

**EFFECTS OF RURAL YOUTH MIGRATION ON SMALL SCALE CEREAL CROP
FARMING HOUSEHOLDS IN KWARA STATE, NIGERIA**

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ABSTRACT

The study investigates the effects of rural youth migration on small-scale cereal crops farming household, in Kwara State, Nigeria. Multi-stage sampling technique was used to select a total number of two hundred (200) cereal farmers. Data were collected from primary source using structured questionnaire complemented with interview schedule. Data collected were analyzed using both descriptive statistics such as (means, percentages and frequency distribution) and inferential statistics such as (Linear regression and Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC)). The results showed that majority (94%) of cereal farmers were males with mean age of 53 years. Majority (86%) were married, while 6 persons was the mean household size. The mean years of farming experience was 29 years while 60% of the respondents were full time farmers. The mean farm size of cereal farmers was 3.9 hectares while 62.5% grow maize. Further findings showed that 69.0% accessed credit while the mean annual income was ₦667, 665. Further findings revealed that only (28%) had accessed to market while majority (96%) had accessed to extension services. Also, engagement in communal labour was ranked 1st as strategies militating against shortage of labour. Again the results revealed that poverty (91%) and natural disasters (89.5%) were the major push causes of youths migration in the study area while alternative sources of income during off-season (100%) and better employment opportunities and labour (99% and 99.%) respectively were the major pull causes of youths migration to cities in the study area. Moreover, the coefficients of household size (.1787633), farm size (.358364), income (-.6436331), employment opportunity (.672483), social amenities (.4318276), push factor (.2919035), access to credit (-.4319743), extension contact (-.6022112) and cooperative membership (.4087446) had significant effect on youth migration. The results of revealed that fall in standard of living (\bar{X} =2.92) and low agricultural productivities with a mean value of (\bar{X} =2.81) were the most perceived effect of rural youth migration on cereal production. Also, establishment of bank of agriculture in rural areas for easy access to loans (\bar{X} =3.86) and establishment of agro-allied industries (\bar{X} =3.78) were the major strategies to mitigate rural youth migration. The result of hypotheses showed a significant relationship between household size, farm size income, access to credit, extension contacts, cooperative membership and youth migration. Result also show there was no significant relationship between rural youth migration and cereal crop productivity of farming households. It was recommended that government at all level should empower youths through skills acquisition and entrepreneurship that will enable youths to stay in the rural area, efforts should be put in place by government and non-governmental organization through the assistance of disaster agencies in order to check the incidence of flood and bush burning that push youth out of the rural areas and youths should be encouraged through provision of incentives and productive assets that will discourage them from migrating to the cities.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Agriculture is the major source of income and a livelihood option for rural households (Thirtle *et al.*, 2016). Approximately, 75% of the world population lives in rural areas and are dependent on agriculture, an activity which requires sustenance especially by the youth, International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) (2011). The Nigerian agriculture is mostly dominated by rural-based small-scale resource poor farmers who reside mainly in the rural communities that are characterized by very poor infrastructural facilities (Adisa, 2012). The major actors in the agricultural value chain are small-scale farmers, with farm size ranging from 0.5 to 10 hectare per farm land and are scattered all over the habitable regions of the country (Kolawale and Ojo, 2007). More than 70% of the farming population consists of small-holder farmers who account for 81% of total land area cultivated, and 95% of agricultural output. (Agricultural Research Council of Nigeria, 2011)

Globally, increasing migration has raised concerns about rural youth abandoning agriculture, and the implications for agricultural productivity, food security and livelihood (Yeboah, 2018). In Nigeria, youths age bracket 15-35 years old account for closed to 60% of the Nigeria population and 30% of the workforce (Yeboah, 2018). These migrating groups of people make up the largest proportion of the required manpower of the rural areas. Migration according to Eboh (2002) involves the crossing of national boundaries (in the case of international) and the crossing of administrative boundaries within a country (in the case of internal migration). Migration whether at the international or local level may be a deliberate decision or attempt by the migrant to reap social or economic benefit associated with changing location. Rural youth migration

(RYM) is termed as the movement of able bodied individuals or group of young people from rural areas (Villages) to urban centres (Cities) in search of job opportunities, market, education, health and other means of livelihood (Mgbakor *et al.*, 2014)a. Internal migration follows a variety of patterns on space dimension which include urban-urban; urban-rural; rural-rural and rural-urban migration (Eze, 2016). Rural-urban migration which is the crux of this study, and which is predominant in most parts of Africa and indeed Nigeria in particular. The migration of young adults to the cities can result in a shift in the age structure of the population towards older ages, with clear implications for labour markets, agricultural productivity and food security (FAO, 2013).

Youth migration is one of the key factors that affect farm labour supply in Agricultural productivity (Oluyole *et al.*, 2013). Nigeria youths tend to look down upon farming but prefer to migrate from rural areas to urban centres where they hope to get job opportunities and other social amenities. This attitude is the main problem confronting the agricultural productivities of small-scale farming household in Nigeria. With fewer youths into farming, the long-term future of the agricultural sector in Nigeria is questionable because a larger population of youths represents the link between the present and the future as well as a reservoir of labour (Okeowo *et al.*, 2013).

This phenomenon consequently resulted to high cost of production, low productivity, and reduction in annual income and a fall in standard of living of the rural populace (Akangbe *et al.*, 2006). Farm labour provided by active and energetic youth is considered as an essential component of agricultural productivity in rural areas, because agriculture in isolated areas of an open country with low technology is human labour dependent amongst other things such as land and capital. Rural farmers, due to peasantry nature of the farm operation and low income status,

mostly depend on family labour, which is mostly provided by the youth. The level of poverty, lack of job opportunities and gross inadequacy of social infrastructures was found to be one of the causes of youths rural-urban migration (Aworemi *et al.*, 2011). Farm labour seasonal migration is often tremendous in magnitude and is widespread throughout the rural communities of Nigeria. Its net result has been described as having negative impact on the local development and productivity due to the reduction in human resources (Ray, 2001).

Cereals are those members of the grass family that constitute the most important source of world food supply, containing about 70% carbohydrate and 9-14% protein. (Onwueme and Sinha, 2010). They accounted for almost 50% of the total food supply in grain equivalent, available and affordability (Olayemi, 2009) The major cereal crops growing in Nigeria are rice (*Oryza sativa*), maize (*Zea mays*), sorghum, wheat (*Triticum aestivum*), and millet (*Pennisetum sp.*) with rice ranking as the sixth major crop in terms of the land area while sorghum account for 50% of the total cereal production and occupies about 45% of the total land area devoted to cereal production in Nigeria (National Extension Agricultural Research and Liaison Station (NEARLS, 2014). Nigeria accounts for more than 60% of West Africa's cereals production (FAO, 2015). All of the cereal crop species are annual crops and are very easy to mechanize and store. They can grow in humid tropical climate to cool temperate region, adapted to a wide range of soil types but perform better on loamy soils (Ajeigbe, 2009). Despite the great potential of Nigeria in cereal production, the frequent occurrence of drought occasioned by erratic rainfall distribution and/or cessation of rain during the growing season is the greatest hindrance to increased production and this is more serious in the northern part of country where most of the cereals are produced (Olaoye, 2007). The major problems militating cereals production in Nigeria are climatic factors (rainfall, temperature and solar radiation), soil factors, migration, socioeconomic considerations

and government policies, pests and diseases. The vast majority of these farmers have limited access to modern input and other productive resources.

Migration is an age long phenomenon in which both young and old human populations move to new areas to grab better life. In recent times, migration of young and vibrant people to cities in search of greener pastures has had devastating effects on the labour force in cereal production in Nigeria. Many resource poor farmers depend entirely on family labour and it is their young and vibrant migrant group that constitutes such labour. This is a disturbing and unpredictable phenomenon (Kolawole and Ojo, 2007).The provision of social amenities and employment opportunity in the rural areas will go a long way to solve the problem of migration among the rural youth. Nigeria government can also solve the problem by given credit facility and subsidize of Agriculture inputs to the young farmers in the rural areas.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

The impact of rural-urban migration among the youths on agriculture and rural development cannot be overemphasized. The rural areas in Nigeria are endowed with both human and natural resources, unfortunately, these potentials are yet to be harnessed and used for agricultural and rural development. According to Iruonage (2009), “Useful natural resources, which can be harnessed for socio-economic development, abound in Nigeria particularly in the rural areas.” Therefore, the migration of youths from rural areas to cities in search for better standard of living, is taking away the potential youths who are capable of developing the rural areas. The inequality between the rural and urban areas in the provision of basic facilities is another major factor responsible for rural –urban migration among the youths in Nigeria. Most of the rural areas in Nigeria lack basic social amenities such as electricity, water, good roads, clinics and good housing. These usually push the youths to migrate to the urban areas in order to access

these amenities. Other challenges faced by the youths in rural areas are, low agriculture productivity and poor standard of living. All these factors encouraged the migration of youths from rural to urban centers. Leaving the bulk of agricultural production in the hands of old aged people who often times produce at a subsistence level.

The traditional agricultural labour force, usually provided by a farmer, his wife or wives, children and dependants are no more readily available. Adult male and female migrate to obtain paid employment to augment household resources. They seek off farm employment due to push and pull factors (Bagamba *et al.*, 2007). Aside this, farmers send their children to cities and towns in order to obtain an education and skill acquisition. They are often lost to urban employment thereafter, and are not inclined to return to the village. Besides, youth and children migrate to escape social and cultural imprisonment in rural areas. And heavy dependence on manual labour made farming unattractive to youths who constitute the majority of the migrant. Despite the introduction of mechanized farming in Nigeria, human labour remains dominant in all agricultural activities. Labour requirement for successful farm operation in non-mechanized farming is high for land preparation, planting, fertilizer application, weeding and harvesting (Babalola, 2002). Farm labour supply, especially for planting, weeding and harvesting still constitutes a serious bottleneck. Due to the labour intensive nature of agriculture, ageing farmers cannot cultivate more land, but need to hire labour to substitute lost family labour.

These problems aforementioned had in one way or the other affected agricultural productivities of small-scale cereal crop farmers particularly in the study area. It is against this backdrop that this study was conceived to address the effects of rural-urban youth migration on small-scale cereal crop farming household in the study area. Thus, the following research questions are hereby postulated:-

- i. what are the socio-economic characteristics of the farming household in the study area?
- ii. what are the causes of rural youth migration in the study area?
- iii. what are the socio-economic factors influencing rural youth migration to urban centres in the study area?
- iv. what is the perceived effect of rural youth migration on the productivity of small-scale cereal crop farming household?
- v. what are the mitigating strategies adopted for reducing rural youth migration in the study area?

1.3 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of this research is to investigate the effects of rural youths migration on small-scale cereal crops farming household, in Kwara State, Nigeria. The specific objectives of the study are to:-

- i. describe the socio-economic characteristics of the farming household in the study area;
- ii. ascertain the causes of rural youth migration in the study area;
- iii. determine the socio-economic factors influencing rural youth migration to urban centre in the study area;
- iv. ascertain the perceived effects of rural youth migration on the productivity of small-scale cereal crop farming household in the study area; and
- v. identify various mitigating strategies adopted for reducing rural youth migration in the study area.

1.4 Hypotheses of the Study

The research hypotheses of the study stated in the null form are:

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between some selected socio-economic characteristics (Age, gender, household size, education, marital status, farming experience and income) of the farmers, and rural youth migration.

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between rural youth migration and cereal crop productivity of farming household in the study area. (Dependent and Independent Variable)

1.5 Justification of the Study

Farming is a common occupation of Nigerian citizens, which plays a dominant role in the survivability of many rural dwellers in Nigeria, as a source of subsistence to many families in villages and towns. Majority of food crops in the urban market today is the productive effort of rural communities in Nigeria.

Since the rural areas are agrarian economies any attempt to stifle the labour force of the rural areas will likely lead to under-development of the rural areas. The outcome of this study therefore will provides helpful insight into the implications of rural youth migration on cereal crops productivity, food security and livelihood so as to adopt measures in de-accelerating rural-urban youth migration and also boost agricultural productivity of small-scale farming household in Nigeria, particularly in the rural community. The study also provides an insight to policy makers and agricultural programme planners as to how best to address the problems of rural-urban youth migration. Similarly, the results of the study could also be used as a guide for further research. Lastly, the study helps to fill in the existing knowledge gap on the economic effects of rural-urban youth migration on cereal crop farmers.

1.6 Definition of Terms

1. Rural area- Defined as an areas with low population densities, relatively isolated in nature and primarily dependent on farming and or natural resources for their livelihood
2. Youth- A group of young peoples between the ages bracket of 15-24years old (UN, 2005)
3. Migration- Migration is the movement that involves a permanent or sem-permanent change in Residence from one settlement to another
4. Small-scale farmer- A farmers with farm size ranging from 0.5-10 hectare per-farm land
5. Cereal crop- Cereals are those members of crops belong to grass family grown annually which produced food in Grain equivalent (Ric Oriza- sativa, Maize Zea-mays, Sorghum, Wheat Triticum aestivum)
6. Push factors- This are circumstances that make people to leave home for other areas in search of better sources of livelihood (Famine, drought, Low agricultural productivity, poverty and lack of social amenities)
7. Pull factor- Refers to better economic conditions that attract migrants to town and cities (Better job opportunities and better income)

CHAPTER TWO

2.0

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definition of Concept

2.1.1 Concept of rural-urban migration

Migration is the movement of individuals from one geographical space to another, involving permanent or temporary residence or settlement due to certain reasons such as natural disaster, physical conditions, worry of insecurity, differences in economic opportunities, differences in social amenities and change in standing such as high level of education and wealth (United Nation (UN) (2013). According to National Geographic Expeditions (NGE) (2006), the region from where people are leaving is referred to as the source region, whereas the region where people are entering is known as the destination region. Rural-urban migration is the movement of people from rural areas (villages) to the urban centre's (cities).

