THE IMPLICATIONS OF YOUTH RURAL – URBAN MIGRATION ON AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIVITY AMONG PEASANT FAMILIES IN BENUE STATE, NIGERIA (1999 -2020)

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ZARIA, NIGERIA

JUNE, 2021

TITLE PAGE

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PhD/SOC-SCI/P17SSSG9277

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PhD) DEGREE IN SOCIOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY,
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AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY,
ZARIA, NIGERIA

JUNE, 2021

CERTIFICATION

This Thesis entitled THE IMPLICATIONS OF YOUTH RURAL – URBAN MIGRATION ON THE AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIVITY AMONG PEASANT FAMILIES IN BENUE STATE, NIGERIA (1999 - 2020) by Joseph Iorhen, KWAGHMANDE meets the regulations governing the award of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) Degree in Sociology of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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DECLARATION

I, Joseph Iorhen, KWAGHMANDE of the Department of Sociology, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, hereby declare that the research thesis as presented here has been written by me. That, it is a record of my own research work and has not been presented in any form for another degree or diploma in any other institution. All quotations and sources of information have to the best of my knowledge been duly and specifically acknowledged in the reference section.

Joseph Iorhen, KWAGHMANDE ---------- ----------
Signature Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I first and foremost acknowledge and thank Almighty God for the wisdom and sound health He has endowed me throughout the period of this work. My special gratitude goes to my supervisors, Dr. J.M. Hellandendu, Dr. K. Adegboyega and Dr. T. Halliru for their time, constructive criticisms and painstaking reading of the manuscript that have now materialized into a thesis. Your intellectual guidance helped me in no small measure as it provided the energy needed to complete this work.

I am indebted to Prof. Nancy Ngunan Agbe, my former Vice Chancellor at the University of Mkar, Mkar Benue State for her encouragement and support always believing that I would accomplish this task even when at times I get discouraged. Mummy, I am grateful. My gratitude goes to the management of my University; Umaru Musa Yar`adua University Katsina for sponsoring this programme through a study fellowship. I thank you so much because without your support, it would have been very difficult.

I also wish to appreciate the academic staff of the Department of Sociology Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria for their constructive criticisms which has in no small measure added value to this work. I appreciate in a special way Prof. Gyong J.E, Prof. Okeshola B.F, Prof. Maliki, Prof. Tanimu, Prof. A.J. Oluwabamidele, Dr. E.C. Akpa, Dr. Mudiare, Dr. Lawal, Dr. Gadzama and Mrs Hadiza. My hand of appreciation further goes to my classmates; Aver, Theophilus and Apenda Isaac Tersoo for their unwavering support throughout the duration of this programme. I also appreciate the contributions of Mpem Terungwa, and Viashima Veronica.

Finally, I appreciate the entire members of the Danor Aku family especially Mr Msartyo Benjamin Kwaghmande, Sgt. Kwaghmande Emmanuel Terhide, Mr. Aondohemba Igbana and Bro Benedict Yashi (KSJI) for their encouragement, financial, spiritual and moral support given me throughout the period of the programme.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my beloved parents, late Mr. Kwaghmande Danor and late Mrs. Kwaghmande Christiana for the sound foundation they laid for me during my days in school. The work is also dedicated to my beloved wife and children, Mrs. Doris Seember Kwaghmande, Terhemen Moses Kwaghmande, Terzungwe Amos Kwaghmande, Doochivir Vicentia Kwaghmande and Mnguember Iorliam. Thank you for your prayers and always believing that I would make it.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ABP	-	Anchor Borrowers Programme
ADP	-	Agricultural Development Programme
ADP	-	Agricultural Development Projects
APMEU	-	Agricultural Projects Monitoring and Evaluation Unit
APP	-	Agricultural Promotion Policy
ATA	-	Agricultural Transformation Agenda
BANARDA	-	Benue Agricultural and Rural Development Authority
CIA	-	Central Intelligence Agency
DFFRI	-	Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure
DRC	-	Development Research Centre
FACU:	-	Federal Agricultural Coordinating Unit
FCT:	-	Federal Capital Territory
FDI:	-	Foreign Direct Investment
FEAP:	-	Family Economic Advancement Programme.
FSS	-	Farm Settlement Schemes
GDP:	-	Gross Domestic Product
GRP	-	Green Revolution Programme
ILO:	-	International Labour Organization
IOM	-	International Organization for Migration
ISIL	-	Islamic State of Iraq and Levant
LGA	-	Local Government Area
MDGs	-	Millennium Development Goals
NACB	-	Nigerian Agricultural and Co-operative Bank
NACRDB Bank	-	Nigerian Agricultural Cooperative and Rural Development
NAFPP	-	National Accelerated Food Production Programme

NALDA:	-	National Agricultural Land Development Authority
NEEDS: Strategy.	-	National Economic Empowerment and Development
NFRA:	-	National Food Reserve Agency
NGO:	-	Non-Governmental Organization
NPC:	-	National Population Commission
NSS:	-	National Seeds Service
OFN:	-	Operation Feed the Nation
RBDA	-	River Basin Development Authority
SAP:	-	Structural Adjustment Programme
SDGs:	-	Sustainable Development Goals
UDB:	-	Urban Development Board
UNDP:	-	United Nation Development Programme
UNESCO Organization,	-	United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural

ABSTRACT

Agricultural productivity has been on the decline in Benue State following the migration of youth from the rural areas. This has been accompanied by rising cost of labour for various agricultural activities which have gone beyond the financial capabilities of rural families who are the major producers of food in the State. This study was therefore initiated to examine the implications of youth rural-urban migration on the agricultural productivity among peasant families in Benue State. To do this effectively, the study focused on five research objectives. The first objective dwelt on the predisposing factors of youth rural - urban migration while the second sought to determine the extent to which youth rural - urban migration has affected family labour in terms of availability and cost. The third objective sought to determine the effects of youth rural - urban migration on subsistence agricultural productivity among families in Benue State, while the fourth examined the coping strategies adopted by rural families in order to survive the challenges of youth rural - urban migration. The fifth objective identified policies put in place by government inorder to mitigate youth rural - urban migration and enhance agricultural productivity. The systems theory developed by Buckley (1967) was adopted for the study. The study employed multi stage sampling to select study locations from where combinations of purposive, simple and systematic random sampling techniques were used. Data were collected using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitatively, the questionnaire was deployed in collecting data from 429 respondents that were mainly heads of families in the study area. Qualitative data were collected using FGD which targeted youth migrants, as well as leaders of community based Associations found in the rural and urban areas. Indepth interviews targeted selected rural farmers, traditional rulers and leaders of farmer associations found in the communities covered by the study. The data collected were then presented in tables, frequencies and percentages. The study found factors such as search for job, family affair, marriage, education, famine, health issues, conflict/wars, among others to be responsible for youth rural-urban migration. It was also found that youth rural - urban migration has affected agricultural productivity of household of peasant farmers negatively as the agricultural production of both crops and livestock significantly dropped. It was also found that youth rural-urban migration affected the stock of available labour for farming activities. Competition over available labour has led to hike in prices of labour in the study area. Based on the findings, it was therefore recommended that rural infrastructure be improved upon so as to make rural areas attractive to the youths. The study further recommended the setting up of agro-allied industries in the rural areas for processing agricultural products into finished forms that will provide job opportunities to rural youths. inputs such as fertilizer, herbicides, tractors etc it was further recommended be made available to farmers. The study further recommended the setting up of a strong agricultural project supervisory and implementation committee under the presidency to oversee the effective implementation of government policies and projects targeted at rural farmers in the country.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

The phenomenon of youth rural – urban migration has attracted a lot of significant scholarly attention globally at least in the last three decades. Across Europe, America, Asia and throughout the developed world, significant attention and policy shift has been paid to issues of migration. This is as a result of the effects that the phenomenon has on the socio - economic development of the nations involved. Migration according to Mohammed, Inibehe and Monday (2016) is the movement of persons from one's place of abode to another. It could be internal or international. It is internal when it involves the movement of persons within the same sovereign country. International migration involves the movement of persons from one country to another. Migration could also be rural – rural, rural-urban, urban –rural and even urban – urban (Eneyo and Uffia, 2015). The emphasis in this work however is on youth rural – urban migration. Ofuoku and Chukwuji (2012) conceived youth rural –urban migration as the movement of able bodied - individuals from their villages of origin to urban centers to earn better incomes by engaging in wage labour or business. In the words of Eze (2016a:135), youth rural- urban migration is the movement of young men and women from the rural areas to the urban areas for different purposes with a view to improving their living conditions. In this study therefore youth rural –urban migration is the movement of young persons from their villages of origin to urban centres to earn better living by engaging in wage labour and or other income generating activities.

In the past three decades, issues of migration have tended to dominate the debate of many developed countries of the world regarding what policy decisions to take to arrest international migration of able bodied young men from Africa and the Middle East into Europe and America. The global statistics published by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2017), revealed the scale of international migration. In 2017, there were 232 million migrants in the world: 145 million in developed countries and 87 million in developing countries. Europe alone had 34%; America, 23% and Asia, 28%, Africa had 9% and Latin America and the Caribbean, 4%. Although migrants live on every continent, Europe hosts the largest group (56 million) accounting for 7.7% of Europe's population, while the largest group as a percentage of population is in Australia (18.7% equal to 5.8 million migrants). The United States alone is home to almost 20 percent of the world's migrants (40 million people, 12.9% of North America's population) (IOM, 2017).

The International Labour Organization (ILO) (2015), has indicated that more than 4 million migrants enter Europe annually through the Mediterranean. These migrants, mainly from Africa and the Middle East tried to escape into Europe where they hope to get jobs, earn better incomes and improve their living conditions. The migrants, majority of them young men, women and children tried to escape to Europe, using overcrowded boats which make their journey very risky. Many lost their lives in the process as there are reported cases of boat capsizing leading to many deaths. Remi, Luc and Marina (2014), have argued that wars, the activities of terrorist organizations, such as the Islamic State of Iraq and Levant (ISIL), the Jama'atu Ahlis Sunnah Lidda'awati wal –Jihad

(Boko Haram) and despotic governments in Africa and the Middle East have aggravated international migration crisis.

The centrality of migration issues to countries of Europe and America was demonstrated in the 2015 general elections of the United States of America as it became the main issue that gave the US presidency to Donald Trump (Eze, 2016a). His promise to construct a fence along the Mexican border and institute stringent migration policies was appealing to many rights - wing American voters. When he was eventually elected, he pursued vigorously stringent migration policies including building a fence along the Mexican – United States of Americas' border. In France, Germany and the European Union generally, liberal migration policies have put governments in bad light amongst right wing groups. Migration to Europe especially from Africa which witnessed an unprecedented scale in the last three decades took a tumble. This was necessitated by the fact that many countries of Europe and America could no longer accommodate migrants into their folds. This global scenario of migration has brought to fore issues of migration as they tend to dominate the debate of many developed countries of the world regarding what policy decisions to take to arrest international migration of able - bodied young men and women from Africa and the Middle East into Europe and America (Agbonlahor and Enilobo, 2013).

Of the 232 million migrants in the world as reported by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2017), more than 70 million are estimated to be Africans. Western Africa (with 42% of the international migrants) and Eastern Africa (with 28%) have generally had higher numbers of international migrants than the other regions of the continent (12% in Northern Africa; 9% in both Middle Africa and Southern Africa)

(Mohammed, Inibehe and Monday, 2016)). Within Africa, migration has been unprecedented with most people leaving countries perceived to be poor to richer ones. For example, in the early seventies, many Ghanaians moved to Nigeria to find jobs. This was the era of the oil boom when Nigeria had a lot of money and was able to carry out many projects where these persons were employed. The trend however changed in the 90's and 20's when it became the turn of Nigerians to migrate to other African countries including South Africa, Botswana, Egypt, Ghana and Cameroon etc. It is reported that over 1.5 million Nigerians are presently living in South Africa (Abdullahi and Abdulkarim, 2018). In the case of South Africa, the indigenous people of the country have resisted this influx of immigrants from Nigeria and other African countries in what has come to be termed as xenophobic attacks that have led to the death of several people including Nigerians in that country. Similarly, Libya, Egypt and Cameroon have in the recent past expelled Nigerian citizens from their respective countries.

In Nigeria, although the country is traditionally an important destination for migrants in the region, there are more people emigrating from, than immigrating to Nigeria. Estimates made by the Development Research Centre (DRC) on Migration, Globalization and Poverty, indicates that 7,041,284 Nigerian nationals live abroad (DRC, 2017). Although it is difficult to obtain information on the skills level of emigrants, there are some indications that the propensity to emigrate is particularly high among the highly skilled. According to Docquier and Marfouk, (2016), 10.7 per cent of the highly skilled population who were trained in Nigeria worked abroad, mostly in Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries. In the United States and Europe, 83 per cent and 46 per cent, respectively, of the Nigerian immigrant population

are highly skilled. On average, 64 per cent of the Nigerian emigrant population has tertiary education (Docquier and Marfouk, 2016). In the medical field, 14 per cent of physicians who trained in Nigeria worked abroad, 90 per cent of who live and work in the United States and the United Kingdom (Clemens and Peterson, 2017). In OECD countries, Nigerians appear to work predominantly in the health sector (21%), followed by the real estate and wholesale sectors (both with 12%).

There has been a marked increase in the number of Nigerians emigrating for educational purposes. From 2000 to 2006, the number of Nigerian students abroad has more than doubled, from 10,000 to 22,000 (United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), (2008). The majority of these Nigerian students (approximately 6,000), study at universities in the United States. Based on the past growth rates of student migration, some studies estimate that the Nigerian student population in the United Kingdom may increase from 2,700 in 2007 to 30,000 in 2030 (Economic Intelligence Unit, 2009).

In Benue State, the trend of rural – urban migration among youths is such that majority of the migrants move to the big cities to find greener pastures. Presently, a lot of youth migrants from the State go to other northern States of Nigeria, including Abuja. The establishment of Benue State University as the First State University in the North Central Nigeria also ensured the training of youths for high level manpower. Some of these graduates migrated to various parts of the country in search of work. Agbe (2006) observed that over 50,000 Benue State indigenes are living and working in other parts of Northern Nigeria. This figure excludes traders who commute regularly to the northern commercial centers of Kafanchan, Zaria, Kano, Jos, Kaduna and Sokoto. Another

category of migrants from the State to the north are hunters. These are seasonal migrants who come during the dry season to hunt for rats, rabbits, fish and other wild animals in Kano, Adamawa, Yobe, Borno and Taraba States. They usually return to their homes for farming activities during the wet season. Other migrant workers from Benue State to other northern States include those who move to Taraba, Plateau and Adamawa states to work on farms for money. As seasonal migrants, their labour is sought for cultivation, management as well as harvesting of farm produce. There exists another stream of migrants from Benue State to the East, West and South Western parts of Nigeria. The first category here are those who engage in trading activities moving items such as yams, "Akpu", Garri, dried cassava, rice, and beans from Benue State to Enugu, Aba, Port Harcourt, Warri, Benin, Ekiti, Akure, Oshogo, Ilorin, Oyo and Lagos. The second category is labourers who migrate to the South to work on large cocoa farms. Most of the migrants in this category have settled in Yoruba land where they are successful farmers. The last category of migrants from Benue State to the East and South Western Nigeria are those who go for jobs in the cities of Port Harcourt, Lagos, Ibadan and Warri. These include those who work in the factories, educational and hospitality institutions. These patterns of migration may have affected agricultural production. The family labour which the rural families depends solidly upon is reduced drastically due to migration of the youth to the urban centers. Eze (2016b) noted that two-fifth of the total urban growth in the Third World is as a result of rural-urban migration and that migration from rural areas accounted for at least half of all urban growth in Africa during the 1960s and 1970s and about 25% of urban growth in the 1980s, 1990s and 2000's.

The Peasant farmer in the words of Marksman (2010:256), “is a small holding farmer, producing crops for family consumption and for market exchange, using family labor throughout the farming cycle”. Edelman (2013) observed that the term peasant farmer applies to any person engaged in agriculture, cattle-rearing, pastoralist, and other handicrafts related to agriculture in the rural area. This includes the indigenous people working on the land. The genesis of peasantization in Nigeria is traceable to colonialism and its policies in agriculture that ensured continued impoverishment of the rural people. The colonial authorities encouraged the production of crops that were needed as raw materials for their industries. Such crops were bought at very cheap prices that guaranteed the peasant farmer no gain. Rodney (1983) argued that the exchange of commodities at this point gave the Europeans advantage in terms of value over African farmers.

In addition, colonial credit policies were tilted in favour of crops which were needed in Europe. Another colonial policy that entrenched the culture of peasantization was the deliberate neglect of the rural areas in terms of infrastructural development (Ukpong and Ibrahim, 2014). While the cities were provided with modern infrastructure such as good roads, electricity and portable water supply, the rural areas where the peasant farmers resided were abandoned to their own fate without infrastructural development. Schools, hospitals and industries were also concentrated in the urban areas. It was the implementation of adverse colonial policies towards the peasants that led to the various peasant revolts in Nigeria during the era. Some of these revolts include, the Aba women riots of 1929, the Satiru revolts of 1906 and even the Agbekoya movement of the 1960’s (Abdullahi and Abdulkarim, 2018). According to Ake (1982), this neglect of the rural

areas persisted even after independence as those who inherited power from the colonialist followed in their footsteps. Hembe (1985), Eze (2016a) observed that no significant efforts were made in terms of policy in Nigeria to address the infrastructural needs of the rural populace long after independence. The matter was worsened with the introduction of the Structural Adjustment policy by the Babangida administration in 1986. This singular policy brought about the removal of subsidies on agricultural products such as fertilizer, herbicides, pesticides and outright denial of loans to peasant farmers for agricultural activities. Furthermore, the policy ensured the flooding of Nigerian markets with cheap agricultural food produce from Europe, America and Asia. The net implication of this was that rural communities and indeed agriculture became less profitable to the youth thereby influencing them to migrate to the cities.

Historically, the origin of rural - urban migration in Nigeria is traceable to the policies of successive colonial governments. Prior to colonialism, the various nationalities that are presently regarded as Nigeria were self-sufficient (Eboh and Ujah, 2012). They were producing enough of what they needed. In fact, rural economies at this point were self-sustaining and self-reproducing. Colonialism introduced wage labour. At the early stages when wage labour was introduced by the colonialist, many were opposed to the policy. Colonialism imposed on the people a cash based economy that ensured the commoditization of wage labour. With specific reference to agriculture, colonialism introduced taxation which could only be paid in cash and with it cash crops which the people were encouraged to cultivate and sell to European merchants to generate cash and pay taxes. This development led to the disarticulation of Africa's subsistence agricultural economy that was tailored towards meeting the needs of metropolitan Europe. Cash crops

such as groundnuts, soya-beans, cotton and Beniseed were introduced and people were encouraged and in some cases forced to cultivate them. Idyorough (2002) observed that during the colonial period, to coerce and force the peasant farmers in Benue State to produce more cash crops, the prices of cash crops were deliberately kept low. This was done so as to make it difficult for the peasant farmers to meet their tax demand and have enough surpluses to carry out other activities hence forcing the farmers to commercialize their labour to augment their cash position. He lamented that, colonial administrators in Nigeria pay labourers “subsistence money" — generally half wages — for the period necessary for him to return to his home or place of engagement, together with any steamer or railway fare.

