-one (79.36 percent) respondents migrated with their fathers, husbands or partners while the remaining two hundred and sixteen respondents (20.36 percent) are independent or autonomous migrants who migrated alone or with their children or relatives. This is worthy of note as many of these migrants have little or no formal education and are mostly financially incapable. This accounts for more than one-fifth of the respondents as autonomous migrants and it is a major pointer to the new trend referred to as feminization of migration (Kharel, 2016; Lefko-Everett, 2007; Makinwa, 1993, 1994, Masanja, 2012). Female migration have been portrayed as basically dependent or associational in nature as women only moved because their fathers, uncles, brothers or husbands had to move. The figures in Table 4.12 shows that there is a deviation from the traditional norm of portraying all female migrants as associational as women now move in a bid to improve their livelihoods and increase their financial standing in the society.

Examining the livelihood activities on the basis of the nature of migration, it is evident that more autonomous female migrants engage in trading (25.92 percent), farm labour (24.07 percent), cottage processing (22.22 percent) and civil service (12.04 percent) when compared with their counterparts who are associational migrants which account for 12.27 percent for trading, 3.73 percent in farm labour, 2.76 percent in cottage processing and 0.72 percent for civil service. Associational migrants engage more in farming as a livelihood activity as they account for five hundred and ninety-four (71.48 percent) and this represent the percentage of migrants whose husbands are farmers and who have to join in the family's means of securing livelihood in order to support the family financially.

Table 4.12: Nature of Migration of Female Migrant Workers.

Mode of Arrival	Livelihood Activities							Total
	Farming	Trading	Artisan	Cottage Processing	Farm Labour	Civil Service	Lumbering	
Associational	594	96	31	23	31	06	31	831
Independent	22	56	18	48	32	26	14	216
Total	616	152	49	71	83	32	44	1047

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

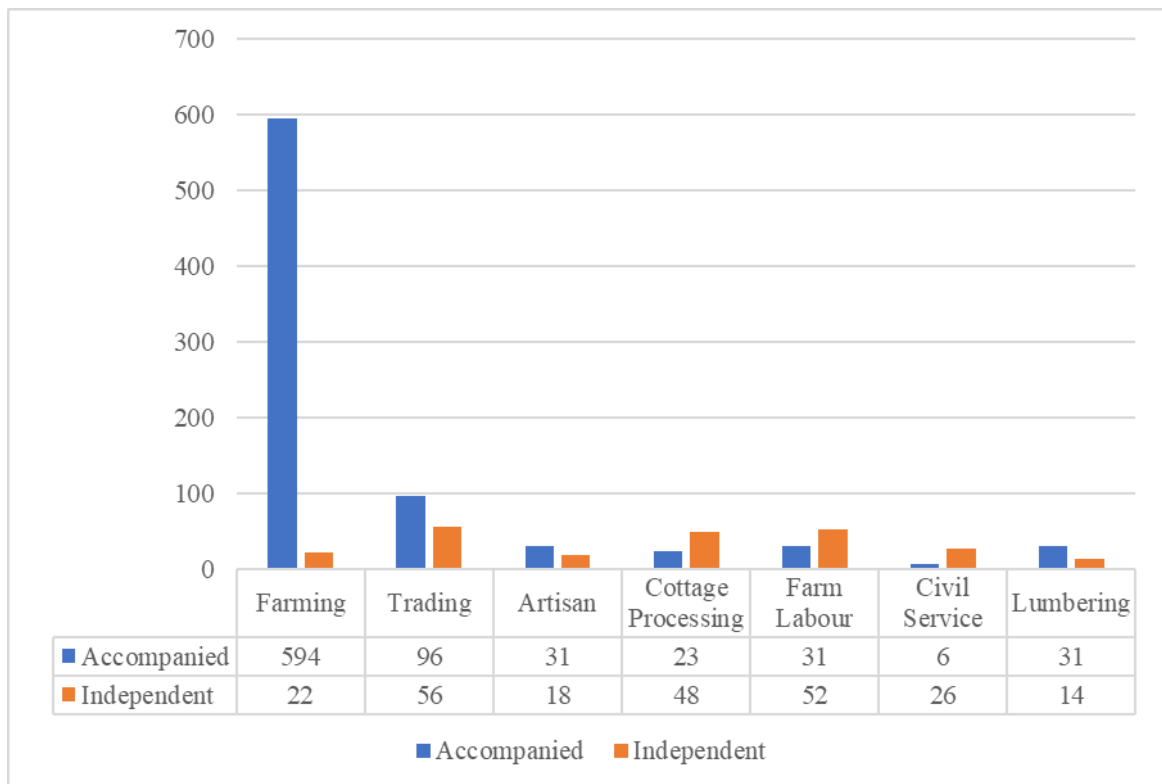


Figure 4.7: Livelihood Activities based on nature of migration
Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.2.4. Length of Stay

The Table 4.13 above depicts the distribution of respondents on the basis of the number of years spent in the study area. The respondents with the highest length of stay are those who have lived in the selected rural areas more than twenty years. Three hundred and two (302) respondents have lived in the study area for more than twenty-one years, this makes up for more than twenty-eight percent (28.8 percent) of the female migrant workers in the study area. There are signs of recent migration into the study area as fifty-four (5.2 percent) respondents have spent less than one year in the study area.

Six hundred and ninety-one (65.9 percent) female migrant workers have spent between one year and twenty years in the rural areas and this shows a favourable trend in the absorption of migrants. One hundred and seventy-two (16.5 percent) have stayed in the study area between one year and five years, one hundred and seventy-seven (16.9 percent) have stayed in the study area between eleven and fifteen years while one hundred and fifty-six respondents have lived in the study area between sixteen and twenty years since they migrated.

Table 4.13: Length of stay of Female Migrant Workers

Length of Stay (in years)		
	Total	Percent
Below 1	54	5.2
1 – 5	172	16.5
6 – 10	186	17.7
11 – 15	177	16.9
16 – 20	156	14.9
21& above	302	28.8
Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

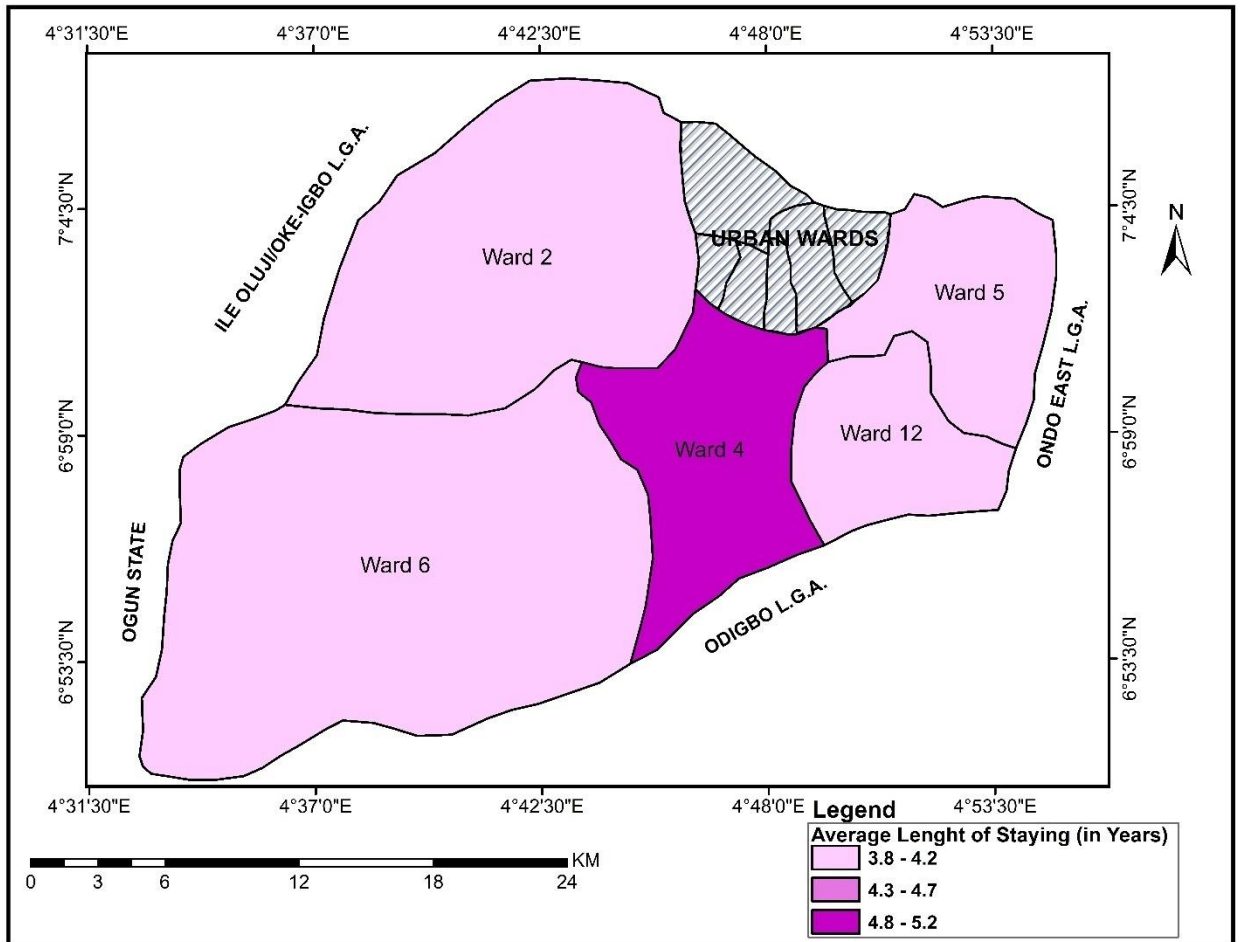


Figure 4.8: Average Length of Stay
(Source: Author Analysis, 2019)

4.2.5 Relationship between Length of Stay and Livelihood activities

Table 4.14 shows female migrant workers' length of stay on the basis of livelihood activities engaged in. Three hundred and two respondents which represent 28.84 percent of the total respondents have spent at least 21 years in the study area. Two hundred and eighty-five which represents 94.37 percent of the respondents who have spent above 21 years in the study area engaged in farming while the seventeen respondents who have stayed in the study area for that more than twenty-one years engage in other means of livelihood like trading, artisanal activities and cottage processing.

One hundred and fifty-six respondents (24.25 percent) have spent between 16 and twenty years in the study, whereas one hundred and six respondents (67.94 percent) in this age bracket are involved in farming, twenty-six respondents (16.67 percent) of respondents in this bracket engage in trading. Thirteen respondents (0.64 percent) of respondents who have stayed for the number of years in this bracket engage in lumbering leaving the remaining eleven respondents in artisanal, cottage processing and civil service.

One hundred and seventy-seven respondents (16.9 percent) who have have stayed in the study area for a period of eleven and fifteen years are engaged in various activities ranging from farming to farming to artisanal activities. Ninety-five respondents which represent 53.7 percent of female migrant workers who have lived in the study between eleven and fifteen years are involved in farming, twenty eight (15.81percent) in trading, twelve (6.77 percent) in artisanal activities, twenty (11.29 percent) in cottage processing and nineteen (10.73 percent) in lumbering.

One hundred and eighty-six (17.76 percent) respondents have stayed in the study area for a period of six and ten years. Ninety-three respondents engage in farming, thirty-nine engage in trading, twenty-four respondents engage in farm labour, twelve in cottage processing while eighteen respondents engage in artisanal activities, civil service and lumbering. Respondents who have stayed less than a year in the study area are fifty-four and this make up for 5.1 percent of the entire respondents. Twenty-two respondents engage in farm labour, twelve respondents are involved in trading, six respondents engage

in farming while the remaining fourteen respondents are engaged in civil service, artisanal activities and cottage processing.

Table 4.14: Relationship between Length of Stay and Livelihood Activities

Length of Stay in study area (in years)	Livelihood Activities							
	Farming	Trading	Artisan	Cottage Processing	Farm Labour	Civil Service	Lumbering	Total
Below 1	6	12	5	4	22	5	0	54
1 – 5	31	43	12	29	34	21	2	172
6 – 10	93	39	10	12	24	4	4	186
11 – 15	95	28	12	20	2	1	19	177
16 – 20	106	26	8	2	0	1	13	156
21 and above	285	04	2	4	1	0	6	302
Total	616	152	49	71	83	32	44	1047

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.2.6 Period of Migration into the Rural Areas

Female migration into the rural areas is a phenomenon which takes place on a continuous basis. However, there are variations in the volume of female migrants involved in the practice every year. Since the incidence of migration into rural areas is mainly dependent on economic situation of individuals as well as the country as a whole, it is expected that the volume of female migrant workers could vary depending on the existing circumstances. The study revealed temporal variations in terms of years of arrival; length of stay in the rural areas as well as period of the year that migrant arrived between 1980 and 2019.

There have been persistent movements of female migrant workers into the rural areas of Ondo State over the past fifty years. This is obvious in the responses of the female migrant workers where one hundred and forty four respondents (13.8 percent) stated that they have been residing in the rural area for about forty years and above. Ninety-one respondents (8.7 percent) stated that they migrated into the study area within the past 35 years. There was a massive upsurge in the volume of female migrants in the rural areas between 1985 and early 1990s. This period coincided with the era of the Directorate for Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI) programme commissioned by the former Head of State, General Ibrahim Babangida, when accessibility to the rural areas improved significantly as a result of the construction of rural feeder roads.

There was also the Better Life for Rural Women Programme, anchored by the wife of the Head of State, Dr Maryam Babangida, aimed at supporting women in the rural areas as well as improving their standard of living (Asaju, 2017; Babangida, 2006; Official Gazette, 1987; Ihimodu, 2022). Both programmes encouraged migration drift from urban centres to rural areas for livelihoods at that period since there was the development of mechanisms aimed at the mobilization of rural women who were interested in farming, production of various food crops and trading. There was an influx of migrants into the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area because it provided an avenue for boosting livelihood activities which in turn improved the existing earning opportunities.

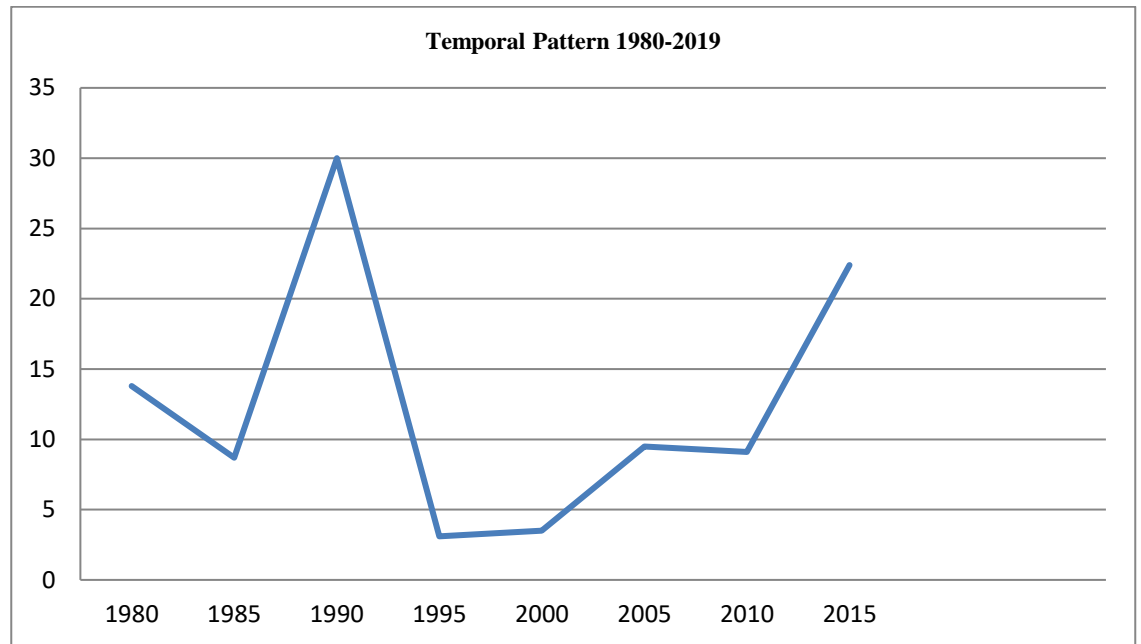


Figure 4.9: Temporal Pattern of migration into Rural Areas, 1980-2019
Source: Author Analysis, 2019

Figure 4.9 shows a lack of continuity of the programmes initiated for improved livelihoods of rural dwellers, a reverse trend took place and only 3.1 percent of females migrated to the rural areas between 1995 and 2000. The attainment of a promising democratic rule in the early 2000 kept many rural inhabitants away from villages and rural to urban migration persisted with only 3.5% of in-migrants recorded between 2000 and 2004. This might be connected with a period of nascent fourth Republic with promises of employment opportunities to many people in their various localities through political participation.