Migration of human population though a widely diverse phenomenon is generally recognized as an internal part of the process of socio-economic development because as a country develops more people leaves the rural communities due to lack of social amenities and infrastructural facilities in such areas like power supply, good roads, good hospital, schools, market and financial institutions (UN, 2013). Population shift from rural to urban areas is accompanied by social and economic changes. Many factors have also contributed to the poor performances of agricultural sectors. But one major factor was the rural-urban migration (especially the youths) which involves the shifting of labour force from the rural areas to urban centres, in search for employment, better standard of living and freedom of religion. One of the consequences of rural-urban migration is shortage of agricultural production (White, 2014).

Afshar (2003) contended that circumstances that make people to leave home for other areas are referred to as "push factors". Examples include famine, drought, low agricultural productivity, unemployment and lack of social amenities etc. He also contended that, the inadequacy of incomes, lack of gainful employment coupled with poverty in the rural areas, have pushed people out of their villages in search of better sources of livelihoods in the urban areas. People also migrate to escape from social and cultural imprisonment within extended family system which camp individuals on self development and hinder initiatives, Marriage is another identified factor influencing rural-urban migration, marriage has often been cited as a motivation for the outmigration of women (Lucas, 2003; Eze, 2016).

One of the most consistent findings of rural-urban migration was the positive correlation between education attainment and migration. There seems to be a clear association between those who had completed their education and the propensity to migrate, those with more years of schooling and everything being equal are more likely to migrate than those with little or no education at all, this may be because of the kind of jobs in the urban areas like banking, lecturing, and industrial work (Lucas, 2003). According to Mgbada (2010), another factor that leads to rural-urban migration is the environmental factors degradation. The intensity of human exploitation in the rural areas is a major cause of environmental degradation which in turn constitutes as major push factor causing large number of people to migrate to the urban areas.

Adepoju (2016) contended that the farming system in Nigeria has remained traditional; farming operational activities are still being done using traditional farming implements such as cutlasses and hoes by the farmers for their agricultural production activities. This makes farming difficult, small and unrewarding, thus, making the youths not to show interest in farming and migrate to urban areas in search of better means of livelihood. A couple of studies show the link between

migration and agricultural production. First, the loss of labour through migration which may tighten the labour constraint for agricultural production and second is the earnings in the form of remittances from migrants which may loosen credit constraints and help with investments in agricultural production. These two impacts in terms of agricultural income may be positive, negative or they may offset each other. A positive effect would imply that migration complements agricultural production while a negative effect would imply that the loss of labour caused by migration reduces agricultural productivity (Rozelle, 2010).

The increasing rural-urban migration has caused on one hand the labour force for agricultural production to decline. The labour force which continuously loses a bulk of able-bodied men and women who are engaged in non-agricultural pursuits or are attracted away from the farms, because they received a better life in the cities and higher income. Even children who traditionally contribute a supplementary family labour force are mostly in school for a greater part of the farming seasons. This decreasing flow of labour and manpower from the rural areas has put a greater burden on agricultural sector, as decreasing proportion of agricultural population continues without any significant improvement in the methods of farming and production incentives, this problem may cause some farmers or families to hire labour in order to supplement the inadequate labour force, which in turn leads to increase in price of the output which may trigger off an increase in the demands by labourers thereby leading to a high price of agricultural food commodity in this area (Adepoju, 2013).

Vercueil (2014), explaining the negative effects of migration on the output of the agricultural household which receives remittances argued that remittances cause the rest of the household to substitute leisure for work which results in increased cost of labour and lands lying fallow. Mendola (2008) also argues that the use of remittances as payment for education of the future

generation of the household is a very common practice which would pass as a long run investment to boost agricultural production, however in the short run it may be seen as a misdirected investment. Rozelle (2011) worked on the relationship between migration, remittances and agricultural production in China and his findings showed that migration has a significantly negative effect on yields and also that remittances are a positive function of migration, the negative effect on agricultural production should be a disincentive for labour migration.

Afolabi (2007) in his study discovered that rural-urban migration correlated with productivity of crops in Nigeria since as more individuals relocate from rural area, there will be fewer people on the farm and this will have a negative impact on future agricultural output and productivity. Also Aman (2011) stated that when people migrate within a country from rural to urban places it represents a classic definition of urbanization; it is a way which population can be shifted from the village or countryside to the cities. Rural-urban migration has been associated with certain disadvantages that portend major hindrances to rural productivity and farm growth (Fadayomi, 2012). A strong pointer to such disadvantage is selectivity of rural-urban migration with regards to human resources. This is consistent with the view of Makinwa (2004), that rural-urban migrants are usually more educated, young and mostly male. Agricultural development cannot make any substantial progress if allowed to remain bereft of requisite human resource. To achieve a reasonable growth in the rural sector would require active participation of a sizeable, informed, healthy, economically and socially motivated population. The form of economic dualism that emerges from long decades of selective rural-urban drift is such that complicates development because of its drag on overall national propensities (Okpara, 2003).

2.2 Empirical Review of Past Studies

2.2.1 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Cereal Crop Farmers

Socio-economic characteristics of rural farming household play significant role in their lives in the sense that they influence willingness to accept changes that contribute significantly in raising farm level productivity and ultimately their standard of living. Various researches had been conducted to identify socio-economic characteristics of small-scale farmers in relation to crop and livestock production. Socio-economic factors such as age, household size, formal education, income, social status and family size were all found to be significantly related to agricultural production of rural farmers (Eneh, 2008). In the study conducted by Babatude *et al.* (2007), it was revealed that educational level in the study area was low (about 47.9% had no education at all) which limit opportunity for better off-farm activities or employment, the mean household size was seven people, while the average age of the household was fifty 50 years implying active farming age group in the study area.

However, Oladeji *et al.* (2003) observed that it is generally believed that males are often more energetic and could readily be available for energy demanding jobs like cassava and cereal crops farming. The farming experience shows that farmers will be able to make sound decisions as regards resources allocation and management of their farm enterprises. He further concluded that, the size of the farm cultivated is a function of population pressure, family size and financial background of the farmers. One major characteristic of small-scale farming is fragmented land holding. Agricultural production remains an important source of income for most of rural dwellers and its growth will continue to be a mainstay of livelihood.

According to Maharjan *et al.*, (2013), it was posited that the main criteria often used to classify rural farmers by various researchers are; the level of income of the farmers, land size of the farmers, purpose of production and other important factors. According to Ishaya *et al.*, (2014), cereals production in Nigeria is likely to be sensitive to climate changes due to the intra-seasonal and inter-annual variability of rainfall, poor starting conditions, limited adaptation options for smallholders, subsistence nature of farming, the limited information on climate change and adaptation measures just like in other parts of African and the tropics. This means that, cereal production in the Kwara State may not be an exception to impact of climate change. However, Temesgen *et al.*, (2011) asserted that higher level of education is believed to be associated with access to information on improved technologies and higher productivity. They revealed that there is a positive relationship between the education level of household head/inhabitants and the adoption of improved technologies and adaptation to climate change on cereal crops.

2.3 Rural Youth Migration: Implication for the Agricultural Workforce

The literature on rural-urban youth migration is robust in Nigeria with respect to depletion of agricultural labour force. Migration of potential farmers from the rural areas to the urban centres however, reduces the absolute number of the workforce available within a family. For Instance, Kong (2003) is one of the proponents who hold that rural out migration of youths negatively affects the agricultural potentials of the rural communities. This according to him is that the major factor of agricultural productivity (labour) is greatly reduced and consequently reduces agricultural output. This claim is further elaborated by Adams and Adams (2007) who stressed the role of human labour in all the production phases, especially in developing countries where mechanized agriculture is still at infancy. They conclude that until a reduction in rural out migration of youth is given a due consideration; farmers' output will continue to decrease.

Also, Kayode (2002) identified low labour productivity as one of the constraints to be removed in order to adequately harvest Nigeria's agricultural vast potential. Nwachukwu (2003), agricultural productivity increases with an increase in labour supply. According to the Submissions of Food and Agricultural Organization (2001), United Nations Food Emergency Council (2001), and Aid American Development Agency (2000), rural-urban migration is a major factor responsible for the acute labour shortage experienced in rural communities particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. This labour shortage thus reduces the capability of such regions to produce adequate foods for its population. In the views of Fred (2001), Bassey and Essien (2003) agricultural productivity is directly related to labour supply in that increase in labour supply increases agricultural output and vice versa. This goes to show that a country with an inadequate supply of labour to effectively sustain its agricultural production will hardly achieve her food security objectives (Didden & Person, 2004). Knight and Sang (2003), farm requires adequate labour supply which in Nigeria is usually supplied by able young rural dwellers. They however concluded that the continuous movement of this sect from rural communities is accompanied by a sharp decline in the quantity of food which is a major derivative of agriculture.

These views are however in contrast with other scholars who believe that rural-urban migration greatly favours agricultural productivity. In a research carried out at Nyamira District of Kenya Nyamieri (2011) discovered that rural-urban migration is a livelihood strategy for both migrants and their families left behind. According to her, rural-rural migration is a part of diversification strategy where remittances are being sent back to the farming households to help reduce the risk incurred in both the subsistence and commercial agricultural activities. Atu and Iwuanyanwu (2017) in their study on the socioeconomic implication of labour migration in Akpabuyo

Cross River State found out the migrants contribute significantly to their destination regions. Ajaero and Onokala (2003) in the effects of rural-urban migration on rural communities in southern Nigeria posit that rural-urban migration is a survival strategy utilized by the poor especially the rural dwellers. This is because; the rural-urban migrants sent remittances to their relatives in the rural areas and this remittance-receiving household's use the remittances for various purposes including agriculture. In a similar view, Ekong (2003) maintained migration offers migrants ample opportunities to acquire new skills and broaden their horizons. He further pointed out that the returned migrants bring cultural innovation and technological changes to their homes. According to him, the early adopters of rice cultivation in Abakiliki area southeast Nigeria were migrant farmers who brought rice with themselves from other areas. In Nigeria, labour is a major constraint in cereal crop production (Gocowski and Oduwole, 2003). The availability of labour has been found to have impact on planting precision, better weed control, timely harvesting and crop processing (Oluyole *et al.*, 2007). The various studies on farm labour supply and use confirm that human labour on the farm is not homogenous and job contents differ. The farm labour supply and use were apparently hindered due to some factors such as Migration, Wage rate, farm income, age composition and barrier to adoption of technology. The literature has shown what occurred in the agricultural sector with reduced labour,

2.4 Rural-Urban Migration Process in Nigeria

Rural-urban migration was gradual between 1960 and 1970 but rose from 14 percent in 1960 to 37 percent in 1992 (Shaib *et al.*, 1997). Fashina (2005) reported a rise in rural-urban migration between 1999 and 2003 with a mean of 46 percent per annum in Ondo state. Dipeolu (2000); Ogundele (2005); Ajaero and Onokola, (2013) discovered large scale rural-urban migration. Rural-Urban migration in Nigeria assumed prominence in the Oil boom era of the early 1970s

(Olatunbosun, 2008; Adepoju, 2009). The situation has become more intractable with the obvious dichotomy in access to modern facilities and living standards between rural areas and the urban centres (Fadayomi, 2002). This trend has continued unabated in spite of so much orchestrated efforts at rural transformation. It is estimated that four of every five rural Africans are without reasonable access to safe water (Rimmer, 2008). And for Deavers (2002), most rural areas in developing countries especially in Africa, lack several social amenities and human resources, which contrast sharply with what is obtainable in urban centres.

Traditionally, migration studies were devoted to investigating frequency, patterns and flows, distance and typologies of people's mobility and their assimilation in host societies. Recent explorations, however, have begun to venture into studying the effects of migration and the various meanings of the migration for people themselves (Rigg, 2003). There is increasing interest in the migration process which involves studying the lived reality of migrants; their migration, settlement, ethnic relations, public policies and identity construction as closely related and overlapping segments in a single process (Castles, 2000).

The migration decision has been shown to be selective. Migration mainly concerns young adults who are more likely to have a positive net expected return on migration due to their longer remaining life expectancy, or because social norms require that young adults migrate in search of a better life (De Haan and Rogally, 2002). It is imperative to understand that researches in the field have come to show that the reasons for migration have moved away from the economic causes and effects of migration streams to the problems of identity, ethnic conflict and changing self-identification of migrants (Bates, 2001). Also, studies on labour migration from rural to urban areas from a political economy perspective has similarly revealed that much of the migration has been circular, and does not really involve one-way movements. Most migrants

maintain close links with their place of origin, thus rendering a view of migration as a „series of exchanges between places“ (Breman, 2000; De Haan and Rogaly, 2002; Locke, Adger and Kelly, 2000).

Migration not only arises as an option premised on the need to diversify livelihoods due to dwindling natural resources and weakening returns from farm activities, it also arises from the configuration of entitlements to resources and assets, life cycle factors, divisions of labour by gender, gender norms on mobility and individual aspirations that often determine which members are released for migration by households and which are retained. In addition, migration is largely network-mediated, and often its costs are offset by social networks that help a migrant work out the complex requirements and processes of migration. So households and social networks mediate the relationship between the individual rural migrant and the world at large (Brettell, 2000; Battistella, 2003).

Attempts to integrate the multiple causes of labour migration into a single framework have been made by Gulliver (2005) and Mitchell (2009). In his studies of the Ngoni and Ndendeuli of Southern Tanzania, Gulliver christened and dismissed the „bright lights theory“ and emphasized instead that the main factors pushing men to seek work is economic. Other factors, a final quarrel with a brother or yet another dispute with a neighbor, some real or supposed injustice suffered at the hands of the chief or an adverse court decision, appeared to be no more than „last straw“ causes affecting only the timing of migration. Other causes of migration are relatively unimportant and are generally of the “last straw” type such as difficulties which affect individuals in their family and social life and which go to tip the balance and induce a man to leave home for a spell at a particular time.