Lugard (1922:399) had indicated that the natives were not interested in wage labour. This led him to introduce forced labour. This was attested to by Lugard in his report to the authorities in 1922. He asserted:

> Though, a hard worker in his own field the African does not understand the European capitalist system of wage earning. He feels completely removed from his traditional place of work as he does wage labour. He therefore do not subscribe to it (Lugard, 1922: 399)

This situation was applicable to the peasant farmers of Benue State who persistently refused to work as wage labourers until the British introduced the policy of conscription for public work. Colonialism also led to the development of urban centers where youths were encouraged to go and work in order to get money and pay taxes.

The oil boom of the 1970s further led to the implementation of policies that encouraged the growth of cities and development of new ones with rising populations to the neglect of rural areas where peasants lived. For example, cities such as Lagos grew

tremendously. Yohanna (2014) submitted that the population of Lagos grew by over 75% between 1970 and 2000 and the trend has continued systematically. He further observed that, Port Harcourt rose from 200,000 in 1969 to 800,000 in 1977 and over 3 million by 2006; Warri and Abuja, Kano and Kaduna grew even faster. While these cities grew, no deliberate policy was designed and implemented to encourage rural growth.

The envisaged consequences of this large movement of such labour force on agricultural productivity of peasant families in Benue State are many. Crop and livestock production may have dropped significantly. A trend analysis of crop production in Benue State from 2008 to 2016 shows that crop production decrease was witnessed in maize, rice, yam, cassava, and soyabeans. From 2008 – 2012, crop production stood at 7,645.70 tons and between 2013 – 2016 total crop production dropped to 5,382.12 tons, (Benue Agricultural and Rural Development Authority, (BANARDA) Computed Annual Yields for 2008, 2013 and 2016). On the other hand, there has been noticeable influx of young men from the rural areas into the urban centres (Urban Development Board, 2015). Available records from the Urban Development Board (2015), indicated a city growth for Makurdi and Otukpo at an annual rate of 25% between 1999 and 2014. Majority of those who constitute these new arrivals to the cities are youth (Urban Development Board, 2015). This study will therefore investigate the extent to which youth rural urban migration has affected food productivity, cost of food, cost of labour and its availability among rural families in Benue State. The study is an attempt to identify the effects of youth out-migration on cost of labour, its availability and cost of food items in the rural communities of Benue State.

While studies on migration exist in the study area, (Agber, 2002; Avav, 2005; Atagher, 2006; Ivande, 2014) they are usually general in nature, seeking causes and consequences on city dwellers. The present study however focused on youth rural - urban migration and its implications on agricultural productivity of peasant families in Benue State. This aspect of the problem constitutes a major shortcoming in the efforts at effective policy formulation towards addressing the effect of the phenomenon of youth rural – urban migration and sustainable agricultural production. This study therefore intends to identify and analyzed the relationship between youth rural urban migration and agricultural productivity of peasant families with a view to gathering empirical data that will be useful in formulating migration policy as well as agricultural development.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

Youth rural - urban migration has continued to be a major challenge to the resuscitation of rural agricultural production in Nigeria in general and Benue State in particular. This is because in rural Nigeria, the youth constitute the major labour force in agricultural production. Their increased exodus to the cities constitutes a major threat to sustainable agricultural production. The phenomenon even deserves more significant scholarly attention now that the country is diversifying its economic base through agriculture following the sharp and persistent fall in oil prices at the international market and the renewed attacks on oil installations by the Niger Delta militants. The agricultural sector before the exploitation of oil used to be the country's major foreign exchange earner (Abdullahi and Abdulkarim, 2018).

The dramatic shift in the fortunes of the sector over the years; from the dominant sector of the economy (contributing 64.1% to GDP) and supplier of food, income, foreign exchange and employment in the 1960s to a net importer of food contributing less than 5% to total foreign exchange earnings in the 2000's may be attributed to a plethora of factors. Some of these factors include, neglect by successive governments, rapid urbanization which took off youths to the urban centres, poor infrastructure, use of crude tools in production, the oil boom and the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) by the military regime in 1986 (Ango, Ibrahim, Yakubu and Alhaji, 2014). Of all these factors, the one that this study focuses on is the continued rural - urban migration of youths to the cities, a phenomenon that has thwarted agricultural production in the rural communities.

Studies by scholars (Bishan, 2011; Beneberu, 2012; Ango *et al*, 2014) on rural urban migration reveal negative effects of migration on both rural and urban settings in Nigeria. According to Ango *et al* (2014), when energetic and productive members of the rural population migrate to the cities, the original place of residence of the migrants experience low food production and high cost of labour while the new location may experience over population resulting in unemployment, high rates of crime and prostitution, etc. Rural - urban migration also affects agricultural activities of rural families in several other ways. In the first instance, there is a fall in the quantity of agricultural production by Families which in the Nigerian situation has led to food importation and high cost of food stuff. The migration of able - bodied young men has left agricultural activities in the rural areas in the hands of old men, women and young children. This has affected agricultural production and hence output as well as family income of rural families and small - scale

businesses involved in processing of agricultural products, fishing and poultry (Beneberu, 2012).

In the study area, the processing of cassava into Garri for example, which is undertaken at the family level by young men and women in the villages may have been greatly hampered. Secondly, the family labour which the rural families depend upon for other farming activities may have reduced drastically due to migration of the youth from the rural areas and competition over available labour has increased unit cost of labour. There is also rise in cost of labour and food stuff in the rural areas where the youth have left (Bishan, 2011).

The oil boom of the 1970's and SAP contributed significantly to youth rural - urban migration. The Structural Adjustment Programme especially did not only lead to the collapse of subsistence farming but also altered the structure of domestic demand for food and agricultural products in favour of imports of grains, beverages, vegetable oils and fibers which Nigeria was once reputed as a leading world producer (Eboh and Ujah, 2012). As a result of low income earned in agricultural and fishing activities, farming families have to diversify to non-farm sources to improve family income. In Benue State many families decided to encourage their younger ones to migrate to the cities and seek non-farming jobs. Evidence in the literature over the last three decades suggests that the share of family income from non-farm sources is growing (Ezedinma and Okechukwu, 2007; Olukunle, 2013). Atagher (2006) found that non-farm sources account for 30-40% of average rural family income in Benue State and this has encouraged migration of young people to cities to look for non-farming jobs.

Again, the introduction of SAP in 1986 impacted negatively on agricultural inputs which became exceedingly high in prices thereby forcing young people to abandon agriculture as an occupation for non-farm jobs in the cities. Youths whose parents were once farmers prefer to work in cities as fuel station attendants and fuel vendors that are found on every nook and crannies of the State. Yet others took to civil service jobs, casual jobs with small scale industries located in the cities; others prefer to migrate to cities in the north to work in schools and industries. Mtswenem (1985) also found that 32% of rural s were engaged in one other source of livelihood outside farming.

According to Ajaero (2013), the impact of rural-urban migration and consequent labour shortages in the rural areas created difficulties in gaining access to labour especially when government public interventions in the form of Agricultural Development Projects (ADPs), River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs), and the Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), were to be implemented in Benue State. The operation 'go back to the farm' by the Obasanjo administration failed in the State because the youth who were the expected labour force had migrated to the towns to work in oil companies and allied firms that are concentrated in cities such as Warri, Port-Harcourt, Lagos, Ibadan, Kano and Abuja.

Although, youth rural-urban migration and agricultural production activities has been a subject of considerable debate in the Social Sciences especially the field of development sociology (Mabogunje, 1975), however, there is the need for sufficient scholarly attention on the latest trends of the problem in Benue State. Most works conducted on this topic in the area (Bohannan and Bohannan, 1968; Mtswenem, 1985; Agber, 2002; Avav, 2005; Atagher, 2006; Ivande, 2014); have focused on the causes and consequences

of rural urban migration on the general population. Earlier studies reflected on youth rural urban migration in general terms. There is therefore the need to focus on the peasant families who suffer in various forms when youths migrate to the urban areas. This study shall specifically address the implication of the phenomenon on agricultural production activities of peasant families in the study area. In addition, the near absence of current empirical evidences on the effects of youth rural - urban migration on agricultural production may have also been responsible for the poorly designed and articulated migration and population policies on rural and urban development. The current emphasis on agriculture by the Buhari administration calls for revisiting the effects of youth rural out-migration on labour availability for agricultural production, for which this study is geared towards that direction.

1.3 Research Questions

The study attempted to answer the broad and general questions of the implications of youth rural - urban migration on agricultural productivity among peasant families in Benue state. Specifically, it will be guided by the following research questions:

i. What are the pre – disposing factors responsible for youth rural - urban migration in Benue State?
ii. To what extent has youth rural – urban migration affected peasant families' labour cost for Agricultural productivity in Benue State?
iii. What are the implications of youth exodus from rural to urban areas on agricultural productivity in Benue State?
iv. What is the nature of family relationships engendered by youth rural – urban migration in Benue state?

v. How have the policies put in place by the government able to discourage rural - urban migration in the study area?

1.4 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The broad aim of this study is to explore the implications of youth rural urban migration on agricultural productivity among rural families in Benue State, Nigeria. The study is aimed at achieving the following specific objectives, to:

1. Investigate the pre – disposing factors responsible for youth rural - urban migration in Benue State;
2. Study the extent of implication of youth rural – urban migration on peasant families' labour cost in Benue State;
3. Examine the implications of youth rural - urban migration on peasant families' agricultural productivity in Benue State;
4. Identify the nature of family relationships engendered by youth rural – urban migration in Benue State; and
5. Examine the policies put in place by Government to mitigate youth rural – urban migration and enhance agricultural productivity in Benue State.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The challenge posed to agricultural production by increased rural urban migration of the youth in Benue State is indeed enormous. If Benue State is to attain development using agriculture then, better attention must be accorded the threat youth rural urban migration poses to agricultural development. The present study will be significant as it intends to

investigate the issues involved in youth rural urban migration and agricultural production problem.

Data generated from the study will provide answers to our present mono-cultural economy operative in Nigeria today and suggest way out, which will be useful to policy makers since the present government is re-focusing on economic diversification. In addition, the result of this research will contribute to improved theory and methodology for migration research in Nigeria, as well as providing specific policy recommendations to the Benue State government. This is because the findings of this study will suggest new theoretical approaches and techniques that will be useful in explaining youth rural urban migration as it affects agricultural productivity.

Sustained increase in rural urban migration has implications for rural areas. There may be labour shortages and hikes in the rural areas. Productivity of crops may have been hampered as there may have been few capable hands to cultivate the soil and even harvest. The magnitude of these problems it is envisaged may have over the years forced policy makers in many African countries to introduce measures to stem the tide of youth rural-urban migration. In Nigeria, in their efforts to grapple with these problems, policy makers will need quantitative and qualitative information on the important variables affecting rural-urban migration, as well as data on the consequences of such migration on the agricultural sector, future of rural families and the rest of the economy. This study will identify and measure some of these variables in order to better understand the migration process and provide guidance to policy makers. In this regard, findings from this work will be useful and will form part of ongoing efforts and interventions aimed at diversifying Nigeria's economy. In a similar way, findings of this study will be useful to

researchers carrying out research on other aspects of migration, changing family structure and agriculture.

1.6 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

Although this study is restricted geographically to Benue State, its findings are useful in understanding the implications of youth rural urban migration on Agriculture throughout the North Central geo- political zone. The choice of Benue State is based on the fact that Benue State is reputed to be the food basket of the nation that produces most of the food needs of the nation. The State contributes the largest portion of the crops that are consumed and exported (Hembe, 1995; Ivande, 2014). An understanding of how youth rural urban migration will threaten this food basket status is important in understanding the imperative of the Buhari regime's agenda of diversifying the economy through Agriculture. Benue State has a total of 23 Local Government Areas. The Local Government Areas (LGAs) include; Agatu, Apa, Otukpo, Okpokwu, Ohimini, Ogbadibo, Ado, Obi, Oju, Buruku, Gboko, Guma, Gwer, Gwer-west, Kastina-Ala, Konshisha, Kwande, Logo, Makurdi, Tarka, Ukum, Ushongo and, Vandeikya. The study will be geographically limited to these LGAs.

The academic scope of the study focused on examining the implications of youth rural - urban migration and Agricultural production of peasant families. It will be limited to understanding the implications of youth rural urban migration on family food sustainability, how rural urban migration has affected family labour supply in terms of cost and availability as well as factors responsible for youth rural urban migration. The study will also determine the implications of youth rural urban migration on agricultural

productivity and identify the nature of family relationships engendered by youth rural urban migration in Benue state. The study will also identify the various agricultural policies of government aimed at bringing the youths back to land and to what extent these programmes have been successful.

The time coverage is between 1999 and 2020. This period is chosen for special consideration because 1990 marks the restoration of democracy after a long spell of military rule in Nigeria that was characterized by the implementation of policies such as SAP that discouraged engagement in agriculture in favour of importation of food. The restoration of democracy saw the introduction of programmes that were aimed at encouraging youth engagement in agriculture. It was also during this period that conflicts, wars and armed banditry blossomed and many youths migrated to the urban centers not necessarily to find jobs but to take refuge. The period further coincides with the period of oil price falls and economic recession in Nigeria which has necessitated the call for resuscitating and revamping the agricultural sector.

1.7 Operational Definitions

This section of the study covers operational definition of concepts. A number of concepts used in this study deserve to be operationally defined so as to enhance understanding and remove ambiguity**.** Some of these concepts include;

Migration: Migration is the movement of persons from one's place of abode to another. It could be internal or international. It is internal when it involves the movement of persons within the same geographical entity. International migration involves the movement of persons from one country to another. Migration could also be rural – rural, rural-urban, urban –rural and even urban – urban (Eneyo and Uffia, 2015). The emphasis

in this work however is on rural – urban migration. The category of persons involved here are the youth. For this study youth rural –urban migration is conceived as the movement of able bodied young individuals from their villages of origin to urban centers to earn better incomes by engaging in wage labour or business

Peasantry: The concept of peasantry has also attracted diverse attention from scholars. According to Nadvi and Barrientos (2004), a peasant farmer is anybody whose economy and source of livelihood is based on his entitlement to ownership of land with which he uses to produce food for his family use and who draws his work force from the member of his immediate family. This means that the peasant farmer operates mainly in the rural environment of the country. They operate on very small farm holdings using mostly traditional methods because, their income is relatively low and the capacity to save is poor. Markson (2010), adds that the peasant is a small holding farmer, producing crops for family consumption and for market exchange, using family labor throughout the farming cycle. Peasant production is conducted by the family labor unit, which ideally works on its own family land with its own equipment. The farm is rather his livelihood. For this study, a peasant farmer means a small holding farmer, producing crops for family consumption and for market exchange, using family labor throughout the farming cycle living in villages and small communities.

Family: For this study, a family is defined as persons living together in a home, cooperating economically, sharing food, consignable and social affinity. The individual family will constitute the unit of analysis and the head of families, the unit of response. The specific categorization of families from which data will be collected includes peasant families with or without migrants for comparison purposes. A family will be considered a

family with migrants if in the last one year it has at least one or more of its member migrate to the urban centre to live there. A family is considered a family without migrants if in the last one year has not have one or more of its members migrate to the urban centre and lived there.

Agriculture: The concept of Agriculture refers to the science or practice of farming (Ofuoku, and Chukwuji, 2012). It is generally defined as the practice of farming including cultivation of the soil for the growing of crops and the rearing of animals to provide food, wool and other products. For this study, agriculture is therefore the practice of farming and cultivation of large parcels of land, raising and rearing of animals, for the purpose of production of food for man, feed for animals and raw materials for industries. It comprises of crop production, livestock, forestry and fishing. It is the practice of farming to produce food and provide employment opportunities to members of the society.

Agricultural Productivity: Agricultural productivity is defined as crops and livestock produced by members of the family. For this study, agricultural productivity is defined as the quantity and quality of crops and livestock realized by a family within a cropping season.

Youth: The conception of youth is varied across cultures and geographical boundaries. The United Nations (2015), defines 'youth', as those persons between the ages of 15 and 24 years, without prejudice to other definitions by Member States. In Nigeria, the Nigerian youth policy document (2009), defines the youth as "any citizen of the Federal Republic of Nigeria aged 18-35 years" (*Nigeria National Youth Policy, 2009:35).* The

African Youth Charter defines youth as any individual between 15-35 years of age. For this study, the youth is defined as any person aged between 18 and 35 years.

Rural Area: A rural area is an open swath of land that has few homes or other buildings, and not very many people. A rural area population density is very low. Many people live in a city, or urban area. Their homes and businesses are located very close to one another. In a rural area, there are fewer people, and their homes and businesses are located far away from one another. Agriculture is the primary industry in most rural areas. Most people live or work on farms or ranches. Hamlets, villages, towns, and other small settlements are in or surrounded by rural areas. Wildlife is more frequently found in rural areas than in cities because of the absence of people and buildings. In fact, rural areas are often called the country because residents can see and interact with the country's native wildlife. Throughout the world, more people live in rural areas than in urban areas. This has been changing rapidly, however. Urbanization is happening all over the world. In the United States, the Census Bureau classifies a rural area as a town with fewer than 1,000 people per 2.6 square kilometers (square mile) and surrounding areas with fewer than 500 people per 2.6 square kilometers (square mile). In the United States, rural areas take up about 98 percent of the country but are home to only 25 percent of the population. In Ethiopia, a less-developed country where agricultural jobs are much more common, 87 percent of the people live in rural areas. In general, a rural area is a geographic area that is located outside towns and cities. For this study a rural area is defined as an area with less than 1, 000 people per 2.6 square miles, whose members' primary occupation is farming and is usually located outside the city.

Urban Area: An urbanized area consists of a central and surrounding area whose population is greater than 50,000. They may or may not contain individual cities with 50,000 or more; rather, they must have a core with a population density generally exceeding 1,000 persons per square mile; and may contain adjoining territory with at least 500 persons per square mile. Many countries use a minimum population size to define an urban area, but that size can be 200 (as in Denmark), 2,000 (Argentina), 5,000 (India) or 50,000 (Japan) or even 100,000 (China). Some countries don't use a statistical definition but designate urban areas by administrative decision. In other countries, the sectoral employment or provision of infrastructure and services is used to determine whether settlements should be classified as urban or rural. In this study an urban area is area with a population exceeding 1,000 persons per square mile, whose occupants work in offices and have modern infrastructure and services to support them.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with literature review and theoretical framework. Here, relevant literature materials relating to the implications of youth rural urban migration on agricultural productivity of families of peasant farmers were reviewed. The review covered conceptual review of the concepts of migration, youth, family, agriculture, and peasant farming. It further covers predisposing factors influencing youth rural urban migration, youth rural urban migration, labour availability as well as cost of hiring labour, and the implications of youth rural urban migration on agricultural productivity of peasant families. Other aspects covered in the review are the nature of family relationships engendered by youth rural urban migration as well as policies put in place by the government in order to mitigate the tide of youth rural – urban migration and resuscitate agriculture. There is also a section on theoretical review. Here, the systems theory of youth rural urban migration was reviewed and adopted for explanation of the thesis of the work.

2.2 Conceptual Review

A number of concepts used in the study deserve specific clarification in order to enhance the understanding of readers. Some of these concepts include migration, youth, family, agriculture, and peasant farming.

Migration is a multifaceted phenomenon which in general involves the movement of people from one place to the other. Migration is a change of residence either permanently or temporarily (Eze, 2014; Koko and Abdullahi, 2012). Migration can be defined in terms of spatial boundaries as internal and international. Internal migration is the movement of individuals within a country whereas international migration involves the flow of individuals between countries where national boundaries are crossed. The United Nation (UN, 2011: 15) defines migration as: '… a move from one migration defining area to another (or a move of some specified minimum distance) that is made during a given migration interval and that involves change of residence."