Thereafter, a reverse migration trend emerged, with 9.5 percent female migrants recorded between 2005 and 2009, as many migrants from rural to urban areas were disappointed with the severe economic hardship experienced in towns and cities as a result of high level of unemployment. There has been a tremendous increase in the volume of female migrant workers in the rural areas of Ondo state in recent times. According to this study, two hundred and thirty-five (22.4 percent) respondents have moved into the rural areas within the last five years (Figure 4.10). This is a clear response to the unfavourable economic situation in the country where majority of urban dwellers find it extremely difficult to survive and adequately pay their bills. Therefore the widespread poverty level in the urban centres and its attendant effects on the households act as major push factors influencing the decision of many females to embark on migration to the rural areas for livelihood and sustenance.

There are variations in the volume of female migrants' movement in and out of the rural areas on basis of period of the year. It is an established fact that in Nigeria, migrants usually travel to their various home towns and villages during festive seasons. These people seize the opportunity of the visits home to celebrate with their relatives and also attend annual family and town union meetings. These migrants usually contribute to the well-being of the left-behind relatives through cash donations and gift items. The gestures by successful migrants serve as a pull for more women to migrate to rural areas. Many female migrant workers therefore relocate to the rural areas after festive seasons.

The harvest period between August and October also attracts a lot of female migrants into the rural areas. This is so because there is a high demand for farm hands in the form of farm labour on the farms in the rural areas. This serves as an opportunity for easy absorption and ready earnings for females who might be looking for the means to raise capital for small scale businesses.

4.2.7 Remittance to the Source Region

There are variations in the amount remitted and frequency of remittance by female migrant workers in the study area. Table 4.15 shows the remittances sent to the source region by female migrant workers in the study area. The responses from the field survey show a significant level of commitment to remittance among the female migrant workers. Eight hundred and twenty-three respondents (78.6 percent) usually send remittance to relatives in their source regions either in cash (46.3 percent) or kind (32.3 percent). Apart from the four hundred and eighty-five (46.3 percent) who remit cash to their respective source regions, two hundred and eighty-three respondents (27.0 percent) send food items as remittance, forty-four (4.1 percent) respondents send farm products while eleven (1.05 percent) respondents send clothing materials to the source regions for the upkeep of non-migrants left behind especially the aged and school children who were left in care of foster parents. Only two hundred and twenty-four (21.4 percent) respondents claimed not to have been able to send remittance in any form to their relatives at the different source regions. Some of the respondents in this category even claimed to have received remittance in the past prior to their socio-economic reintegration.

In terms of amount of money remitted by female migrants in the study area, out of the total four hundred and eighty-five respondents who send cash to the left-behinds in their respective source regions, three hundred and eighty-two (36.4 percent) send #20,000, fifteen (1.4 percent) respondents send between #20,001 and #40,000, twenty-seven (5.5 percent) of the total respondents send between #40,001 and #60,000, fifty (2.5 percent) between #60,001 and #80,000 while the highest amount sent by respondents is between #80,001 and #100,000 by eleven (1.05 percent) respondents. In terms of frequency, five hundred and four respondents (48.1 percent) of the total number of respondents reportedly send remittance as the need arises while one hundred and forty-

eight (14.1percent) respondents send remittance annually. One hundred and five (10.02 percent) respondents send remittance on a quarterly basis. It was also reported that the remittances were meant to assist non-migrant members left behind, help dependent aged parents, and pay tuition of school children left behind, support community projects as well as buying landed properties.

Table 4.15: Remittances sent by Female Migrant Workers in Rural Areas

		Frequency	Percent
Remittance sent home	Yes	823	78.6
	No	224	21.4
	Total	1047	100
Remittance sent in what form?	Not sent	224	21.4
	Cash	485	46.3
	Kind	338	32.3
	Total	1047	100
Amount of remittance sent yearly	Not sent	224	21.4
	Below #20,000	382	36.4
	#20,001 - #40,000	15	1.4
	#40,001 - #60,000	27	5.5
	#60,001 - #80,000	50	2.5
	#80,001 - #100,000	11	1.05
	Total	1047	100
Remittance sent as kind	Not sent	224	21.4
	Sent as cash	485	46.3
	Farm Product	44	4.2
	Food stuff	283	27.02
	Clothes	11	1.05
	Total	1047	100
Period remittance is sent	Not sent	224	21.4
	Monthly	66	6.3
	Quarterly	105	10.02
	Yearly	148	1.47
	As occasion demands	504	48.13
	Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

Figure 4.10 shows the average annual remittance in cash across the study area. According to the figure, the study area can be divided into three categories on the basis of mean annual remittance. The first category falls within Ward 12 with a mean annual remittance which range between #3,000 and #8, 333. Female migrant workers who settle in Ward 6 have an average annual remittance which range between #8334 and #13, 667 while those who settle in Wards 2, 4 and 5 have an average annual remittance which is highest among the three categories and range between #13, 668 and #19000.

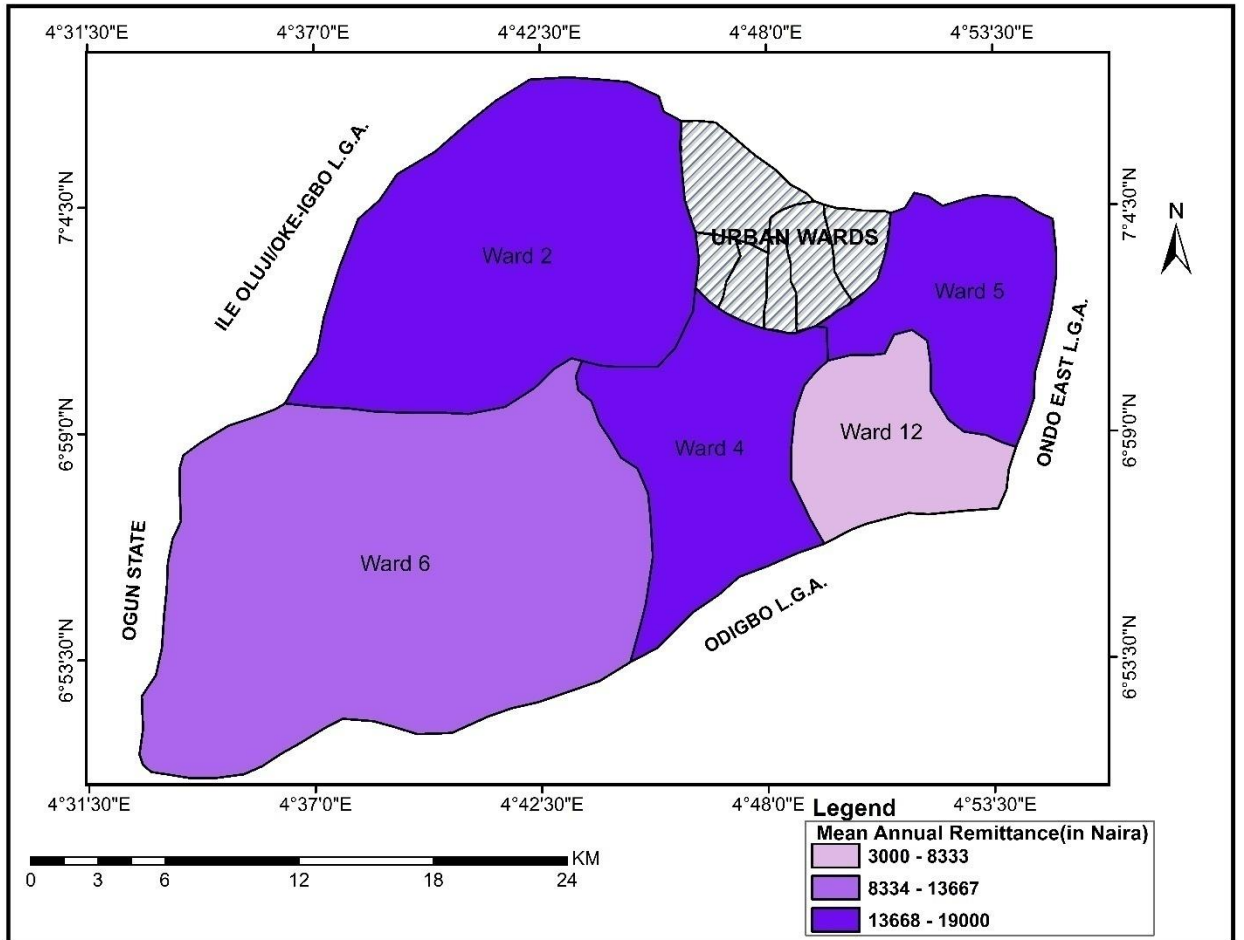


Figure 4.10: Remittance in Cash Source (Author Analysis, 2019)

4.2.8 Relationship between the Level of Female Migrant Workers' Involvement in Livelihood Activities and their Migration Processes.

The analysis in Table 4.16 showed the establishment of a significant relationship between the involvement of female migrant workers and their migratory processes. The result of correlation as shown in Table 4.16 reveals that there is no significant relationship between the level of female migrant workers' involvement in livelihood activities and number of accompanying family members, frequency and period of visits home at (p -value > 0.05) but there is a significant relationship between the level of female migrant workers' involvement in livelihood activities and their length of stay ($r = 0.073$, $p < 0.05$) and remittance sent home ($r = 0.87$, $p < 0.05$). This connotes that there exists a positive relationship between the involvements of female migrant workers' in livelihood activities and length of stay in the rural areas and the remittance sent home. It can be deduced that there is a positive relationship between the number of years respondents have spent in the study area and their involvement in livelihood activities.

It can be inferred that the positive significant relationship between the respondents' length of stay and their level of involvement in livelihood activities is strong. This denotes that an increase in length of stay of female migrants in rural areas of Ondo State will result in corresponding increase in their involvement in livelihood activities and vice versa. The result also shows that there is a positive relationship between the involvement of female migrant workers in livelihood activities and the remittance sent home.

The relationship between the involvement of female migrant workers in livelihood activities and the migratory processes (length of stay and remittance sent home) is statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis that states there is no significant relationship between the involvement of female migrant workers in livelihood activities and migratory processes is rejected except in the case of period of visits home, frequency of visits and accompanying family members.

Table 4.16: Involvement in Livelihood Activities and Migration Processes

			Frequency of visits home	Accompanying family members	Length of Stay	Period of visit home	Remittance
Spearman's rho	The involvement of female migrants in livelihood activities	Correlation Coefficient	0.0203	-0.050	0.073*	0.011	0.87*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.453	0.103	0.018	0.729	0.005
		N	1047	1047	1047	1047	1047

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.3. Relationship between Socio-Economic and Demographic Characteristics of Female Migrant Workers and Livelihood Activities.

This section examines the relationship between the socio-economic characteristics of respondents and the livelihood activities engaged in.

4.3.1. Age distribution and Livelihood Activities

As shown in Table 4.17, thirteen out of the respondents are aged below 20 years. Five engage in farming, two in trading, one in artisanal activities, three in cottage processing, two respondents in farm labour while none of the respondents in this age group is engaged in civil service and lumbering. Eighty-one respondents fall into the 20 – 29 years age bracket, thirty-two are engaged in farming as a livelihood activity, eleven respondents are traders, eight are into artisanal activities, six in cottage processing, nine are farm labourers, fifteen respondents are into civil service while none of them are into lumbering.

Also, out of the two hundred and six respondents aged between 30 and 39 years; ninety-six respondents are engaged in farming, seventy-nine respondents are traders, four are engaged in artisanal activities, ten in farm labour, twenty in civil service and one respondent in lumbering. Three hundred respondents out of the total one thousand and forty-seven fall between the 40 and 49 years age bracket, there are two hundred respondents who are practice farming, forty-three are involved in trading, twenty are artisans, five respondents are into cottage processing, seven respondents are actively involved in farm labour, five respondents are civil servants while twenty respondents chose lumbering as livelihood activity.

Three hundred and seventeen respondents are aged between fifty and fifty-nine years, one hundred and ninety-five respondents are farmers, twelve are involved in trading, seven respondents are artisans, thirty-one respondents are into cottage processing, fifty-five respondents are actively involved in farm labour, none of the respondents are involved in civil service while seventeen respondents are involved in lumbering as livelihood activity. Respondents who are aged sixty years and above are one hundred and thirty in all, eighty-eight are farmers, five respondents are traders, nine respondents are into artisanal activities, twenty-two respondents are into cottage processing while six respondents are

into lumbering, farm labour and civil service do not have respondents who participate in those activities from that age bracket.

Table 4.17: Age distribution of Female Migrant Workers and their livelihood activities

Variable	Farming	Trading	Artisan	Cottage Processing	Farm Labor	Civil service	Lumbe -ring	Total
Age(Yr)								
Below 20	5	2	1	3	2	0	0	13
20-29	32	11	8	6	9	15	0	81
30-39	96	79	4	4	10	12	1	206
40-49	200	43	20	5	7	5	20	300
50-59	195	12	7	31	55	0	17	317
60and above	88	5	9	22	0	0	6	130
Total	616	152	49	71	83	32	44	1047

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.3.2. Household Size and Livelihood Activities

Table 4.18 shows the distribution of household size of female migrant workers in the study area. The household size with the highest frequency is between 4 and 6, the migrants who fall within this household size are five hundred and eighty-four (55.74 percent) with three hundred and fifty-seven respondents (34.09 percent) engaging in farming as the predominant livelihood activity. The highest household size for this study has above 10 people and only three respondents fall into this category, they engage in farming and lumbering. The table above showed that two hundred and eighty-two (26.93 percent) respondents are from the lowest household size which is 1 to 3. One hundred and thirty-one (12.51 percent) respondents who are within this household size engage in trading as their predominant livelihood activity. This group accounted for migrants that engage in itinerant trade involving buying and selling of farm produce from the rural areas and reselling same to the urban consumers, a voyage that may take them several days before returning to their usual villages in the rural areas. 75.0 percent of the single female migrant workers and 72.4 percent of the divorced migrants respectively with single or whose household members are not more than three reported frequent changes in location as well as occupation as the opportunities arise. One hundred and seventy-eighty (17 percent) respondents are within the 7 and 9 household size where one hundred and sixty (15.28 percent) respondents engage in farming.

Table 4.18: Size of Household and Livelihood Activities of Female Migrant Workers.

Size	Farming	Trading	Artisan	Cottage Processing	Farm Labour	Civil Service	Lumbering	Total
1 – 3	97	131	7	5	18	22	3	282
4 – 6	357	18	40	60	63	8	37	584
7 – 9	160	3	2	6	2	2	3	178
10 above	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	3
Total	616	152	49	71	83	32	44	1047

Source: Author Analysis, 2019.

4.3.3. Income and Livelihood Activities of Female Migrant Workers

The influence of income on the involvement of migrant women in livelihood activities is minimal ($r = 0.02$) on arrival in the rural areas. The first consideration was usually how to get involved in any kind of livelihood activity or the other usually through kin and friends who act as the principal source of assistance or connection. Therefore the choice of livelihood activities depends largely on the assistance received from the relatives or friends that facilitated the movement of the migrant to the rural areas. According to Table 4.19, the sample reflects a mixed income strata among various female migrant workers in the study area. Surprisingly, thirty-four (78.2 percent) out of the forty-four of women engaging in lumbering activities reported relatively high income above N120, 000 per annum.

Only 8.45 percent of the respondents who engage in cottage processing of farm products such as palm oil and cassava earn above one hundred and twenty thousand naira per annum while 4.22 percent earn below thirty thousand naira yearly. This means that 56.34 percent of the respondents earn between thirty one thousand naira and sixty thousand naira yearly while a total of 33.76 percent out of the seventy-one respondents earn between sixty-one thousand naira and ninety thousand naira every year. A large percentage, 55.83 percent, of respondents engage in cocoa and kolanut plantations, 5.19 percent earn above one hundred and twenty-thousand naira while 13.63 percent earn below thirty thousand Naira annually. 27.59 percent earn between sixty thousand Naira and ninety thousand naira while three hundred respondents (48.7 percent) earn between thirty-one thousand and sixty thousand naira only.

Although only 10.89 percent earn above one hundred thousand naira, 16.62 percent earn between ninety-one thousand naira and one hundred and twenty thousand naira, 17.81percent earn between sixty-one thousand and ninety thousand naira annually; 55.40 percent which account for more than half the total number of respondents earn below sixty thousand naira per annum. The female migrant workers' annual earnings may seem low but most of them asserted that they are satisfied taking since the cost of living and needs remain relatively low within the study area.