A review of part of the considerable literature on the causes of labour migration led Mitchell to emphasize also the importance of economic factors in inducing movements. Although men have tended to dominate migration flows, women are becoming an increasing part of labour migration streams in Nigeria and other African societies (Agesa and Agesa, 2009; Thadani and Todaro, 2004). Some studies have shown that women are less likely to migrate alone than men, but with increasing urbanization, they are becoming a more important component of the labour migration streams to urban areas (Guilmoto, 2008; Chant, 2002).

2.5 Causes of Rural-Urban Youth Migration

According to Akpabio (2005), Ekong (2010), and Amba (2012), the migration of the rural residents (youth) can be induced by two primary factors namely: the push factors and the pull factors. The push factors are those undesirable and dissatisfying state of affairs/welfare in the rural areas that compels the ruralites to migrate to urban centres like towns and cities examples are lack of social infrastructures, employment opportunities, problems of Natural and social events, problem of institutional infrastructure and cultural demands. The pull factors on the other hand are those desirable and satisfying states of affairs/welfare in the urban areas which attract the migrant to the tow/city. Examples are employment opportunities, education, urban facilities and ways of life, marriage, political conditions/appointments and availability of social and physical infrastructural amenities (Ekong, 2010). According to Braunvan (2004), people tend to be pulled to the areas of prosperity and pushed from areas of decline. Effiong and Aboh (2018) stated that inadequate rural infrastructures, such as road network, pipe born water, electricity, health care services are responsible for youth migration in Cross River State, Nigeria. In this regard, a survey done in remote densely populated region of South-East Nigeria showed that

road and transport facilities have a negative effect on the transportation of farm produces and this has induced migration of small scale farmers in seeking urban wage employment (Tacoli, 2002).

Lawal and Okeowo (2014) discovered that lack of an opportunity to earn ready cash income during the slack season in the farming calendar engendered migration among farmers. They equally reported that rural-urban wage differential may generate migration. According to Aworemi (2011) in the appraisal of the factors influencing rural-urban migration in some selected Local Government Areas of Lagos concluded that unemployment, education, family reasons, inadequate social amenities in the rural communities, avoidance of boredom in agriculture and health reasons are the major factors influencing rural-urban migration in Nigeria. Afshar (2003) contended that, the inadequacy of incomes, lack of gainful employment, coupled with poverty in the rural areas, have pushed people out of their villages in search of better sources of livelihoods in the urban areas. Rural poverty manifested in low agricultural incomes, poor productivity and under employment as well as strain of farm work is pushing many migrants out of rural areas towards areas with greater (perceived) opportunities (Awumbila, and Ardayfio- Schandorf, 2008).

Similarly, Kebede (2014) argued that land scarcity due to increasing population pressure, unfavorable land tenure system, agricultural stagnation caused by faulty government policies, poverty, environmental crisis and the consequent famine and a set of many other related factors have in single or combination acted as forces pushing people from the rural areas in poor countries. Another study conducted in South-East Nigeria show that one of the responsible factors for rural out-migration of people has been related to the land tenure system. Land is controlled by a common ancestor where it is only claimed by indigenous households belonging

to a decent from a certain ancestor. Such conditions paved a way for the landless to migrate (Tacoli, 2002).

Some rural-urban migrations in Latin-America and Asia are motivated by a desire for educational opportunities offered in urban areas (Rhoda, 2009). In Ghana and perhaps in tropical Africa, education is a powerful determinant of rural-urban migrations (Caldwell, 2014). Charles (2015) in the case of rural Nigerians, states that schooling increases expectations of new and modern urban life so that educated rural people are more prone to migration. However, according to Caldwell (2009), the role of education is not absolute as long as some unschooled rural Ghanaians move to the towns with their ill qualification to secure urban employment. Similarly, people migrate to improve their economic well-being and when they are unable to satisfy their aspiration within the existing opportunity structure in their locality (UNESCO, 2012; Fadayomi *et al*, 2002).

In Western Kenya, youth migrating for employment opportunities report doing so because the education they have received is better aligned with urban jobs (Oucho, Oucho, & Ochieng, 2014) and young women cite marriage as a driver of migration to urban areas (Miguel & Hamory, 2009). Other factors cited by Kenyan youth as reasons to move to urban areas include poor rural living conditions, cultural practices, and access to health and other services in urban areas (Miguel and Hamory, 2009; Oucho *et al.*, 2014). A survey conducted in Burundi, Ghana, Kenya, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal, Togo and Uganda has considered education, marital status, age, ethnicity and number of births as determinates of rural out-migration (Brockhoff and Eu, 2013). The survey concluded that more schooling increases the likelihoods of rural-urban migration depicting a strong relationship between education and migration.

Exaggerated expectations of high quality city life also motivate and pull rural residents out of their locality. The study done in northern Ghana by Gugler and Flanagan (2018) depicted that the exaggeration is conveyed especially by returned migrants who need to have a positive image about themselves in the minds of others. Such movements are done to seek a better economic incentive in urban destinations.

Adams (2009) argued that migration is typically an individual decision made on the basis of the income that one expects to receive given his/her own specific human capital characteristics, such as age, education and skills. But recent studies emphasized that migration decisions are not taken by an individual in isolation but are influenced by the actual or intentional migration choices in one's peer group by the group's specific characteristics. Epstein (2002) opined that migrant networks, peer influences, immigrant clusters, herd behaviour, chain migration were the major causes of migration of people from one location to the other while Munshi, 2003 ; Epstein and Gang, 2004; Bauer et al., 2006; stated that social influences have a significant impact on the migrant's decisions about when and where to migrate.

In sub-Saharan Africa, Vargas-Lundius, Basu, and Suttie (2014) argued that important factors compelling rural outmigration are: lack of decent rural employment opportunities, limited or non-existent access to credit, resources and markets, and lack of appeal and viability of traditional agricultural work. According to a report from Marchiori et al., (2010), climate variation has been responsible for a displacement of 2.55 million people over the period of 1960-2000 in Sub-Saharan Africa. The problem is particularly severe for countries that depend on the agriculture sector and have lead to rural-urban migration as well as shift from agricultural to non-agricultural sector. Thus, it means that climate change is one of the responsible factors for the growth of African cities and a determinant factor for urbanization of the continent (Barrios *et al.*,

2006). In addition, unpredictable precipitation and climate, market prices of agricultural products, ethnic tensions, civil disturbances and war have been also reported among the determinants for migration decision in Sub-Saharan Africa (Fay and Opal, 2007).

2.6 Effects of Rural Youth Migration on Small-Scale Farmer

In the past decades, youth labour migration and household agricultural economic research has focused on the hypothesis that the migration of the household population, especially youth, has significant influence on the economic and crop productivity of the households. The family labour which the rural farmers depends solely upon was reduced drastically due to migration of the youth to the urban centres. The phenomenon consequently resulted to high cost of production, low productivity, and reduction in annual income and a fall in standard of living of the rural populace (Akangbe *et al.*, 2006). In a related study by Zimmere (2006) reported that increased migration and transnational, as well as growth of forest product based handicraft industries, have led to rural households and communities abandoning agricultural lands, resulting to the growth of the imported agricultural packages.

Farm labour provided by active and energetic youth is considered as an essential component of agricultural productivity in rural areas, because agriculture in isolated areas of an open country with low population density solely depends on family labour. Rural farmers, due to peasantry nature of the farm business and low income status, mostly depend on family labour, which is mostly provided by the youth. Farm labour seasonal migration is often tremendous in magnitude and is widespread throughout the nation of Nigeria. Its net result has been described as having negative impact on the local development and productivity due to the reduction in human resources (Ray, 2002).

Despite the importance of youth migration to the urban centres due to, most especially, lack of social amenities in the rural settings, and lack of rural job opportunities during the dry season of the years, and its repercussions resulted to low yield and high cost of labour. Also, Kayode (2002) identified low labour productivity as one of the constraints to be removed in order to adequately harvest Nigeria's agricultural vast potential. Rural youth migration as noted by several writers (Osondu and Ibezim, 2001; Lewis, 2004; Olayide, 2009;) have been associated with decline in food production, farming activities, fishing, urban congestion, and inadequate infrastructural facilities in urban areas. The decline in food production in developing countries such as Nigeria can be linked to the impact of rural-urban youth migration as well as other factors such as economic, soil quality, ecology, climatic conditions, socio-cultural setting and poor farm management. With the mass migration of youths from rural to urban areas, only few youths are left behind, consequently the cost of labour has been on the increase. With this trend, most farmers have found it increasable difficult to afford the high cost of labour. Even when some can afford it, labour is readily unavailable because many youths have migrated to cities and most of those left behind may not be interested in agricultural activities. Since more youths migrate to urban areas for better standard of living, many aged people are left to accomplish most tasks associated with farming. There is no doubt that added responsibilities will reduce the productive capacity of the aged farmer who already does not have the desired energy to do most farming activities. Echebiri (2005) noted that out migration of youths had led to increased participation of older men and women in agricultural production. According to Boque (2002), the supply of labour in agricultural production is usually a function of the size of the population, structure of the population, the preparation of the population entering the labour market and the

number of hours, which an individual actually works. Rural- urban youth migration also slows down the pace of development of the rural areas.

An increase in the migration of the active labour force actually leads to a decrease in farm output. The consensus in the literature about the relationship between migration and agricultural development remains thin. A study conducted by Aworemi, Abdul-Azeez & Opoola (2011) in Nigeria shows that rural-urban migration is a double-edged problem affecting the rural community as well as the urban destinations. They contend that rural community is affected because the youths and adults that are supposed to remain in the community and contribute to the development of agriculture in particular and the community in general leave the rural areas for other destinations. The 'lost labour' of able-bodied (migrated) men and women is ascribed a key role in the process of agricultural decline. Interestingly, internal migration is associated with rural and agricultural stagnation or even decline (Regmi and Tisdell, 2002). This has serious implications for agricultural production since most of the work which would have been done by the youths is now left for the aged to do (Angba, 2003). De Haan (2009) suggested that migration does not usually lead to radical transformation of rural agriculture but that it often occupies a central part in the maintenance of rural people's livelihoods.

Meanwhile as migrants are away, households have less labour to allocate to local production activities. If a migrant household's marginal product on the farm is positive, crop production will fall when the household sends out a migrant(s). Taylor *et al.*, (2003) noted that the adverse effect of loss of labour may be high since migrants tend to be younger and better educated than the average rural labourer. Rozelle *et al.*, (2009) reported a significant and negative effect of loss of labour on yields. Also, De Brauw and Rozelle (2003) found that the loss of household labour from migration negatively affects household crop income.

In spite of the fact that out-migration results in loss of agricultural labour which subsequently affects productivity and level of farm income, some scholars have argued that Out-migration of youth has positive effects on agriculture. For instance, Taylor *et al.* (2003) argued that loss in yield due to the reduction in available labour may be compensated for (Partially) by remittances from the migrant(s), which are used to purchase additional inputs or rent substitutes for labour in cropping. It is possible that, initially the migrants cannot send remittances until they are well settle. However, De Haas (2001) posited that, in the long run, and after an adjustment process, this agricultural decline has often been reversed through agricultural investments made possible by the inflow of remittances. De Brauw and Rozelle (2003) also provide evidence that the remittances sent home by migrants partially compensate for this lost-labour effect, contributing to household incomes directly and also indirectly by stimulating crop production.

(IFAD (2007) hypothesized that migration is likely to generate a positive income effect on the sending households, raising the household's ability to access important nutritional inputs like food among others. Furthermore, Fasoranti (2009) in his study on perceptions of rural-urban migration in selected rural communities in Ondo State, Nigeria found that over 80% of the respondent agreed or strongly agreed that the movement of a member of the family to an urban location frees more land space for farming in the rural areas. This eventually may lead to increased cultivation and subsequently increased productivity.

In a nut shell, this apparent contradiction in the literature can be partly resolved by the understanding that migration impacts are not the same for different areas across time and space. There are indications that the initial effect of migration on agricultural productivity might indeed have been negative, because of an acute lack of family labour but may subsequently improve if remittances flow from migrants and are invested in agriculture. After reviewing a number of

cases in Asia, Deshingkar (2004) concluded that, a loss of Labour through migration may or may not reduce agricultural production, remittance may or may not increase access to assets by alleviating credit constraint: this in turn may or may not increase agricultural production and household incomes. The effect of migration on agriculture and livelihoods of rural households in less developed regions in general depends on different factors. To mention some, the pattern of migration, the length of time spent out of the farm activities, available assets and farm enhancing inputs and other institutional and socio-cultural setups (that allow women to perform farm activities which have been reserved for men and household heads previously) can be mentioned (McDowell & de Haan, 2007). Rural youth migration has retarded drastically the development of the various sectors of rural systems ranging from agricultural to infrastructural development (Mgbakor, Uzendu & Usifo, 2014). In the agricultural sector the labour supply is greatly reduced and this consequently reduces the output because agrarian output in developing countries with low technology is human labour dependent amongst other things such as land and capital.

Moreover, rural out migrants in Nigeria are predominantly the youths, male folks and educated members of the rural farm households as well as artisans and other skilled workers in the rural sector (Okali *et al.*, 2001; DFID, 2004, Shittu, 2011). Thus, rural-urban youth migration in Nigeria has meant that the rural areas are often left with a demographically unbalanced population of women, younger children, and older people (Okali *et al.*, 2001; DFID, 2004). It also denies the rural sector the much needed human capital, reduces availability of farm labour (Ogwumike and Aramolaran, 2000), and thereby tends to weaken productivity and income levels in the sector.

2.8 Strategies for Reducing Rural-Urban Youth Migration

By definition, rural development means changes in social and economic structures, institutions, relationships and processes of the rural areas. It is also known as progress in small-scale farming, provision of physical and social infrastructure, development of rural non-farm industries and the capacity of the rural sector to sustain and accelerate the pace of development over time.