A migrant is defined as:

> a person who has changed his usual place of residence from one migration-defining area to another (or who moved some specified minimum distance) at least once during the migration interval (UN, 2011: 15).

The focus of this research is on internal type of migration flows specifically on rural-urban migration. Rural-urban migration is the movement of a rural resident(s) to an urban destination for different reasons. The area of origin (departure) is a place from which a move is made whereas area of destination (arrival) is a place where the move is terminated (UN, 2011). Migration whether at the local or international level is a deliberate decision or attempt by the migrants to reap social or economic benefits associated with changing locations. There are different types of migration. Internal migration is the movement of people to a new home within a country or continent, while external migration is the movement to a new home in a different country or continent (Adepoju, 2003; Adamu, 2009; Agbonlaho and Eniolobo, 2013). According to Adepoju

(2003), migration is the movement that involves a permanent or semi-permanent change in residence from one settlement to another. Rural-urban migration on the other hand is the movement of able bodied individuals from rural villages of origin to cities to earn a labour wage (Eze; 2015). Migrants are people who have left their homes to a new location, in order to reap private, social or economic gains (Adepoju, 2003). For this study youth rural urban migration involves movement of the youth from rural Benue to urban Benue or elsewhere.

The conception of youth is varied across cultures and geographical boundaries. The United Nations (2015), defines 'youth', as those persons between the ages of 15 and 24 years, without prejudice to other definitions by Member States. All UN statistics on youth are based on this definition, as illustrated by the annual yearbooks of statistics published by the United Nations system on demography, education, employment and health. For activities at the national level, for example when implementing a local community youth programme, "youth" may be understood in a more flexible manner as a period of transition from the dependence of childhood to adulthood's independence and awareness of our interdependence as members of a community. Youth in this sense becomes a more fluid category than a fixed age-group. In such situations, the United Nations will then adopt the definition of "youth" as used by a particular member State. In Nigeria, the Nigerian youth policy document (2009), defines the youth as "any citizen of the Federal Republic of Nigeria aged 18-35 years" (*Nigeria National Youth Policy, 2009:35).* The African Youth Charter defines youth as any individual between 15-35 years of age.

From the forgoing, the various definitions of youth can be problematic when designing youth programmes. Since there is no standard global definition acceptable to all

countries, Africa and the global south have long insisted that youth is not a range of ages but defined by a diversity of culturally defined social processes that mark the transition from child to adulthood. However, psychologists propose distinct stages in human psycho-social development that can be used to guide the design of necessary age specific interventions and providing support at each stage in life. While they recognize that there is no specific and set age when each stage occurs, their analysis offers a coherent guide for programming and implementing policy decisions. Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa with one of the largest youth populations in the world comprising 33,652,424 youths (*The CIA World Fact book, 2014*). Data on youth migration and employment in Nigeria are scarce due to under resource agencies responsible for their collection. According to Eze (2016), eleven million youths are unemployed in Nigeria and over 8 million of this number resides in the urban centres where they have gone to look for jobs. For this study, the youth is that boy or girl aged between 18-35 years.

The concept of agriculture refers to the science or practice of farming (Ofuoku, and Chukwuji, 2012). It is generally defined as the practice of farming including cultivation of the soil for the growing of crops and the rearing of animals to provide food, wool and other products. The emergence of a new sociology of agriculture occurred alongside a similar transformation of urban sociology. In Sociology, the early works in the sociology of Agriculture relate to the peculiar nature of land as a factor of production, the role of deferring pattern of land- ownership, and the study of rural power structure and social stratification (Gollin, Jedwab and Vollrath, 2013). However, much of this work was deterministic, merely a reading off the social consequences of rural change from the presumed logic of capitalist agricultural development. Later studies moved beyond those

simplicities, exploring the historically and geographically variable nature of agricultural production and its social consequences. Conceiving agricultural as a complex process of commodity production, research topics include globally organized 'food regimes', the role of agribusiness, (including its relations to State policies and use of new technologies), and agricultural credit systems. In the study area agricultural production activities include, cultivation of crops such as maize, yam, millet, cassava, groundnuts, beans, citrus and oil palm plantation. The people are also involved in rearing of livestock such as swine, cattle, goat, guinea fowl, rabbit and sheep. For this study, agriculture is therefore the practice of farming and cultivation of large parcels of land, raising and rearing of animals, for the purpose of production of food for man, feed for animals and raw materials for industries. It comprises of crop production, livestock, forestry and fishing. It is the practice of farming to produce food and provide employment opportunities to members of the society.

The concept of peasantry has also attracted diverse attention from scholars. According to Nadvi and Barrientos (2004), a peasant farmer is anybody whose economy and source of livelihood is based on his entitlement to ownership of land with which he uses to produce food for his family use and who draws his work force from the member of his immediate family. This means that the peasant farmer operates mainly in the rural environment of the country. They operate on very small farm holdings using mostly traditional methods because, their income is relatively low and the capacity to save is poor. Wolf (1966) insists that peasant farmers are rural cultivators whose rulers uses the surpluses both to under write its own standard of living and to distribute the remainder to groups in society that do not farm but must be fed for their specific goods and services in return. Peasants

are those agriculturalists who control the land they work either as tenants or small holders, organized largely in s that meet most of their subsistence needs, and are ruled by other classes, who extract a surplus either directly or through control of state power (Isaacman, 1990). In other words, peasants are merely those engaged in petty commodity production where small land holdings and cultivation is done essentially by or family labour (Momoh, 1996). The term therefore applies to "…any person engaged in agriculture, cattle-raising, pastoralism, handicrafts-related to agriculture or a related occupation in rural area. This includes the indigenous people working on the land" (Edelman, 2013: 48).

Markson (2010), added that the peasant is a small holding farmer, producing crops for family consumption and for market exchange, using family labor throughout the farming cycle. Peasants live in villages and small towns. They engage in face-to-face relations with neighboring farmers; they possess a diverse range of cultural and religious beliefs and practices; they fall within a diverse range of social networks and local organizations (kinship organizations, temples, labor-sharing networks) etc. This conceptualization of the peasant focuses on the occupational or material situations of the individual. It is thus not surprising that, materialist social theory has given particular emphasis to the category of "peasant society" as a potentially explanatory social category. The peasantry, like any general category, is not a homogeneous group. It contains within it diverse populations that live in widely varied conditions. Always linked to agriculture, the term peasant is used differently according to the historical epoch that is being described. The definition of peasant can encompass anyone from those involved in basic subsistence agriculture to members of a modern family farm, depending on the literature being reviewed. It is most

useful to define peasants according to their form of production. At the basic level, peasants are traditionally defined as people involved in agriculture that have direct access to the production of their means of subsistence (Araghi, 1995). This may or may not involve direct ownership although for Marx it was ownership that fundamentally separated peasants from the proletariat (Archetti and Aass, 1978). What is definitive about the peasant form of production is that, regardless of ownership, the logic of production is subsistence. Bernstein (2010) argued that peasant production is distinguished from capitalism because there is no appropriation and realization of surplus value or accumulation of capital. The object is the satisfaction of family needs, not profit (Araghi, 1995). Beyond this, he argues that it is not a form of proletariat production because the Individual retains some control. There are therefore two central components of peasant production: the driving logic of subsistence and the maintenance of some control over the means of production.

Odoemenem and Adebisi (2001), argued that agricultural systems are so diverse, based on farm size, location, crops being grown, socioeconomic background among many other factors. These disparities create the room for classification of peasant farmers. Peasant farmers are otherwise referred to as small-scale farmers (Nmadu, Eze and Jirgi, 2012). Peasant farming is characterized by a small capital base. Small-scale farmers in Nigeria are classified as resource poor due to the poor resource-base available to them. This causes low productivity due to the fact that they produce purely for subsistence consumption and little marketable surplus.

The role of peasant farmers in the agricultural food production in Nigeria, as in many developing countries cannot be overemphasized. They are linked with small-scale

agriculture that provides food for the rural and urban needs through village markets where such products are sold.

Majority of farmers in Africa are subsistence farmers who have small farm holdings ranging from 0.5 hectare to about 4 hectares. They produce food for their, plus a little for sale in the neighborhood markets (Aina, 2007). Ozowa (2002) stated that Nigerian farmers are classified into small scale, medium scale and large scale. About 94.37 percent of all farm holdings in Nigeria are classified as small holdings, while the remaining 5.63 percent are medium scale holdings. These small-scale farmers are mainly peasant farmers residing in rural areas where they engage in farming activities. Idachaba (2006) opines that peasant farmers account for 90 percent of total food and fiber production in Nigeria. This underscores the importance of the role played by peasant farmers in the agriculture enterprise in Nigeria. According to World Bank (1996), peasant farmers depend on their efficiency in the utilization of basic production resources available to them and make significant and important contribution to the national production, that is, 99 percent of the crop output. This category of farmers are the main producers of 98 percent of crops consumed in Nigeria. They are therefore crucial to the development of Nigeria's economy, and the migration of their members who constitute labour to the city poses grave threat to agricultural productivity. The continued exodus of migrants from peasant families portends grave danger to food security of the nation.

Peasant production is conducted by the family labor unit, which ideally works on its own family land with its own equipment. The farm is rather his livelihood (Williams, 1976). In Benue State, majority of the peasants families are farmers, and as subsistence farmers, they cultivate yams, cassava, rice, cocoyam, plantain, sweet potatoes, corn, okra, and

other vegetables to feed their families and sometimes, sell some of their farm produce in the local market to raise money to buy family items. The predominant system of farming among the peasant families in the State is mixed cropping. Thus, the peasant farmer usually plant groundnut, sweet potato, corn, cassava and yam etc on the same piece of land. One unique characteristic of the peasant family production activities is the issue of communal labor. This refers to the practice of jointly rendering labor services to help each other in times of need. That is, the peasants jointly work on each other's farms during the early planting season and even during harvest periods where much labor is needed. Areas in which joint labor is required are in the process of palm oil production, fishing in ponds, harvesting and processing of cassava to Garri amongst others. However, there are times when the peasant farmer hires labor for a fee in order to clear the land, till the soil, sow seeds, or harvest crops. For this study, a peasant farmer means a small holding farmer, producing crops for family consumption and for market exchange, using family labor throughout the farming cycle living in villages and small communities.

2.3 Empirical Review

This section of the work reviews the various previous research works done in this area. The aim is to identify the gaps in knowledge to be filled. The review will however be done based on themes derived from the objectives of the study.

2.3.1 Factors Influencing Youth Rural - Urban Migration

The first sets of factors influencing youth rural – urban migration are economic and social in nature. One of the early studies aimed at identifying economic and social factors responsible for youth rural urban migration in Nigeria was Mabongunje (1970). His study

focused on youth rural urban migration to cities that sprang up after independence. The study was designed to identify the predisposing factors of youth rural urban migration. The study further aimed at demonstrating the effects of the phenomenon on city dwellers. It also aimed at measuring the effects of youth rural urban migration on infrastructure and existing employment opportunities. Mabongunje found several social and economic factors responsible for youth rural-urban migration in Nigeria. Some of these factors include poor living conditions in the rural areas, natural disasters, unemployment, wars, poor infrastructure, education, and others. The study also established that the migration of youth from the rural to the urban areas had adverse effects on the urban dwellers as it leads to congestion, increase in criminal activities and even the development of slums. Although a good effort, the study has some shortcomings. In the first instance, the scope of the study was narrow as it concentrated on the effects of the phenomenon on city dwellers thereby ignoring the rural dwellers. Secondly, the study gives the impression that the youth cannot evaluate his condition and the circumstances under which to migrate. This conception is misleading as the youth has the capabilities to evaluate his situation and make informed decision to migrate or not.

Mbah, Ezeano, and Agada (2016) have also made some contributions in understanding the factors of youth rural-urban migration in Nigeria. This is reflected in a study entitled "effects of rural urban migration on families in Benue State" Using interviews that were administered on 146 farmer respondents, Mbah *et al* (2016) identified economic factors as the most important factors in the mobility of labour from one region to another region or from one location to other locations. Since rural people lack better employment opportunities in the villages, they migrate to urban areas where they expect to get

productive employment. Those who have better education and skills it was found have the high probability of getting employment in the urban organized sector, while those who do not have basic education and skills get opportunity in the expanded informal sector, such as domestic help, hotels, construction activities, etc. This study has some major short comings which have limited its usefulness and acceptability. In the first instance, the sample size of 146 participants used for the study is not enough to warrant any meaningful generalization of outcomes. Considering the nature of the study, one expects a bigger size of the sample. Secondly, the study failed to state how the sample of 146 respondents was selected. It failed to indicate the quantum of the general population from which the sample was drawn and the procedures involved. The study also failed to indicate how the collected data was analyzed to arrive at results. The aforementioned constitute serious drawback on the acceptability and usefulness of their findings.

An Empirical study conducted by Ajaero (2013) in the south –Eastern geo – political zone have shown that most of the migrants, except for forced migrants, move to the urban areas in search of better economic opportunities. Migration is normally viewed as an economic phenomenon. In an unpublished PhD thesis conducted in South – Eastern Nigeria, Ajaero (2013) found that 70% of the migrants from south –Eastern Nigeria move to cities for better economic opportunities. This study however has some major drawbacks. The failure of the study to clearly outline the methodology used in the conduct of the work leaves much to be desired. Such an outline would have stated in clear terms the quantum of the sample used and the procedure; the instruments used in data collection amongst others. This, it is expected will guide other researchers in replicating the work.

Economic factors have further contributed to youth rural urban migration. Some of the most important economic factors in rural-urban migration are examined. The first economic factor is land scarcity**.** Land is one of the most important assets in the rural areas (Eze, 2016a). A good quality of cultivated land is necessary to support the livelihood of rural people. The probability of movement of a person is relatively high from a family that does not have access to land and other productive assets. A study conducted by Gbor (1993) in Benue State found that more than 70 percent of rural people directly depend on agriculture. In a study conducted in Agan, an outskirt village of Makurdi, Gbor (1993) found that agriculture was the mainstay of the people who plant crops and vegetables that are sold to the urban dwellers in Makurdi town. It was further established by the study that the land tenure system whereby land ownership is based on who first cultivates a virgin land becoming the owner and holding it in perpetuity for his children leaves many people without land. The high people-land ratio and low productivity of land tend to drive a large number of rural people to urban centers in search of better livelihood options. The study however failed to account for why even the owners of land in the areas migrate to the city to work on the factories. Given that people migrate to urban centers as a result of problems of land ownership arising from the practice of the land tenure system, how will one explain the situation of those owners of land who prefer to rent it out rather than cultivate it and would still migrate to the urban centers to work for wages? Indeed in the study area, people without land hire land from those who have for cultivation. The problem of low productivity of land is been tackled through use of farm inputs such as fertilizer. This in itself may not have been a sufficient

predisposing factor for youth out migration. There may be other factors which the present study may unravel.

A number of studies have shown an inverse relationship between availability of land and rural to urban migration (Singh and Agrawal, 1998, Shaw, 1974; Stiglitz, 1973). Shaw (1974) found that the landless peasants are more likely to migrate than landed peasants. In a study he conducted in Peru using 456 respondents that were sampled using systematic sampling, Shaw (1974) found that most migrants do so as a result of non-availability of land to cultivate. He found that the increasing pressure of population on land has led to division and fragmentation of operational land holdings. While one may agree with Shaw (1974) to some extent on increasing pressure of population on land as a factor in rural urban drift in Peru, the major contentious issue pertaining to land in that country is the grabbing of land by the emerging bourgeois in collaboration with multinational companies that have rendered many homeless. This singular activity of land grabbing has contributed significantly to youth rural urban migration in that country.

Similarly, a study conducted by Sirin and Terry (2014), in South-Eastern Nigeria reported that one of the factors responsible 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 families belonging to a descent from a certain ancestor. Such conditions pave way for the landless to migrate. This finding of Sirin and Terry (2014) when analyzed critically has some fundamental weak points. In south – Eastern Nigeria, youth rural – urban migration is largely out of the desire of the youth to seek out areas of suitable and better business investments and patronage rather than land shortages. While

not ignoring the element of land shortages, the primary motivating factor has always been the desire of the youth to locate his business where there is patronage.

Another economic factor influencing rural–urban migration is the high wage and income differentials between rural and urban labour markets. A number of studies have highlighted this aspect. A study by International Labour Organization (ILO, 2015) concludes that the main push factor in the rural - urban migration is low income from agriculture in the face of high urban incomes from salaried workers and political stalwarts. In their cross country report on youth development and agriculture, the organization identified low income from sale of agricultural products in the face of high income from salaried work and politics as a crucial factor in youth rural urban migration globally especially in developing countries. This study has its pitfalls. While one may agree with the ILO on the fact that urban jobs are better paid, the truth remains that not all urban salaried jobs are better paid than agriculture. Indeed, some farmers are doing better than salaried workers especially in Benue State where the present study is situated. In the State, workers have gone many months without salaries and are sometimes paid half salaries.

A study conducted by Chaterjee and Kundu (1998) in India found income disparities between rural and urban areas as a potent factor in youth rural – urban migration. The study collected data from respondents using questionnaire which were administered on 120 workers in urban areas and indepth interviews which focused on selected family heads in rural areas. The study found that as a consequence of the neo-liberal policies introduced by the government, there are serious income disparities, agrarian distress, inadequate employment generation, vast growth of informal economy have intensified

migration from rural areas to urban centers. In the push pull model, labour migration is modeled in the context of inter-sectoral (rural-urban) wage inequality. Migration decisions are made by rational self-interested individuals looking for higher paid work in urban areas and migration occurs if the economic benefits in terms of expected wages at urban destination – accounting for risk of initial spell of unemployment – exceed economic costs of moving and of foregone wages at the rural origin (Lucas, 1997). This study has failed to account for a significant number of migrants who move to the urban centers purely for intrinsic reasons such as the desire to live with one's partner in the urban area, forced migration as a result of conflict/wars, health issues, etc. In both cases highlighted above, migration is made not for the money but some intrinsic value which the migrant upholds.

Another economic factor influencing youth rural – urban migration is the differences in employment opportunities between rural and urban communities. The expanded urban sector has created more employment opportunities for both skilled and unskilled workers. Rural workers move to the urban areas to get these opportunities. As compared to the rural areas, which are thinly and sparsely populated, cities are densely populated and achieve economies of scale. In a study conducted in India on factors for rural – urban migration, Sinha (1983) collected data from 150 respondents using questionnaire which were administered on youth migrants in the urban centers. The study found that the employment opportunities generated in the manufacturing sector is one of the significant factors in the rural-urban migration. This finding though relevant in the case of India may not be useful in Nigeria. This is because while India may be experiencing expanded job opportunities in the manufacturing sector, this may not be true of Nigeria as statistics

released by the Nigerian Bureau of Statistics, (2018) has indicated a 0.2% decrease in the manufacturing sector. This is largely due to the effects of economic recession in the country. It may also be relevant to note that rural to urban migration continues to grow even in the presence of high unemployment rate in cities.

Various social factors also work in the rural to urban migration phenomenon to influence migrants. In this subsection some of the key factors will be discussed.