Table 4.19: Income and Livelihood Activities of Female Migrant Workers

Amount (N)	Farming	Trading	Artisan	Cottage Processing	Farm Labour	Civil Service	Lumbering	Total
1 – 30,000	84	4	6	3	13	0	0	110
31,000 – 60,000	300	72	28	40	26	2	2	470
61,000 – 90,000	102	50	7	5	11	3	1	179
91,000 – 120,000	98	18	4	17	25	5	7	174
121,000 & above	32	8	4	6	8	22	34	114
Total	616	152	49	71	83	32	44	1047

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.3.4 Migrants' Source Region and livelihood activities.

The Table 4.20 shows the source region of female migrant workers in the study area. The migrants from the south-western part of Nigeria account for the highest number of migrants. Five hundred and eighty-one (55.49 percent) respondents migrated from States like Ekiti, Oyo, Ogun and Osun States. Three hundred and sixty-seven (35.05 percent) respondents drawn from the south-west engage in farming as a livelihood activity, one hundred and eleven (10.6 percent) respondents from this region are traders, twenty (1.91 percent) respondents are into artisanal activities and forty-one (3.91 percent) respondents engage in lumbering activity. The high number of respondents from this region is not unconnected with the proximity of these states to the area under study. The respondents also opined that it was easy to settle in at the study area due to the similarities in the climatic condition and the food crops grown at their source region.

A total of thirty-two respondents (5.51 percent) of the migrants from southwest engaging in artisanal activities, cottage processing and farm labour. The highest number of respondents engaging in civil service (thirty respondents) and lumbering (forty-one) are also drawn from this region. Only two respondents (0.19 percent) of the total number of respondents are from the North East region and are engaged in trading and artisanal activities. Six respondents (0.57 percent) are from the northwestern region and all these six respondents are from Kaduna state. The other states of the northwestern region like Jigawa, Kano, Katsina, Kebbi, Sokoto and Zamfara are not represented in the study area. The very low number of migrants from the northeastern and northwestern parts of the county is not unconnected with the distance that exists between the region and the study area. The cultural and climatic differences which also reflect in the differences in the livelihood activities practiced in the two regions are also basis for the sharp contrast.

Migrants from the south western and north central regions of the country are more involved in farming, trading, farm labour and lumbering than the other regions while respondents from the south eastern parts followed closely behind. From the table above, it can be deduced that no respondent from the south-south, north-west and north-east engaged in livelihood activities such as civil service and lumbering while respondents

from the south-west and south east regions were adequately spread across all livelihood activities in the study area.

Table 4.20: Source Region of Female Migrant Worker and Livelihood Activities.

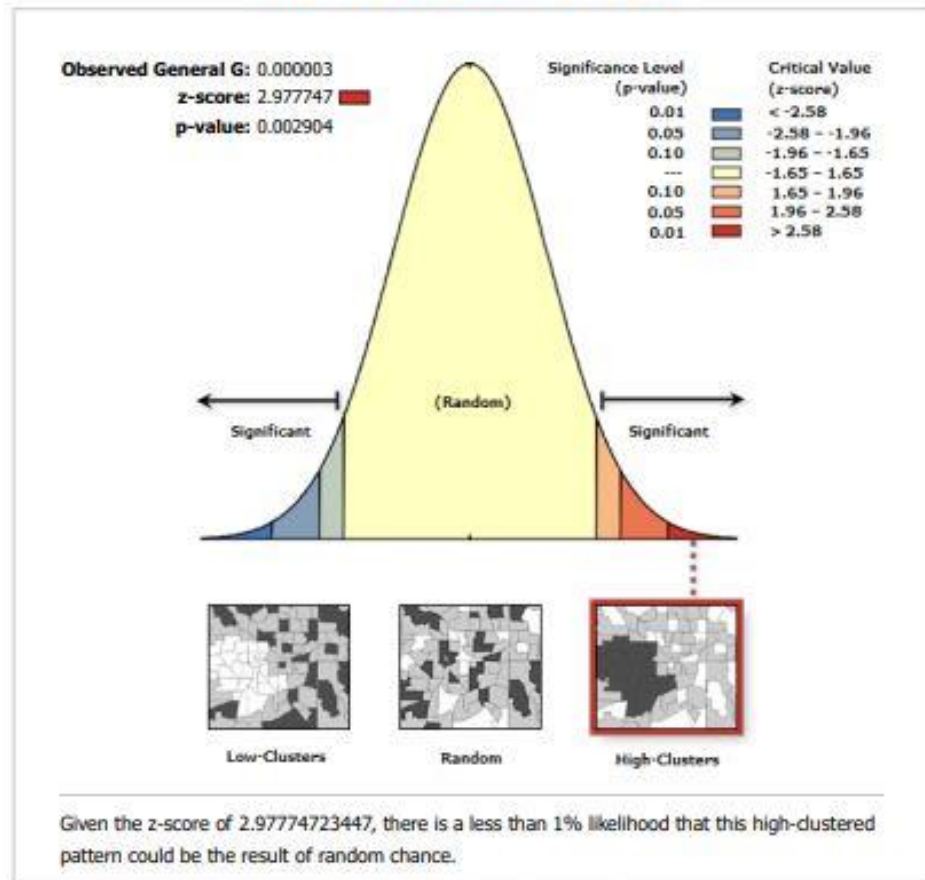
Source Region	Livelihood Activities							Total
	Farming	Trading	Artisan	Cottage Processing	Farm Labour	Civil Service	Lumbering	
North	158	24	6	22	45	1	0	256
Central								
North East	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2
North West	0	4	1	0	1	0	0	6
South East	71	10	16	7	24	1	3	132
South South	20	2	5	37	6	0	0	70
South West	367	111	20	5	7	30	41	581
Total	616	152	49	71	83	32	44	1047

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.4 Migration Pattern of Female Migrant Workers.

In testing for the significant difference in the migration pattern of female migrant workers in the study area, their source regions (previous state of residence) were deemed as the feature class for the analysis. Based on this, the Getis Ord G_i^* in ArcGIS Environment was used as it takes observed mean distances of the polygon (states) into consideration to determine the spatial pattern. It was adopted for the analysis as an appropriate spatial statistics to determine whether the spatial pattern is random or low cluster or high-cluster. The result from Getis Ord G_i analysis under the spatial statistic tool in ArcGIS 10.8 environment shows that there was high -cluster pattern of migration at z-value of 2.9778 and p-value of 0.003. Since the p-value of 0.00 is less than Alpha at 0.05, the null hypothesis that states that there is no significant difference in migration pattern is hereby rejected. This indicates that the migration pattern is not random as female migrant workers migrated from few states of Nigeria which are clustered within a geographical area. The female workers migrated from eighteen states out of thirty-six states with FCT of Nigeria as shown in Figure 2 with four different classes of 0 percent, 0.1 to 10percent, 10.1 to 20 percent, and over 20 percent female migrants from any of the states. To be precise, 0.5 percent female migrants were from Lagos, 40.1 percent from Osun, 4.1 percent from Ondo, 7.8 percent from Benue, 8.4 percent from Delta, 7.7 percent from Edo, 2.6 percent from Ebonyi, 0.4 percent from FCT, 4.2 percent from Kwara, 0.5 percent from Rivers, 2.6 percent from Enugu, 11.7 percent from Oyo, 0.7 percent from Cross River, 0.3 percent from Akwa Ibom, 1.0 percent from Ekiti, 0.2 percent from Bayelsa, 5.9 percent from Kogi, and 1.4 percent Ogun. Except for the Federal Capital Territory, Kwara and Kogi from North Central, female migrant workers migrated mainly from south-western part of Nigeria, this might be the reason for the high-clusters pattern revealed in Figure 4.11.

High-Low Clustering Report



General G Summary

Observed General G:	0.000003
Expected General G:	0.000001
Variance:	0.000000
z-score:	2.977747
p-value:	0.002904

Fig 4.11: Migration Pattern of Female Migrant Workers

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.5 Rural Land Use in Ondo West Local Government Area

Ondo West Local Government is one of the major destinations of rural tenant farmers. The major tribes of migrants identified in the rural areas include the Yoruba, Igbo, Ebir, Tiv, Edo, Kalabari, Urhobo, Ijaw and Hausa ethnic groups. Apart from the Yorubas from the South West, migrants are mainly from landless areas especially the North Central and South East where the economic situations are not conducive and therefore chose to reside in some of the rural areas. Often times the final destination of a labour migrant is determined by the location of friend or relatives who will render initial support towards integration.

Female migrant workers' relatives and friends who are resident in the proposed destination help in securing jobs in the rural areas before the migrants' arrival. This in turn has influence the type of livelihood activities which the migrants practiced which in some cases are familiar with the common occupations in their origin and the land use pattern of their present location. The dominant livelihood activity of the people in study area is agriculture. This livelihood activity provides income and employment prospects for over seventy percent of its population. The major crops produced in commercial quantity include cocoa, kola nut, palm produce and timber. Furthermore, Ondo State accounts for over sixty percent of Nigeria's annual cocoa output. Livelihood activities available to female migrant workers in rural areas include cultivation, palm oil production, gari and cassava flour processing, fruit gathering, food gathering, trading and hawking, basket and bag weaving among others, that takes place simultaneously in certain location or separately in others.

According to Fig 4:12, although not perfectly uniform, the sample shows a sort of tribal congregation in the rural areas which is a reflection of relatives arriving in succession to join their family members or friends they were found around different rural land uses. Spatially, as rightly postulated by Von Thunen, many migrant women that settled in villages with short distances from Ondo town especially at the northern fringes of wards 2, 4 and 5 engaged in market gardening, where 33.2 percent of the women plant vegetables intensively for sale to the urban residents. The proximity to the town

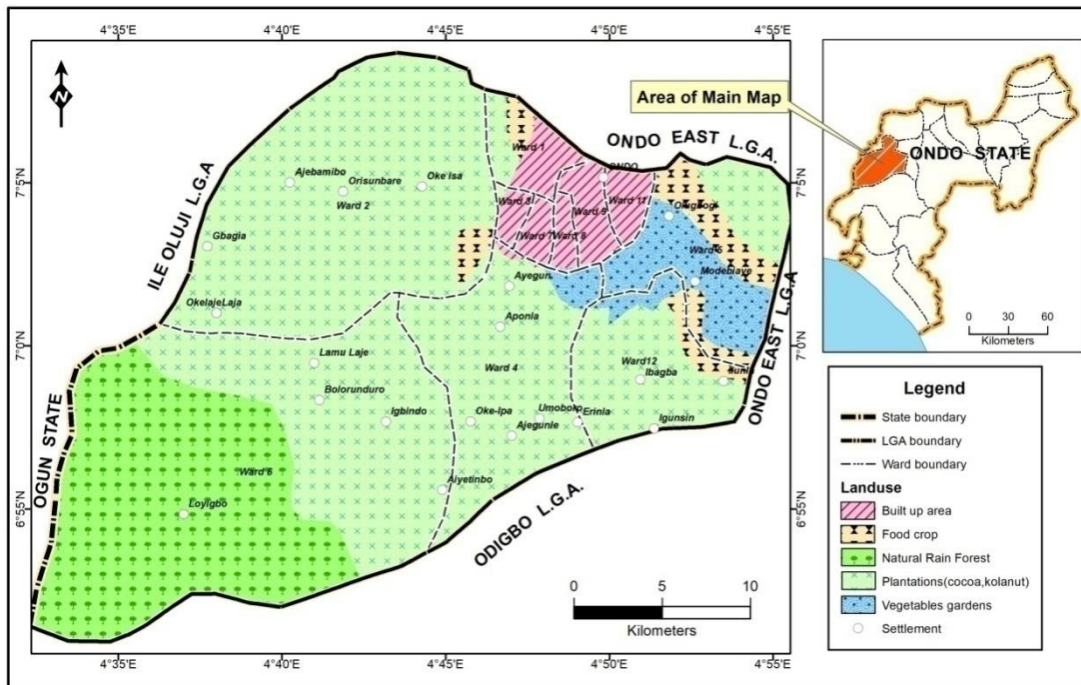


Figure 4.12: Rural Land Use in Ondo West Local Government Area

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

encourages easy access and low cost of transporting the vegetables to the markets with minimum lost of nutrients and values (see Figure 4.12)

The Yoruba female migrant workers from the southwestern states, though found in every geo-political wards of the study area, are more concentrated in wards 2, 4 and 6 which are the gateways to their respective states of origin. Eighty percent of migrants from either Osun or Oyo states that settled in these rural areas engaged in plantation farming involving cultivation of cocoa and kolanuts while 12.2 percent others are traders who buy cocoa and kolanut from local farmers and sell to the urban merchants. Migrant women from Ondo State and neighbouring Ekiti State dominated the civil service jobs (teaching, health attendants and forestry officers) in the rural areas. The reason for the dominance of this group of migrants is traced to the fact that the Ondo State Government and the Ondo West Local Government Area were the major employers of civil servants which they sent to the rural areas.

The Von Thunen Model predicts that human will use land in relation to the cost of land and cost of transporting products to the market. Similar to the proposition of Von Thunen, the land use pattern of the selected rural areas radiate around Ondo town, the only urban centre in the Local Government Area (Figure 4.12). Apart from the urban land uses (residential, industrial, commercial and education land uses among others) in the town, the rural land use was dominated by farming and agro allied activities. The agricultural land use pattern in the study area relatively conforms to the proposition of Von Thunen.

The Edo and Urhobo female migrants settled in rural areas where opportunities which are presented as specific jobs such as palm oil production, gari processing and basket weaving are available. Although some of these livelihood activities were considered to be less lucrative among the local farmers, this set of migrants get absorbed readily because most of them engaged in the same livelihood activities before migrating into the study area. Fifty two percent of the Ibo tribes among the female migrants workers from the southeastern states were also found in wards 4 and 12 where palm trees are in abundant



Figure 4.13: Market Gardening by female migrant worker

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

for palm oil processing while only 27.5 percent others engaged in the cultivation of cocoa either as rural tenant farmers or permanent farm owners.

Seventy two percent of migrant women from Benue and Kogi States were found in the persistently cultivated derived savanna fringe of wards 2, 4 and 5 specifically in villages with short distances from Ondo town where they planted and processed cassava flour and gari (cassava flakes) for the urban markets. Less than five percent of migrants from either Kogi or Benue states settled in the forest region of the interiors of Ward 6. The Tiv and Idoma women from Benue as well as Ebira and Igala migrant women from Kogi State are mainly concentrated in food crop farming areas, such as yam and cassava which are equally practiced in their various villages of origin. As a result, cottage food processing such as cassava milling, production of cassava flour and gari processing and frying are the dominant sources of livelihood among the migrant women from the north-central zone of Nigeria.

The distance decay theory asserts that the longer the distance separating a person and a large city, the lower the probability that the person moves towards the city (Golini, 2010). This means that if the distance from the centre is high, the volume of migrants moving into that centre is reduced. This is due to the migration costs in terms of money and time. The distance factor becomes a major determinant in the decision to migrate. This makes many migrants move over shorter distances than they would have chosen originally. This is true in the ways in which female migrants are distributed across the various wards. In addition to plantation agriculture, Yoruba women from Ondo town and neighbouring Ogun state settled in ward 6 and practiced lumbering and timber mercantile.

Although the distance decay theory was not exclusively put together to examine the activities of female migrant workers in rural areas, it is however possible to situate the theory within the present study. It has been established in literature that people tend to move towards places with better opportunities than their former location. Female migrant workers who migrated from the South-South and South-East zones are found to have chosen Wards 4, 5 and 12 as their major destinations probably due to the accessibility

through the major road that links the study area to Ore where the migrants can easily travel to Benin, Onitsha and various towns in the southeastern states and the Niger Delta region. As a result palm oil processing, basket weaving and local wine production remain major occupations of 44.2 percent of migrant women within these wards.