Dealing with the problem of rural development is pertinent for any meaningful agricultural development. Ekong (2003) had suggested that the spread of needed infrastructure and introduction of appropriate technology in rural areas would markedly improve rural agriculture and reduce widening rural-urban income gap. Okoko (2000) and Babalola (2002) believed that investing in rural areas will slow down migration to cities in a remarkable way. Thus, improving quality of life in villages in terms of provision of rural amenities such as supply of electricity, portable water, roads, and rural institution including adult literacy program is bound to reverse the trend of rural-urban migration. International Institute for Tropical Agriculture (IITA, 2004) also noted that making investment locally from income generated in rural areas will release direct benefit for both rural sector and the country as a whole from rural economic activities.

It was however recommended that to stem down the rate of the rural-urban migration, functional amenities such as pipe borne water, electricity, recreational facilities should be provided in the rural areas. Good educational facilities and qualified teachers should be made available in the rural areas. Agro-allied industries must be set-up in the rural areas in order to provide job opportunity for the rural dwellers (Aworemi *et al.*, 2011). Tackling rural-urban migration problems remain a panacea for increasing food production. Hence, policies that will focus on rural and agricultural development must be enacted. In other words, agriculture has been the major source of livelihood of the rural people in most African communities, including Nigeria

(Ekpebu & Ukpong, 2013), hence to ensure sustainable rural development, there is a need for suitable and consistent rural development policies that would promote agricultural development in the rural areas (Ita *et al.*, 2013). Sustainable agricultural development would enhance better standards of living and poverty alleviation in the rural areas, hence the need for greater commitment by the government towards designing sustainable strategies for economic development, mainly agriculture and other sources of rural livelihoods (Ekpebu&Ukpong, 2010). Also, in the quest to achieve sustainable development, conservation agriculture needs to be encouraged in rural African communities (FAO, 2008).

To support broad-based poverty reduction and food security in Africa, smallholder agriculture must be a central investment focus (Garvelink *et al.*, 2012). The sheer size of agriculture in most African economies suggests that strategies designed to promote the early stages of economic growth cannot ignore agriculture. The promotion of the rural economy in a sustainable way has the potential of increasing employment opportunities in rural areas, reducing regional income disparities, stemming pre-mature rural-urban migration, and ultimately reducing poverty at its very source (Anriquez and Stamoulis, 2007). The potential of agriculture to generate a more pro-poor growth process depends on the creation of new market opportunities that most benefit the rural poor (Hanjra and Culas, 2011).

2.9 Migration and Agricultural Production in African

Agriculture still remains as a primary occupation among African rural population. The changes occurring as a result of rural-urban interactions have also implication on the transformation of the agricultural sector (Tacoli, 2002). In Sub-Saharan Africa, Goldsmith *et al.* (2004) confirmed the Lewis assumption that rural-urban migration has been activated as a result of the emergence of modern economy. Approximately, 75% of the world population lives in rural areas and are

dependent on agricultural activities to survive (IFAD, 2007). Although, they are often very context-specific common causes of poverty and food insecurity in rural communities include natural disasters (drought and flooding etc), civil conflict and structural inequalities. Such Phenomena limit these populations' access to resources and opportunities to secure a Sustainable livelihood. When local solutions are scarce or non-existent, poor families living in rural areas will often resort to 'sending' a family member to a nearby urban centre or abroad in search of remunerated work.

The consensus in the literature about the relationship between migration and rural development remains thin. The evidence suggests that migration does not usually lead to radical transformation of rural agriculture but that it often occupies a central part in the maintenance of rural people's livelihoods (De Haan, 2009). It has been commonly argued in the migration literature that a both internal and international migration has contributed to decline in agriculture and a general disaffection with small-scale peasantry.

A study conducted by Aworemi *et al.*, (2011) in Nigeria show that rural-urban migration is a double-edge problem affecting the rural community as well as the urban destinations. They contend that rural community is affected because the youths and adults that are supposed to remain in the community and contribute to the development of agriculture in particular and the community in general leave the rural areas for other destinations. They move to urban centres in search of non-existent greener pasture and abandon the farming activities which they believe cannot earn them what they will get in the urban areas. Subsequently, this tends to reduce agricultural production and food availability in the sending communities. The 'lost labour' of able-bodied (migrated) men and women is ascribed a key role in the process of agricultural decline. Ojuekaiye (2012) reported that rural youths are responsible for cereal crops production

activities which provides additional income earning opportunities, enhances their ability to contribute to household food security and meet other household needs.

Interestingly, internal migration is associated more often with rural and agricultural stagnation or even decline (Regmi and Tisdell, 2002; De Haas, 2008) than with international migration to wealthy countries, where much higher remittances enable households to substitute the lost labour and to actually invest in agriculture and other sectors. The mass exodus of the rural work force is supposed to have led to agricultural decline or even abandonment of agriculture (De Mas, 2011; Ferry and Toutain, 2009; Kerbout, 2013). This has serious implications for agricultural production since most of the work which would have been done by the youths is now left for the aged to do (Angba, 2003). If a migrant household's marginal product on the farm is positive, crop production will fall when the household sends out a migrant(s). Taylor *et al.* (2003) note that the adverse effect of loss of labour may be high since migrants tend to be younger and better educated than the average rural labourer.

Rozelle *et al.* (2009) report a significant and negative effect of loss of labour on yields, but the same authors (Taylor *et al.*, 2003) using the household farm survey data collected by Rozelle in another paper found out that although loss of labour to migration has a negative effect on household cropping income, the overall effect of migration on crop yields is positive. The loss in yield due to the reduction in available labour may be compensated for (partially) by remittances from the migrant(s) (Taylor *et al.*, 2003; Rozelle *et al.*, 2009), which are used to purchase additional inputs or rent substitutes for labour in cropping. Instead of investing, it has been argued that migrant households tend to withdraw partially or entirely from agriculture. This is because the remittances sent by migrants push the migrant household to a higher economic level where they can engage in other economic ventures leaving primary production. Return migrants

who do invest in agriculture often does so, not out of rational economic motives, but because of their strong emotional attachment towards agriculture. It would therefore concern a “ritual” (De Mas, 2011) or “sentimental” (Bencherifa, 2001) agriculture, in which the migrant practices a kind of “hobby farming” (Bencherifa and Popp, 2000).

2.10 Theoretical Framework for the Study

Theoretical framework used for this study is the "**Dependency Theory**", which is an underdevelopment model. The dependency theory arose as a result of the inability of the modernization theory to properly explain why some countries are poor and some are rich, or why the gross disparity between the rural and urban areas of the developing nations of the world. The Modernization theory states that, there are certain factors that have helped some countries to develop, either at the individual level, cultural level or at the level of the social structure. In addition, it states that to develop, underdeveloped countries must assimilate what is present in the developed world, such as its technology, institutions and ideas. It also defined development in terms of per capita income, measured simply by the Gross National Product (GNP) of a nation. Some of its theorists include Parsons (1937), Rostow (1960), McClelland (1961) and Hagen (1962). There has however, been a change in orientation because, in spite of physical growth, many people in developing regions live in abject poverty and squalor, making it difficult to talk of development in such areas. Hence the introduction of the Physical Quality of Life Index (PQLI) in response to the need for a supplement Per Capita Gross National Product (GNP) in measuring the level of progress achieved by any country in meeting basic human needs. The Dependency theory emanated from the Marxian school of thought. Its proponents are mostly Latin American and African Scholars, such as, Frank (1973), Furtado (1973), Amin (1974), Rodney (1972), Onimode (1980) and Offiong (1980). The central theme of the Dependency

theory is that, the current socio- economic condition of Third World Countries are the product of certain historical forces, which have originated from European expansion of Economic dominance. Thus, The Periphery (Underdeveloped Nations) play a satellite role which Frank (1973) called 'hypertrophy of the tertiary sector'.

The implication of this sketch of dependency model shows that historical dependency has been the root problem of Nigeria's underdevelopment due to the effect it has had on the peoples' customs and economy. The dependency theory further contends that as a result of our colonial heritage, our indigenous system now exist peripherally as rural communities in relation to state capitals and Local Government headquarters, all of which are urban in character. In addition, this model show's clearly that due to the neglect of the rural areas despite their contribution to food security and raw materials for industrial purposes, there is a continuous influx of people to the cities In search of white collar jobs.

It further shows that those at the helm of affairs do not see it as necessary to consult with rural people to know what their needs are, especially in areas requiring urgent attention. Policies of government are made by the elites, for the betterment of the elites, to the detriment of the masses majority of which reside in the rural areas, comprising mostly the vulnerable groups in society. The insensitivity and corruption of those in government has been made worse by the lack of consciousness on the part of the weak, poor and voiceless in society, hence their inability to determine adequate measures to address their situation and the rural sector for enhanced living condition. Consequently, exponents of the Dependency theory have argued that the present state of poor agricultural production in Nigeria is due to the forces of underdevelopment arising from the colonial experience and the continued existence of that system. For Agricultural development

to take place, they argued that this structure has first to change (Agbonifo, 1984; Abdullahi, 1985; Nzimiro, 1985).

2.11 Conceptual Frame work

Conceptual framework is a confirmed idea about a phenomenon. The basic assumption in the study are that farmers socio-economic characteristics, institutional and associated constraints will play a significant role in affecting cereal crops productivity in order to bring about expected effect or changes in the out-put, income and living standard of the farmers as well as the transformation of the rural area. Therefore, the framework in Figure 2.1 is based on the premise that independent variables and the intervening variables influence the dependent variables. The independent variables include socio-economic characteristics, institutional characteristics and constraints faced by cereal farming household, intervening variables are those variables that come between the dependent and independent variables. Push and pull factors, Government programmes and policies, bureaucratic bottleneck and climatic factors account for the internal and direct unobservable psychological process that in turn account for behavioural change and lead to rural-urban youth migration.

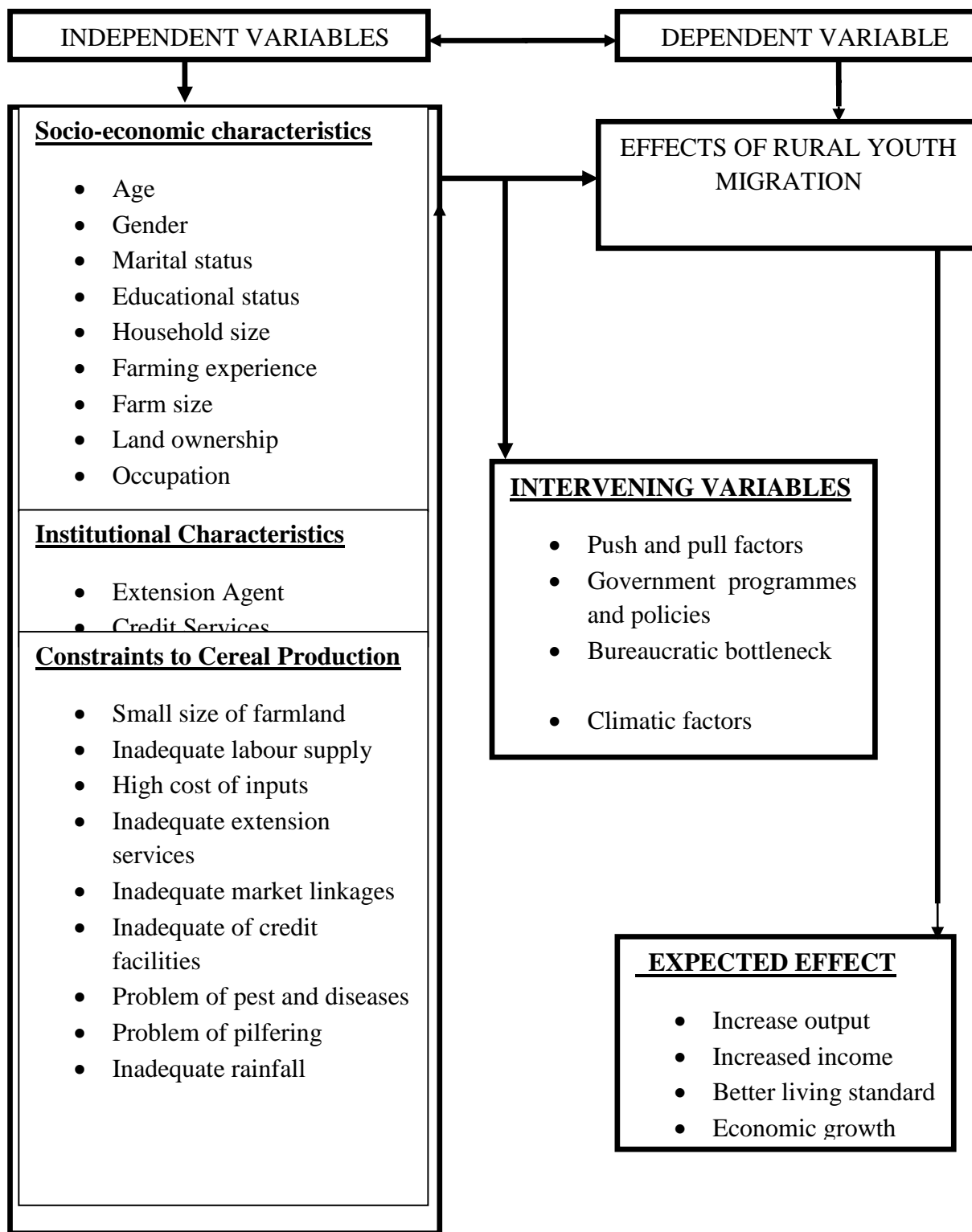


Figure 2.1: Conceptual model on the effects of rural youth’s migration on small-scale cereals crop farming household.