A survey conducted by Brockerhoff and Eu (1993) in Burundi, Ghana, Kenya, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal, Togo and Uganda has identified education, marital status, age, ethnicity and number of births as determinates of rural out-migration. Using questionnaire that was administered on 4410 respondents, the survey concluded that more schooling increases the likelihood of rural-urban migration, depicting a strong relationship between education and migration. In addition, long-term migration is more prevalent among rural women with less number of children. On the other hand, age has been identified as a determinant factor for migration. This study has however focused only on factors of rural out – migration mentioning nothing about its effects on agricultural production; a gap which the present study intends to fill.

A survey conducted by Sirin and Terry (2014) in four towns of Mali and for a 90% of out-migrants from the river valley of Senegal depicted that majority of rural-out migration occurs within the age range of 25 or older. With respect to the relationship between marital status and migration, the study established that no generalization can be drawn despite some cases that African women leave their rural origin to join their husbands in the urban cities with secured jobs. The survey also reported that poor

economic opportunities of rural areas has been a considerable factor for out-migration taking into account the case of Northern Ghana where migration towards the prosperous coastal towns is prevalent. This study has further exposed the major weakness of most studies on youth rural urban migration namely; the overt emphasis on factors for migration without seeking to investigate the consequences of such on the families of the migrants. This narrow scope of such studies does not warrant a wholistic view of issues related to youth rural urban migration. The need for a study that will have such an outlook that will address a wide range of issues relating to youth rural urban migration especially agricultural productivity, cost of hiring labour, coping strategies and family relationship engendered among families of migrants was the driving force behind the present study.

Climatic change as a factor in youth rural urban migration has also been identified. One of such works in this review was undertaken by Ivande (2014). She undertook a PhD research study at the University of Ibadan on trends in social, climatic and technological changes in Agriculture among the Tiv of Nigeria. The study was designed to ascertain changes in the farming systems; ascertain the frequency of use of the technologies/intervention programmes introduced during contact with colonialism; ascertain changes in the socio-cultural practices, inter and intra- labour roles and social organization of labour and capital in agriculture; identify perceived factors that bring about changes and constraints to agricultural production; and ascertain the living conditions of the people that can be attributed to their agricultural operation. The study was conducted among the Tiv in Benue, Nasarawa and Taraba States, Nigeria. The population of the study comprised all the farm families in Benue, Taraba and Nasarawa

States. A sample size of 315 farm families was selected. Also, Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) were held with 5-10 experienced farmers in each of the selected blocks. Data for this study were collected through the use of structured interview schedule and FGD and were analyzed with the use of frequencies, percentage, percentage change, ranking, mean, factor analysis, t-test and presented in Tables and Charts. Upon completion of the analysis of the empirical data it was found that changes in climatic conditions have precipitated clashes between farmers and herdsmen who migrate from distant lands for livestock pasture in Benue State. The study added that when such clashes occur, the youth in the affected areas are often displaced and may tend to migrate to the cities. The major weakness of the study lies in the smallness of the sample selected upon which data was collected and analyzed and findings drawn. A study covering three States of Benue, Taraba and Nassarawa would have used a far larger sample of subjects that would have ensured wider coverage of views and opinions among respondents thereby enhancing quality of the study. The use of 315 farm families limits the strength of the work.

Connell, Dasgupta and Lipton (1976) have also found that due to the prolong conflict and terrorist activities in Jammu and Kashmir, a large number of Kashmiri families have migrated to other parts of the country, especially in cities, like Delhi. In a study undertaken among rural communities of Jammu using 720 families that were affected by war, it was established that over 80% of the respondents to the questionnaire gave war as reason for migrating to the city of Delhi. But the pertinent questions remain; what then becomes the fate of those left behind? Who takes care of them? How do they survive? Such questions and many more can only be comprehensively answered when a study of this nature as the present one is being conducted.

2.3.2 The Extent of Implication of Youth Rural - Urban Migration on Labour Cost in Benue State

The cost of human labour affects the use of farmland in the traditional farming system. Since agriculture in Benue State is manually done, human labour is required in all production processes, accounting for about 90 per cent of all farm operations. A study carried out by Mgbakor, Uzendu and Usifo (2014) in Aniocha South local government Area of Delta found youth rural – urban migration to be a potent factor in the rise of cost of labour. Using 210 respondents drawn from 14 communities, the study further found that labour shortages generates scarcity which in turn brings about hike in the unit cost of hiring labour. The study then recommended that mechanized agricultural practices be introduced so that the rural farmers can hire them. This study has been faulted on a number of grounds. Firstly, the study covers just a local government area and as such its findings are limited and cannot be generalized for a larger population. Furthermore its recommendation that mechanized agriculture be introduced for the farmers without stating how the equipment will get to the farmers and whether they will be capable to hire it leaves much to be desired. A good policy recommendation of this nature ought to specify who, how and the ways to implement it since similar previous efforts have failed. This represents a serious shortcoming which the present study intends to fill. With this trend, most farmers have found it increasingly difficult to afford the high cost of labour. Even when some can afford it, labour is not readily available. Since more youths migrate to urban areas for better standard of living, many aged people are left to perform all types of farm work.

Youth rural urban migration has been found to affect labour cost negatively. As youths migrate out to look for jobs in the cities, the stock of available labour is depleted and

pressure on the available labour results into price hikes. Usman (2006), reported high cost of labour resulting from increased rural urban migration of able-bodied young men. In a study conducted in Bacita, kwara State, Usman (2006), used secondary data from 430 respondents to arrive at his findings. Muller (1985) asserted that the desire by young people to make quick money has made many young men to abandon agriculture and seek salaried jobs in the cities.

The two efforts above, though commendable have some serious drawbacks. High cost of labour is not just a product of scarcity arising from youth rural urban migration. It may be as a result of excessive demand on the stock of available labour even in the midst of plenty. Under such condition, migration only serves as an exacerbating factor of price rise for labour cost. Secondly, not all youths who move to the cities looking for jobs always get them. Some get to towns and finding no jobs resorts to criminality. The findings by Muller (1985) becomes a nudity and of no effect.

A study conducted by Ukeje and Obiechina (2013) found that in most villages in Eastern Nigeria only old men and women are left behind since the youth have migrated to the urban centers; a phenomenon that has caused labour hike. The study whose area of coverage was the entire Eastern Nigeria used 1560 families for questionnaire administration and 34 indepth interviews. Using descriptive statistical tools the study unravels that some of the youth sent monies to their parents to hire labourers for farm work. The study further found that most of these monies were diverted and used for some other purposes they were not meant for. The major shortcoming of this work is its inability to clearly bring out those other purposes which remitted monies were used for. A further probe into those other purposes would have been significant proof that monies

remitted were diverted to other areas other than agriculture. Thus, a study by Akpete (2015) found that many farm families with male migrants to the cities send monies to their wives and the inability of such wives getting labour to engage in clearing and cultivation of land makes them to move into processing of farm products and other value added activities including moving agricultural products to the cities for sale. This does not in any way represent diversion of remitted monies.

According to Mbah, Ezeano, and Agada (2016), the immediate consequence of the inappropriate use and diversion of remitted monies by families of migrants is a fall in productivity of crops and rise in labour costs. Mbah *et al* (2016) collected data from families in Benue State using survey and analyzed same using descriptive statistics. The objective of the study was to determine the effects of youth rural urban migration on cost of production of tuber crops such as yams, cassava and potatoes in Benue State. The study found the cost of production of these crops to have risen significantly within a period of one year when youth out migration was witnessed. The major shortcoming of this study is that the time frame of one year used by the study to measure rise in cost of production of these crops is too small. To meaningfully determine effects of youth rural urban migration on cost of production of tuber crops, one expects the study to cover at least five years so as to ascertain whether the effects were not only momentarily for that season. This shortcoming pointed out above limits the usefulness of the study in effective policy decisions by stakeholders. The present study has however used a longer time scope (1976 - 2018) and as such its findings may stand out to be more valid in terms of policy implications. Richards (1985) noted that out migration of youths has led to increased participation of under aged children in agricultural production. He explains that scarcity

of labour in the rural areas has forced families to use under aged children on farms work for wages, which are used in supporting their families. This assertion however cannot be taken seriously since no empirical data was collected to validate the claim.

According to Nmadu, Eze and Jirgi (2012), 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. In a study on the determinants of risk status of small scale farmers in Niger state, Nmadu *et al* (2012) collected data from 342 small scale farmers using simple random sampling to arrive at their findings. The study further found that youth rural urban migration also slows down the pace of development of the rural areas. The study has its pitfalls. The methodology used by the study is not explicitly stated. The study failed to state how its data was collected, the instruments used, and how the data was analyzed.

Available statistics on cost of labour over a ten year period in Benue State has shown significant hikes in labour per unit of land. A survey conducted by the Department of Animal and Crop Production, University of Agriculture Makurdi, on cost of labour over a ten year period (2006-2015) shows that the cost of producing crops such as yams, guinea corn and millet has been on steady increase as indicated on figure 2.1.

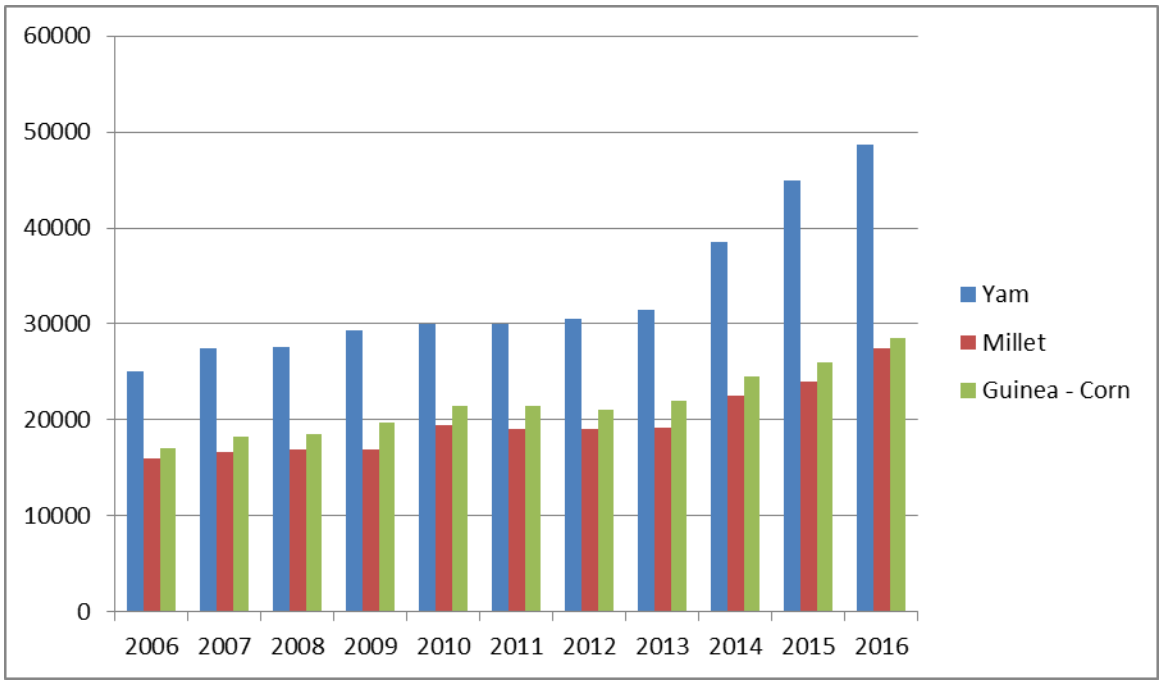

Figure 2.1: Component Bar - Chart Showing Cost of Hiring Human Labour for Production per Hectare of three Crops in the Study Area between 2006 and 2016 (in thousands of Naira)

Source: Obtained from the Department of Animal and Crop Production, University of Agriculture, Makurdi, (2016).

From figure 2.1, it can be seen that the cost of production of yam, millet and Guinea corn in Benue State has been on steady increase. Beginnings from 2006, production cost for the various products have increased significantly. The implication is that rural families now spend more money hiring labour. Also the family labour which the rural families depend upon for farming activities is reduced drastically due to migration of the youth from the rural areas and competition over available labour has increased unit cost of labour. Migration of the youths from the rural areas has also placed a greater burden on the farmers. For a farmer to cover the same area of land as when he had extra assistance, he must work much longer hours thus depriving themselves of sometime of leisure or participation in various social activities. The fact however remains that if concerted efforts towards mitigating the tide of youth rural urban migration are not made, the

effects of the phenomenon on cost of production may drive many peasant families out of agricultural production. Such a scenario will create problems of food shortages for the State and hence, the nation. The present study therefore represents ongoing efforts in this direction.

2.3.3 The Implications of Youth Rural Urban Migration on Agricultural Productivity of Peasant Families in Benue State

Surveys conducted on the implications of rural-urban migration on the development of local economies in Sub-Saharan Africa show different results and the direct and indirect effects vary from country to country. One of the early empirical works reviewed on the effects of youth rural urban migration on agricultural productivity was that done by Mburugu in 1986. The central thesis of the work was that youth rural urban migration affects agricultural productivity negatively. Data was collected from a sampling frame of 4328 farm families in eight villages using simple random sampling to arrive at a sample of 236 respondents who were then administered with questionnaire. The aim of the study was to determine the effects of youth rural urban migration on the quantity of three crops namely rice, maize and millet that were produced in woldia province. The study found that the high level of migration among the youths from rural to urban centers has affected food production, thereby causing the problem of food security. It was found that the crop most affected was maize followed by rice and then millet. The youths who are the productive group in rural areas migrate to urban centers leaving behind the aged and children who are weak and cannot engage in farm work. Thus, agriculture and rural development suffer set back as a result of youth migration. The study then recommends provision of rural infrastructure as a way out of the dilemma. The major shortcoming of

this study is that it failed to state how its data was analyzed and this constitute a set back to the validity of the results thereby limiting the extent of acceptability of the findings.

Chikaire, Nnadi, Atoma, Egwuonwu and Echetama (2012) conducted a study in Ethiope - East area of Delta State and found that one of the impacts of rural-urban migration is a rapid deterioration of the rural economy leading to chronic poverty and food insecurity. This arises mainly due to excessive drain of youth from the rural populace thus leaving only the old and children to constitute the labour force of the rural area. The study therefore recommended that for any meaningful development to take place in agriculture and rural areas, the youths who are educated and active need to remain in the rural areas to initiate ideas that will lead to the progress and development of agriculture. The major problem with this study is that the researcher failed to outline clearly the methodology used in the conduct of the research that produced those results and upon which recommendations were made. No outline of the sampling procedure, data collection methods and procedure for how the collected data was analyzed. These shortcomings constitute a major setback to the study.

A study conducted in Northern Nigeria by Shimada (1993), showed that rural farmers with proximity to urban locations are able to commute for a part time employment without leaving their farms. In a study conducted in Kano State, Shimada (1993) used 215 heads of rural families who were administered with questionnaire. The analysis was done using SPSS software. The study found that usually farmers living closer to the city leave their homes in the morning and come back by evening to monitor progress on their farm work. Another study conducted in Mali by Brockenhoff and Eu (1993), on the other hand, shows that wealthier urban residents control the means of farm production such as

tractors and mills and then access rural land via market transactions. In a study in Mali Tahoda rural province, Brockenhoff and Eu (1993), used a sample of 267 respondents to administer questionnaire which were analyzed using percentages and frequencies. The study found that small scale farmers sell their plots of land to the wealthier urban people and search for a wage labor employment particularly among the young generation. The two efforts above have their shortcomings. It can be observed that migrants to city on a temporary basis represents no threat to agricultural production since they work on temporary basis in the cities and would come back to engage in agricultural activities. The findings of Shimada (1993) therefore do not reveal any threat to agricultural production.

The effect of migration on agriculture and livelihoods of rural families in less developed regions in general depends on different factors. Ogunlela and Mukthar (2009) found that the pattern of migration, the length of time spent out of 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 heads previously as some of the factors.

According to International Fund for Agricultural Development (2007), outmigration can also cause the drain of skills and the loss of innovative community members from rural areas. This usually drains the brain from the rural areas that are supposed to initiate progressive ideas for agricultural development of the rural areas. Surma (1995) found that rural urban migration has made the youth to lose traditional farming values and practices. In a study in Benue State, Surma established that, the traditional farming practice whereby a matured young man has to know how to make a yam heap and “Dechi”; (the

first line on a yam farm) as a sign of maturity and readiness for marriage is fast disappearing into oblivion. He lamented that such practices no longer exist as youths who migrate to the cities are usually influenced by the ways of life of the city. The finding of Surma (1995) depicts the rotten state of cultural practices of most developing societies in the face of urbanization and globalization. In many African societies today, such practices are no longer found as youths prefer to imbibe western cultures in the name of civilization. With specific reference to youth rural urban migration, the moment a youth moves to the urban center, he detaches him/herself from the practices of the people. Identifying with the people he left in the village becomes a problem. Under such a scenario, the youth sends nothing to members of his family left behind. This affects family activities especially agriculture.

2.3.4. The Nature of Family Relationships Engendered by Youth Rural – Urban Migration

The family according to Eddiefloyed (2011), has undergone transformations. These are in the areas of structure and functions. The first structural transformation is in terms of family size. The size of the family, the intactness of the family (i.e. whether or not couples live together or are separated or divorced), the pattern of authority and division of labour within the family, all make up the structure of the family. According to Mbah *et al*, (2016), size and composition of family alters family relationships in the face of rural urban migration. The larger the family size, the greater is the probability to migrate. Such migratory trends affect family relationships. As the migrants move, they leave behind wives, children and other relatives in the care of parents. In an extended family system, a male member can migrate leaving his children and wife at home as the other members of

the family can take care of them, whereas, in a nuclear family, such support system is not available and therefore, the probability of migration is quite low. Extended families are better able to promote migration than the nuclear families. In a study conducted in Benue State on the effect of youth rural urban migration on families, Mbah *et al* (2016) found that the broad structure of extended families allows and encourages the migration of its members as a means to create investment opportunities for the family and add to the family wealth. The study further found that, more kin contacts in cities are available to the extended families, with their wider kinship network that would facilitate migration. This findings of Mbah *et al* (2016), when put into practice, is bound to generate a lot of controversies. In the first place, extended families though large may not be supportive of each other as portrayed by the findings. In the urban areas especially where individualism is practiced, extended family kins are primarily concerned about their immediate family. Secondly, the finding that extended families take care of relative's wives and children when they migrate to the urban centers is unfounded. In many societies of Africa, globalization and westernization have ensured that extended family arrangements are increasingly being jettisoned for smaller nuclear arrangements within the extended family which fits better into the modern pattern of life. The old form of extended family structure and relationships with its numerous obligations is increasingly been abandoned.

Family conflicts also alter family structure through migration of its members. In bigger families, occurrence of conflicts among family members is higher than the smaller families, which sometimes results in breaking of families or sometimes migration of some family members to avoid day-to-day altercation. In a study on Tiv family conception of modernity and change, Wegh (1998), found that the Tiv concept of large

extended family is gradually giving way to smaller nuclear ones. Kin relationships are increasingly moving towards acceptability of smaller compartments. The large Tiv family which use to reside in one large circular pattern of rounds thatched houses is been gradually paving way. According to Atagher (2006), younger people desire their freedom, independence and self determination. The quest for independence by young persons from traditional authority and discipline may motivate them to migrate to the urban areas.