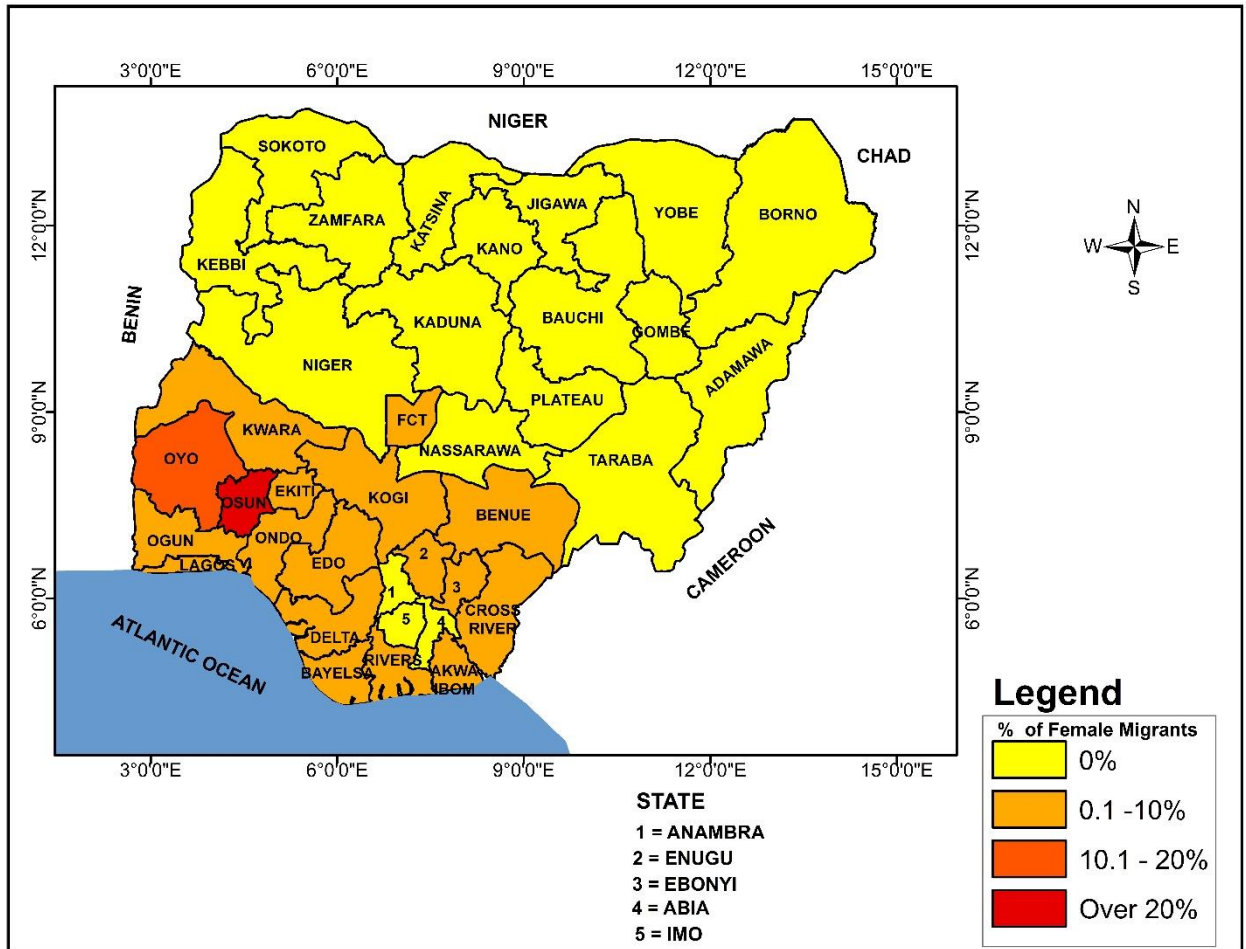


Fig 4.14: Spatial Pattern of Source Regions of the Female Migrant Workers
Source: Author Analysis, 2019

In considering the average distance covered by female migrants from their source regions to the study area, Table 4.21 reveals the distance covered, accordingly as 439 kilometres (km) for Cross River, 413 kilometres for Akwa Ibom, 367 kilometres for Ebonyi, 349 kilometres for Rivers, 304 kilometres for FCT, 293 kilometres for Enugu, 291 kilometres for Bayelsa, 230 kilometres for Kogi, 210 kilometres for Delta, 188 kilometres for Kwara, 187 kilometres for Oyo, 184 kilometres for Ogun, 165 kilometres for Lagos, 144 kilometres for Edo, 79 kilometres for Ekiti, and 61 kilometres for Osun State.

Table 4.21a: Source Regions' Frequency and Distance to the Study Area

Source Region	Volume of Migrants	Percent of Migrants	Distance Covered in Kilometres (Km)
Lagos State	5	0.5	165
Osun State	420	40.1	61
Ondo State	43	4.1	37
Benue State	82	7.8	413
Delta State	88	8.4	210
Edo State	81	7.7	144
Ebonyi State	27	2.6	367
FCT	4	0.4	304
Kwara State	44	4.2	188
Rivers State	5	0.5	349
Enugu State	27	2.6	293
Oyo State	122	11.7	187
Cross River	7	0.7	439
Akwa Ibom	3	0.3	413
Ekiti State	10	1	79
Bayelsa State	2	0.2	291
Kogi State	62	5.9	230
Ogun State	15	1.4	184

(Source: Author's Analysis, 2019)

In testing for the relationship between distance from source regions and volume of migration from each origin, Table 4.22 reveals that there is a significant negative relationship between distance from the source region and volume of migrants at p-value of 0.10. The negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.423$) shows that the volume of female migrant workers decreases as the distance from the source regions increases. This is corroborated with assumption of distance decay model which opines there is a decrease in the number of migrants as distance increases. Therefore, the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between the volume of migrants in the study area and the distance from the various source regions was rejected.

Table 4.22: Relationship between volume of female migrant workers and distance from source regions

		Volume of Female Migrants	Distance to the source region
Volume of Female Migrants	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.423*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.010
	N	18	18
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

(Source: Author's Analysis, 2019)

4.6. Spatial Variation in Livelihood Activities across Rural Localities

Summing up the analysis of the spatial distribution of female migrant workers and their various livelihood activities in the study area, it is evident that the geographical location of migrants influences the type of livelihood activities engaged in. These locations were mostly not predetermined but a result of the physical location of families or friends that facilitated the migrant's choice of final destinations. It was also noted that migrants are more comfortable and showed more preference to rural areas where they could get easily absorbed and are more likely to get involved in familiar livelihood activities which make their adaptation and economic integration easy.

In order to arrive at an objective conclusion about the observable spatial variation in the prevalence of livelihood activities among the various localities in the study area as presented in the descriptive analysis above, the null hypothesis earlier formulated was statistically tested. The hypothesis states that there is no significant variation in the livelihood activities of female migrant workers across different rural areas.

One sample t-Test was used to determine the level of significant difference in the spatial pattern of migrant female workers across the five rural wards as stated in hypothesis five. The t-Test technique was used in determining the extent of variation within the number of sampled female migrant workers within each ward as well as the factors responsible for the differences. This is important in order to ascertain the significant differences in the volume of female migrant workers and the influence on the livelihood activities they engaged in within the selected rural areas. The result shows the significant mean difference of 7.003 at significant value (Sig.) of 0.00 less than α of 0.05 (alpha level), and at t-value of 47.261. This indicates that there is a significant variation in the livelihood activities of female migrant workers across different localities of Ondo State. Hence, the null hypothesis earlier proposed that there is no significant spatial variation in the livelihood activities of female migrant workers is hereby rejected (see Table 4.22).

Table 4.23: Spatial Variations in Livelihood Activities of Female Migrant Workers

OneSample t-Test						
	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Livelihood Activities	47.261	1046	0.000	7.003	6.71	7.29

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

From the foregoing analyses, it is clear that while farming is highly practiced in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area; many migrant workers specialized in different aspects where they believed they could easily adapt with very high expertise. Also, migrant women from the southwestern states dominated plantation farming because of their proximity and ability to easily secure farm holdings through tenancy or inheritance. This should not be interpreted as excluding specific regions or states from the practice of plantation agriculture in the study area. Rather, each zone is involved in various aspects of farming, albeit in varying proportions. Geopolitical zones with a low number of female migrant workers should not be undervalued or excluded from the practice. In other words, those regions are likely to be the destinations for peasant farmers; thus, their participation in the practice of female migration is equally important and must be taken into account.

Generally speaking, the various migration processes exert a considerable influence on the choice of livelihood activities engaged in by female migrants. The length of stay in the rural areas of female migrants influences their current livelihood activities. A female migrant worker that lived long in the rural area has better chances of social and economic assimilation than newcomers. Such women are able to acquire cultivable land for farming while new entrants mainly serve as farm labour or engage in craftsmanship which may be less profitable in the rural villages.

The greatest determinant of the types of livelihood activities is however, the source region from which the migrant originated. On arrival, some of the women came in contact with their kinsmen who accommodate and assist them to start a job which are mostly similar to what they were familiar with at origin. Previous experiences also attracted majority of the women to similar occupation in the new locations. Those that came from other rural areas found it easier to engage in farming than women from urban centres who sometimes prefer intermediary trading and craftsmanship to rural agricultural practices.

Hired farm labour and itinerant trading are mostly common among autonomous female migrant workers (mostly single, divorced or separated) than those that are married and living with their husband. This is a result of their inability to possess farm holdings.

Widows and aged female migrant workers above 60 years are mostly found in the plantation regions of Wards 2, 4 and 6 where many of them have inherited and are managing their deceased husband's farmland.

The livelihood approach is centered around the capacity of individuals to create livelihood results dependent on their qualities. Individuals need a scope of advantages so as to accomplish constructive livelihood results in light of the fact that there is no single classification of benefits adequate to produce a total of the numerous and shifted livelihood outcomes that migrants seek (Ajani and Mgbeka, 2013). Female migrant workers who have limited access to resources have to join their resources with others to guarantee survival.



Figure 4.15: Palm Oil Processing among female migrant workers
Source: Field Survey, 2019



Figure 4.16: Female Migrant Workers from Benue State frying Gari
Source: Author Analysis, 2019

4.7. Challenges Encountered by Female Migrant Workers' Livelihoods in Rural Areas

Two hundred and fifty (23.9 percent) respondents opined that one of the major challenges facing female migrant workers in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area is inadequate support from spouse which makes it difficult to utilize the available opportunities in the study area. According to the female migrant workers in the study area, spousal support is inadequate as their husbands are not willing to invest financially in their livelihood activities. This leaves in a very precarious situation which further complicates the already challenging scenario.

Figure 4.17 shows the relative index for inadequate support from spouse as one of the major challenges faced by female migrant workers in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area. Respondents in Ward 12 have a relative index which ranged from 0.18 and 0.21 as regards inadequate spousal support while respondents from Wards 2 and 4 have a moderate relative index which ranged from 0.22 and 0.23. Wards 5 and 6 have a high relative index which ranged from 0.24 and 0.26 when discussing inadequate spousal support as a major challenge faced by female migrant workers in the study area.

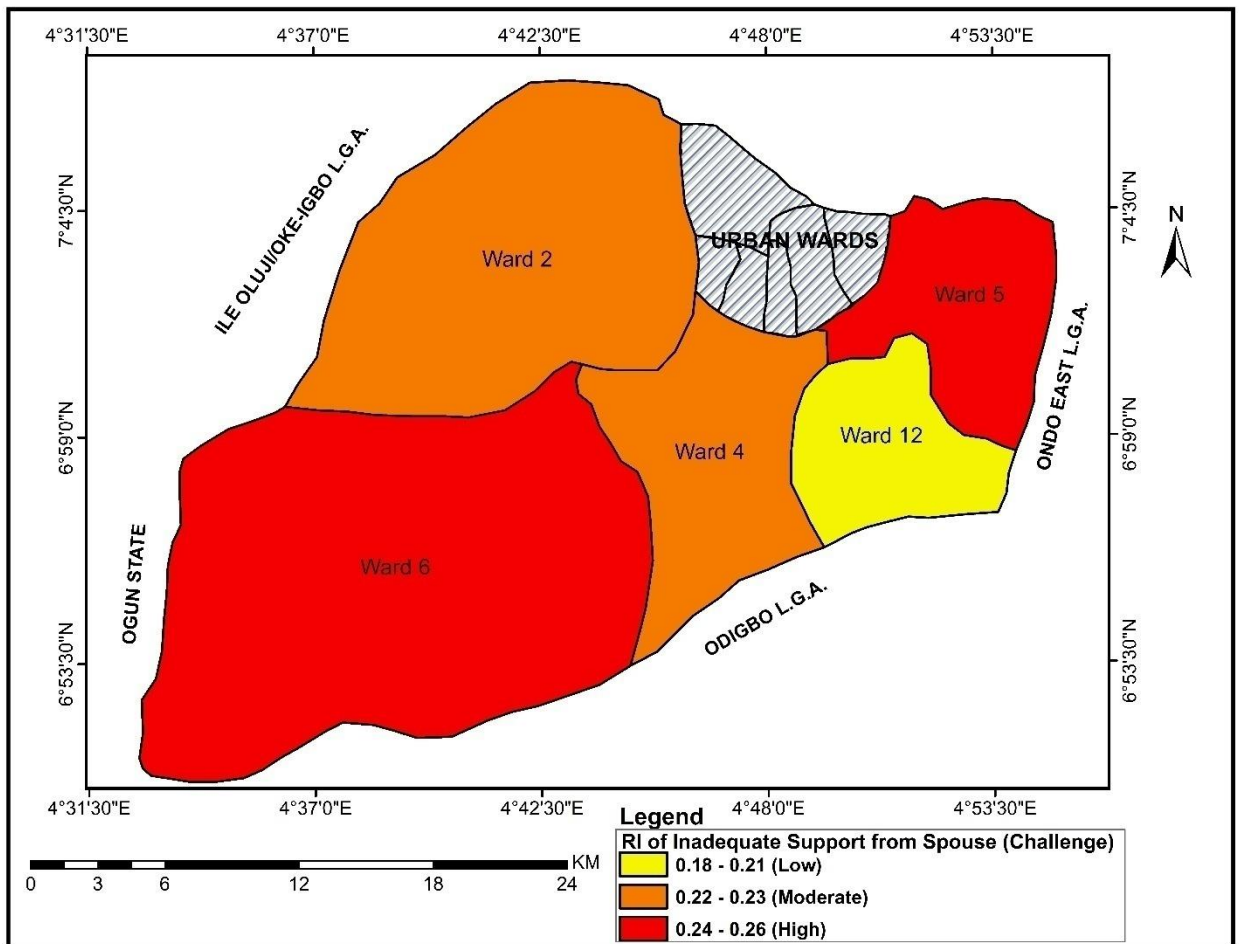


Figure 4.17: Inadequate spousal support as challenge faced.
 (Author Analysis, 2019)

Figure 4.18 depicts another major challenge faced by respondents across the study area as the deplorable state of roads in the rural areas. Three hundred and twenty-three (30.9 percent) respondents said that lack of motorable roads posed a major challenge as a high proportion of food products like plantain, oranges, vegetable, pepper and tomatoes decay in transit especially during the rainy season. Rural roads are generally poor and not motor-able for most part of the year. The roads are generally not motorable and are mainly patronized by big lorries, pick-up vans (Figure 4.19) and motorcycles. Females are more disadvantaged in terms of transport patronage in the rural areas and this makes their survival and competition very difficult. For instance, whenever the limited roads become too deplorable for motor vehicles especially during the raining season the most widely alternative means of mobility to convey farm produce to the market is motorcycle which is commonly owned and operated by men. The women therefore have the option of either to wait for long period of time to get motor vehicle, embark on head portage or pay heavily to hire the services of the men folk for assistance to convey their goods on motorcycles. In this regards, women are disadvantaged while men are privileged to get additional income because of bad roads.