Source: Researcher Construct (2019)

CHAPTER THREE

3.0

METHODOLOGY

3.1 The Study Area

The study was conducted in Kwara State, North central Nigeria. Kwara State lies between latitudes 8°-10°N and longitude 2°45'-6°4'E of the Greenwich meridian. It covers an estimated land area of about 36,825 square kilometers of the total area of Nigeria (Saliu, 2004). According to National Population Census (NPC, 2006), the state had a population of 2,591,555 peoples, spread across the sixteen Local Government Areas, which was projected to be 3,005,409 in 2017 using an annual population growth rate of 2.5% (World Bank, 2018). The State was created in 1967 and it is located in the transitional zone of north central Nigeria, and has River Niger as its natural boundary along its northern and eastern margins. Kwara State shares a common internal boundary with Niger State in the North, Kogi State in the East, Oyo, Ekiti and Osun States in the South and an international boundary with the Republic of Benin in the West (NBS, 2010).

The 16 LGAs in the state are grouped by the State's Agricultural Development Project (ADP) into four zones – A, B, C, and D – with their headquarters at Kaima, Patigi, Malete, and Igbaja respectively. The grouping was done in consonance with the ecological characteristics of the various parts of the state and for the effective administration of agricultural intervention programmes. The major tribes in the state are Yoruba, Nupe and Baruba. Other tribes are Fulani, Igbo and Hausa. Kwara State lies within a region described as tropical climate and is characterized by double rainfall maxima and has tropical wet and dry climate (Olanrewaju, 2009). Both seasons last for about six months.

Kwara State is a summer rainfall area, with an annual rainfall range of 1000 mm to 1500 mm. The rainy season begins at about the end of March and lasts until early September, while the dry

season begins in early October and ends in early March. Temperature is uniformly high and ranges between 25°C and 30°C in the wet season throughout the season except in July – August when the clouding of the sky prevents direct insolation (heatstroke) while in the dry season it ranges between 33°C to 34°C. Relative humidity at kwara state in the wet season is between 75 to 80% while in the dry season it is about 65%. The daytimes are sunny and the sun shines brightly for about 6.5 to 7.7 hours daily from November to May (NBS, 2010).

The vegetation type belongs to the Tropical Savannah which comprises dense forest population in most parts of the state and derived vegetation within and around the urban centres and characterized with scattered trees among grasses that grow high such as spear grass, elephant grass and goat weed while the trees include; Baobab, Acacia, Locust-beans Shea butter trees among others. The weather type in the State belongs to the humid tropical climate. This attribute predisposes the people of Kwara State to make farming their major occupation. Agriculture is the main source of the state's economy. The major Food crops produced in the state are mostly cereal crops namely rice, maize, sorghum, millet, cowpea, melon and they constitute the main staple food aside root and tuber crops (Ajadi *et al.*, 2011).

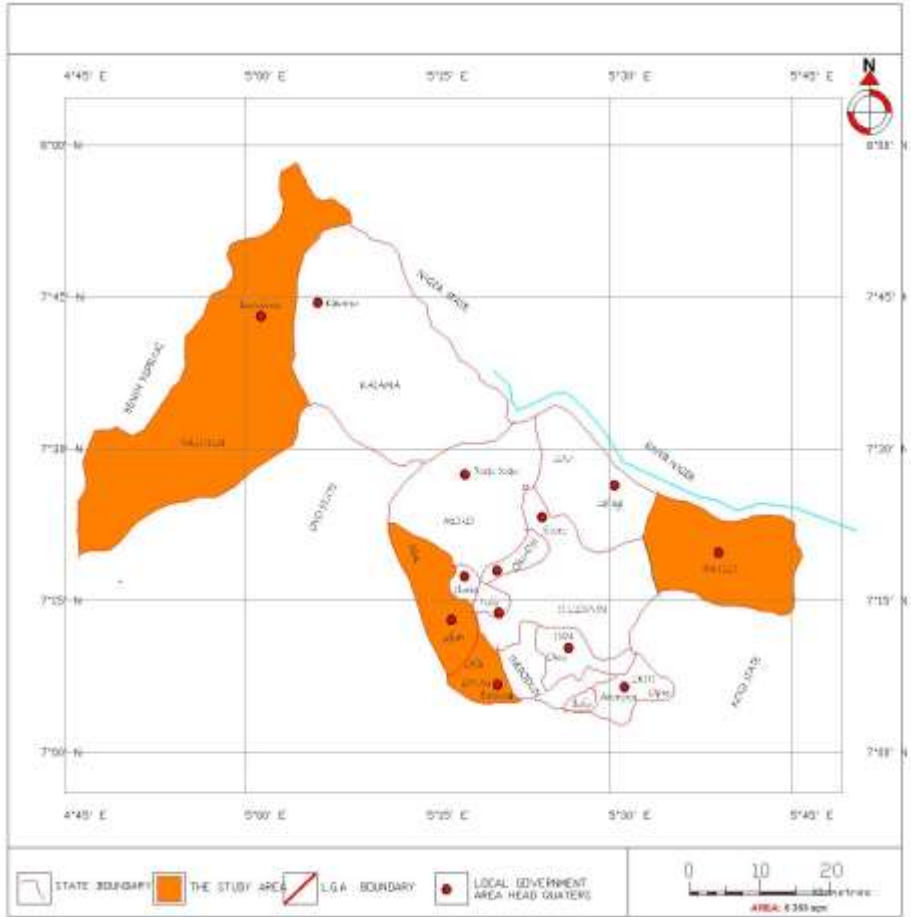


Figure 3.1: Map of Kwara State Showing the Study Areas

3.2 Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

Small-scale cereal crop farmers in the study area constituted the populations for this study. A multi-stage random sampling technique was employed in the selection of respondents. The first stage involved random selection of one (1) Local Government Area from each of agricultural zones, which comprises Baruteen LGA in Zone A, Patigi LGA in Zone B, Asa LGA in Zone C and Oyun LGA in Zone D. The second stage involved random selection of two (2) villages from each of the selected Local Government Areas. The third stage involved ascertaining the total number of registered cereal crop farmers in the study area based on sample frame obtaining from Kwara State Agricultural Development Project (KWADP). The fourth (4) stages involved proportionate sampling of the sample frame using (20%) to obtaining the sample size of two hundred (205) respondents. The distribution of respondents in the study area is presented in Table 3.1

Table 3.1 Summary of Sample Outlay for the Study

Zones	LGAs	Location/Villages	Sampling Frame	Sampling Size (20%)
A	Baruteen	Illesha-baruba	136	27
		Yashikra	118	23
B	Patigi	Kpada	159	31
		Lade	98	19
C	Asa	Afon	152	30
		Abuto-Oja	109	21
D	Oyun	Erinle	156	31
		Illemona	100	20
Total	4	8	1028	205

Source: Kwara State Agricultural Development Programme, (KWADP, 2018)

3.3 Source of Data Collection

Data for the study was obtained from primary sources. The primary data was collected with the use of a well structured questionnaire complemented with an interview schedule, in line with the stated objectives. It was used to elicit useful information from the respondents in the study area. The questionnaire were administered to collect cereal crop farmers information on their socio-economic characteristics, socio-economic factors influencing rural youth migration to urban centre in the study area, effects of rural youth migration on the productivity of small-scale cereal crop farming household and various mitigating strategies adopted for reducing rural youth migration in the study area.

3.3.1 Validity and Reliability of Data Collection Instrument

Validity is the degree to which an instrument accurately measures what it intends to measure. Content validity was carried out to ensure that the questionnaire is valid for this research. Content validity was measured by giving the instrument to my supervisors and experts in the field to ascertain the content validity of the instrument. Reliability is the degree to which an instrument yields consistent results. The questionnaire was tested for reliability using the test- retest method. This is the process of administering the same questionnaire twice over a period of time to the same group of individuals. The data from the first and second process was then be correlated using Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) at coefficient $r = 0.75$ to evaluate the reliability of the instrument over time.

3.4 Measurement of variables

3.4.1 Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in the study was effect of rural youth migration which was measured as a dummy variable; one (1) was assigned for rural youth migration in the study area, while zero (0)

was assigned otherwise. The independent variables which include the following were measured as:

3.4.2 Independent Variables

Age: Age of respondents was measured in (years).The age of the respondents is the number of years he/she has spent in life.

Gender of household head: Gender is the categorization of the respondents according to their sex which is male or female. Gender was measured as a dummy variable (if male =1, 0 otherwise)

Marital status: This was measured as dummy variable where married =1, Otherwise=0

Educational status: Educational status was measured based on the number of years the respondents spent in formal schooling.

Farm income: This was measured as total amount of money realized by the respondent from farming activities in the cropping season under review in Naira (₦).For all cereal crop farmers

Farm size: This is the portion of land that is used for agricultural production. In other word, it is the total area of farm land measures in hectares (ha) operated by the cereal crop farmers in the study area.

Land ownership: This was determined under four major categories: inherited, purchase,, gift and rented and it was measured as dummy variable where land owned is assigned one and otherwise zero (Owned=1, Otherwise=0)

Labour usage: Labour which could be family, hire or communal is an important variable that was measured in (man-days). It is the effort or strength exerted to accomplish work done. Availability of labour is important in agricultural activities because it enhances the level of production.

Farm expenses: Farm expense this was measured in Naira (Naira).The total expenditure incurs forcerealcrop by the respondents under review in Naira

Farming experience: It was measured as the actual number of (years) the respondents have been involve in cereal crop farmings. It is an experience gained with age while carrying out farm operations. Since farming is the major occupation of the respondents, the length of time in farming can be linked with the age of farmers.

Occupation: This was measured in terms of number of other activity farmers are engaged.

Extension contacts: This was measured based on the actual number of time per year that the farmer had contact with extension agents (EAs). It constitutes a driving force for any agricultural development. The relationship between agricultural extension agent and farmers is an important determinant in improving yield.

Access to credit: This was measured based on the amount of credit received in Naira (₦) over a period of one year. Credit is an important factor that is needed to acquire or develop farm enterprise.

Household size: This was determined as the total number of people living in a family as at the time of this study. Ojuekaiye (2001) defined household size as the number of people eating from same pot. A household with a larger size, couple with the prevailing economic hardship in the country will not have any option than to search for alternative sources of income to supplement those from their main occupation (Ijaiya, 2010)

Employment opportunities: This is the various means of livelihood available to the respondents. This was measured as a dummy variable whereby available was assigned one (1) and otherwise zero (0)

Basic social amenities: This was measured as dummy variable where (Available =1; Otherwise =0).

Out migration: Family members working on the farm that migrated out of the community to other locations, measured in number (1-2; 3-4; 5-6; 7-8; 9-10)

Off- farm income: This was measured as total amount of money realized by the respondent from non-farm income generated from other income generating activities in the cropping season under review in naira (₦).

Cooperatives membership: This was measured by number of years in membership of cooperative societies.

3.5 Method of Data Analysis

Both descriptive and inferential statistics was used for this study to analyze data in line with the stated objectives. The descriptive statistics include mean, frequency distribution and percentage as well as the likert scale rating techniques while the inferential statistics was linear regression model.

Specific objectives i, ii, iv and v were achieved using descriptive statistics such as mean, frequency distribution tables, and percentages,

objective iii was achieved using linear regression model , **objectives iv** was subjected to 3-point type Likert scale rating technique more also **objective v**, was further subjected to 5 Point Likert rating type technique.

3.6 Model Specification

3.6.1 Linear Regression Model

This model was used to determine the socio-economic factors influencing rural-urban youth migration as stated in **objective iii**.

The model is specified as:

$$\mathbf{RYM} = Z_0 + Z_1 \mathbf{Agy}_1 + Z_2 \mathbf{Gen}_2 + Z_3 \mathbf{Msn}_3 + Z_4 \mathbf{Ely}_4 + Z_5 \mathbf{Fsh}_5 + \dots + Z_n \mathbf{X}_n + e_i \quad (3.1)$$

Where;

RYM = Rural-youth migration (Number of family members involved in migration in 2018/2019 cropping season),

α = Model intercept

AG = Age (Years),

ES = Educational status (Years),

GHH = Gender of household head (Male=1, Otherwise=0)

EO = Employment opportunities (Available=1; Otherwise=0),

MS = Marital status (Married=1; Otherwise=0)

FI = Farm income in naira (₦) from cereal crop

FE = Farming experience in (Years) in cereal crop

OC = Occupation (Number of Activities) apart from cereal crop farming

HS = Household size in (Number)

OM = Out migration in (Number)

BSA = Basic social amenities (Available =1, Otherwise =0),

FS = Farm size in (Hectares) devoted for cereal crop

LO= Land ownership (Owned =1, Otherwise =0,)

AC= Access to credit in naira (₦)

EC= Extension contact (Number of visits) per season

Z₀= Intercept,

Z₁ – Z₁₅ = Regression coefficients, and

e_i = error term.

3.6.2 Likert Scale Rating Technique

The **3 point Likert scale rating technique** was used to measured the perceived effects of rural-urban youth migration on small scale cereal crop farmers in study area as stated in **objective iv**.The perceived effects of rural-urban youth migration on small scale crop farmers in the study area were listed and responses was rated as High effect,(HE) Moderate effect (ME) and No-effect (NE) on a 3 point Likert rating type scale with corresponding values of 3, 2 and 1 respectively. These were ranked using a weighted mean (x). The mean core of the respondents based on the 3 - point Likert scale was obtained thus:

$$\text{Mean} = \frac{\sum fx}{n} \quad (3.2)$$

$$\frac{\sum fx}{n} = 3+2+1 = 6/3 = (2.00) \text{ average score}$$

Bench cut-off mean score was 2.00 for a given response; the mean score was computed by taking the sum of the products between the number of responses and the grade point and then divided by the total number of responses. Hence, for any effect with mean score below 2 was considered as low effect and any mean score greater than or equal to 2, was considered as high effect.