Since the last century, there has been a noticeable trend towards the reduction in the size of the family all over the world. This trend is as truer of Western societies as it is of non-western societies. Very large families which were a common sight in that century appear to be phasing out in the present century. The governments of many countries of the world are known in the more recent past to have pursued a deliberate policy of holding down birth rates. In Nigeria for instance, a national policy of four-children-limit per family was at one time aggressively mounted and pursued by the federal government. Ajir (2012) stated that part of the motive behind the official control of family size (birth rate) in many countries was perhaps to stem the dangerous trend towards overpopulation and the concomitant socio-economic consequences of population explosion. He explained that the decline in overall family size has been achieved largely through the popularization of birth control measures such as the use of contraceptive devices. Massive sex education programmes among the illiterate and poor segments of the society has also played a major role. These are some of the means through which the contemporary norm on small family has been enforced.

Allen (1971) found that the change in family size has occurred as a consequence of the combined influence of changing technology, changing economics, and changing societal values. He argued that societal evolution from an illiterate, agricultural society to a literate, industrialized, specialized society, a phenomenon occasioned by change in the technology of production, has devalued the worth of children as an economic asset, and has transformed them into a heavy economic burden. Wegh (1998) insisted that in today's industrialized societies, family prosperity and economic comfort is a function of the amount of education and specialized skills possessed by family members and not necessarily the number of children born to a family. He explained that one highly educated member of a family alone can support the family much more than a dozen illiterate persons in a family can. Largeness of family has economic value or advantage only in the agricultural society of the past where large numbers of children meant more hands for the farm and therefore greater harvest and greater family prosperity.

A number of changes have also been experienced in the family. These changes relate to economic, sexual regulation, reproduction, socialization and protection of family members. The economic functions of the family have changed a great deal. A century ago, the family served as the unit of economic production and consumption. All economic production such as farming were based within the family. Members of each family cooperated among themselves in providing labour for farm work and the resulting harvest was likewise shared collectively among them.

Today, many changes have taken place. Ade (2014) found that the family, except with respect to farm production only, is no longer the basic unit of economic production. Other units of economic production have evolved and these have taken over economic

production from the family. Ade (2014) in a study conducted in Dekina, Kogi State using IDI that were conducted on thirty eight families, established that currently the family can be described merely as a unit of economic consumption only. The study further found that new units of economic production are the shop, the factory and the office. It was further established that only few families are now engaged in agricultural production while the majority of families have shifted to the commercial shops, factories, and offices. Even as not all families are involved as before in agricultural production, those that are involved, remain not self-sufficient like the agricultural family of the last century was. Today's farm family depends on these other units of economic production for the satisfaction of some of their needs. Moreover, the family is no longer united by cooperative farm labour. In todays modem industrialized society, family members work separately on different economic activities and at different locations and sites. The findings of Ade (2014) may be faulted on a number of grounds. The findings are full of sweeping statements. To conclude that families no longer cooperate economically is overgeneralization. In rural communities, family units still cooperate in producing their food needs. In such families, the mother, father and children come together to clear, till and cultivate the land for use by the family. Secondly, the notion that the present day families depend on some other units for their needs is a misrepresentation and distortion of history. Interdependence has been there even with hunter – gatherer societies. In fact no one member of the society can attain absolute independence from the other.

There is also Change in the Sexual Regulation Function of the family. In the traditional societies of the past the family constituted the only socially approved context within which sexual appetites and procreation could be fulfilled. In accordance with this norm

sexual expression and procreation outside the family institution was very rare. In today's modem society however, with its permissive values, deviant behaviour codes, and a sophisticated sex technology, it cannot be safely claimed that most sexual intercourse occur within the family set up. In a study on sexual reproductive roles among teenage boys and girls in Makurdi metropolis, Alumun(2017) used stratified sampling to select a sample of 105 teenage boys and girls to whom he administered questionnaire to obtain information. At the end of the analysis of the data collected, it was found that much of the leisure time of that youthful population is spent in the pursuit of romantic adventures or sexual exploits. The extent of sexual promiscuity manifest in modem society is further reflected in the findings of a number of studies conducted by social scientists. A study carried out in Cape Town, South Africa by Mbungo (2012) reported that 80 percent of all sexual intercourse took place between unmarried couples while 20 percent took place between married people. Mbungo (2012), interviewed 45 miners who were purposively sampled in Cape Town to arrive at the result. This is an indication that most sexual expression in that society occurred outside marital arrangements. Another survey by Akintola, (2018) indicate that well over 90 percent of college students endorsed premarital sex between persons who are in love, while over two-thirds of the sample approved sex between persons who are not particularly in love.

The findings above, points to the fact that more sexual activities takes place outside the family set up in the society today, an indication of the failure of the family in carrying out its sexual regulatory functions.

Changes in the reproductive functions of the family have also been noticed over the period. In all societies the family is the means by which society reproduces itself. It does

so by replacing dead and aged members with new and vibrant ones. This function is of very critical importance because without the family the society would go into extinction. The importance of the reproductive function of the family is on the decline. This is because there is a progressive trend towards a general preference for small families, a trend in which people opt for few numbers of children or no children at all, rather than having a family full of children. Studies have shown that the smaller families afford people greater ecological advantage. Nye et al (1970) conducted a study on the relationship between family size and stress. He found that smaller families tend to enhance family stability and harmony, and are most satisfactory to spouses. Liebman (1970) in another study found that even when income, education, and occupation are controlled; children in smaller families are found to be more healthy, creative and intelligent.

One must however comment that the two findings above are very typical of developed societies of the world. In the developing societies of Africa, significant value is placed on children such that a family without children is ridiculed. This is the type of society where this study is situated; amongst peasant Benue communities that place so much emphasis on number of children.

Nwame (2013) have also indentified Change in the Protective Functions amongst families. In a study conducted among the Nyame people of Ethiopia, Nwame found that in the traditional society of by-gone history the traditional family performed very important protective functions for the well-being of its members. Some of these functions he identified include caring and providing for its members, protection from economic hardships, physical attacks, victimization and from health disasters. The traditional

family recognized as its fundamental responsibility the task of ensuring the overall well-being of its members. The traditional family not only acknowledged this social obligation to its members, but also possessed the structures and resources that were necessary to cater to these needs or to provide such protections. It nursed its sick members, provided shelter and comfort for the aged, made life more comfortable and tolerable for the handicapped ones and so on.

Today, the capacity of the family to cater to these needs have declined. In the first instance, the average urban environment is not conducive for such task. It lacks the required spatial arrangement and facilities to take care of its handicapped members. Consequently, the hospitals, nursing homes and other facilities have come to take over from the families the caring of its sick members. The care for the aged has also been taken over from the family by specialized homes for the elderly. Thus, many of the protective functions which the traditional family performed have been taken over by other institutions of modem society. Today, we have such institutions as the home for the aged, mental institutions, unemployment and welfare schemes and social security schemes, home for the handicapped, etc which takes care of the vulnerable members of the family.

2.3.4.1. Coping Strategies Adopted by Families to Mitigate the Challenges of Youth Rural Urban Migration

Rural families adopt several coping strategies aimed at mitigating the challenges faced by increased youth rural urban migration. The first coping strategy identified was remittances. Ukeje and Obiechina (2013) found that, in many rural areas where labour shortages are rampant, families cope by hiring labour to work on their farms. In a study conducted in Nigeria on the role of workers' remittances in economic growth, Yohanna

(2014) found that many migrants to the cities send money to their families for farming activities, which is not used in hiring labour. Though money may be sent to families left at home, the pertinent question is how much of this money is used in hiring labour in the face of many other pressing demands?

Akpete (2015) found that most monies sent to families at home are used for other purposes other than hiring labourers to work on their farms. In a study conducted in Lagos, Akpete (2015) used FGD which were conducted in three local government areas of Lagos State. The focus of the study was to determine the impact of Remittances on the agricultural development. The study found that 75% of monies sent by migrants to their relatives in the rural areas for farming activities were used on other purposes other than farming. Ofuoku (2015) carried out a study in Delta State, Nigeria, to investigate the effect of rural-urban remittances on agricultural production. Twenty percent (20%) of the registered arable crop farmers in Delta State were selected to arrive at 131 respondents for the study. Questionnaire and structured interview schedule were used to collect data from the respondents. Descriptive, inferential statistics and contingency tables were used to analyze the collected data. It was found that the remittances from rural-urban migrants did not make any meaningful contribution to arable crop production. It was recommended that governments should make the rural areas attractive to young school learners/graduates, embark on enlightenment programme to expose the youths to agriculture related self-employment opportunities in the rural areas; and create enabling environment for the youths to operate as self-employed individuals in the rural areas. The major shortcoming noted in this study is methodological. First the researcher was not explicit enough on how his study subjects were selected. Second, he failed to state the

quantum of the remittances that was sent by migrants to the farmers. The failure to explicitly state this leaves the readers in a limbo in their quest to determine how much of what was sent that was actually utilized since monies sent for agricultural purposes may be diverted. These shortcomings have affected the outcome of his work; a problem which the present study sought to remedy.

Another study was conducted by Iheke, Nwaru and Onyenweaku (2013) on the impact of migrant remittances on the technical efficiency of arable crop farm families in South Eastern Nigeria. The study was designed to examine the impact of migrant remittances on the technical efficiency smallholder arable crop farmers in South Eastern Nigeria. A multi-stage random sampling technique was used in selecting the sample. Primary data collected from 120 respondents comprising 60 migrants' remittance receiving farmers and non-receiving farmers respectively were used for the study. Data collected were analyzed using multiple regression analysis employing the stochastic frontier production function analysis in a single stage maximum likelihood estimation method and z test statistic. The t test revealed that the non-remittance receiving farmers were more technically efficient than the remittance receiving in the use of farm resources. It was recommended that there is the need to encourage the remittance receiving farmers to pursue efficiency in resource utilization by exhibiting higher levels of entrepreneurial capabilities. Policies and programmes that would help them increase their efficiency should be put in place that would encourage harnessing and optimizing the use of remittance income, as well as reallocation and redistribution of resources. This study has found the recommendations of this work very useful. In the study area remittances sent to s do not improve their conditions and this was envisaged may have arisen from inefficient

handling. Most migrants send monies and other packages including fertilizer, herbicides etc to their families but the usage to which these are put to remains a mystery.

Uza (2008) found diversification as a form of entrepreneurial managerial competence farmers employ to reduce dependence on agriculture as a source of income. In a study in Mbagwen community located on the outskirts of Makurdi metropolis Uza (2008) found engagement in business activities by farmers as a major survival strategy especially those that have migrated to the town following skirmishes between farmers and herdsmen. Ivande (1997) found that among rural communities of Benue State, businesses engaged by the people include traditional cloth weaving and dyeing, trading in clothes, eateries, locally brewed drinking parlors, tailoring, beer sales, barbing and hair dressing as well as black-smiting.

The two findings above have their shortcomings. Both did not state explicitly the methodological procedures used in arriving at their findings. Such a drawback does not guarantee replication of findings by other scholars. Secondly, the involvement of farmers in multiple non-farming economic activities is an indication that farming as an economic activity is no longer satisfying their basic needs. It could also be due to the seasonality of farming operations and high cost associated with hiring labour. Farmers therefore diversify so as to raise enough money to hire labour. Additionally, some having left their villages due to skirmishes may have gone into other businesses other than agriculture out of necessity. These are possibilities which one expect the studies above to have further clarify. The failure to do this has diminished the net worth of their findings.

Atoo (2011) found communal cooperation (*Tom lohon*) as another coping strategy adopted by rural families. In a study conducted in konshisha, Atoo (2011) selected a sample of thirty families for questionnaire administration. The data then collected was analyzed using percentages, frequencies and tables. He found that under communal cooperation as practiced by farm families, a family within a community may invite members of other families to come and assist complete a particular farm task. On the appointed day, each invited family sends a representative to stand in for them. The study further observed that through this method, families with aging and ailing members are also able to cultivate, weed and harvest parcels of land. Other coping strategies identified by the study include the engagement of its members in civil service jobs, weaving of traditional fabrics, tailoring, hair barbing and weaving salons, and local food restaurants.

Though the work of Atoo (2011) has revealed many coping strategies adopted by farmers, the study has its short comings. Firstly, the sample used is very small to warrant any meaningful generalizations. In a study involving an entire Local Government Area, one expects the sample to be larger than that. Secondly, the literacy level in the area is low. This makes the questionnaire unsuitable for data collection. Apart from these methodological shortcomings, one questions the efficacy of communal cooperation as a coping strategy in this era of individualism. This is because families are increasingly becoming nuclear in outlook and as such communal cooperation which works better in extended family arrangements may not succeed in the present dispensation.

2.3.5 Government Policies\Programmes Aimed at Restoring the Lost Glory of Agriculture

Government in a bid to stem youth rural urban migration has introduced numerous policies aimed at curbing the tide of youth rural urban migration. This section of the study is dedicated to reviewing these efforts. The aim is to ascertain to what extent each policy has been successful and recommend appropriate policy alternatives and actions. Agriculture as an indigenous occupation in Nigeria has gone through various phases of development. This development is an effect of government policies and state approach to agriculture which either demeans or heightens the impact of the Sector in the nation. According to the Central Bank of Nigeria (2016), the sector in the 1960's contributed 85% of the Nigeria foreign exchange earnings, 90% employment generation, and about 80% to gross domestic product. Available statistics (Iwuchukwu and Igbokwe, 2016) also confirms that at independence in 1960, the contribution of agriculture to the GDP was about 60%, which is typical for developing agrarian nations. When compared with the present situation one can reasonably state that agricultural productivity is on the decline. This declining fortune has prompted government to initiate several agricultural policies and programs to enhance agricultural productivity in the country.

It is generally accepted that, the persistent failures of most agricultural programmes in Nigeria have revealed the basic weakness of agricultural policies and the inability of administrations to solve the basic and fundamental problems of agricultural development. Ivande (2014) have found that Nigeria's agricultural policies and programmes have undergone changes especially in the post colonial era. In a study conducted in Benue, Nassarawa and Taraba States on trends in social and technological changes in agriculture among the Tiv of Nigeria, Ivande found that these changes have been a mere reflection of

changes in government or administration. This is because these policies and programmes vary only in nomenclature and organizational network. They emphasize almost same objectives like: to provide food for the inhabitants of the nation (food security and sufficiency) and export excess to other countries and to provide rural dwellers and farmers with extension services, agricultural support and rural development services. Using a population of 315 farm families across the three states of Benue, Nassarawa and Tariba Ivande (2014) found that notwithstanding all the policies and laudable programmes with challenging themes, Nigeria is yet to achieve food security. She found that some policies and programmes were positively impactful while some made no difference. She found that notwithstanding the plethora of policies, agriculture continues to suffer from inertia associated with these policies and programme reformation that pervade Nigeria. The major shortcoming of this effort is the failure of the study to analyze the various policy documents uncovered. Such analysis would have identified the weakness of each of these policies that led to its failure. This would have led to recommendations that will improve on the pitfalls noticed.

Colonial Era

The potential of agriculture for propelling Nigeria's economic development was recognized by the colonial government when policies were put in place to encourage output growth and to extract the surpluses there from. Iganiga and Unemhilin (2011) stated that the predominant theme of development in this period was the surplus extraction philosophy or policy whereby immense products were generated from the rural areas to satisfy the demand for raw materials in metropolitan Britain. This early interest

of the extraction policy was on forest resources and agricultural exports like cocoa, coffee, rubber, groundnut, oil palm etc.

Mtswenem (1985) found that the establishment of the Department of Botanical Research in 1893 in the former Western Nigeria was the first notable activity of the era. The Department was saddled with the responsibility of conducting research in Agriculture. He further documented that in 1905, the British Cotton Growers Association acquired 10.35 square kilometers of land at the site now called Moor Plantation, Ibadan for growing cotton to feed the British Textile Mills. In 1910, Moor Plantation, Ibadan became the headquarters of the Department of Agriculture in Southern Nigeria, and a Department of Agriculture was established in the North in 1912. In 1921, a unified Department of Agriculture was formed in Nigeria, after the amalgamation of the North and the South. Oji-Okoro (2011) further noted that the major policy of the Central Department of Agriculture was to increase production of export crops for the British market which was ready to absorb it for its industrial growth. Extension activities were therefore directed towards increasing efficiency in crop production and marketing. Regulations were made to set and enforce standards in export crop production. The colonial period also witnessed the establishment of the Niger Agricultural Project in 1949 with the aims of producing groundnut for export and guinea-corn for local consumption. It was also meant to relieve world food shortage, demonstrate better farming techniques and increase productivity of Nigeria's agriculture. The project was sited near Mokwa (Niger State) at an area which was suitable for mechanized food crop production. It is worthy of note at this juncture that most of the efforts made by the colonial authorities was for their interest namely; to produce raw materials for their industrial development. Consequently, no meaningful

effort was geared towards meeting the domestic economic needs of the Nigerian populace.

Atagher (2006) found that under the colonial government, livestock which were predominantly nomadic got a fair share of development with interest directed at the health and hygiene of the domesticated cattle. In 1924, the Nigerian Veterinary Department was established with its headquarters at Zaria with a small veterinary laboratory established in Vom for the production of rinderpest serum. A fisheries organization was established in 1941 as a Fisheries Development Branch of the Agricultural Department of the Colonial Office and a Senior Agricultural Officer was appointed to conduct a survey of the industry and its possibilities. These deliberate efforts at developing the country were made during the Second World War because of the naval blockade of the high seas. The headquarters was sited at Apese village and later at Onikan in Lagos, from where, assisted by a part-time voluntary officer, preliminary experiments in fish culture in brackish water ponds at Onikan were carried out and surveys were conducted on the canoe fisheries of Apese village and Kuramo waters around Victoria Island, Lagos.

According to Ayoola, (2001), a number of documented agricultural policies were made without concrete objectives, goals and institutional framework. In a study on assessment of colonial agricultural policies in Nigeria, Ayoola (2001) used reviewed available documents to arrive at his findings. He identified documented policies of the colonial era to include the Forest Policy of 1937 and 1945, Agricultural Policy of 1946, Policy for the Marketing of Oils, Oil Seeds and Cotton 1948, Forest Policy for Western Region 1952, Agricultural Policy of1952, Policy for Natural Resources (undated) and Western Nigeria

Policy for Agricultural and Natural Resources (1959). The shortcoming of this study is that there was no effort to critically examine the policies since there was no clear cut policy outline of the goals, expected outcomes and policy direction. One also must observe that more than half of the policies in the era focused on forest matters while less emphasis was made on food and animal production. Furthermore, most of these policies were made without proper institutional arrangement, programmes, specific projects, strategies, goals or targets and specific objectives geared towards realization of the dreams of the policies. This can be proven by the fact that there was only one documented agricultural scheme that evolved towards the end of the era (early 1960s) termed the Farm Settlement Scheme.

The Post-Colonial Era

The Post –colonial era focused on a more equitable growth in agriculture and policies to enhance this were implemented particularly in the pursuit of an export-led growth. Awokuse (2009), noted that there was a demarcation of the country into the Western Region (cocoa), Northern Region (groundnut) and Eastern Region (oil palm). Adejuwon (2012) found that the 1962-1968 development plan was Nigeria's first national plan. He observed that among several objectives, it emphasized the introduction of more modern agricultural methods through farm settlements, co-operative (nucleus) plantations, supply of improved farm implements (e.g. hydraulic hand presses for oil palm processing) and a greatly expanded agricultural extension service. In a study conducted in Lagos on the role of economic planning in the agricultural development of Nigeria, Adejuwon (2012) used IDI which were conducted on 125 staff of the state and federal ministry of agriculture to

arrive at conclusions. He noted that the first half of the 1960's witnessed the era of the groundnut pyramids of the North, the palm-oil of the east, and the cocoa plantation of South-West Nigeria. It should however be noted that the Nigeria's agriculture sector successes were achieved after independence mainly because of the legacies of British colonial rule. The administrative system coordinated by the Governor-General used an export driven policy system to produce raw materials for the export market in servicing British industries and European markets. Thus, mechanized agriculture was practiced for the aim of maintaining European interest, the Commonwealth, and British interest. One must also not fail to mention that during the years toward the end of the first decade after independence, it became clear that Nigeria's government could not manage or cope with the Westminster bureaucratic structure bequeathed to it due to the absence and malfunction of necessary institutions. In addition, the civil war which began in July 1967 furthered a geometric decline in the problems of agricultural development in Nigeria.