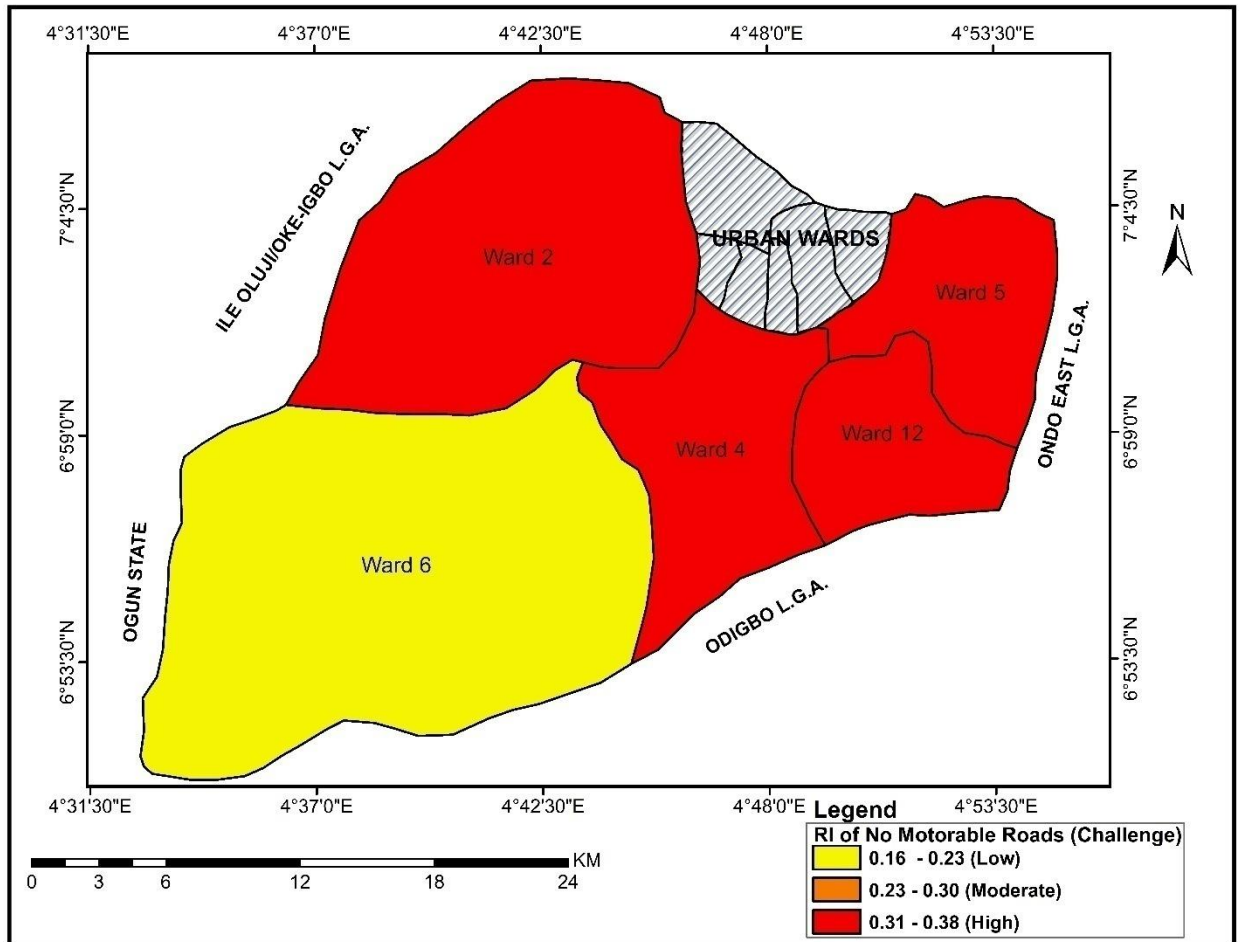


Figure 4.18: Lack of Motorable Roads as challenge faced.
 (Author Analysis, 2019)

According to Figure 4.19, inability to access funds posed a major challenge to female migrant workers as stated by two hundred and sixty-eight (25.6 percent) respondents. According to respondents, it was impossible to access bank and multipurpose loans as one of the basic requirements for eligibility for loan are membership of cooperative societies and access to collateral security. Lack of access to credit facilities and financial assistance hinder the actualization of the potentialities of some rural women. Many migrant women have potential to develop and improve upon their current income through increase production but since they find it difficult to get financial assistance or credit facilities, they resorted to the production at micro scale. This is worsened by the unavailability of financial institutions such as micro finance or commercial banks in the rural areas. Often times, it is difficult for rural women to accumulate and plan their finances since every income is kept at home within their reach rather than banks.

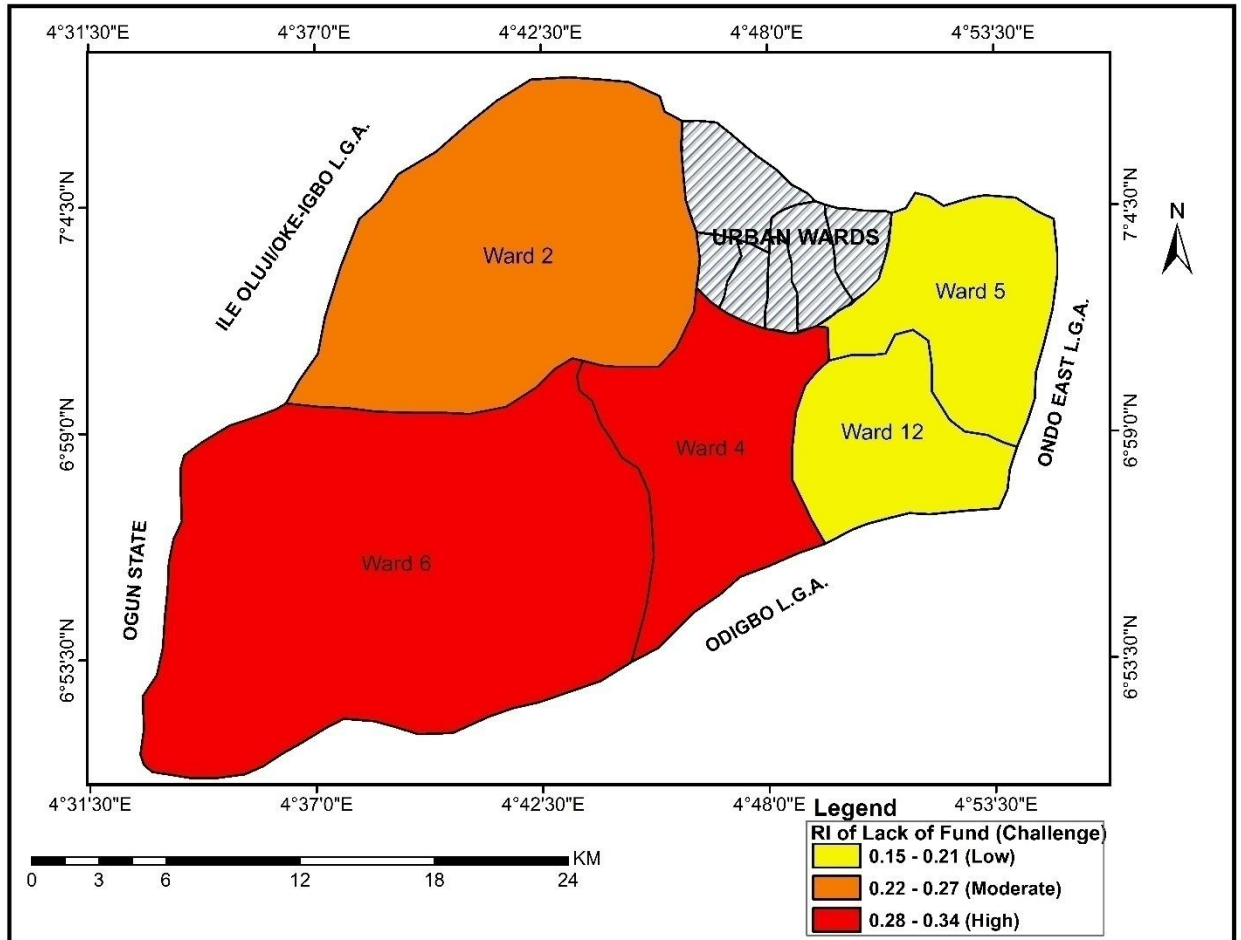


Figure 4.19: Lack of fund as challenge faced.
 (Author Analysis, 2019)

Table 4.24: Challenges faced by Female Migrant Workers in the pursuit of their livelihoods in Rural Areas.

	Frequency	Percent
Inadequate support from spouse	250	23.9
No motorable roads	323	30.9
Lack of funds	268	25.6
Lack of social amenities	136	13
Government Tax	14	1.3
Land tussle	8	0.8
Unfavourable weather	5	0.5
Health problem	29	2.8
Total	1047	100

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

According to Table 4.23, another major challenge faced by female migrants in rural areas is the lack of social amenities as opined by one hundred and thirty-six (13 percent) while the inability to pay tax levied by government is a major problem according to fourteen (1.3 percent) respondents. Furthermore, majority of the female migrant workers who have acquired some forms of training in certain vocations prior to movement to their present locations could not establish or practice such vocation as a result of unavailability of electricity. Those who managed to establish such vocations rely on frequent visit to towns to put finishing touches to their job in cases where electrical works are necessary. This creates additional burden, time as well as extra cost on the services that they render which consequentially lead to high cost of production with eventual low return.

Eight respondents (0.8 percent) face the challenge of rift the ownership of land which arise when different people come to collect rent over the same piece of land. Also, acquisition of farm holding is another difficult task for female migrant workers in the rural areas. In the first place, many of them lack adequate financial capacity either to rent land or for outright purchase. Also, women are in some cases not entitled to inheritance of farmland which are usually entrusted to the male children as inheritance. Five (0.5 percent) respondents stated that the changing pattern of climate has been a major issue as inadequate rainfall has stalled their activities especially as farmers.

Twenty-nine (2.8 percent) respondents stated that their failing health has been a major challenge in their activities as female migrants as most of the rural areas do not have clinics or dispensaries not to talk of medical practitioners. The remoteness of some of the rural villages without medical facilities also hinders the capabilities of migrant women in the rural areas. Often times, the required health needs of women are not usually met especially those at the child bearing ages and the aged ones who need medical attention. This is somehow compounded by inadequate transport facilities which does not encourage commuting to the urban centre where health facilities are concentrated.

Innovation and acquisition of more knowledge are very crucial aspects of modernization and development. This is however difficult for female migrant workers in the rural areas because educational institutions and learning facilities are not readily available in the rural

areas. As a result, some of the rural women that migrated to the region still remained illiterate since there is no opportunity for them to learn either through extension services or adult education programmes. The children also find it difficult to attend schools because the few available elementary schools are located far away, and mostly in larger villages where sizeable number of pupils could be assembled.

The difficulties faced in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area by female migrant workers are basically the same as those limiting the development of rural areas in Nigeria as a whole. The problems of rural areas can be summed up as being those of poverty, a poor living and working environment, and low productivity caused by a lack of technology and health delivery services (Abiodun, Olutunmise, and Ojo, 2019; Djibo and Shieferaw, 2018; Forisa, 2014). The challenges have been linked to the evident deficiencies in the most fundamental social and economic infrastructures including roads, schools, hospitals, electricity, water and decent housing. These have a negative impact on the quality of life and labour productivity in rural areas.

A characteristic feature of peasant agriculture observed among female migrant workers in rural areas is low level of capital (Olaleye, Ogunboye and Olanusi 2014; Yeboah, Owusu, Arhin and Kumi, 2015). The sources of capital identified among female migrant workers in rural areas include savings from migrants' earnings and loans from friends, relatives and neighbours which are sometimes supplemented with loans from locally based credit organizations and cooperative societies and from town descendant associations. Commercial banks and micro finance banks that were supposed to provide financial assistance to the women are virtually not available for services in the rural areas (Ekpeyong and Daniel; 2015, Iliya and Oppon-Kumi; 2011)

Certain factors such as poor infrastructure or productivity, limited education or lack of information and lack of access to markets prevent access to labour and capital market for many female migrant workers in rural areas. In many rural societies, there are few job prospects for migrant women outside agriculture and this results in income insecurity due to the unpredictable nature of farming (IFAD, 2010; IMF; 2017, Kharel; 2016). Rural women are largely concentrated in jobs such as owners or cultivators, tenant farmers and

farm labourers. Since these female migrants lack access to other forms of livelihoods, they continue to work for low wages in agricultural jobs that tend to have seasonal fluctuations and thus little income security (UNICEF 2015).



Figure 4.20: State of roads in Ondo West rural areas

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

Undoubtedly, a rural/agricultural development policy is one of the policies aimed at achieving some other development objectives but which exert strong influence on the pattern of population distribution. It assumes the pre-eminence of economic rationality in the individual decision-making and operates through employment and income changes (Ajede, 2020; Aworemi et al, 2011; Tanja, 2019). It focuses most heavily on the agricultural section and on retaining people in or moving them into the rural areas. It is however, obvious that poverty has a female face in African societies. The association of the female gender with poverty is a resultant effect of women's limitations at accessing sustainable economic opportunities.

The proportion of rural women living in abject poverty in Africa has risen to nearly 50 percent over the past two decades (Akande, 2000; ILO, 2015; IMF, 2017). The increasing level of poverty among women is linked with certain factors such as the responsibilities in the family, the positioning of women in the family structure, societal expectations, cultural beliefs, inaccessibility to loans and labour market. In some societies, marriage is not a choice but it is seen as a compulsory commitment that must be fulfilled (Aderinto et al, 2006; Oyeniya, 2013). Consequently, the burden of any challenge within a marriage after it has been arranged is almost exclusively borne by the wife which may in turn affect the opportunities available to women.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary, findings, conclusion, contribution to knowledge, recommendation and areas of further research.

5.1 Summary

The study analyzed the migratory processes and livelihood activities of female migrants in the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State. Furthermore, the study examined the socio-demographic characteristics of the female migrant workers and livelihood opportunities engaged in. It also analyzed the relationship between the migratory processes and the livelihood activities engaged in by respondents in the rural areas of the study area. The concepts of the Push-Pull Theory and the Rural Livelihood System guided the study while a survey research design was adopted. The study focused mainly on female migrant workers aged 18 years and above who live in the study area.

The multi-stage sampling technique was adopted in the selection of respondents. Ondo West Local Government Area is made up of twelve political wards, seven out of these wards are within the urban Ondo area while the remaining five wards are situated within the rural Ondo area (Independent National Electoral Commission, 2015). A total of one hundred and fifty – four settlements make up the entire study area, therefore six rural areas were randomly selected from each of the five rural wards which gave a total of thirty settlements. Population projection was done based on the 1991 census figure. This was to enable the researcher arrive at the number of females in the study area. Ten percent of the projected population was therefore adopted as sample. The systematic random sampling technique was adopted in the selection of a total of 1047 respondents proportional to the population of each selected rural settlement. The sources of data for the study comprised of both primary and secondary forms. Data was collected through the

administration of a structured questionnaire. Data was analyzed using inferential statistics and the Getis Ord G_i^* in the ArcGIS Environment.

The findings revealed that majority of the migrant workers were young females who fall within the working age bracket. This is in line with the findings of previous studies on internal migration in Nigeria where energetic youth mostly young school leavers dominated the migration chain. Majority of the female migrant workers are uneducated. This is a reflection of the poor educational facilities in the rural areas where they originated from. Only 43.2 percent have obtained primary or junior secondary education. They also came from poor background with large household sizes. The study also revealed that distance has significant influence on the destinations of migrant women. Women from nearby states of Oyo and Osun states were in the majority while only few women migrated from the North East and North West where some considerable far distances separate them from the study area. Many female migrant workers embarked on step migration, having lived in some other rural areas before arriving at the present destination, sometime through previous contacts with relatives.

There was a dismally low level of annual income by the migrant women in the rural areas. Although income of female migrant workers is generally low and seasonal, many female migrant workers are satisfied with their present income but discouraged by poor transport infrastructures that hinder their access to urban market. Rather than being passive in economic development, female migrant workers send remittances in both cash and kind to their source regions for the development of their various communities and to support other family members left behind. Some of the female migrant workers also embark on direct investment in asset acquisition such as building of house in their place of origin during visitations.

The nature and prevalence of livelihoods at the origin of female migrant workers had tremendous influence on the type of livelihood activities which the women engage in at the destinations. Thus, women from forest region of the South West were involved in cash

crop farming, either in cocoa or Kola nut plantations while those from the grassland region of the middle belt preferred food crop production especially cassava processing. Migrant women from the South East and South South zones were also found mainly in the processing of palm produce which is a reflection of its being the dominant plant in the respective source regions.

Daily farm labour and itinerant trading are mostly common among autonomous female migrant workers (mostly single, divorced or separated), than those that are married and living with their husbands. This is a result of their inability to possess farm holdings. Widows and aged female migrant workers are mostly found in the plantation region where many of them have inherited, and are managing their deceased husband's farmland. Female Migrant Workers in the rural areas are more disadvantaged in terms of commuting and interaction with the town compared to male migrants who use motorbikes while female migrants have to wait for the few seasonal wagons and pick-up vans to haul their produce to the market.

The study also showed that there are instances of female autonomous migration into the rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area as more than a quarter of the total respondents migrated alone. Independent migration of female workers can also be seen in the reason for movement into the rural areas as more respondents migrated into the study area in search of livelihood opportunities and greener pastures when compared to marriage and spouses' decision to migrate. In order to ameliorate the various challenges, female migrant workers engage in participatory development programmes such as cooperative societies and town descendant associations where they could get both moral and financial assistance in the absence of any from the government.

5.2 Conclusion

The search for livelihood opportunities is one of the primary reasons for migration irrespective of gender, location, direction or level. The migration of people cannot be stopped but the direction and destination can be influenced if the government provides opportunities which will discourage rural dwellers from migrating to urban areas and

encourage urban dwellers to move into rural areas. This will help in curtailing rural-urban migration since there are means to livelihoods in the rural areas and also lead to rural development. The average migrant is an economic man whose major aim is to achieve financial stability at a minimum cost. The neglect of rural areas by the government has led to the deplorable condition of the settlements which as in turn continued to fuel the perception of people that economic opportunities only exist in urban areas.

5.3 Policy Implications

There are evidences of increased volume of migration into rural areas during the Babangida regime which is as a result of the Better Life for Rural Women (BLRW) and Directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) projects put in place by the government. These served as pull factors for migrants. Subsequent administrations have not made similar efforts at contributing to the proper management and development of rural areas across the country. The rural areas, if properly managed, possess enormous opportunities which will serve as a springboard for economic development both at the local, national and international levels.