Also, a **5 point Likert scale rating technique** was used to measured various mitigating strategies adopted for reducing rural-urban youth migration as stated in **objective v**. The strategies for reducing rural-urban youth migration were listed and responses rated as Strongly

Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Strongly Disagree (SD) and Disagree (D) on a 5 point scale with corresponding values of 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively. These were then be ranked using a weighted mean (\bar{x}). The mean score of the respondents based on the 5 - point Likert scale was obtained thus:

$$\text{Mean} = \frac{\sum fx}{n} \quad (3.3)$$

$$\frac{\sum fx}{n} = 5+4+3+2+1 = 15/5 = 3.00$$

Bench cut-off mean score was 3.00 for a given response; the mean score was computed by taking the sum of the products between the number of responses and the grade point and then divided by the total number of responses. Hence, for any strategy with mean score below 3 was not be considered a relevant strategy and any mean score greater than or equal to 3 was considered a relevant strategy for reducing rural-urban youth migration.

3.7 Test of Hypotheses

The H_{01} achieved using the Z-values from linear regression model, while H_{02} was achieved using Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC).

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Socioeconomic characteristic of the cereal farmers in the study area

The socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents under consideration included sex, age, marital status, household size, years of farming experience, level of education, primary occupation

4.1.1 Sex

Table 4.1 revealed that majority (94%) of cereal farmers were males while 6.0% were females. This implies that males were dominance in cereal production in the study area. The Male dominance might be due to involvement of women in domestic and other related farming activities. This could also be due to the fact that in most developing countries policy makers, technology developers and administrators typically assumed in the face of empirical data, that men were the farmers and women played only a “supportive role” as farmers’ wives as reported by Torimiro *et al.*, (2007) in Kwara State, Nigeria.

4.1.2 Age

Table revealed that 41.0% of the respondents had age range of between 41-50 years while 36.0% had age range of between 31-40 years. The mean age of the cereal farmers in the study was 42 years. This implies that respondents in the study were elderly. This might be attributed to influx of young and agile farmers to urban centers in searching for greener pastures. This finding contradicts that of Effiong and Aboh (2018) who reported that majority of farmers in Cross River

State, Nigeria were young farmers. Also, the study agreed with that of Pelemo *et al.*, (2019), who reported that majority of farming populace in Kogi State Nigeria were elderly.

Table 4.1: Distribution of respondents according to socio-economic characteristics (n=200)

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Sex			
Males	188	94.0	
Females	12	6.0	
Age			
21-30	9	4.5	42
31-40	12	36.0	
41-50	82	41.0	
51-60	37	18.5	
Marital status			
Single	6	3.0	
Married	171	85.5	
Widowed	23	11.5	
Household size			
1-5	107	53.5	4
6-10	89	44.5	
10-15	4	2.0	
Educational status			
Primary	57	28.5	
Secondary	28	14.0	
Tertiary	54	27.0	
Non-formal	12	6.0	
Adult	49	24.5	
Primary occupation			
Farming	187	93.5	
Gathering	3	1.5	
Artisan	8	4.0	
Agro processing	2	1.0	
Secondary occupation			
Civil servant	61	30.5	
Business	50	25.0	
Agro-processing	57	28.5	
Artisan	68	34.0	
Gathering	26	13.0	
Farming experience			
11-20	11	5.5	29
21-30	124	62.0	
31-40	65	32.5	

Sources: Field survey, 2019

4.1.3 Marital status

Table 4.1 revealed that majority (85.5%) of the respondents was married while 11.5% and 3.0% were widow and single respectively. These results indicated that larger proportions were married which imply high level of responsibilities. This implies that there is greater involvement of married people in farming activities in order to ensure household food security. This is in agreement with Adegboye *et al.*, (2008) who stated that involvement of the married people in farming activities is because of the need to supplement family means of livelihood and improved income. Also, Effiong and Aboh (2018) reported that the higher the percentage of married couples, the higher the number of family labour force in crop production for food security in Cross River State, Nigeria.

4.1.4 Household size

Table 4.1 revealed that more than half of the respondents (53.5%) had household size of between 1-5 persons while 44.5% of the respondents had household size of between 6 persons. The mean household size of the respondents was 4 persons, implying that cereal farmers in the study had moderate household size. The finding was in agreement with Muhammed- Lawal *et al.* (2009) and Akpomuvia (2010) assertions that a range of 4–6 members constitute the modal household size among the rural farmers in Nigeria.

4.1.5 Educational status

Table 4.1 indicated that 28.5% of the respondents had primary education while 27.0% had tertiary education. Also, 24.5% of the respondents had adult education while 14.0 and 6.0% had secondary and non-formal education respectively. This findings revealed that majority of the cereal farming household in the study area had formal education. This finding agreed with that of

Ango *et al.* (2014), who reported that most of farming populace in Sokoto State, Nigeria had formal education.

4.1.6 Primary occupation

Table 4.1 indicated that majority (93.5%) of the respondents had farming as primary occupation while 4.0%, 1.5% and 1.0% were artisan, gathering and respectively. This indicates that farming is a major source of livelihood for the respondents in the study area. This finding is in consonance with the finding of Mbah *et al.* (2016), who reported that larger percentage of Benue population had farming as primary occupation.

4.1.7 Secondary occupation

Table 4.1 revealed that 34.0% and 30.5% were artisan and civil servants respectively while 28.5% and 25.0% agro-processor and trader. This implies most of the respondents had secondary occupation as means of substituting income from primary occupation. This finding agreed with Mbah *et al.* (2016), who indicated that farming populace in Benue State Nigeria had secondary occupation.

4.1.8 Farming experience

Table 4.1 indicated that 62.0% of the respondent had farming experience of between 21-30 years while 32.5% had farming experience of >30 years. The mean farming experience of the respondents was 29 years. This implies that respondents in the study area had high farming experience. This finding is in line with Effiong and Effiong (2015), who reported that most of the farmers in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria had high experience in farming.

4.1.9 Farming status

Table 4.2 indicated that 59.5% were full time farmers while 40.5% were part time farmers. This implies that most of the respondents were full time farmers. This might be owing to the fact that majority of farmers in study area are fully into farming

4.1.10 Number of household members that are employed

Table 4.2 indicated that majority of the respondents (90.5%) were employed while 9.5% were not employed. This finding revealed that most of the respondents were employed. However, having high numbers of employed people within the household is expected to increase the livelihood of farming families and less number of family labour force.

4.1.11 Household head

Tables 4.2 revealed that majority (95.5%) of the respondents were bread winners for their family while 4.5% were not. This finding revealed that majority of the respondents was bread winner.

4.1.12 Access to improved crop varieties

Table 4.2 revealed that 77.5% of the respondents had accessed to improved crop varieties while 22.5% did not. This finding indicated that most of the respondents have access to improved crop varieties, implying that access to improved varieties is expected to enhance livelihood status of farming families

4.1.13 Access to farm land

Table 4.2 revealed that 100.0% had accessed to farm land. This implies that all the respondents accessed to land for cereal production. Also, 53.5% of the respondents accessed to land through inheritance while 27.5% through gift. This finding agreed with that of Ango *et al.* (2014), who reported that larger percentage of farmers in Sokoto State, Nigeria acquired land through inheritance. Moreover, 12.5% and 12% accessed to farm land through rent/lease and borrowing.

4.1.14 Farm size

Table 4.2 revealed that 68.5% of the respondents had farm size of between 3.1-5.0 hectares while 29.0% had farm size of 1.1-3.0 hectares. The mean farm size of the respondents was 3.9 hectares. This implies that cereal farmers cultivate on small scale. This finding agreed with Nwaru and Iheke (2016), who reported that majority of farmers in Nigeria produce on small scale.

4.1.15 Type of Crops grown

Table 4.2 revealed that 62.5% of the respondents grow maize while 50.5% grow rice. This implies that maize and rice were the most grown cereal by the respondents in the study area. Also, 17.0% and 7.0% grow sorghum and millet respectively.

4.1.16 Access to credit

Table 4.2 indicated that 69.0% of the respondents has access to credit while 31.0% did not have access to credit. This shows that most of respondents in the study area had accessed to credit. However, access to credit is expected to make farm incentives available for farmers as at when due. This could also assist farmers that have lost their young and able bodies as a result of migration to access paid labour. This finding agreed with Adepoju and Olarinde (2018), who

reported that access to credit assist in order to maximize output. Also, 46.5% of the respondents sourced credit through cooperatives while 12.5%, 6.0% and 4.0% sourced credit from bank, family/friend and personal saving respectively.

Table 4.2: Distribution of respondents according to farming status, access to farm land, mode of land acquisition, farm size, crop grown, access to credit and sources of credit (n=200)

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Farming status			
Full time	119	59.5	
Part time	81	40.5	
People that are employed	181	90.5	
Family bread winner	191	95.5	
Access to improved crop varieties	155	77.5	
Access to farm land	200	100.0	
Mode of land acquisition			
Inheritance	107	53.5	
Borrowing	24	12.0	
Rent/lease	25	12.5	
Purchase	13	6.5	
Gift	55	27.5	
Farm size			
1.1-3.0	58	29.0	3.9
3.1-5.0	137	68.5	
5.1-7.0	5	2.5	
Type of cereal cropgrown			
Maize	125	62.5	
Sorghum	34	17.0	
Rice	101	50.5	
Millet	14	7.0	
Access to credit	138	69.0	
Not access to credit	62	31.0	
Sources of credit (n=138)			
Personal saving	8	5.8	
Bank loan	25	18.1	
Farmers Cooperative	93	67.4	
Family/friends	12	8.7	

Sources: Field survey, 2019

Multiple responses

4.1.17 Annual income

Table 4.3 revealed that 83.5% of the respondents had annual income of between ₦500, 001-₦1, 000,000 while 16.5% of the respondents had annual income of between <₦500, 001. The mean annual farm income of the respondents was ₦667, 665, implying that respondents in the study area had high income. This finding contradicts that of Adepoju and Olarinde (2018) who reported reduction of income among farmers as a result of youth migration.

4.1.18 Access to market

Table 4.3 indicated that 28.0% of the respondents had access to market while 72.0% did not have access to market. This implies that majority of the respondents did not have accessed to market. However, insufficient of access to market is expected to constraints cereal producers from selling their produce.

4.1.19 Access to extension

Table 4.3 indicated that 96.0% had access to extension while 4.0% did not have access to extension. This implies that majority of the respondents had access to extension services. This implies that extension agents have adequate coverage in the study area; hence, information disseminated through them would be readily available to the farmers. This finding contradicts that of Mbat *et al.* (2016), who reported that majority of farm families in Benue State, Nigeria did not have access to extension services. Also, 87.0% accessed to extension services and advisory annually while 9.0% accessed to extension monthly.

4.1.20 Membership of cooperative

Table 4.3 showed that 80.5% of the respondents were members of cooperative while 19.5% were not. This implies that majority of the respondents were members of cooperative. This finding agreed with Mbat *et al.* (2016), who stated that larger percentage of farm families in Benue State, Nigeria were member of cooperative societies. Also, membership of cooperative could serves as an avenue for sourcing information as well as accessing credits from the government to improve production.

4.1.21 Sources of labour usage

Table 4.3 revealed that 54.0% of the respondents used family labour while 28.5% used communal labour. This implies that rural youth migration had significant effect on labour usage in the study area. This finding agreed with that of Adepoju and Olarinde (2018), who reported that decreased in labour usage among cassava farmers in South West, Nigeria as a result of youths migration. Also, 17.5% of the respondents used hired labour for farming activities.

4.1.22 Strategies to militate shortage of labour

Table 4.3 revealed that engagement in communal labour ranked 1st as strategies militating against shortage of labour while assistance from relative was ranked 2nd. Also, Intensification of farming activities was ranked 3rd while no strategies and increase in wage rate and were ranked 4th and 5th respectively.

Table 4.3: Distribution of respondents according to annual income, access to market, access to extension, frequency of extension contact, membership of cooperative, sources of labour usage (n=200)

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Annual income			
<500,001	33	16.5	667,665
500,001-1,000,000	167	83.5	
Access to market			
Accessible	56	28.0	
Not accessible	144	72.0	
Access to extension services			
Accessible	192	96.0	
Not accessible	8	4.0	
Frequency of extension contact(n=192)			
Monthly	18	9.4	
Annually	174	90.6	
Membership of cooperative			
Members	161	80.5	
Non member	39	19.5	
Sources of labour usage			
Family	108	54.0	
Hired	35	17.5	
Communal	57	28.5	

Sources: Field survey, 2019

Multiple responses recorded

Table 4.4: Strategies to mitigate against shortage of labour

Variable	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Engagement in communal labour	123	61.5	1 st
Assistance from relative	97	48.5	2 nd
Intensification of farming activities	47	23.5	3 rd
No strategies	46	23.0	4 th
Increase in wage rate	39	19.5	5 th

Sources: Field survey, 2019 multiple responses

4.2 Push Factors as Causes of Rural Youth Migration

Table 4.5 indicated that poverty was ranked 1st under the push factor as a causes rural youth migration. This was followed by natural disaster ranked 2nd. This finding revealed that abject poverty and natural disaster such as flood could influence the influx of youth to cities in seeking for greener pastures and opportunities. This finding is in accordance with Ayinde *et al.* (2014), who reported that poverty was the major factors responsible for youth migration in Nigeria. Also, inadequate employment opportunities and poor medical care services were ranked 3rd and 4th respectively. This mostly arises when able body youth devoid opportunities of gainfully employed and could not access improved medical care services. This agreed with Ayinde *et al.* (2014), who stated that inadequate employment and poor medical services were responsible for youth migration to cities in Osun State, Nigeria. Moreover, famine and drought were ranked 5th while absence of social amenities were ranked 6th. This agreed with Zainab and Mustapha (2014), who reported that famine drought forced able bodied youth to migrate to cities in seeking for greener pastures in Borno State, Nigeria. Other push factors causes of youth migration were displacement ranked 7th, poor agricultural productivities ranked 8th, bad climate ranked 9th, lack of interest in farming ranked 10th, poor chance of marrying ranked 11th and escap from punishment ranked 12th.