The early 1960s have also witnessed the establishment of several agricultural research institutes and their extension research liaison services. Some of the major institutions as identified by Uza (2008) are: Agricultural Extension and Research Liaison Service (AERLS) at the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria established in 1963. The International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) established in 1967, and the International Livestock Centre for Africa (ILCA). Uza (2008) further identified some specialized development schemes initiated or implemented during this period to include:

Farm Settlement Scheme (FSS)

One the earliest agricultural polices initiated in Nigeria was the farm settlement scheme. According to Ugwu and Ihechituru (2012), the Farm Settlement Scheme was initiated by some regional governments in Nigeria and was a critical element of Western Nigeria Policy of Agricultural and Natural Resources of 1959. In an empirical study on the effects of agricultural reforms on the agricultural sector in Nigeria, Ugwu and Ihechituru (2012) used FGD and existing literature to carry out their studies. The study found that the main objective of the scheme was to settle young school leavers in a specified area of land, making farming their career thereby preventing them from moving to the urban areas in search of white collar jobs. The study further established that these settled farmers were also to serve as models in good farming systems for farmers residing in nearby villages to emulate. It was also found that the programme initiated in old western Region; aimed at solving unemployment among primary school leavers. The study further identified Policy instruments used to include agricultural extension, cooperative societies and credit facilities.

Though a good policy document, the major challenge of the scheme was that some of the settlers were too young and inexperienced in farming thus causing a high percentage of drop-outs among the settlers. The lack of understanding of the meaning and implication of the scheme by some settlers who assumed that through their participation in the scheme they would eventually get paid job also impeded the sustainability of the scheme. They were discouraged and some withdrew as soon as the allowances were not given any more. The high cost of establishing a viable farm settlement in terms of cash and staff

discouraged some of the participants. Finally, expenses made on the scheme were incurred mainly on installation of infrastructure like construction of houses, schools, markets, roads etc. for the settlers which did not directly bring about increase in agricultural output by the participants as targeted.

National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP)

The National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP) was an agricultural extension programme initiated in 1972 by the Federal Department of Agriculture during General Yakubu Gowon's regime. The programme focused on bringing about a significant increase in the production of maize, cassava, rice and wheat in the northern states through subsistence production within a short period of time. The programme was designed to spread to other states in the country after the pilot stage that was established in Anambra, Imo, Ondo, Oyo, Ogun, Benue, Plateau and Kano states. Mini –kit, production-kit and mass adoption phases were the three phases of the programme. The policy goal of NAFPP was to make Nigeria self-sufficient in food production. Consequently, land reform and mass literacy policies were recommended for farmers. It was the opinion of the initiators of this programme that target crops for accelerated production are major staple foods of Nigerians and if produced in abundance, hunger and related food crisis will be put to check. This was achieved through the introduction of high yielding varieties, use of appropriate fertilizers, agrochemicals, good storage and processing facilities, provision of credit as well as marketing outlets. In addition, several research institutes were mandated to develop improved crop varieties

and were made popular through extension agents and the use of mass media. The policy instruments included subsidy, credit, adaptive research and demonstration plots.

Williams (1999) conducted a study assessing the performance of the National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP) in Nigeria. Using FGD which targeted senior officers of the federal ministry of agriculture in Abuja, kano and Kaduna States, Williams found that the programme could not make any meaningful impact due to a number of reasons which included inability of some farmers to form co-operatives which made them left out in the programme as the programme relied on disbursement of credits and farm inputs through co-operative societies. Abrupt/premature withdrawal of funding by the Federal Government due to the introduction of another programme termed Operation Feed the Nation. Also demonstration trials done on some selected farmers' plots by the research and extension personnel did not give a true representation of the outcome of the technology or programme. In other words, it lacked farmers' participation.

Operation Feed the Nation (OFN):

This programme evolved on 21st May 1976 under the military regime of General Olusegun Obasanjo. The programme remains one of the most widely-publicized agricultural programmes in Nigeria. The programme was launched in order to bring about increased food production in the entire nation through the active involvement and participation of everybody in every discipline thereby making every person to be capable of partly or wholly feeding him or herself. Under this programme, every available piece of land in urban, sub-urban and rural areas was meant to be planted

while government provided inputs and subsidies (like agrochemicals, fertilizers, improved variety of seed/seedlings, day olds chicks, machetes, sickle, hoes etc) freely to government establishments. The OFN programme attempted to mobilize the general public to participate actively in agricultural production and ensure self-sufficiency in food production. Oji-Okoro (2011) found that the programme stimulated Nigerians to farming through the strategy used. He identified some of these strategies to include subsidized production inputs, increased bank credit to farmers, establishment of commodity boards and fixing of attractive prices for agricultural produce. There was also mass mobilization and awareness programme. Policy instruments used include, mass media, centralized input procurement, massive fertilizer subsidy and imports. In a study on the contributions of agriculture on economic development of Nigeria, Oji-Okoro (2012) conducted twenty FGDs in ten states of the country and analyzed them to arrive at his results.

The major shortcomings of this policy included the fact that Farming was done on any available piece of land irrespective of its suitability for agriculture whilst majority of the participants in the programme had little or no farming background and there was no formal or informal preparatory teaching or advice given to them on how to manage their farms. Individuals received these inputs at a subsidized rate. They practiced mono cropping instead of mixed/ relay cropping and relied on hired labour to carry out their farming activities, which resulted in high input and low output /yield per unit of land. Preference was given to government establishments and individuals in authority over the poor farmers (real producer of food) in terms of input supply. There was abundance of food in the market and less demand for the food because many people produced part or

almost whole food they consumed. The Programme addressed the problem of rising food crisis, rural-urban migration and escalating food import bills. There was no deliberate effort at encouraging farmers to export their farm yields since the local market was saturated.

Green Revolution Programme(GRP)

The programme was inaugurated by Shehu Shagari in April 1980 to increase production of food and raw materials in order to ensure food security and self-sufficiency in basic staples. Secondly, it aspired to boost production of livestock and fish in order to meet home and export needs and to expand and diversify the nation's foreign exchange earnings through production and processing of export crops. The federal government ensured the success of the programme by providing agrochemicals, improved seeds/seedlings, irrigation facilities, mechanized machine (mechanization), credit facilities, improved marketing and favourable pricing policy for the agricultural products. Policy instrument include food production plan, in put supply and subsidy, special commodity development programme, review of Agricultural credit guarantee scheme, increased resource allocation to RBDAS etc.

The policy goal of GRP had the dual purpose of curtailing food importation through boosting crop production, and promoting big mechanized farming. By 1983, another military regime toppled the civilian government and subsequently introduced the 'Go back to land' programme which aimed at making farmers out of all Nigerians.

Oluwafemi, Adedokun, Ogunleye and Oladokun (2015), in their study on contributions of agricultural policies to the growth and development of the sector found that the Green

Revolution Programme did not achieve its objective of increasing food supply because there was delay in execution of most of the projects involved in the programme. There was also no monitoring and evaluation of the projects for which huge sums of money were spent. Another drawback of the Green Revolution Programme was that politicians saw it as a programme designed to gratify them. Consequently, contracts awarded for procurements of farm inputs such as fertilizer, seedlings, pesticides etc were never executed.

Agricultural Development Projects (ADP)

ADP formerly known as Integrated Agricultural Development Projects (IADP) was earlier established in 1974 in the North East (Funtua), North west (Gusau) and North Central (Gombe) states as pilot schemes (Bevan, Collier, and Gunning. 1992.). According to Central Bank of Nigeria (1993), the idea of Agricultural Development Programmes is an offshoot of the concept of integrated agricultural and rural development. It started in 1972 in Northern Nigerian towns of Gombe and Gusau with two pilot projects assisted by the World Bank. This became necessary because of the need for the application of knowledge and skills in all the relevant areas of agriculture. This concept involved the provision of Infrastructural facilities such as roads, schools, water supply in the rural areas at the right times in required quantity to farmers.

The ADP then was the implementation organ of the state ministry of agriculture and natural resources in Gombe. It is semi-autonomous and focuses on the small farmer. It adopts the integrated rural development strategy in its operations. Kwanashie, Ajilima and Garba (1992) added that the success of the Gombe and Gusau projects encouraged

other state governments to embark on more of such projects with the assistance of the World Bank. Since then, Nigeria has continued to witness agricultural development programmes of various dimensions. It is against this background that effective extension services have been established. The earlier impressive result of the programme led to its replication in 1989 to the entire then nineteen states of the Federation. This approach to agricultural and rural development was based on collaborative efforts and tripartite arrangement of the federal government, state government and World Bank. The objectives of the programme are to bring about solution to the decrease found in agricultural productivity by sustaining domestic food supply, through massive infusion of World Bank funds. The ADPs were established to provide extension services, technical input support and rural infrastructure to the farmers/rural dwellers.

Today, the programme has grown to become the major agricultural and rural development programme existing in states in Nigeria. Daneji (2011), noted that the important features of the programme are reliance on the small scale farmers as the main people that will bring about increases in food production and the feedback information mechanism which is a decentralized decision making process that allows farm families/s to give their responses to an innovation/technology, incentive, subsidies etc according to their judgment.

One must hasten to observe that some problems that occurred in the course of executing the projects demean the success of the programme. Some of these were; Shortage of fund due to decline in oil prices that started in 1982 which led to delays in recruiting competent staff and provision of materials and facilities needed for the projects take off.

This made implementation much slower than scheduled. Secondly, ADP emphasizes more on modern input technology like sole cropping while majority of the farmers practiced mixed cropping. There was also timeliness of subsidized input supply for the programme. Also considering the fact that ADPs are still recognized, one must comment on its present problems which include: high frequency of labour mobility, limited involvement of input agencies, dwindling funding policies and counterpart funding, intricacies of technology transfer etc. It must also be noted that the closest assistance ever realized by farmers in Nigeria have come from contact with various Agricultural Development Programmes (ADPs) and the extension agents working under the Training and Visit (T and V)) system (Amalu, (1998). The Activities of ADPs in Nigeria spread over three thematic areas; provision of infrastructural rural facilities, conducting worthwhile trainings on improved agricultural technologies and supply of farm inputs to enhance the technical and economic efficiency of small farmers in general.

River Basin-Development Authorities (RBDAs) (1976)

The existing abundant water resources in the country and its potential for increasing agricultural production prompted the establishment of River Basin Development Authority (RBDA). The scheme became necessary because of persistent short rainy seasons in many parts of the country which has continued to restrict cultivation to single cropping pattern the year round. However, it was envisaged that with the establishment of various large-scale irrigation facilities the country will witnessed unprecedented multiple cropping patterns.

Larger areas were put into cultivation, while livestock and fisheries production were intensified. An evaluation study conducted by the Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN, 2009) from eight River Basin Development Authorities showed that there was an increase in the tempo of activities in 1998 when it was earlier reported that the Hadejia-Jama'are River Basin and Tiga and Challawa dams located in former Kano State could conserve enough water to irrigate land that can produce over 50% of the nations need for wheat, 30% of its need for rice, cotton and sugar cane. It was also found that it could produce several thousand tons of fish; develop livestock, poultry and hydroelectric power generation.

River Basin Development Decree was promulgated in 1976 to establish eleven River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs) (Decree 25 of 1976). The initial aim of the authorities was to boost economic potentials of the existing water bodies particularly irrigation and fishery with hydroelectric power generation and domestic water supply as secondary objectives. The objective of the programme was later extended to other areas most importantly to production and rural infrastructural development.

The major drawbacks found in the programme were: a number of the authorities grew out of proportion and the operations of some suffered from intensive political interference. Also ,substantial public funds were wasted to streamline sizes and functions of RBDAs through the disposal of their non-water assets.

Directorate of Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI)

The Directorate was initiated in Nigeria in January 1986 under General Ibrahim Babangida's administration. It was a kind of home grown social dimensions of adjustment (SDA) that was embarked upon in most sub Saharan African countries by the World Bank, African Development Bank and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). The programme was designed to improve the quality of life (improvement in nutrition, housing, health, employment, road, water, industrialization etc) and standard of living of the rural dwellers through the use of many resources that exist in the rural areas and encourage mass participation of the rural people.

On establishment, DFRRI attempted to open the rural areas through the construction of access roads, and provision of basic amenities of modern living. The potentials of rural areas were seen to be both immediate and long term and the idea of opening up of rural areas with feeder roads and integrating it with other parts of the country provided basis for food that could be evacuated to enhance the quantity of food and raw materials consumption. Consequently, the agency was to ensure more food at cheaper rate and improve rural condition to stem the rate of rural-urban migration; improve quality of rural life and by implication, its productive capacity that would ensure a greater exploitation of the potentials of rural areas.

Though a laudable prgramme, the problem of DFRRI was hardly one of lack of enthusiasm and relevance but of variation between enormity of rural under development and the quantum of resources available to subdue the problem**.** The poor quality of infrastructure provided by the directorate probably due to mismanagement of funds made

the impact of the programme almost insignificant. Also, the directorate has been criticized for lack of proper focus and programme accountability. There were issues of ineffective supervision of its projects that were scattered all over Nigeria. The lack of supervision led to poor quality of projects executed. Most of the projects could not stand the test of time.

Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA)

The Transformation Agenda of the former president Jonathan administration identified seven sectors as the main growth drivers during the transformation period, 2011-2015, via: agriculture, water resources, solid minerals, manufacturing, oil and gas, trade and commerce as well as culture and tourism. The decision was prompted by the fact that the performance in these sectors has been constrained by several challenges including low productivity, low level of private sector investment, non-competitiveness, inadequate funding, shortage of skilled manpower, low investment in research and development, poor development of value chain and low value addition, poor regulatory environment, poor quality of goods and services and poor state of physical infrastructure, policy instability and discontinuity, low level of technology, paucity and poor flow of information and high cost of doing business (FGN, 2011). Government thus, assumed a baseline Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rate of 11.7 per cent per annum within the period, which will translate to real and nominal GDP of about N428.6 billion and N73.2 trillion, respectively at the end of the program period.

The problem with the policy was lack of supervision of agricultural projects initiated under the programme and the embezzlement of funds earmarked for execution of projects

embarked upon by the programme. Others include, undue political interventions in the running of the affairs of the projects located in some states of the federation and the perception of politicians awarded contracts under the scheme. Some of the politicians perceive such contracts as political largesse and settlement. Consequently, many of them refuse to execute them after collecting contract sums.

Agriculture Promotion Policy (2016-2020) Document, "The Green Alternative".

The policy thrust of the Buhari government in Agriculture is outlined in the Agriculture Promotion Policy (2016-2020) document, "The Green Alternative". According to Ogbeh (2017), the policy will serve as the new fulcrum for economic diversification, inclusive growth and sustainable development in the agricultural sector. The Green Alternative is the outcome of an intensive consultative process starting in November 2015 through April 2016, and involving multiple stakeholders from farmer groups, investors, processors, lenders, civil servants, and academics. Many stakeholders provided detailed input, commentary, and support (Ayoola, 2017).

Building on the successes and lessons from the Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA), the vision of the Buhari Administration for agriculture is to work with key stakeholders to build an agribusiness economy capable of delivering sustained prosperity by meeting domestic food security goals, generating exports, and supporting sustainable income and job growth.

According to Ogbeh (2017), between 2016 and 2020, Nigeria's policy needs to be readjusted to solve the aforementioned challenges. The go forward federal priorities (in partnership with State Governments) will be the following four: food security; import

substitution; job creation; and economic diversification. The new policy regime, tagged the Agriculture Promotion Policy (APP) is founded on a number of principles which are carryovers from the ATA reflecting the strong desire for policy stability. New elements added reflect the lessons from the ATA, as well as priorities emerging from the aspirations of the Buhari Administration. Nurah (2017) identified the following as priority areas of the Agriculture Promotion Policy:

i. Agriculture as a business – focusing the policy instruments on a government-enabled, private sector-led engagement as the main growth driver of the sector. This essential principle was established in the Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA) and will remain a cardinal design principle of Nigeria's agriculture policies going forward.

ii. Agriculture as key to long-term economic growth and security-focusing policy instruments to ensure that the commercialization of agriculture includes technologies, financial services; inputs supply chains, and market linkages that directly engage rural poor farmers because rural economic growth will play a critical role in the country's successful job creation, economic diversity, improved security and sustainable economic growth.

iii. Food as a human right – this will involve focusing the policy instruments for agricultural development on the social responsibility of government with respect to food security, social security and equity in the Nigerian society; and compelling the government to recognize, protect and fulfill the irreducible minimum degree of freedom of the people from hunger and malnutrition.

iv. Value chain approach – this will require rededicating the policy instruments for enterprise development across successive stages of the commodity value chains for the development of crop, livestock and fisheries sub-sectors, namely input supply, production, storage, processing/utilization, marketing and consumption. Building complex linkages between value chain stages will be an important part of the ecosystem that will drive sustained prosperity for all Nigerians. Towards this end, the Federal Government through the Central Bank has rolled out of ₦40 billion for the "Anchor Borrowers Programme" (ABP) for Rice farmers. The program is designed to assist Small Scale farmers to increase the production and supply of feedstock to agro-processors. The Anchor Borrowers Programme launched in November 2016, said to have been pushed by 14 states of Kebbi, Sokoto, Niger, Kaduna, Katsina, Jigawa, Kano, Zamfara, Admawa, Plateau, Lagos, Ogun, Cross-Rivers and Ebonyi for rice and wheat farmers to advance their status from small holder farmers to commercial or large growers (Ayoola, 2017).

v. Prioritizing crops – this is aimed at achieving improved domestic food security and boosting export earnings through prioritization. Therefore, for domestic crops, the initial focus in 2016 – 2018 will be expanding the production of rice, wheat, maize, soya beans and tomatoes. For export crops, the initial focus will be on cocoa, cassava, oil palm, sesame and gum Arabic. In 2018 onwards, the export focus will add on bananas, avocado, mango, fish and cashew nuts. Investments in closing infrastructure gaps to accelerate productivity and

investment in these crops will also be sequenced to reflect capital availability and management attention.

vi. Market orientation – this is geared towards focusing policy instruments on stimulating agricultural production on a sustainable basis, and stimulating supply and demand for agricultural produce by facilitating linkages between producers and off takers, while stabilizing prices or reducing price volatility for agricultural produce through market-led price stabilization mechanisms (commodity exchanges, negotiated off-take agreements, extended farm-gate price under value chains coordination mechanisms, agricultural insurance, etc).

vii. Factoring Climate change and Environmental sustainability – focusing policy instruments on the sustainability of the use of natural resources (land and soil, water and ecosystems) with the future generation in mind while increasing agricultural production, marketing and other human activities in the agricultural sector.

viii. Participation and inclusiveness – this involves introducing measures to maximize the full participation of stakeholders including farmer's associations, cooperatives and other groups, as well as NGOs, CBOs, CSOs, development partners and the private sector. This places a premium on the role of these organizations or groups as agents of economic change in general and agricultural economy in particular, thereby drawing benefits from their policy advocacy roles as partners to and watchdog of government.

ix. Policy integrity – Here policy instruments will involve evolving measures for sanitizing the business environment for agriculture, in terms of accountability,

transparency and due process of law, ensuring efficient allocation and use of public funding and fighting corruption on all programmes involving public resources. This also applies to compliance with international commitments, protocols and conventions that Nigeria is a signatory to.

x. Nutrition sensitive agriculture – government policy instruments will focus on addressing the issues of stunting, wasting, underweight and other manifestations of hunger and malnutrition with particular reference to the vulnerable groups, which include children under 5, nursing mothers and persons with chronic illness and disabilities

xi. Agriculture's Linkages with Other Sectors – Government will focus policy instruments on the connected relationship between agriculture and other sectors at federal and state levels, particularly industry, environment, power, energy, works and water sectors (Ogbeh, 2017).