Studies of migration are inconclusive. Various scholars in Nigeria and abroad have dealt with diverse aspects but there are still areas where more research are needed especially urban-rural drift and autonomous female migration which have characterized the migration streams in Nigeria recently. Difficulties of living in urban areas such as traffic and housing congestion, demolition of trading structures have forced most people to leave the urban areas for rural areas. Most of the research works on internal migration in Nigeria have been on the causes and effects of out migration on the source region, while little or no attention is paid to the analysis of in-migration in rural areas.

5.4 Recommendations

The rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area needs to be declared a zone of immediate focus and interest by the different levels of government because of the potentials present in forms of agricultural productivity, foreign exchange earnings and informal sector growth. There is therefore the need for rural revitalization and

environmental planning in the form of appropriate policy formulation. The involvement of government is important in terms of development, enlightenment and sensitization so that people are kept abreast of the livelihood opportunities available in the different locations. A systematic approach to proper rural development and project management is required bearing in mind the multiplier effects embedded in such steps.

Also, provisions for improved livelihood prospects available to women should comprise measures that are geared towards raising the standard of living among rural households, settlements and the society at large.

The role of females should be recognized by the government. This is relevant in the sense that women are not just home managers but are also major contributors to the social and economic lives of the nation. The implementation of special projects for females to increase their contribution to national development should be vigorously implemented by the Government.

Developmental Schemes and Projects such as the Better Life for Rural Women Program which aim at mobilizing rural women for improved involvement in the development of rural areas should be instituted. This strategy should include the identification and promotion of appropriate functional education and skills acquisition programs for rural women to enhance their productivity in agriculture and increase their participation in small scale industrial production.

Since the vast resources in each state did not transform to an improvement in the welfare of the dwellers, intensive efforts should be made by the government to empower households by providing a conducive environment which will support the growth of small and medium scale industries in the rural areas. Policies which focus on long term poverty eradication projects should be encouraged at the grassroots' level of the source regions of the migrant women.

Government should seek the active involvement of the rural women in the identification of their needs and implementation of rural projects particularly in infrastructural development. Grants and technical support should also serve to augment the efforts of the female migrant workers in order to get them more involved in the execution and maintenance of the projects.

It is also the recommendation of this study that government pursues existing rural development policies which will enhance the income, productivity and quality of life of females in rural areas. This will invariably promote a more equitable distribution of income between the urban and rural areas and in turn reverse the rural – urban migration trend.

Finally, adequate follow-up and after-care services should be provided to ensure continuity and sustainability of the assistance made available to rural women by the government, different stakeholders and agencies

5.5 Contributions to Knowledge

Several studies on internal migration have focused attention on the socio-economic effects of rural to urban form of migration to the neglect of the reversal phenomenon of urban to rural trend especially among women and the associated migratory processes. This research work has however; succeeded in analyzing the migratory patterns and livelihood activities of female migrant workers in rural areas of Ondo West Local Government Area. This is a deviation from the previous studies where women have been treated as dependent or associational migrants accompanying their husbands or fathers to locations just to give supportive hands to the husbands' economic activities.

This research work has also pointed out the fact that culture has significant influence on the destinations of internally migrating women. This is evident in the dismally low number of female migrant workers from both North West and northeastern parts of Nigeria where Sharia laws which do not encourage independent movement of women are practiced. This finding therefore brought to the fore the importance of societal values and perceptions rather than absolute distance barriers that predominate previous researches

This study has also demonstrated how, in responding to the low returns to the livelihood activities of female migrant workers, the women involved took it as priority among themselves to participate actively in self help projects, contributions and rural development programmes to improve and sustain their present situations. Thus, rather than the usual reliance on government to empower the women and household units,

efforts are being made by the concerned migrants to improve the living standard at the destinations.

Addressing the challenges identified in this study is not always a straightforward process. Many of the issues discussed are related to the need for sustainability of government efforts at developing rural areas and women folk so that they will be able to make meaningful contributions to the socio-economic growth of the nation. It is believed that the outcome of this research will guide the Federal Government and other stakeholders to achieve the objectives of solving the problem of dependence of women on the sole income of their spouse. It is also envisaged that these findings will have significant applications outside Nigeria, especially in developing countries, where many of the citizens are living in the rural areas and the challenges discussed above are also present.

Many empirical studies have indicated that desire for economic gain is the primary reason for migration. Data from the present study not only supports this view but further revealed that socio-cultural conditions of the source regions have significant influence on female migration. Also, unemployment as well as poverty at the family and household levels exerts pressure on people to move to rural areas. The study also identified low level of income and financial capacity as of the problem hindering the achievement of the aspirations of the female migrant workers in the rural areas.

Although the Federal Government has embarked on some measures in the past to alleviate the suffering of the rural dwellers, the efforts are yet to succeed in solving the problem. Opportunities for sustainable and viable means of livelihood in the rural areas are therefore envisaged to be the main motivation for redressing the rampant poverty among female migrant workers in the rural areas.

5.6 Areas for Further Research

Although there are numerous works by local and international scholars on internal migration in the South-Western part of Nigeria but most works are on rural-rural and rural-urban forms of migration so there still exists a wide gap in the studies on urban-rural migration and autonomous female migration.

Many Social science theories are concerned with the forces that lead to migration but hardly emphasize the achievement or otherwise of such motives. It is therefore important for further studies on female migrant workers to investigate the impacts of remittance sent to the source region on the standard of living of members of the household left behind.

Although the efforts of numerous researchers in the field of internal migration cannot be underestimated, the acute shortage of studies on return migrants is yet to receive reciprocal attention.

Furthermore, it is essential to examine the long time effects of the livelihood activities on the transformation of lives of women that moved to the rural areas. Outcomes of such research will provide useful information on how to guide the women on the type of activities that could offer them meaningful sustenance in the rural areas.

Also, more research needs to be done on measuring the impact of females migrating into the rural areas of the country predominantly from urban centres. The characteristics, periodicity and determinants of such movements are equally important for the understanding of a whole spectrum of internal migration in Nigeria.

The literature on the impacts of migration and remittances on sending societies also tend to ignore the gender dimension. There is therefore the need for studies on the impact of remittances on development from the gender perspective.

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APPENDICES
APPENDIX 1
DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN
SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE
ANALYSIS OF LIVELIHOOD ACTIVITIES OF FEMALE MIGRANT
WORKERS IN RURAL AREAS OF ONDO WEST LOCAL GOVERNMENT
AREA OF ONDO STATE

The questionnaire is designed to collect information on the subject for academic purpose. Information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and would not be deployed to any purpose capable of any adverse effect on the personality and privacy of the respondents. Your maximum co-operation and accurate responses are required. Thank you

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

1. Name of rural area/settlement: _____
2. LGA: _____
3. Senatorial District : _____
4. Place & State of birth: _____
5. Place & State of origin of migrant: _____
6. Former place of residence: State _____ Name of Settlement _____
Type of settlement: Rural () Urban ()
7. Age of respondent: 18-25 () 26-35 () 36-45() 46-55() 50above ()
8. What year did you move into this rural settlement? _____
9. Age at migration? _____
10. Marital status: Single () Married () Widowed () Divorced () Separated ()
11. Number of children _____
12. Educational qualification: None () Primary() Secondary () Tertiary ()
13. Why did you choose this settlement /Reason for migration into rural area? _____
14. How did you get information concerning your place of migration? _____

Livelihood activities engaged in

15. What livelihood activities were you involved in before moving into this settlement?

16. What livelihood activities are you involved in right now?

17. What necessitated the change in livelihood activities (if any)?

18. What livelihood activities were you involved in immediately after moving into the settlement?

19. Why did you choose the livelihood activities you are involved in above others?

20. Who influenced your choice of livelihood activities?

Husband () children() parents() friends() personal()

Membership of Ethnic Association

21. Do you belong to any town association? Yes () No ()

If yes, what is the name of the town association? _____.

22. What are the positive impacts of the association on you? _____

23. Do you hold a position in the group or association? _____

24. Is there a relationship between the duration of stay at the rural area and the position held by members of the group? _____

25. What are the contributions of the association on the rural area? _____

26. What are the impacts of the association on your place of birth (source of migration)?

A. If none, why? _____

Remittances

27. How often do you visit your hometown in a year/ previous place of residence?

28. At what period of the year do you visit your hometown or previous place of residence?

29. Do you send money to your relatives at your hometown or previous place of residence?

30. How often do you send money to your relatives at your hometown or previous place of residence?
31. How much do you send home to relatives at your hometown or previous place of residence?

Problems encountered in rural areas

32. Highlight problems encountered in rural areas on the basis of your gender status, migrant status.
33. Are problems encountered by the females different from those of the males in the rural areas? _____
34. Are problems encountered by females more than those of the males? _____
35. Are problems encountered by migrants different to those of indigenes of the area?

APPENDIX 2

Cross Tabulation between Livelihood Activities and Nationality of Female Migrants

Crosstab

			Nationality		Total
			Nigerian	Non-Nigerian (Togo)	
Livelihood Activities	Farming	Count	366	9	375
		Expected Count	369.3	5.7	375.0
	Teaching	Count	7	0	7
		Expected Count	6.9	.1	7.0
	Tailoring	Count	20	0	20
		Expected Count	19.7	.3	20.0
	Food Vending	Count	17	0	17
		Expected Count	16.7	.3	17.0
	Hair Dressing	Count	5	0	5
		Expected Count	4.9	.1	5.0
	Palm oil processing	Count	48	0	48
		Expected Count	47.3	.7	48.0
	Cassava grinding	Count	12	0	12
		Expected Count	11.8	.2	12.0
	Trading	Count	497	7	504
		Expected Count	496.3	7.7	504.0
	Drug Dispensing	Count	3	0	3
		Expected Count	3.0	.0	3.0
	Garri Processing	Count	55	0	55
		Expected Count	54.2	.8	55.0
Bag Making	Count	1	0	1	
	Expected Count	1.0	.0	1.0	
Total	Count	1031	16	1047	
	Expected Count	1031.0	16.0	1047.0	

Livelihood and Marital Status

Crosstab

Count

		Marital Status				Total
		Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced	
Livelihood Activities	Farming	20	305	48	2	375
	Teaching	1	4	2	0	7
	Tailoring	0	17	3	0	20
	Food Vending	6	9	2	0	17
	Hair Dressing	0	5	0	0	5
	Palm oil processing	5	41	2	0	48
	Cassava grinding	0	12	0	0	12
	Trading	55	379	62	8	504
	Drug Dispensing	2	1	0	0	3
	Garri Processing	2	48	5	0	55
	Bag Making	1	0	0	0	1
	Total	92	821	124	10	1047

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	65.736 ^a	30	.000
Likelihood Ratio	56.243	30	.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.862	1	.172
N of Valid Cases	1047		

a. 30 cells (68.2%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .01.

Crosstab

Count

		Educational Qualification				Total
		No formal Education	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	
Livelihood Activities	Farming	146	148	62	19	375
	Teaching	4	3	0	0	7
	Tailoring	5	12	3	0	20
	Food Vending	6	7	4	0	17
	Hair Dressing	0	5	0	0	5
	Palm oil processing	18	18	11	1	48
	Cassava grinding	7	5	0	0	12
	Trading	201	192	100	11	504
	Drug Dispensing	2	1	0	0	3
	Garri Processing	22	17	16	0	55
	Bag Making	0	1	0	0	1
Total		411	409	196	31	1047

Livelihood Activities and Educational Qualification

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	35.796 ^a	30	.215
Likelihood Ratio	43.464	30	.053
Linear-by-Linear Association	.272	1	.602
N of Valid Cases	1047		

a. 26 cells (59.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .03.

Crosstab

Count

		Wards					Total
		Ward 2	Ward 4	Ward 5	Ward 6	Ward 12	
Livelihood Activities	Farming	82	91	65	85	52	375
	Teaching	0	2	2	3	0	7
	Tailoring	5	8	0	2	5	20
	Food Vending	3	0	4	10	0	17
	Hair Dressing	0	0	0	5	0	5
	Palm oil processing	10	12	10	6	10	48
	Cassava grinding	2	1	0	9	0	12
	Trading	105	117	76	131	75	504
	Drug Dispensing	0	2	0	1	0	3
	Garri Processing	18	15	10	5	7	55
	Bag Making	0	1	0	0	0	1
Total		225	249	167	257	149	1047

Crosstab

Count

		Number of Children										Total
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	
Livelihood Activities	Farming	44	10	57	50	96	57	34	21	6	0	375
	Teaching	2	0	0	0	2	2	0	1	0	0	7
	Tailoring	2	1	3	1	0	11	0	2	0	0	20
	Food Vending	0	0	3	4	2	1	6	1	0	0	17
	Hair Dressing	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	5
	Palm oil processing	6	1	9	5	7	11	6	3	0	0	48
	Cassava grinding	0	0	3	0	4	1	1	3	0	0	12
	Trading	44	11	70	92	111	91	53	29	3	0	504
	Drug Dispensing	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3
	Garri Processing	4	1	11	4	14	9	5	4	0	3	55
	Bag Making	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total		102	24	156	157	236	191	105	64	9	3	1047

Livelihood Activities and Age

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	865.292 ^a	500	.000
Likelihood Ratio	498.436	500	.511
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.887	1	.027
N of Valid Cases	1047		

a. 503 cells (89.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.

Nationality

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.566 ^a	10	.918
Likelihood Ratio	6.857	10	.739
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.873	1	.171
N of Valid Cases	1047		

a. 12 cells (54.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .02.

Crosstab

			Nationality		Total
			Nigerian	Non-Nigerian (Togo)	
Livelihood Activities	Farming	Count	366	9	375
		Expected Count	369.3	5.7	375.0
	Teaching	Count	7	0	7
		Expected Count	6.9	.1	7.0
	Tailoring	Count	20	0	20
		Expected Count	19.7	.3	20.0
	Food Vending	Count	17	0	17
		Expected Count	16.7	.3	17.0
	Hair Dressing	Count	5	0	5
		Expected Count	4.9	.1	5.0
	Palm oil processing	Count	48	0	48
		Expected Count	47.3	.7	48.0
	Cassava grinding	Count	12	0	12
		Expected Count	11.8	.2	12.0
	Trading	Count	497	7	504
		Expected Count	496.3	7.7	504.0
	Drug Dispensing	Count	3	0	3
		Expected Count	3.0	.0	3.0
	Garri Processing	Count	55	0	55
		Expected Count	54.2	.8	55.0
Bag Making	Count	1	0	1	
	Expected Count	1.0	.0	1.0	
Total	Count	1031	16	1047	
	Expected Count	1031.0	16.0	1047.0	

Place of Birth

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2047.465 ^a	170	.000
Likelihood Ratio	1434.618	170	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.090	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1047		

a. 168 cells (84.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.

Number of Children

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	177.787 ^a	90	.000
Likelihood Ratio	133.840	90	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.791	1	.181
N of Valid Cases	1047		

a. 84 cells (76.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.

Crosstab

			Number of Children										Total
			0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	
Livelihood Activities	Farming	Count	44	10	57	50	96	57	34	21	6	0	375
		Expected Count	36.5	8.6	55.9	56.2	84.5	68.4	37.6	22.9	3.2	1.1	375.0
	Teaching	Count	2	0	0	0	2	2	0	1	0	0	7
		Expected Count	.7	.2	1.0	1.0	1.6	1.3	.7	.4	.1	.0	7.0
	Tailoring	Count	2	1	3	1	0	11	0	2	0	0	20
		Expected Count	1.9	.5	3.0	3.0	4.5	3.6	2.0	1.2	.2	.1	20.0
	Food Vending	Count	0	0	3	4	2	1	6	1	0	0	17
		Expected Count	1.7	.4	2.5	2.5	3.8	3.1	1.7	1.0	.1	.0	17.0
	Hair Dressing	Count	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	5
		Expected Count	.5	.1	.7	.7	1.1	.9	.5	.3	.0	.0	5.0
	Palm oil processing	Count	6	1	9	5	7	11	6	3	0	0	48
		Expected Count	4.7	1.1	7.2	7.2	10.8	8.8	4.8	2.9	.4	.1	48.0
	Cassava grinding	Count	0	0	3	0	4	1	1	3	0	0	12
		Expected Count	1.2	.3	1.8	1.8	2.7	2.2	1.2	.7	.1	.0	12.0
	Trading	Count	44	11	70	92	111	91	53	29	3	0	504
		Expected Count	49.1	11.6	75.1	75.6	113.6	91.9	50.5	30.8	4.3	1.4	504.0
	Drug Dispensing	Count	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3
		Expected Count	.3	.1	.4	.4	.7	.5	.3	.2	.0	.0	3.0
	Garri Processing	Count	4	1	11	4	14	9	5	4	0	3	55
		Expected Count	5.4	1.3	8.2	8.2	12.4	10.0	5.5	3.4	.5	.2	55.0
	Bag Making	Count	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
		Expected Count	.1	.0	.1	.1	.2	.2	.1	.1	.0	.0	1.0
Total		Count	102	24	156	157	236	191	105	64	9	3	1047
		Expected Count	102.0	24.0	156.0	157.0	236.0	191.0	105.0	64.0	9.0	3.0	1047.0
			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Annual Average Income

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	414.846 ^a	300	.000
Likelihood Ratio	292.502	300	.611
Linear-by-Linear Association	.017	1	.895
N of Valid Cases	1047		

a. 302 cells (88.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .00.