Table 4.5: Distribution of respondent according to causes of rural youth migration (push factors) (n=200)

Push factors	**Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Poverty	182	91.0	1 st
Natural disaster	179	89.5	2 nd
Inadequate employment opportunities	173	86.5	3 rd
Poor medical care services	172	86.0	4 th
Famine and drought	170	85.0	5 th
Absence of social amenities	167	83.5	6 th
Displacement	165	82.5	7 th
Poor agricultural productivities	163	81.5	8 th
Bad climate	158	79.0	9 th
Lack of interest in farming	110	55.0	10 th
Poor chance of marrying	69	34.5	11 th
Escape from punishment	55	27.5	12 th

Sources: Field survey, 2019

**Multiple responses

4.2.1 Pull Factors as Causes of Rural Youth Migration

Table 4.6 indicated the pull factors causes of rural youth migration. Table 4.6 revealed that alternative sources of income during off-season was ranked 1st. This implies majority of cereal farmers migrated to cities in seeking for additional income during off farming season this was followed by better employment opportunities and labour wages ranked 2nd, implying that they seek for better opportunities and enhancement in labour wages. This agreed with Basil *et al.* (2017), who reported that alternative sources of income and better employment opportunities were responsible for youth migration in Ondo State, Nigeria. Also, higher incomes ranked 4th, implying that higher income in the cities places can make farmers to migrate in seeking for additional income. This finding agreed with that of Basil *et al.* (2017). Moreover, re-union with family member in the city ranked 5th while search for higher education ranked 6th, implying that rural youths migrated to cities in pursuing higher education and re-union with family members. This finding is in line with that of Zainab and Mustapha (2014), who stated that education pursuits is one of the major causes of youth migration in Nigeria. Other causes include

apprenticeship programmes ranked 7th, better technology ranked 8th, urban facilities and ways of life ranked 9th, desire for political and religious power ranked 10th, change of environment ranked 11th, better transport system ranked 12th, social status of one's parents ranked 13th and better housing in the city ranked 14th. Agbonlahor, and Enilolobo (2013), maintain that with more youths migrating into the urban centres (cities) to earn a living, more aged people are now left to accomplish the tasks which are reserved for the youths. Therefore, there is no doubt that the added responsibilities on the aged people and the few farmers left in the rural areas will reduce the level of their agricultural productivity in the rural areas. Also, Aromolaran (2013) reported that the important factors responsible for youth rural-urban migration includes better transport system, change of environment, social status of parent, seeking for means of livelihood, boredom in agriculture inadequate social amenities and expulsion due to offence and crime committed.

Table 4.6: Distribution of respondent according to causes of rural youth migration (pull factors) (n=200)

Pull factors	**Frequency	Percentage	Ranked
Alternative sources of income during off-season	200	100.0	1 st
Better employment opportunities	198	99.0	2 nd
Labour wages	198	99.0	2 nd
Higher incomes	197	98.5	4 th
Re-union with family member in the city	195	97.5	5 th
Search for higher education	187	93.5	6 th
Apprenticeship programmes	184	92.0	7 th
Better technology	147	73.5	8 th
Urban facilities and ways of life	120	60.0	9 th
Desire for more political or religious power	117	58.5	10 th
Change of environment	64	32.0	11 th
Better transport system	56	28.0	12 th
Social status of ones parents	32	16.0	13 th
Better housing in the city	28	14.0	14 th

Sources: Field survey, 2019

****Multiple responses**

4.2.2 Household youth migration

Table 4.7 revealed that 100.0% of the households have youth that migrated in the study area, meaning that all the households have youths that migrated from village to cities. This implying the shortage of manpower in the study area.

4.2.3 Household youth decision for migration

Table 4.7 revealed that 60% of the respondents migrated based on family/parents decision while 14.5% migrated based on friends/relatives decision. This finding revealed that majority of the respondents migrated based on family and friend decisions. Also, 14.0% and 11.5% based on employment and personal decisions.

Table 4.7: Distribution of respondents according to household youth migration

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Youth migration	200	100.0
household youth major decision for migration		
Personal	23	11.5
Friends/relatives	29	14.5
Family/parents	120	60.0
Employment	28	14.0

Sources: Field survey, 2019

4.2.4 Employment situation for rural youth migration

Table 4.8 showed that only 6% of the youths were employed while 94% were not employed. This result showed that majority of the youths was not employed. However, this might boost their decision to migrate to cities in seeking for better opportunities.

4.2.5 Access to social amenities

Table 4.8 revealed that 37.5% had accessed to social amenities while 62.5% did not have access to social amenities. It can be seen that most of the respondents did not have access to social

amenities. However, this might influence youths decision to migrate to the cities. Also, 14.0% had access to road while 10.0%, 8.0% and 5.5% access to electricity, school and water respectively

Table 4.8: Distribution of respondents according to employment situation for rural youth migration and access to social amenities

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Employment situation for youth migration		
Employed	12	6.0
Unemployed	188	94.0
Access to social amenities		
Accessible	75	37.5
Not accessible	125	62.5
Access to social amenities (n=75)		
School	16	21.3
Road	28	37.3
Water	11	14.7
Electricity	20	26.7

Sources: Field survey, 2019

4.3 Socio-economic factors influencing rural youth migration to urban center

The result of the regression model showing the socio-economic factors influencing rural youth migration to urban centre in the study area is presented in Table 4.9. The result of the linear regression analysis showed R^2 value of 0.62 which implies that 62% variation in the rural youth migration to urban centre in the study area was explained by the independent variables included in the model. The result showed that the coefficient of household size (0.1787633) was positive and significant at 1% level of probability, meaning that increase in household size led to increase in rural urban youth migration. This agreed with Adepoju and Olarinde (2018), who reported that increase in household size will lead to increase in youths migration. Also, the coefficient of farm size (0.358364) was positive and significant at 1% level, implying that increase in farm size used for cereal production could limit youth access to adequate farm land thereby increasing their mass influx to the cities for better opportunities.

So, the coefficient of income (-0.6436331) was negatively and significant at 1% , implying that income is inversely related to the rural youth migration to the cities in the study area.

Adepoju and Olarinde (2018) reported that reduction in income will probably increases youths migration in the study area. More so, the coefficient of employment opportunity (0.672483) was positively significant at 1% , implying that as employment opportunities within the study area increases, the rate at which youth migrate increases. Also, the coefficient of social amenities (0.4318276) was positively significant at 1% , implying access to social amenities will increases youth migration to the cities. Also, the coefficient of push factor (0.2919035) was positively significant at 1%, implying push factors are likely to increase youth migration to cities. The coefficient of pull factors was positive and significant at %, implying pull factors are likely to increase youth migration to cities. Also, the coefficient of access to credit (-0.4319743) was negatively significant at 1% of probability, implying that reduction in credit availability will increase youth influx to cities Moreover, the coefficient of extension (-0.6022112) was negative and significant at 10% level of probability, implying that reduction in extension services and advisory service will increase youth migration to the cities. In addition, the coefficient of cooperative (0.4087446) was positive and significant at 10%, implying that as access to cooperative increases, youth migration also increases.

Table 4.9: Distribution of respondents according to Socio-economic factors influencing rural youth migration to urban center (n=200)

Variable	Coefficient	t-value
Age	-.0138899	-0.98
Sex	.2993823	1.09
Marital status	-.2265195	-1.13
Household size	.1787633	3.65***
Education	-.0052164	-0.40
Experience	.0207521	1.05
Farm size	.358364	4.35***
Income	-.6436331	-3.22***
Occupation	.0146048	0.13
Employment opportunity	.672483	3.60***
Access to social amenities	.4318276	3.35***
Push factors	.2919035	6.79***
Pull factors	.1318716	3.51***
Access to credit	-.4319743	-2.88***
Extension	-.6022112	-1.75*
Cooperative	.4087446	1.87*
Constant	4.415672	1.70*
F-value	18.70***	
R-squared	0.6205	
Adj R-squared	0.5874	

*** = significant at 1%

* = significant at 10%

**= significant at 5%

Sources: Field survey, 2019

4.4 Perceived Effect of Rural Youth Migration on Cereal Production

Table 4.10 Show the perceived effect of rural youth migration on cereal crop farmers as follows; fall in standard of living ranked 1st with mean value (\bar{X} =2.92) was the most perceived effect of rural youth migration on cereal production, this most arises when able body and agile youths migrated to the cities for better opportunities thereby causing labour shortage in the rural area. This agreed with Nnadi *et al.* (2015), who reported that majority of Nigerian youths migrate for improved standard of living. This was followed by low agricultural productivities ranked 2nd with a mean value of (\bar{X} =2.81). Also, household food insecurity ranked 3rd with mean value of (\bar{X} =2.78). This is in line with Eze (2014), who reported that low agricultural productivities and

food insecurity were one of the major effects of youths migration to cities in Nigeria. Moreover, poverty among farm families and reduction in hired labour were ranked 4th and 5th respectively with mean value of (\bar{X} =2.69) and (\bar{X} =2.68). More so, poor yield of crops as a result of farm input was ranked 6th with mean value of \bar{X} =2.67), this was followed by farm work is mostly done by aged parents ranked 7th with mean value of (\bar{X} =2.67). Other perceived effect of rural youth migration on cereal production include; high cost of labour ranked 8th with mean of (\bar{X} =2.60), reduction in farm size ranked 9th with mean of (\bar{X} =2.57) and reduction in household annual income ranked 9th with mean of (\bar{X} =2.57). Peter (2013) reports that reduction in farm size, hired and family labour and low improvement in social and community activities were the identified effects of youth migration in Nigeria. Also, reduction in family labour ranked 11th with mean value of (\bar{X} =2.52), poor yield of crops as a result of farm input ranked 12th with mean value of (\bar{X} =2.38).

In addition, cereal farmers in the study area had low effect on these perception statements; reduces formation of groups ranked 13th with mean value of (\bar{X} =1.88), reduces formation of groups and cooperative societies among youths ranked 14th with mean value of (\bar{X} =1.86), Low community development activities ranked 15th (\bar{X} =1.61), decrease in the dependency ratio ranked 16th with mean value of (\bar{X} =1.65)

Table 4.10: Distribution of respondents according to perceived effect of rural youth migration on cereal production (n=200)

Variable	High effect	Moderate effect	Low effect	Sum	Mean	Rank	Decision
Fall in standard of living	188 (94.0)	9 (4.5)	3 (1.5)	585	2.92	1 st	HE
Low agricultural productivities	171 (85.5)	20 (10.0)	9 (4.5)	562	2.81	2 nd	HE
Household food insecurity	169 (84.5)	18 (9.0)	13 (6.5)	556	2.78	3 rd	HE
Leads to poverty among farm families	148 (74.0)	42 (21.0)	10 (5.0)	538	2.69	4 th	HE
Reduction in hired labour	138 (69.0)	60 (30.0)	2 (1.0)	535	2.68	5 th	HE
Poor yield of crops as a result of farm input	138 (69.0)	58 (29.0)	4 (2.0)	534	2.67	6 th	HE
Farm work is mostly done by aged parents	142 (71.0)	39 (19.5)	19 (9.5)	523	2.62	7 th	HE
High cost of labour	135 (67.5)	49 (24.5)	16 (8.0)	519	2.60	8 th	HE
Reduction in farm size	143 (71.5)	28 (14.0)	29 (14.9)	514	2.57	9 th	HE
Reduction in household annual income	139 (69.5)	35 (17.5)	26 (13.0)	513	2.57	9 th	HE
Reduction in family labour	135 (67.5)	34 (17.0)	31 (15.5)	504	2.52	11 th	HE
Leads to diversification in to non-farm occupation	81 (40.5)	113 (56.5)	6 (3.0)	475	2.38	12 th	HE
Reduces demand on locally grown foods	32 (16.0)	112 (56.0)	56 (28.0)	376	1.88	13 th	LE
Reduces formation of groups and cooperative societies among youths	3 (1.5)	167 (83.5)	30 (15.0)	373	1.86	14 th	LE
Low community development activities	35 (17.5)	59 (29.5)	106 (53.0)	329	1.65	15 th	LE
Decrease in the dependency ratio	9 (4.5)	104 (52.0)	87 (43.5)	322	1.61	16 th	LE

Sources: Field survey, 2019

Note: HE=High effect, LE=Low effect

4.5 Strategies to Mitigate Rural Youth Migration

Table 4.11 indicated that establishment of bank of agriculture in rural areas for easy access to loans ranked 1st as the most strategies to mitigate rural youth migration with a mean value of (\bar{X} =3.86), this was followed by establishment of cottage agro-allied industries with a mean value of (\bar{X} =3.78). This finding agreed with Mbah *et al.* (2016) who reported that establishment of BOA and agro-allied industries were the major strategies to mitigate rural youth migration. Also, establishment of vocational training centers with a mean value of (\bar{X} =3.70), use of improved modern technologies (\bar{X} =3.65), empowering and integrating rural youths into agricultural based activities (\bar{X} =3.63), use of improved method of farming in order to attract youths (\bar{X} =3.53). Mbah *et al.* (2016) further reported that use of modern technologies coupled with improved varieties will reduce the influx of youth migrating to cities in Nigeria. Moreover, provision of incentives such as micro-credit (\bar{X} =3.52), establishment of agro-processing centers (\bar{X} =3.47), provision of basic amenities (\bar{X} =3.46), subsidizing price of farm inputs (\bar{X} =3.41), regular and timely provision of farm inputs (\bar{X} =3.15), provision of improved varieties of crops and breed of livestock (\bar{X} =2.80), encouraging formation of groups and societies (\bar{X} =2.47) and establishment of advocacy programme (\bar{X} =2.18). Nnadi *et al.* (2015) reported that provision of incentives such as micro-credit, establishment of agro-processing centers, provision of basic amenities, subsidizing price of farm inputs and provision of improved varieties of crops and breed of livestock were the strategies used to militate against youths migration in Nigeria.