Within this overall set of policy principles, the Federal Government will concentrate on providing an enabling environment for stakeholders at federal and state level to play their distinctive roles. The policy emphasis will be on providing a conducive legislativeand agricultural knowledge framework, macro policies,security enhancing, phy sical infrastructureandinstitutionalmechanisms for coordination and enhancing access to adequate inputs, finance, and information on innovation, agricultural services and markets. Nigeria needs about 6.5 million metric tons of rice and currently only 1.5 million metric tons is produced locally as at 2015 and a deficit of five million left to imports.

Implications of Policy Interventions on Agricultural Development

All these agricultural and rural development initiatives have affected agricultural production level in Nigeria. It was reported that annual production of sorghum has continued to increase, even though it is grown only in the Savannah ecological zones of Nigeria. This is as a result of improved varieties developed by researchers for its popularization. The increases in research institutes have also broadened the scope of agricultural education and extension services in the nation. While it cannot be said that these policies are not vibrant enough for rural and agricultural transformation, lack of continuity and eagerness to be identified with a named policy intervention of successive government in our country has been the bane of the much desired rural and agricultural development and transformation to guarantee self-sufficiency in food and fibre.

It is interesting to note that the issues and challenges have not changed much since the dawn of agriculture in Nigeria. The multifarious past national agricultural development policies/programmes have failed to improve the standard of living of millions the Nigerian people and economic development of the country. Majority of farmers (more than 65%) still use the crude method of farming; Storage facilities have not improved much and thus losses incurred from postharvest handling are still very high; Infrastructure development has not progressed to meet the current challenges, resulting in stagnation of processes and logistical nightmare; Access to markets has remained a recurring headache making the idea of Farming very unattractive to most people. Beyond all of these, the fact remains that, Nigeria's Agricultural Sector has enormous potential,

with an opportunity to grow output by 160% from USD 99 billion at present to USD 256 billion by 2030.

Opportunities highlighted at SENCE Agriculture Fair of March 2012 showed that Nigeria faces a large and growing global agricultural market which still remain that way in 2019. The rising commodity prices, growing demand for food and opportunities in bio fuel as safe sources of alternative fuel all present significant opportunities for Nigeria. In summary Agriculture has had a long history in Nigeria albeit a not so successful one but the future is great and the right people need to be involved to move it away from rhetoric to a life giving, money making venture for the good of man and country.

The Central Bank of Nigeria has also emphasized the need for a stronger relation between other sectors of the economy with emphasis on the banking sector and the agricultural sector in other to have an improved performance and policies to enhance the relationship have been made to that effect. This could further be reflected in the legislation of governments and the directives of quasi government institutions like the CBN on the issue. The setting up of a wholly government owned bank in the name of the Nigerian Agriculture, Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (NACRDB), Development Bank of Nigeria, Bank of Industry with agricultural based facilities on short, medium and long-term basis is predicated on the philosophy that the mainstream banking industry does not adequately cater for the urgent need of credits required for rapid transformation of the agricultural sector of the economy.

There is a dire need for continuity and perpetual implementation of agriculture development policies by the current and future administration for the impact of the

policies to be felt in Nigeria economy. The inconsistency of regional agriculture development policies with the national policies: new agriculture policies and programmes should be consistent, work in harmony and closely with state and national policies and programmes. The good relationship and peaceful atmosphere will always ensure the success of agricultural policies, programme and consequent agricultural development. Policies should be monitored and evaluated purposely to determine achievements of rural/agriculture development programmes vis-à-vis the set policy objectives.

To be successful, Nigeria's reform and agricultural programmes in particular need to be backed up or initiated through policies coupled with increased and better co-ordinate technical and financial backing. It should also be programmes selected based on a rational, national and institutional structure that come from a national consensus on how best to achieve sustainable and equitable rural/ agricultural development.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

This section of the study covers theoretical review. The systems theory of rural urban migration were reviewed and adopted for the study.

2.4.1. The Systems Theory of Youth Rural Urban Migration

The system approach dates back to the works of Buckley (1967). The theory got refined by the works of Luhmann (1987) to the more contemporary works of Bailey (1990). In Nigeria, the theory has received much scholarly attention and refinement to its current state through the works of Mabogunje (1975). A system may be defined as a complex of interacting elements, together with their attributes and relationships. One of the major

tasks in conceptualizing a phenomenon as a system is to identify the basic interacting elements, their attributes, and their relationships. Systems do not operate in a void but in an environment where other sub – systems exist and operate (Boulding, 1998). For any given system, this environment comprises the set of all objects, a change in whose attributes affects the system, and also those objects whose attributes are changed by the behaviour of the system. Thus, a system with its environment constitutes the universe of phenomena which is of interest in a given context. A systems approach to rural-urban migration is concerned not only with why people migrate but with all the implications and ramifications of the process. Basically, the approach is designed to answer questions such as: why and how does an essentially rural individual become a permanent city dweller? What changes does he undergo in the process? What effects have these streams of migration both on the rural area from which the youth comes and on the city to which he moves? Are there situations or institutions which encourage or discourage the rate of movement between the rural area and the city? What is the general pattern of these movements, and how is this determined? These, and other such questions, define the problems for which the systems theory tend to explain.

The systems approach demands that a particular complex of variables be recognized as a system possessing certain properties which are common to many other systems. It has the fundamental advantage of providing a conceptual framework within which a whole range of questions relevant to an understanding of the structure and operation of other systems can be asked of the particular phenomenon under study. In this way, new insights are provided into old problems and new relationships whose existence may not have been appreciated previously are uncovered. Essentially, rural urban migration represents a

basic transformation of the other structure of a society in which people move from generally smaller, mainly agricultural communities to larger, mainly non-agricultural communities. Apart from this spatial (or horizontal) dimension of the movement, there is also a socioeconomic (or vertical) dimension involving a permanent transformation of skills, attitudes, motivations, and behavioral patterns such that a migrant is enabled to break completely with his rural background and become entirely committed to urban existence. A permanence of transfer is thus the essence of the movement.

In the realm of the systems theoretical framework, rural-urban migration represents an essentially spatial concomitant of the economic development of a region, country or community. Indeed, it has been found that one of the basic goals of economic development is to reverse the situation wherein 85 per cent of the population is in agriculture and lives in rural areas while only about 15 per cent is in non-agricultural activities and lives in the cities (Von, 2015). Rural-urban migration represents the spatial flow component of such a reversal. Rural urban migration is a complex phenomenon which involves not only the migrants but also a number of institutional agencies, and it gives rise to significant and highly varied adjustments everywhere in a region, country or community. Such an understanding can best be achieved within the framework of General Systems Theory.

The breakdown of isolation brings the rural areas within the orbit of one or more urban centers and sharpens the awareness and desire of villagers for the ever increasing range of goods and services which the urban centers have to offer. To acquire these, the villagers have to produce more agricultural goods and enter into an exchange relation with the city. Alternatively, they may move into the city to sell their labor direct in exchange for wages

with which to buy goods and services or repatriate same to their families as remittances which may be used to carry out agricultural activities in the rural areas. This then is the environment within which the system of migration from rural to urban areas operates. This is the environment which stimulates the villager to desire change his location, economic activities and which, in consequence, determines the volume, characteristics, and importance of rural-urban migration. Moreover, it is an environment which is constantly changing, and these changes affect the operation of the system. Hence, for any theory of rural-urban migration to be of value it must take into account this dynamic aspect of the problem and the systems theory fits into this ideal.

The basic elements in the system of migration are varied. The theory identifies first the potential migrant who is being encouraged to migrate by stimuli from the environment. More often, the tendency has been to focus only on those who successfully made the move thereby neglecting those they left behind, a gap which the present study seek to fill by using the systems theory of rural urban migration. Even for these that may have moved, attention is usually given mainly to effects of their movements on destination regions rather than to an analysis or understanding of the effects such migrations have on the production quantities, cost and the type of relationships engendered in rural communities of migrants (Mitchell, 2015).

Within the systems theoretical framework, attention is focused not only on the migrant but also on the various institutions (sub-systems) and the social, economic, and other relationships (adjustment mechanisms) which are an integral part of the process of the migrant's transformation. The movement of the migrant to the city creates a vacuum in his family. In order to adjust his family enters into relationships within the system that

promises to enhance their wellbeing. An imbalance in one migratory aspect is therefore corrected by adjustments in another. The two most important sub-systems in the rural urban migratory trajectory are the rural and the urban control sub-systems. According to Wolpert (2014), a control sub-system is one which oversees the operation of the general system and determines when and how to increase or decrease the amount of flow in the system. The existence of control sub-systems in migration movement helps in the identification of the institutions that operate in this manner both in the rural and the urban areas. In the rural areas, a true control sub-system would, of course, be the family, both nuclear and extended. In the first place, it is the family that holds back potential migrants until they are old enough to undertake the move. Even when they are of an age to move, the family still acts as a control sub-system in many ways.

In some places, it enables members of both sexes to move out; in others, members of one sex tend to get away more easily than those of the other. Where the potential migrant is married, the issue of whether he can move alone or with his wife and children may depend on the customary role of the sexes in agricultural activities, the age at which marriage is encouraged, and the circumstances and age at which a young man may expect to be economically independent of his parents. More important as a control mechanism is the relation of family members to the family land, especially as this relation is expressed through the lineage system and the inheritance law. It also includes the family position on remittances by the migrant to family members left behind so as to help them cope with his departure. The family also helps in issues of lands belonging to the migrant and in the preservation of such based on laws of the community. An inheritance law that encourages most of the land to go into the hands of the first child (the primogeniture rule) will tend to

stimulate more migration of the other children [compared to one based on the equality of access (partible inheritance rule) by all the children. In either case, the size of the farmland, the nature of the major agricultural products, and the prevailing prices for these would also be of decisive significance.

Apart from the family, the village community itself may act as a control sub-system. Its controlling role is not often direct but is obvious in either a positive or negative way in the various activities which it sponsors or encourages. Thus, a village community which attempts to improve its economic conditions, for instance, through co-operative farming or marketing, may discourage, at least in the short-run, permanent migration. On the other hand, a village community which puts emphasis on social betterment, for example, through education, may inadvertently stimulate migration to the city through training the younger generation to be more enlightened and more highly motivated.

At both the village and the city level, the decision of the migrant to move from the community sets in motion a series of adjustments. With regard to the village community, the mechanism for these adjustments operates in such a way as to lead to an increase in the per capita income of the migrant and the community. At least theoretically, the loss of one of the productive units in the village should lead to an increase of the productive capacity available to the remaining units; otherwise such losses from the rural area would eventually lead to a significant drop in agricultural production, to food shortage, low labour availability, high labor cost and to famine. That these do not occur in many places means that some adjustments do take place to maintain aggregate productivity from these areas.. However, what is involved in the adjustment to rural-urban migration is more than the minor arrangements by which the farmlands belonging to seasonal or short-term

migrants are tended in their absence by their wives, their friends or other members of their families. What is involved here is the ways and methods by which rural communities permit migrants to renounce partially or wholly their rights to productive resources in the rural areas once they migrate to the urban centres.

Within the systems framework, the explanation of why people migrate is in terms of differential individual responses to the stimuli both from the environment and from within the system. This stimulus differs from the pull-and-push hypothesis in putting the emphasis at the individual level, not on why people migrate from particular areas but why any person from any village would want to migrate to the city. The stimulus to migrate is related to the extent of the integration of rural activities into the national economy, to the degree of awareness of opportunities outside of the rural areas, and to the nature of the social and economic expectations held by the rural population not only for themselves but also for their children. Indeed, the notion of "expectations" or "aspirations" is central to an understanding of the ways in which the stimulus from the environment is transmitted to individuals, and for that reason it is a crucial variable in the theory of rural-urban migration. What determines the variation in the level of individual expectations in rural areas and conditions individual responses to the stimulus to migrate? Clearly, for a given cohort in any rural area, one can, at least theoretically, conceive of individuals who respond promptly to the stimulus and others who take a much longer time to respond. The degree to which one acts on the stimulus depends on the individual's threshold. There is a limit below which the stimulus cannot be expected to work and an upper limit beyond which its impact is no longer felt.

Mabogunje (1975), adds that there is also the element of information flow in the system. As soon as a migrant moved from the rural to the urban area, his role in the system is greatly amplified. Basic to an understanding of this amplified role is the concept of "information," which is important in any system. Information can be defined simply as bits of messages in a system which leads to a particular set of actions (Diop, 2016). Thus, the first migrant from a village to a city would soon start to transmit back to the village information about his reception and progress in the city. Ignoring for the moment the question of information content, it can be shown that the level of information can be measured in terms of decisions. A particular set of decisions can be compared with the random choice from a universe of equally probable decisions. Its deviation from the latter becomes a measure of the level of information. It also represents a statement of the level of order or organization existing within the system. Information is thus a crucial feature of the operation of a system since it determines at any point in time the state of organization of the system.

Of equal importance is the notion of "feedback" which has been the focus of the field of Cybernetics. This can be explained quite simply in terms of stimulus-response behavior. A stimulus affects a receptor which communicates this message to some controlling apparatus and from this to an effector which gives the response. In feedback, the effector's activity is monitored back to the receptor with the result that the system's behavior is in some way modified by the information. In the case of youth rural urban migration, the feedback process has one of two effects. It can amplify the deviation (in this case by stimulating further migration), or it may counteract the deviation by encouraging a return to the initial situation. Deviation-amplifying feedbacks are regarded

as positive; deviation-counteracting feedbacks as negative. Imagine a situation in which migrants from a village are lost to their communities as soon as they move out and send back no information on their reactions to the cities to which they moved. Later migrants then, not knowing where the first set of migrants went to might choose any city in the system, almost in a random manner. Over time, the distribution of migrants from individual villages may come to approximate a situation in which the number of migrants from any village to a city is proportional to the size of that city. This is the most probable state in which no order or organization is evident in the system. Conceptually, it can be seen as a state of maximum disorder, or a state of maximum "entropy." Yet, the general experience is that migrants are never lost in this sense to their village or origin but continues to send back information. If the information from a particular city dwells at length on the negative side of urban life, on the difficulties of getting jobs, of finding a place to live, and on the general hostility of people, the effect of this negative feedback will slow down further migration from the village to the city.

By contrast, favorable or positive feedback will encourage migration and will produce situations of almost organized migratory flows from particular villages to particular cities. In other words, the existence of information in the system encourages greater deviation from the most probable or random state. It implies a decrease in the level of entropy (or disorder) or an increase in negative entropy (negentropy). The result is greater differentiation in the pattern of migration which reflects some form of organization. Thus, experience of rural-urban migration in Africa emphasizes this organized nature of the moves. In many North African cities, for instance, it is not uncommon for an entire

district or craft occupation in a city to be dominated by permanent migrants from one or two villages (Diop, 2016).

Hall and Fagen (2004) add that there exist a relationship between the system and its environment. Systems can be classified into three categories depending on the relationship they maintain with their environment; first, the isolated systems which exchange neither “matter” nor “energy” with their environment; second, the closed systems which exchange “energy” but not “matter”; third, the open systems which exchange both “energy” and ‘(matter.” The distinction between the categories, however, is largely one of scale and depends on which elements are regarded as belonging to the system and which to the environment. Thus, if the scale was to be reduced significantly, an open system could become an isolated system.

Given the categories of systems identified above, it can be seen that rural-urban migration is an open system involving not only an exchange of energy but also of matter (in this case, persons) with the environment. The persons concerned would be defined as all those, who having migrated into cities, have become involved in making local decisions or formulating national policies and legislations on economic and other matters which do affect the volume, character, and pattern of migration. The energy exchange has to do with the increasing economic activities resulting from rural-urban migration and affecting the overall economic and social conditions of the country. One major implication of viewing rural-urban migration as an open system is the fact that it enables us to explore the principle of equifinality in so far as it applies to this phenomenon. This principle emphasizes that the state of a system at any given time is not determined so much by initial conditions as by the nature of the process, or the system parameters. In

consequence, the same results may spring from different origins or, conversely, different results may be produced by the same "causes." In either case, it is the nature of the process which is determinate, since open systems are basically independent of their initial conditions.

Buckley (1967) has insisted that there is the element of growth processes in the system. They have observed that one of the concomitants of the continued interaction between the system and its environment is the phenomenon of growth in the system. This is indicated by, among other things, a rise in the volume of migration from the rural to the urban areas. Within the system theoretical framework, this phenomenon involves more than a simple growth or increase in the number of people moving from one area to another. It is much more complex, involving not only the individual components of the system but also the interaction between them and the system as a whole. Boulding (1998) has identified three types of growth processes that may occur in a system. The first is simple growth and involves the addition of one more unit of a given variable such as a migrant, a farm, a vehicle, or a retail establishment. The second type is population growth, a process which involves both positive and negative additions. In general, this type of growth depends on the surplus of births (positive additions) over deaths (negative additions) and applies to variables which have an age distribution and regular rates of births and deaths. The third type is the structural growth, the growth process of an aggregate with a complex structure of interrelated parts. This process often involves a change in the relation of the components since the growth of each component influences and is influenced by the growth of all other components in the system. Structural growth shades imperceptibly into structural change since, in most cases; it is not only the overall size of the structure

that grows but also its complexity. In viewing rural-urban migration as a system, growth, in the form of structural growth, is an important dimension to be considered. What effects have an increase in the volume of migration on the character of the rural communities? What effects have the growth in the number of migrants to the city have on size of farms in rural communities; on the crops grown and their quantities, on cost of labour and on the average income of families in the rural areas? What effects have changes or growth in these variables on the volume and characteristics of migrants and on further growth and complexity of rural communities? These are questions in which the systems theory of rural urban migration seeks to answer.

In Benue State where this study is located, youth rural urban migration is unprecedented. In the systems theoretical analysis, such a large migratory movement is bound to prompt disequilibrium in the operations of other systems within the society. In the present study it is envisaged that the subsystem most affected is the agricultural subsystem. Here, the continued migration youths from the rural areas to the cities may lead to fall in agricultural productivity of both crops and livestock which may threaten the food security of the nation given the status of the state as the food basket. Similarly, sustained youth rural urban migration may deplete the stock of available labour in the villages and cause the unit cost of labour to rise. As a system, the net implication of all these on other institutions and subsystem may be varied. Food shortages may lead to hikes in prices of basic food staples beyond the reach of the average peasant family. Government on the other hand may import more food thereby diverting scarce resources from other needs of the communities.