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.015	.027		148.357	.000
	Age	.000	.000	-.027	-.738	.460
	Marital Status	-.029	.008	-.117	-3.743	.000
	Educational Qualification	.012	.005	.079	2.451	.014
	Number of Children	-.001	.002	-.013	-.429	.668
	Duration (Years) of Staying in this Settlement	.001	.000	.086	2.407	.016
	Duration of visiting home	.003	.003	.034	1.082	.279

a. Dependent Variable: How can you rate the involvement of female migrants

Crosstab

			Educational Qualification				Total
			No formal Education	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	
Livelihood Activities	Farming	Count	146	148	62	19	375
		Expected Count	147.2	146.5	70.2	11.1	375.0
	Teaching	Count	4	3	0	0	7
		Expected Count	2.7	2.7	1.3	.2	7.0
	Tailoring	Count	5	12	3	0	20
		Expected Count	7.9	7.8	3.7	.6	20.0
	Food Vending	Count	6	7	4	0	17
		Expected Count	6.7	6.6	3.2	.5	17.0
	Hair Dressing	Count	0	5	0	0	5
		Expected Count	2.0	2.0	.9	.1	5.0
	Palm oil processing	Count	18	18	11	1	48
		Expected Count	18.8	18.8	9.0	1.4	48.0
	Cassava grinding	Count	7	5	0	0	12
		Expected Count	4.7	4.7	2.2	.4	12.0
	Trading	Count	201	192	100	11	504

	Expected Count	197.8	196.9	94.3	14.9	504.0
Drug Dispensing	Count	2	1	0	0	3
	Expected Count	1.2	1.2	.6	.1	3.0
Garri Processing	Count	22	17	16	0	55
	Expected Count	21.6	21.5	10.3	1.6	55.0
Bag Making	Count	0	1	0	0	1
	Expected Count	.4	.4	.2	.0	1.0
Total	Count	411	409	196	31	1047
	Expected Count	411.0	409.0	196.0	31.0	1047.0

Nationality

	Frequency	Percent
Valid Nigerian	1031	98.5
Non-Nigerian (Togo)	16	1.5
Total	1047	100.0

Marital Status

	Frequency	Percent
Valid Single	92	8.8
Married	821	78.4
Widowed	124	11.8
Divorced	10	1.0
Total	1047	100.0

Educational Qualification

	Frequency	Percent
Valid No formal Education	411	39.3
Primary	409	39.1
Secondary	196	18.7
Tertiary	31	3.0
Total	1047	100.0

Reason for Choosing This Settlement

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Livelihood Opportunity	540	51.6
	Marriage	328	31.3
	Peace and Safety	42	4.0
	Parent's Choice	72	6.9
	Poverty	30	2.9
	Nature of Job	35	3.3
	Total	1047	100.0

What livelihood activities did you engage in before moving into the settlement

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Trading	559	53.4
	Tailoring	207	19.8
	Farming	140	13.4
	Laundry	14	1.3
	Hair dressing	77	7.4
	Nursing	9	.9
	Food vending	35	3.3
	Teaching	6	.6
	Total	1047	100.0

What livelihood activities did you engage in immediately moving to this settlement

		Frequency	Percent
	Farming	626	59.8
	Trading	237	22.6
	Tailoring	129	12.3
	Teaching	3	.3
	Nursing	6	.6
	Food Vending	24	2.3
	Hair dressing	8	.8
	Cassava Grinding	14	1.3
	Total	1047	100.0

What livelihood activities are you engaged in now

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Farming and Trading	882	84.2
	Tailoring	94	9.0
	Teaching	4	.4
	Bag Making	20	1.9
	food Vending	37	3.5
	Hair Dressing	10	1.0
	Total	1047	100.0

Duration of visit home

	Frequency	Percent
Monthly	82	7.8
Quarterly	112	10.7
Yearly	343	32.8
Never	44	4.2
As Situation Demands	466	44.5
Total	1047	100.0

Period of visit home

	Frequency	Percent
Crop Planting Period	3	.3
Crop Harvesting Period	37	3.5
Period of Festival	316	30.2
As Occasion Demands	691	66.0
Total	1047	100.0

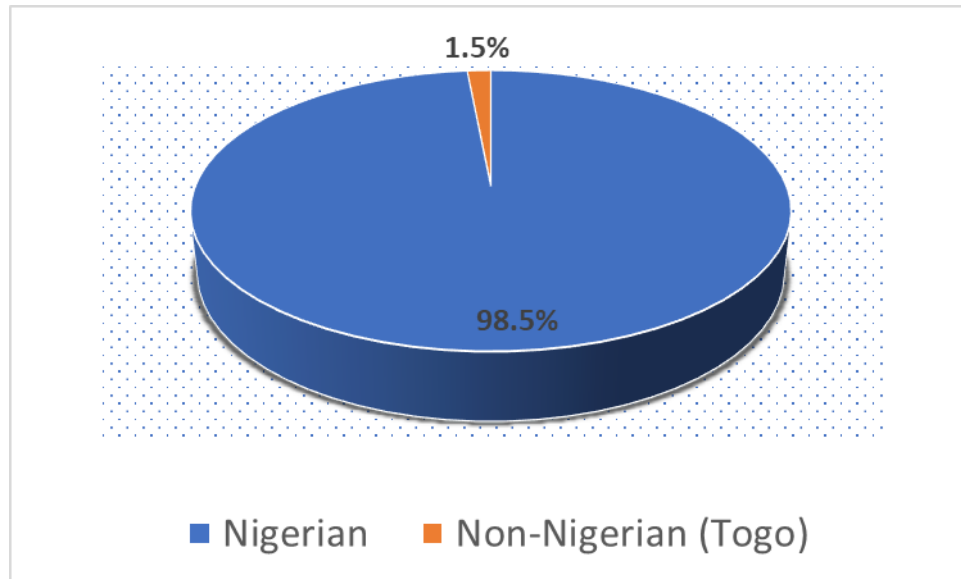
Reason for leaving previous settlement

	Frequency	Percent
Marriage	251	24.0
Greener Pasture	145	13.8
Economic Hardship	174	16.6
Job Posting	22	2.1
Livelihood Opportunities	174	16.6
Crisis and Emergency	140	13.4
Death of Husband	141	13.5
Total	1047	100.0

Activities of the Female Migrants Before, Immediate, and Now

Livelihood Activities of the Female Migrants	Before Migration (%)	Immediate After Migration (%)	Now (%)
Trading	53.4	22.6	0
Tailoring	19.8	12.3	9
Farming	13.4	59.8	0
Laundry	1.3	0	0
Hair dressing	7.4	0.8	1
Nursing	0.9	0.6	0
Food vending	3.3	2.3	3.5
Teaching	0.6	0.3	0.4
Bag Making	0	0	1.9
Cassava grinding	0	1.3	0
Farming and Trading	0	0	84.2
Total	100	100	100

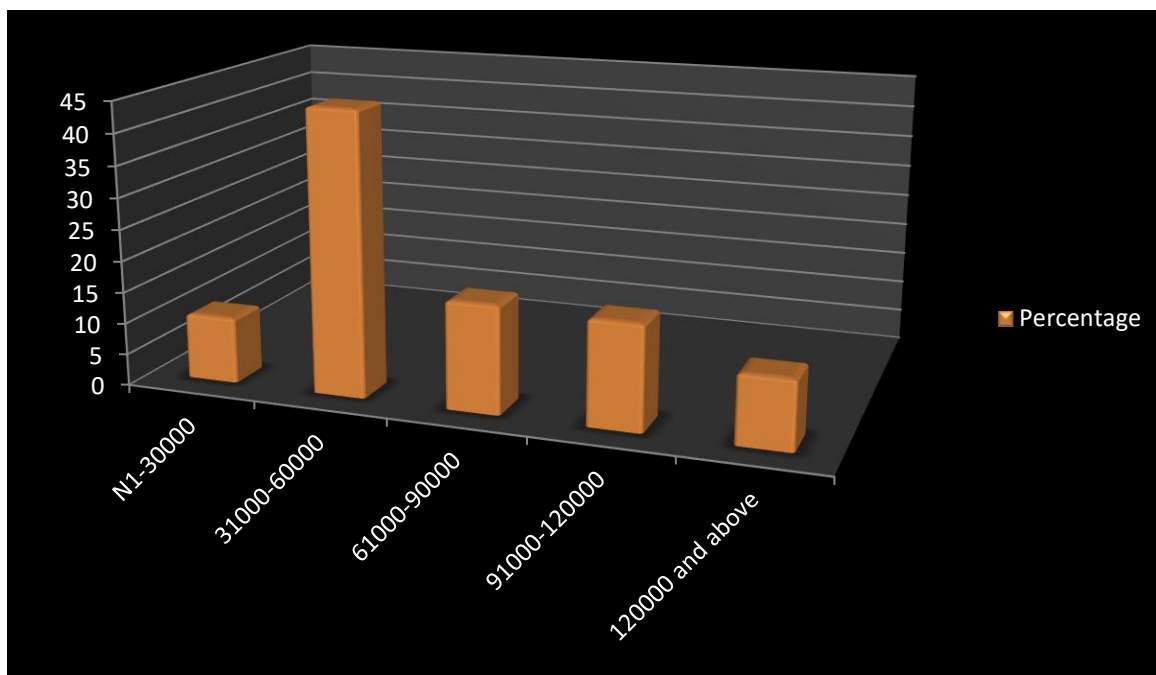
APPENDIX 3

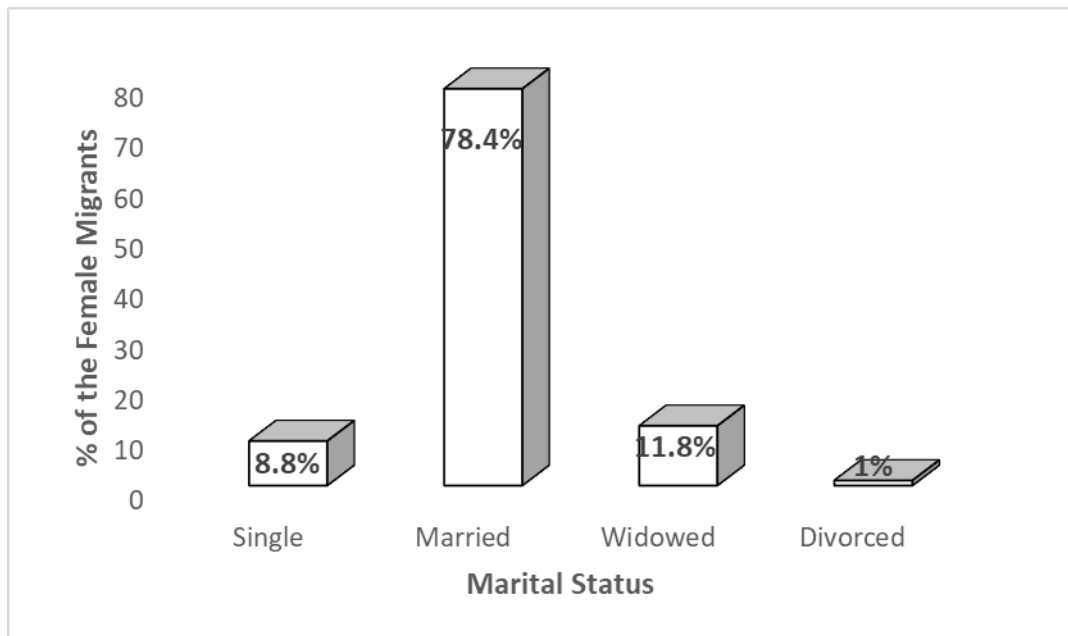
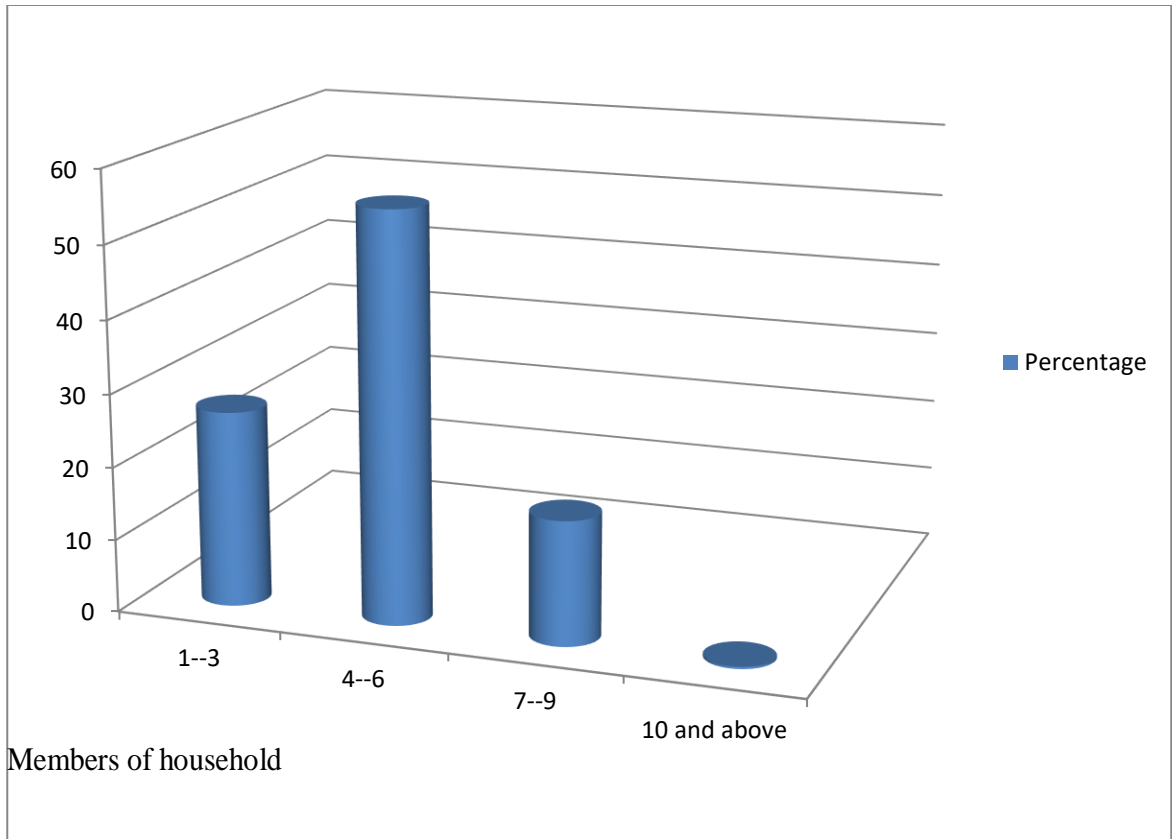