Table 4.11: Distribution of respondents according to mitigating strategies adopted for reducing rural youth migration (n=200)

Variable	Strongly agreed	Agreed	Undecided	Disagreed	Strongly disagreed	Sum	Mean	Ranking	Decision
Establishment of bank of agriculture in rural areas for easy access to loans	45 (22.5)	112 (56.0)	23 (11.5)	10 (5.0)	10 (5.0)	772	3.86	1 st	Relevant
Establishment of agro-allied industries	68 (34.0)	72 (36.0)	23 (11.5)	22 (11.0)	15 (7.5)	756	3.78	2 nd	Relevant
Establishment of vocational training centers	72 (36.0)	59 (29.5)	22 (11.0)	30 (15.0)	17 (8.5)	739	3.70	3 rd	Relevant
Use of improved modern technologies	74 (37.0)	39 (19.5)	44 (22.0)	30 (15.0)	13 (6.5)	731	3.65	4 th	Relevant
Empowering and integrating rural youths into agricultural based activities	58 (29.0)	72 (36.0)	28 (14.0)	21 (10.5)	21 (10.5)	725	3.63	5 th	Relevant
Use of improved method of farming in order to attract youths	62 (31.0)	56 (28.0)	30 (15.0)	30 (15.0)	22 (11.0)	706	3.53	6 th	Relevant
Provision of incentives such as micro-credit	48 (24.0)	65 (32.5)	49 (24.5)	19 (9.5)	19 (9.5)	704	3.52	7 th	Relevant
Establishment of agro-processing centers	60 (30.0)	51 (25.5)	36 (18.0)	29 (14.5)	24 (12.0)	694	3.47	8 th	Relevant
Provision of basic amenities	79 (39.5)	20 (10.0)	35 (17.5)	46 (23.0)	20 (10.0)	672	3.46	9 th	Relevant
Subsidizing price of farm inputs	45 (22.5)	59 (29.5)	47 (23.5)	30 (15.0)	19 (9.5)	681	3.41	10 th	Relevant
Regular and timely provision of farm inputs	36 (18.0)	46 (23.0)	50 (25.0)	48 (24.0)	20 (10.0)	630	3.15	11 th	Relevant
Provision of improved varieties of crops and breed of livestock	30 (15.0)	39 (19.5)	26 (13.0)	71 (35.5)	34 (17.0)	560	2.80	12 th	Not relevant
Encouraging formation of groups and societies	9 (4.5)	20 (10.0)	79 (39.5)	41 (20.5)	51 (25.5)	495	2.47	13 th	Not relevant
Establishment of advocacy programme	8 (4.0)	15 (7.5)	64 (32.0)	31 (15.5)	82 (41.0)	436	2.18	14 th	Not relevant

Sources: Field survey, 2019

Hypothesis 1

The result hypothesis 1 from Z-value of linear regression showed that there was a significant relationship between household size, farm size income, and access to credit, extension contacts, cooperative membership and youth migration. However, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant relationship between some selected socio-economic characteristics and youth migration is rejected, and alternative accepted.

Hypothesis 2

The result of the hypothesis 2 showed that there was no significant relationship between rural youth migration and cereal crop productivity of farming households. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted

Table 4.12: Relationship between some selected Socio-economic characteristics of the farmers and rural youth migration (n=200)

Socioeconomic factors	Coefficient	t-value	Decision
Household size	.1787633	3.65***	Rejected
Farm size	.358364	4.35***	Rejected
Income	-.6436331	-3.22***	Rejected
Access to credit	-.4319743	-2.88***	Rejected
Extension	-.6022112	-1.75*	Accepted
Cooperative	.4087446	1.87*	Accepted

*** = significant at 1%

**=significant at 5%

* = significant at 10%

Sources: Field survey,2019

Table 4.13: Relationship between rural youth migration and crop productivity (n=200)

Variable	Coefficient	P-value	Decision
migration on crop productivity	-0.1085	1.0000	Accepted

Sources: Field survey, 2019

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that cereal farmers in the study area were males and elderly. Also, majority of them had formal education. More so, majority of the respondents had farming as primary occupation and high experience in cereals farming. Further findings revealed that most of the respondents in the study area were full time farmers, while maize and rice were the most widely grown cereals in the study area. Moreover, more than half of the respondents accessed credit and they also had high annual income. Further findings revealed that majority of the respondents had no access to market. Also, majority of the respondents had accessed to extension services and were members of cooperative respectively. Further findings revealed that engagement in communal labour was the most strategies against shortage of labour.

Furthermore, poverty and natural disaster were the major push factors causes of rural youth migration while alternative sources of income during off-season and better employment opportunities and labour wages were the major pull factors causes of rural youth migration. Also, majority of the youth in the study area were far not employed. Further findings revealed that majority of the respondents did not have access to social amenities. Also, household size, farm size, annual income, employment opportunities, access to social amenities, push factors, pull factors, access to credit, extension contact and cooperative membership had significant effect on rural youth migration. The most perceived effect of rural youth migration on cereal production was fall in standard of living and low agricultural productivities. It showed that establishment of bank of agriculture in rural areas for easy access to loans and establishment of agro-allied

industries were the major strategies to mitigate rural youth migration in the study area. The result revealed that there is a significant relationship between household size, farm size income, access to credit, extension contacts, cooperative membership and youth migration. Also, there was no significant relationship between rural youth migration and cereal crop productivity of farming households.

5.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations were made based on the empirical findings of the study

- i.** Majority of the respondents in the study were elderly. However, youths should be encouraged through provision of incentives and productive assets that will discourage them from migrating to the cities.
- ii.** Majority of the respondents did not have access to market. However, provisions of market should be made available by government at Local Government Area in order to motivate youths into farming
- iii.** Poverty is one of the major causes of youth migration. Government at all level should empower youths through skills acquisition and entrepreneurship that enable youths to stay in the rural area.
- iv.** Natural disaster is one of the major causes of youth migration in the study area. As such efforts should be put in place by government and non-governmental organization through the assistance of national disaster control in order to check the incidence of flood and bush burning that push youth out of the rural areas.
- v.** Alternative sources of income during off-season and labour wages were major pull factors responsible for youth migration. Therefore, youth should try and diversify their enterprises in order to cope with lack of income during off season. Also, amount

paid to the labourers in the rural area should be review by farmers association in order to discourage youth migration in rural communities.

- vi.** Majority of the respondents in the study area did not have access to social amenities. Social amenities such as (Schools, hospital, road electricity, pipe borne water, financial institutions) should be made available to villagers by government and private individuals in order to make rural areas habitable
- vii.** Majority of the youths in the study area were`unemployed thereby making them vulnerable to rural urban migration. However, job opportunities should be made available for rural youth in order to reduce their migration to cities.

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**DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT,
SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE AND AGRICULTURAL TECHNOLOGY,
FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, MINNA,
NIGER STATE, NIGERIA**

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

I am a post graduate Student in the above Department and Institutional affiliation undertaking a Research study on **“Effect of rural youths migration on small-scale cereal crop farming household in Kwara State, Nigeria”** Kindly assist in completing this questionnaire. The information being required in this Questionnaire is purely for academic research purpose only and as such, shall be treated confidentially. You are requested to tick or comment freely on each of the question.

Thanks you for your anticipated assistance and co-operation.

Yours Faithfully,

MOHAMMED, Alhaji Abubakar

M.tech/SAAT/2017/7236

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SECTION (A): SOCIO- ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1. Name of Village _____ LGA _____
2. Name of Respondent (Optional) _____
3. Sex: (a) Male [] (b) Female []
4. Age: _____ Years
5. Marital Status: (a) Single [] (b) Married [] (c) Widowed [] (d) Divorced [] (e) Separated []
6. What is your household size? (a) 1-5[] (b) 6-10[] (c) 11 and above []

7. What is your level of formal education? (a) Primary [] (b) Secondary [] (c) Tertiary [] (d) Non-formal education [] (e) Adult education []
8. How many Years did you spend in school? (a) 1 – 3 years [] (b) 4 – 6 years [] (c) 7 – 9 years [] (d) 10 years and above []
9. What is your primary occupation? (a) Farming [] (b) Gathering [] (c) Artisan Activities [] (d) Hunting [] (e) Agro-processing []
10. What is your Secondary Occupation? (a) Civil Servant [] (b) Business c. Agro- processor (c) Artisan [] (d) Gathering []
11. Years of farming experience _____ years
12. What is your level of involvement in farming? (a) Full Time [] b. Part Time []
13. Do you have people that are employed in other job in your household? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
14. If yes, how many?
15. How many people are gainfully employed outside farming in your household?
16. Are you the head/ breadwinner of your family? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
17. Do you have access to improved crop varieties? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
18. Do you have access to farm land for your crop production? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
19. If yes, what is the means of acquisition?
 - (a) Inheritance [] (b) Borrowing [] (c) Rent/Lease [] (d) Inheritance (e) Gift [] (e) Other Specify []
20. How many farm location do you have?.....
21. What is the size of your crop farming in? _____Hectare
22. Which of the following cereal crops did you cultivate? (a) Maize [] (b) Sorghum [] (c) Rice [] (d) Millet []
23. Do you have access to credit facilities? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
24. If yes, from which source are you able to access Credit? (a) Personal Savings [] (b) Bank Loan [] (c) Co-operative Society [] (d) Friends /Relatives [] (e) others specify
25. Indicate the amount of credit in Naira you got per annum. ₦ _____

26. What is your annual income from crop farming? ₦ _____
27. Do you have access to agricultural market? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
28. i Do you have access to extension agent? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
 ii If yes, what is the frequency of extension agent visitation? (a) Weekly [] (b) Forth night [] (c) Monthly [] (d) Yearly []
29. Are you a member of corporative association? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
30. What type of labour do you used for farm operation? (a) Family labour [] (b) Hired labour [] (c) Communal labour [] (d) Others specify.....
31. Kindly indicate your strategies for mitigating labour shortage:
- (a) Assistance from relative []
 (b) Intensification of farming activities []
 (c) Engagement in communal labour []
 (d) Increase in wage rate []
 (e) No strategies []
 (f) Others (specify)

SECTION – (B): PERCEIVED CAUSES OF RURAL-URBAN YOUTH MIGRATION

32. Kindly indicate your perception about the causes of rural youth migration in your Community by ticking the appropriate box

S/NO.	Push Factors	Yes	No
	B-1		
1	Poverty		
2	Inadequate employment opportunities in rural areas		
3	Absence of social amenities		
4	Famine and drought resulting in hunger		
5	Natural disasters such as flood and fire outbreak		
a6	Poor medical care services in rural areas		
7	Displacement as a result of communal crises		
8	Escape from punishment as a result of crime committed		
9	Lack of interest in farming		
10	Poor chances of marrying		
11	Poor Agricultural productivities		
12	Bad climate		

B-2

	Pull Factors	Yes	No
13	Search for higher education		

14	Higher incomes		
15	Better employment opportunities		
16	Urban facilities and ways of life		
17	Better technology		
18	Apprenticeship programmes		
19	Better housing in the city		
20	Change of environment		
21	Social status of one's parents		
22	Better transport facilities in the urban areas		
23	Desire for more political or religious power		
24	Join family members in the city		
25	Obtaining money through labour		
26	Alternative sources of income during off-season		

33. Do you experience youth migration in your area? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
(i) If yes kindly indicate the number of youth that migrated from your household.....
34. Decision to migrate? (a) By self [] (b) Relative or friends [] (c) Family and parent []
(d)Employers [] (e) others (specify).....
35. What is the situation of employment in your area? (a) Available [] (b) Not available []
(c) Others (specify)
36. Do you have access to social amenities? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
(i) If yes, state the social amenities you have access to?

SECTION –(C): EFFECTS OF RURAL YOUTH MIGRATION ON SMALL-SCALE CEREALS CROP FARMING HOUSEHOLD

37. Kindly indicate your extent of agreement/disagreements to the following statements by putting tick mark (√) in the appropriate column.

S/N	Statements	Responses		
		High Effect	Moderate Effect	No Effect
1	Reduction in farm size			
2	Reduction in household annual incomes			
3	Reduction in family labour			
4	Reduction in hired labour			
5	High cost of labour			
6	Low community development activities			
7	Fall in standard of living			
8	Low agricultural productivities			
9	Decrease the dependency ratio in rural areas			
10	Reduces demand on locally grown foods			
11	Farm work is mostly done by aged parents			

12	Food insecurity in household			
13	Leads to poverty among farm families			
14	Reduces formation of groups and cooperative societies among youths			
15	Leads to diversification in to non-farm occupation			
16	Poor yield of crops as a result of farm input			

SECTION (D) STRATEGIES FOR REDUCING RURAL-URBAN YOUTH MIGRATION

38. The following statements will be used to measure the perception level of small-scale farming household on the effectiveness of the strategies adopted. Please kindly indicate your answer in all the statement by putting tick mark (√) in the appropriate column.

S/N	PERCEPTION STATEMENTS	RESPONSE				
		SA	A	UD	DA	SDA
1	Provision of basic amenities such as schools, pipe borne water, electricity, and good motorable road					
2	Establishment of vocational training centers for skill acquisition					
3	Provision of incentives such as microcredit for youths in agriculture					
4	Empowering and integrating rural youths into agricultural-based activities					
5	Establishment of advocacy programme such as youth employment in agriculture					
6	Encouraging formation of groups and societies such as young farmers clubs and cooperative societies for easy access to loans					
7	Provision of improved varieties of crops and breeds of livestock					
8	Use of improved modern technologies such as farm implements					
9	Establishment of agro-processing centres for value of farm produce					
10	Regular and timely provision of farm inputs such as fertilizers and agro-chemical					
11	Subsidizing prices of farm inputs such as fertilizers, herbicide and pesticide etc.					
12	Use of improved method of farming in order to attract youths					
13	Establishment of agro-allied industries in the rural areas					
14	Establishing of Bank of Agriculture in rural areas for easy access to loans					

i.SA— Strongly Agree=5, ii. A— Agree=4, iii. UD— Undecided=3, iv. DA—Disagree=2, v.SDA— strongly disagree=1.