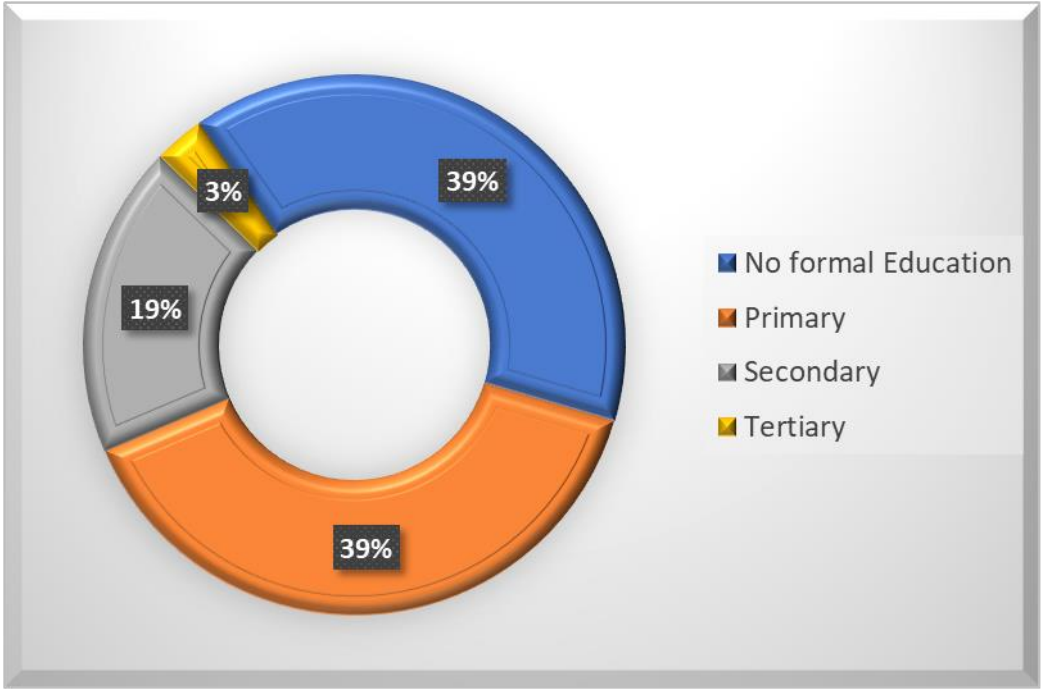
Nationality

Average Annual Income of Female Migrant Workers

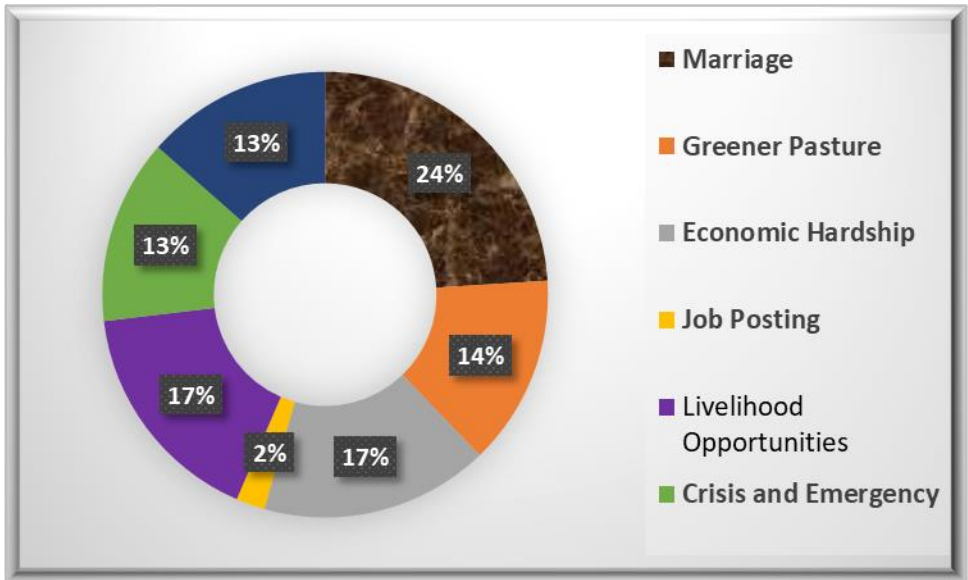
Source: Field Survey, 2019



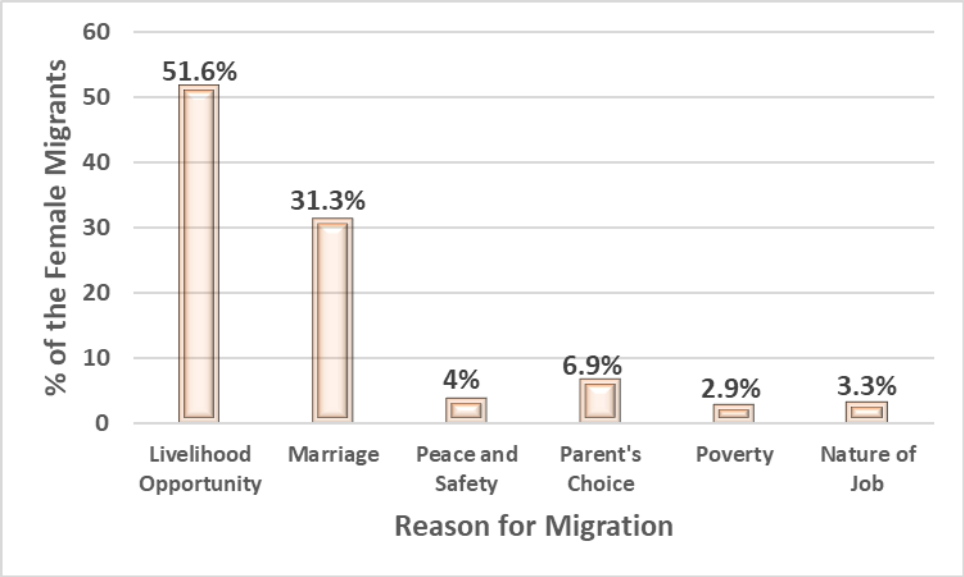




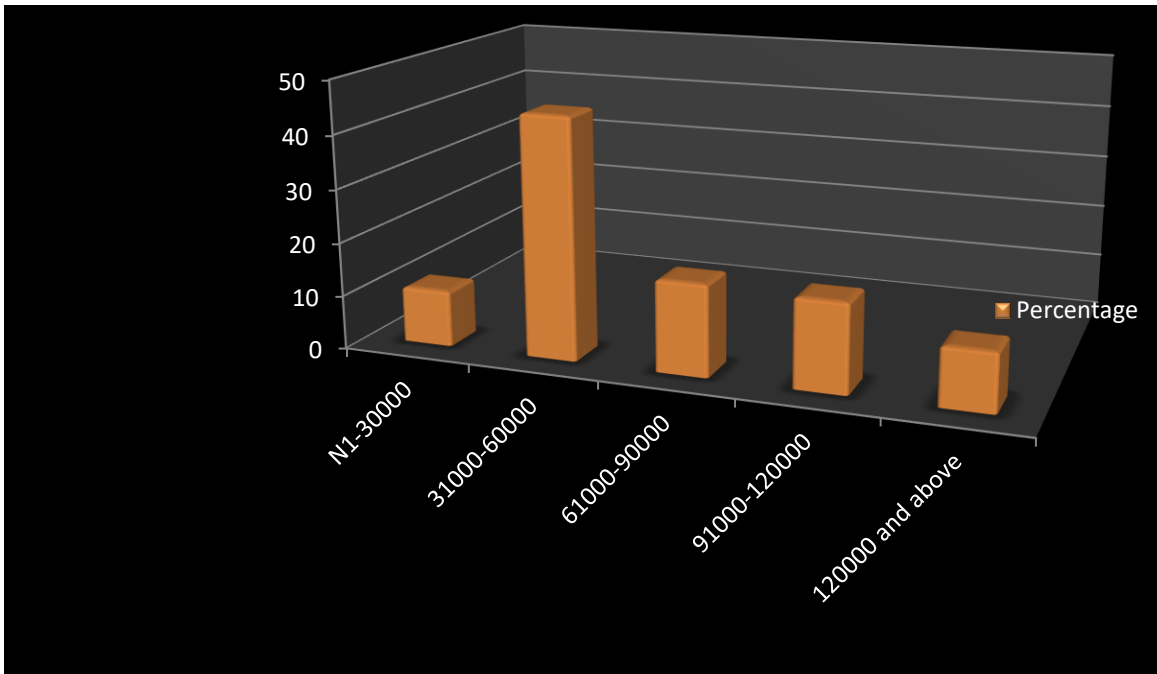
Educational Level



Reasons for Leaving Previous Location/Settlement

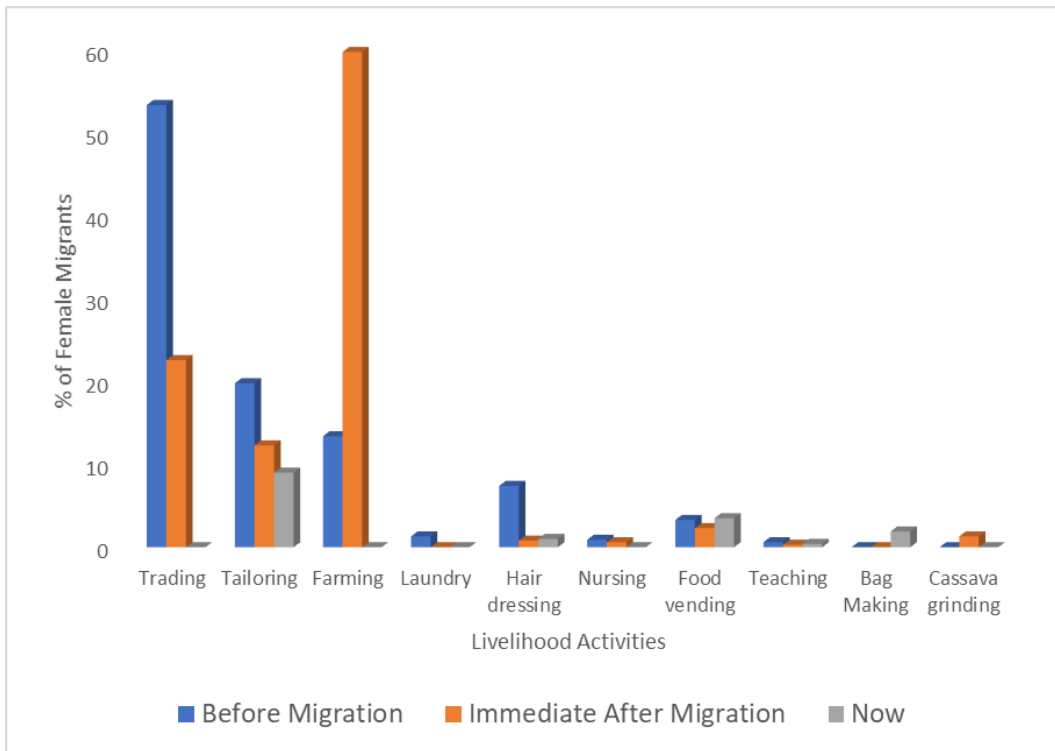


Reason for Migration to Present Location



Average Annual Income of Female Migrant Workers

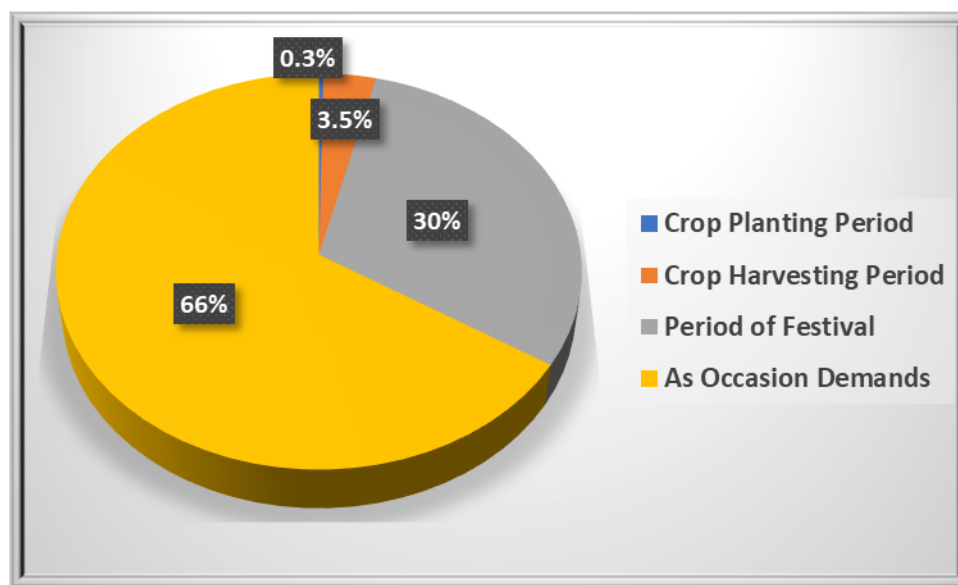
Source: Field Survey, 2019



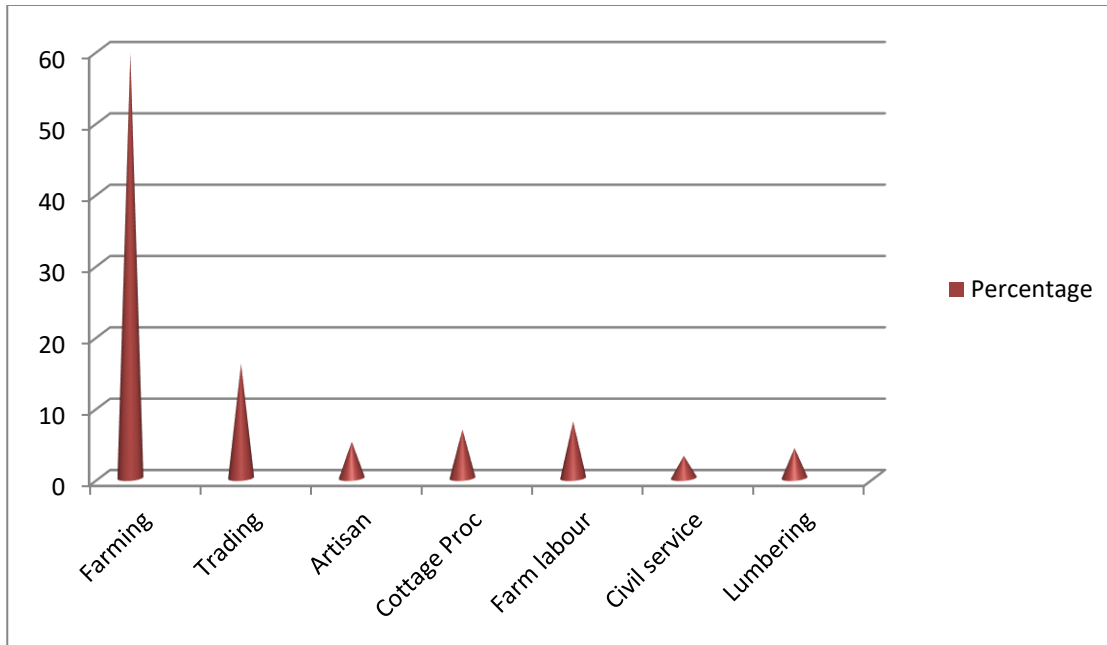
Activities of the Female Migrants Before, Immediate, and Now



Duration of Visiting Home by Female Migrants

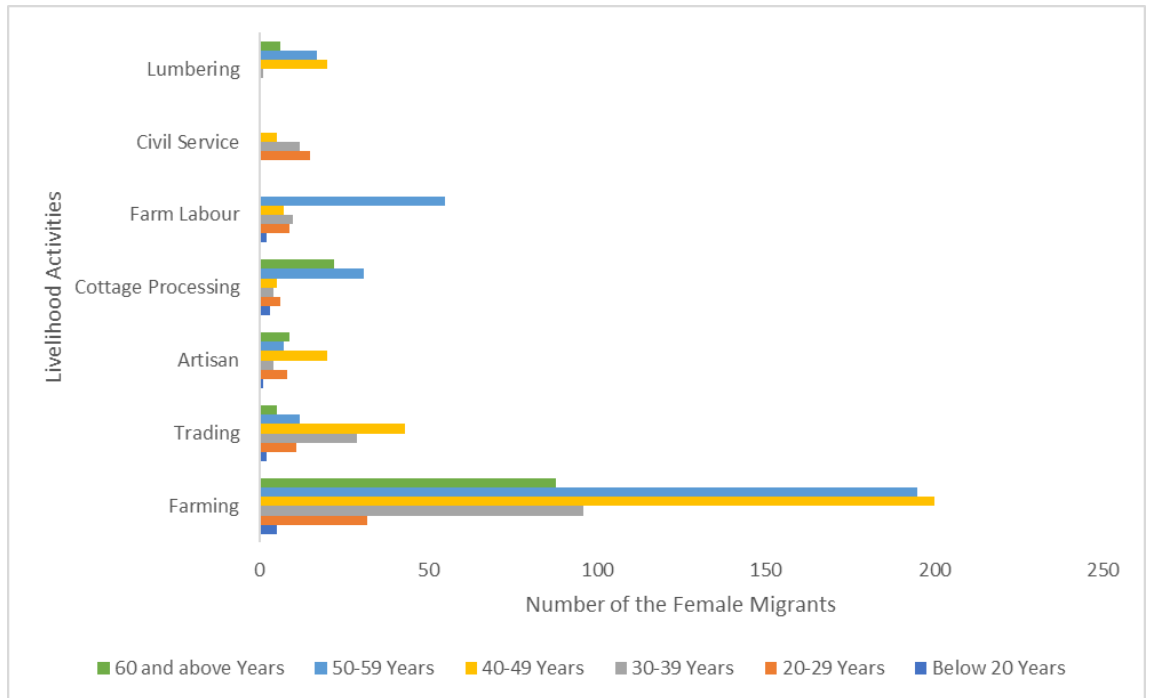


Period of Visiting Home by Female Migrants



Classification of livelihood activities of female migrant workers

Source: Author Analysis, 2019



Age Distribution of Female Migrant Workers and Livelihood Activities

Source: Author Analysis, 2019

APPENDIX 4