Critics of this model have indicated that the systems theory seems limited in its ability to describe relations between systems. Not all systems appear to be as closed and autonomous as the theory assumes. Not only do some systems appear to understand each other, but they sometimes incorporate other systems as their elements. Also the meaning of a communication within the social system is not completely determined by the social system itself. Individuals may protest and restrict the meanings that are assigned to a particular communication. Although Luhmann (1987) has asserted that the meaning of a communication is not simply the intention of the individual, but certainly the intention has some, albeit a complex, effect on the social meaning. The social system is not simply closed to the individual. Similarly, it is possible that an apparently autonomous system such as the rural urban migratory system can be reduced to the status of a subsystem of another system such as the economy. In that case, the code of the rural urban migratory system may be simply a variation on the code of the economic system. Furthermore, the system theory assumes a variety of equally valid views of society without the possibility of giving one priority over the others. Nevertheless, the theory claims that we are able to develop a secure knowledge of society observing the semantics of the self-descriptions of society is not tenable. This standpoint is inconsistent because it is not possible to claim both positions at once. Finally, the notion of adjustment as postulated by the systems theory is not always tenable, as Boulding (1998) has pointed out; there is a limit to the extent to which the system can go on making these adjustments. Growth, states Boulding, "creates form; but form limits growth. This mutuality of relationship between growth and form is perhaps the essential key to the understanding of structural growth" (Boulding,1998;721)

Inspite of all these criticisms, the study found most premises of the systems theory of rural urban migration relevant in explaining the thesis of this work. The conceptualization of the problem using the system approach emphasizes the structural congruencies with other aspects of the rural urban migration dilemma in the study area. Further, one of the major attractions of this approach is that it enables a consideration of rural-urban migration no longer as a linear, unidirectional, push-and-pull, cause-effect movement but as a circular, interdependent, progressively complex, and self-modifying system in which the effect of changes in one part can be traced through the whole of the system. Such circularity gives special prominence to the dynamic nature of rural-urban migration and allows the process to remain as one of considerable interest over an indefinite period of time. In other words, it emphasizes rural-urban migration as a continuous process, occurring in most countries all the time though at different levels of complexity. In this respect, the systems approach also serves as a normative model against which one can seek to explain obvious deviations. If the movement of people from the rural to the urban areas is not generating the set of interconnected effects which the theory leads us to expect, we may ask why. We may then investigate the various elements in the system to ascertain which of them is not functioning in the proper way. Alternatively, we may examine critically the politico-economic environment in order to appreciate those features that do impair the efficient operation of the system. In either case, the basic systems approach has provided the most important insight to the many dimensions of the rural urban migration problem and thus its effects on agricultural productivity of families of peasant farmers which undoubtedly is the central thesis of this work.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter represents the methods used in collecting and analyzing data on the implications of youth rural urban migration on families of peasant farmers in Benue state. Various aspects like description of the area of study, pilot study, techniques of data collection, the study population, sample and sampling procedure, methods of data analysis, variables and ethical considerations are presented.

3.2 Description of the Area of Study

The study was conducted among selected rural communities in Benue State, Nigeria. The choice of Benue State is based on the fact that the State as the food basket of the nation deserves a study of this nature so as to check and expose the elements that will threaten its status. Benue State was created in 1976 and presently has a total of 23 LGAs. The LGAs include: Agatu, Apa, Otukpo, Okpokwu, Ohimini, Ogbadibo, Ado, Obi, Oju, Buruku, Gboko, Guma, Gwer, Gwer-west, Kastina-Ala, Konshisha, Kwande, Logo, Makurdi, Tarka, Ukum, Ushongo and Vandeikya. These LGAs are further divided into three senatorial districts; zone “A” (Benue North East), zone “B” (Benue North West) and zone “C” (Benue south). Benue State is located in the Benue Valley, between latitude 6° 30' and 8° 10' north longitude 8° and 10° to the east (Bohannan and Bohannan, 1969; Rubingh, 1969). The State is bounded to the south by Cross River and Enugu States, to the east by the Cameroons, to the west by Kogi State, and to the north by Nassarawa, Taraba and Plateau States. The major ethnic groups in Benue State include Tiv, Idoma

and Igede. Peasant families in Benue State practiced a type of shifting cultivation that allowed them to vacate an entire farm site and settlement to another with more fertile land. The communities are farmers whose greatest aim in life is to fill their yam stores and granaries with food and their home with children (Surma, 1995).

Benue State has a projected population of 4,253,641(National Population Commission Projections, 2016). The State lies in the Guinea savannah with its characteristic coarse grasses and numerous species of scattered trees, including some economic trees like the locust bean, sheabutter, mahogany, silk-cotton, orange, cashew, mango, citrus and palm plantation which grow very tall and can be utilized for small scale cottage industries.

Although the people are predominantly farmers and live in the rural areas, some mainly the elites live in the urban and semi-urban areas of the State where they work as civil servants, businessmen and politicians. Crops cultivated by the people include, yams, millet, guinea corn, maize, soya beans, beniseed, groundnuts, cotton, cassava. There is also citrus, palm plantation and banana which are cultivated in large quantities. These products are sold in the numerous markets found in the state. The River Benue runs though Benue State and supplies the people with fish and other aquatic foods. Benue State has a network of roads linking every nook and cranny of the state. The justification for selecting Benue State is that the State is the food basket of the nation and the youth of the State constitutes the main labour source for peasant production. Understanding the dialectics of their migration and its implications on agricultural productivity is necessary in ensuring food security for the whole nation.

3.3 Pilot Study

To minimize the flaws that might prevail in the data collection and actual field work, the researcher conducted a pilot study so as to familiarize himself with communities and key individuals that would help in carrying out the fieldwork and also gain more knowledge of the research population. The survey which involved visits to the areas covered by the study proved useful as it helped in choosing an appropriate sampling technique and procedure that ensure the selection of the right respondents that helped the researcher achieve his research objectives. It also helped the researcher establish good relationship with the respondents and leaders of the various communities to be studied. This relationship and good will the researcher hope to utilize during the actual fieldwork exercise. The researcher also decided to do a pilot administration of the instruments to be used in the actual fieldwork on a small group that has similar profile with the population of the study and that are not part of the study. The reason lies in the fact that pilot-testing helped the researcher to learn where avoidable mistakes were made and that gave him the opportunity to modify the questions of the study. Specifically, it helped him avoid ambiguities, assures clarity of the communication, and avoids double-barreled questions in the items contained in the questionnaires. Pilot testing also helped the researcher acquaint himself with the study area. The researcher made prior contact with the leaders of the communities where the study was to be conducted. After his request was granted, the researcher arranged his schedule to meet selected migrants and families. An explanation of the purpose of the study and request for their consent to participate in the pilot-test was done. All of them agreed to participate in the pilot-test. This pilot study was conducted on 20 youth migrants and 55 heads of families not supposed to be included in

the actual study. It was conducted in high level area and Apir in Makurdi local government areas of Benue State between February and March, 2017. Using some research assistants, the researcher listed all the families in the communities to be covered and sampled.

The researcher selected the pilot test respondents purposively by the help of research assistants and community leaders and distributed the questionnaire to be completed. Responses to the pilot-test enabled the researcher strengthen the research instruments. The researcher accepted the feedback of the respondents and a number of modifications were also made to the final questionnaire. Based on the feedback from pilot administrations, the instruments and the items were finalized. This was done in line with Dawson's (2003: 132) submission which states that 'once piloting has been done alter the questions according to the feedback obtained and then send out the instruments to the type of people who will be taking part in the main study'. With the aid of five research assistants who were hired and trained, the researcher counted and numbered the s in the villages to be covered by the study.

3.4 Sources of Data

Based on the research problem and objectives, both primary and secondary sources of data were utilized.

i. **Primary Sources of Data**: For this study, primary data comprises of data that were collected through the use of Focus group discussion (FGD), indepth interview (IDI) guides and questionnaire that were administered on respondents.

ii. **Secondary Sources of Data**: The secondary sources of data used here include, government policy documents, technical committee reports on agriculture and rural urban migration, gazettes, and expert reports.

3.5 Methods of Data Collection

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to collect the required data for the study. More specifically, the selected methods adopted for data collection were the questionnaire, Focus Group Discussion (FGD) and in - depth interview (IDI).

3.5.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data for the study. It was used to collect information from peasant family heads in the study area (please refer to Appendix 1). The questionnaire was administered on family heads sampled in the peasant villages in the study area. For effective administration of the questionnaire in the areas selected, five research assistants were engaged and trained by the researcher. The questionnaire was administered on families in the evening as from 4.00pm every day and extended to 9.00pm. The timing was considered most appropriate as rural family heads are farmers who work on their farms from 7am – 4pm. Due to the low literacy level of most respondents; the questionnaire was directly administered with the support of trained field assistants.

3.5.2 Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

In order to complement the responses from the questionnaire, Focus Group Discussion was also conducted to collect qualitative data. In all twelve FGD sessions were

conducted. There were separate FGD for males and females. For the male, the Focus Group Discussion was conducted on youth migrants and leaders of community based youth associations in the urban areas that were selected. A Focus Group Discussion guide was prepared to guide discussions which were facilitated by the researcher (See Appendix II). The towns selected include, Makurdi, Gboko, Guma, Otukpo, Ogbadibo, and Oju. There was one focus group discussion session each held in Makurdi town for selected participants in Makurdi local government; Gbajumba town for participants in Guma Local Government Area; Otukpo town for participants in Otukpo Local Government Area. Further focus group discussion sessions were held in Ogbadibo for participants in Ogbadibo Local Government Area; Gboko town for participants in Gboko Local Government Area and Oju for participants in Oju local government areas.

The FGD for the females had three female migrants selected through snowballing, and three leaders of female community based youth association in the urban sites earlier selected for the study. The total number of individuals that were involved in the Focus Group Discussion in the six locations/sites was at least 72. Each session had at least six members in attendance who discussed the issues relating to the implications of youth rural - urban migration on agricultural productivity of peasant families in Benue State. The discussions were conducted in a semi-circular sitting formation to facilitate face to face contact among discussants and minimize any perceived differences between 'them' and 'us'. The discussions were held in designated venues which were communicated to the participants well ahead of time. Invited participants were given a week's notice so as to enable them prepare fully for the exercise. In order to effectively conduct the FGDs, the researcher utilized the services of two research assistants whom he had recruited and

trained for the purpose. These research assistants took notes and recorded the discussions using a tape recorder as the researcher moderates the sessions. The selection criterion for the research assistants was based on familiarity with the terrain and ability to understand the language and culture of the communities being studied.

3.5.3 In-depth Interview

In-depth interview was another qualitative method of data collection used in this study. Indepth interview was conducted on selected rural farmers, traditional rulers, leaders of rural farmer associations within the selected villages in the study area and selected staff of the ministry of Agriculture both at the federal and State levels. Also covered were staff of the Benue Agriculture and Rural Development Authority (BANARDA) . Two separate interview guides were prepared for the groups. The researcher visited the selected informants and interviewed them on a face-to-face basis in an informal manner. With the aid of two research assistants, the researcher took down notes and tape recorded the interview sessions.

3.6. Population of Study

The population of the study comprised of families with or without migrants in the study area. The head of each family constituted the unit of response because as the leader and head of the rural family he was in the position to supply the researcher with the relevant information relating to his family. The study also included youth migrants and leaders of community based associations in the urban centers. This was done so as to get information from them relating to why they took decisions to move and whether they have been assisting their people in the rural areas. Also interviewed were staff of the

ministry of agriculture both at the federal and State levels. Included for the indepth interview also were staff of the Benue Agriculture and Rural Development Agency (BANARDA). Another category of participants included were selected rural farmers, traditional rulers as well as leaders of rural farmer associations in the rural areas covered by the study. This last category was included so as to tap on their wealth of experience in agriculture. This is especially true as those selected were those who are aged with requisite experience in agricultural practice.

3.7 Sample Size Determination for Quantitative Data

The sample size for this study was drawn mainly from families that were selected from communities across the study area. It was from these families that the heads of families who constituted the unit of response were drawn. Six communities were selected as research locations where respondents for questionnaire were finally selected. The rural communities selected were Adaka, Akpagher, Ainu, Aune, Igwu – Akor and Agasha. In order to derive the sample size of the families the researcher listed the families in the areas covered during the plot survey. By using the Bowley (1964) population determination the sample size of the families in the various communities was determined. The formula is expressed as:

$$nh = \frac{nNh}{N}$$

Where;

nh = Number of families to be sampled from each community selected

n = targeted sample size for the study

Nh = number of families in each community covered

N = total number of available families for sampling

For Adaka community $nh = \frac{445 \times 1030}{3119} = 147$

Akpagher $nh = \frac{445 \times 517}{3119} = 74$

Aune $nh = \frac{445 \times 328}{3119} = 47$

Ainu $nh = \frac{445 \times 427}{3119} = 61$

Igwu – akor $nh = \frac{445 \times 491}{3119} = 70$

Agasha $nh = \frac{445 \times 326}{3119} = 46$

Total $= 445$

Table 3.1 summarizes the family determination procedure.

Table 3.1: Sample size determination in the study area

S/No	Community	Number of families available for sampling	Sample selected
1	Adaka	1030	147
2	Akpagher	517	74
3	Aune	328	47
4	Ainu	427	61
5	Igwu – Akor	491	70
6	Agasha	326	46
	Total	**3119**	**445**

Source: Field Work, 2018

From Table 3.1, the appropriate sample size for the study is 445 families.

3.8. Sample and Sampling Procedure

For this research the multi stage probability cluster sampling technique was used to select study locations from which respondents were finally selected using a combination of

systematic, simple random, purposive and snowball sampling techniques. The first stage in the multi stage cluster sampling process involved the selection of Benue State out of 36 States in Nigeria. The purpose for selecting Benue State is that the State is the food basket of the nation that produces most of the agricultural commodities that are consumed locally and exported. Benue State has 23 local government areas that are further grouped into three senatorial districts; “A”, “B” and “C”.

The second stage in the multi-stage cluster sampling involved the selection of two senatorial districts from the three that make up Benue State. The two districts selected were districts “B” and “C”. Though purposively done, the selection of these two districts took into consideration the fact that the State has three major ethnic groups; the Tiv, Idoma and Igede. The rationale behind this is that, district B represents the Tiv, while district C represents the Idoma and Igede. Senatorial District “B” has seven local government areas which include Buruku, Gboko, Guma, Gwer, Gwer-west, Makurdi and Tarka local government areas. Senatorial district “C” has nine local government areas. The local governments areas in district C include, Agatu, Apa, Otukpo, Okpokwu, Ohimini, Ogbadibo, Ado, Obi, and Oju.

The third stage in the multi - stage cluster sampling process involved the use of simple random sampling to select three local government areas from each of the two senatorial districts. The procedure involves writing the names of the local government areas in each district on pieces of paper. The papers were then dropped in a bag and shacked vigorously. After this, one piece of paper was picked at a time and replaced after recording it down. At the end of the exercise, Gboko, Makurdi and Guma local government areas were selected in Senatorial District “B” while Otukpo, Ogbadibo and

Oju local government areas were selected in Senatorial District C bringing the total of local governments selected to six.

In the fourth stage, two research sites each were selected purposively; one rural and the other urban from the selected local government Areas. The rural sites were from where family heads were selected for questionnaire administration while for urban areas FGDs and IDIs were conducted. For senatorial district "B" in Makurdi local government area, Makurdi and Adaka village were selected purposively. The sites selected for Guma local government area were Gbajumba town and Agasha village while Gboko Township and Akpagher village were purposively selected as research sites for Gboko local Government area. For senatorial district 'C', Otukpo town and Aune village were selected for Otukpo local government area; Oju town and Ainu village for Oju local government area. Furthermore, Ogbadibo town and Igwu-Akor village were selected for Ogbadibo local government area. The respondents for the questionnaire were heads of rural families in the selected villages in the study area (Aune, Ainu, Agasha, Igwu-Akor, Adaka and Akpagher).

The fifth stage involved the researcher selecting respondents from these villages in proportion to the number of families found in each village. Before the final selection of families took place, the family sample frames were categorized in some form of sub-groups. The general category of families from which data were collected included peasant families with or without migrants for comparison purposes. The comparism is to bring out the production differences among the different family types. The total sampled families for the six villages were 445. Table 3.2 below summarizes the number of families from each village and the samples selected.

Table 3.2: Sampled families and Villages from which Respondents were selected in the Study Area.

Migration pattern	Sampled villages and families in Benue state													
	Adaka		Akpagher		Aune		Ainu		Igwu-Akor		Agasha		Total	
	TAF	SPF	TAF	SPF	TAF	SPF	TAF	SPF	TAF	SPF	TAF	SPF	GTAF	GTSPF
Families without migrants	180	26	93	13	30	04	102	14	120	17	57	08	582	82
Families with migrants	850	121	424	61	298	43	325	47	371	53	269	38	2537	363
Total	**1030**	**147**	**517**	**74**	**328**	**47**	**427**	**61**	**491**	**70**	**326**	**46**	**3119**	**445**

Key

TAF = Total Available families

SPF = Sampled Families

GTAF = Grand Total of Available Families

GTSPF = Grand Total of Sampled Families

The sixth stage was the identification and selection of the heads of the families who constituted the unit of response in the study. Since each family is headed by an individual, the number of sampled families therefore corresponds to the total number of family heads, which were 445.

For the Focus Group Discussion (FGD), there were twelve FGDs that were conducted in all; two sessions in each urban site/location selected; one session for male and the other for female participants. For the avoidance of doubt, six urban based sites/locations were identified, one for each local government area. The reason for this decision was for fair representation. They include, Makurdi, Gbajumba, Gboko, Otukpo, Oju and Ogbadibo. Each group comprised of at least six persons in a session. For the male F.G.D,

membership of each group consists of three youth migrants selected through snowballing and three leaders of community based youth associations in the urban centers covered by the study. The female F.G.D had three female migrants selected through snowballing, and three leaders of female community based youth association in the urban sites earlier selected for the study. The total number of individuals that were involved in the focus group discussion in the six locations/sites was at least 72. Each session had at least six members in attendance who discussed the issues relating to the effects of youth rural - urban migration on agricultural productivity of s of peasant farmers in Benue State. The discussions were conducted in a semi-circular sitting formation to facilitate face to face contact among discussants and minimize any perceived differences between 'them' and 'us'. The discussions were held in designated venues, which were communicated to the participants ahead of time. Invited participants were given a week's notice so as to enable them prepare fully for the exercise. In order to effectively conduct the FGD, the researcher utilized the services of two research assistants whom he had trained for that purpose. These research assistants helped in taking down notes and recorded the discussions using a tape recorder as the researcher moderates the sessions.

Indepth interview targeted selected peasant farmers as well as traditional rulers with requisite experience of at least 20 years in agricultural practice and leaders of peasant farmer associations in the rural sites selected. Also included were staff of ministry of agriculture and BANARDA whose requisite knowledge in agricultural matters it was felt will be useful in identifying government previous policies on agriculture and other related matters of agriculture. Eighteen indepth interviews were conducted on peasant farmers as well as traditional rulers and leaders of peasant farmer associations in the rural sites

selected.; three each in each of the six rural villages covered by the study (Adaka, Agasha, Akpagher, Igwu- Akor, Ainu, and Aune). Also eight indepth interviews were conducted on staff of ministry of Agriculture and BANARDA in Makurdi. In all, twenty six indepth interviews were conducted for the study.

3.9. Methods of Data Analysis

Data analysis consists of examining, categorizing, tabulating or otherwise compiling the evidence to address the objectives of the study. After the completion of data collection process, the researcher edited, coded, classified and tabulated the data. The collected data were then categorized into groups of classes on the basis of common characteristics in line with the objectives of the study. The researcher then transferred the data from the questionnaire to coding sheets and then to the tally sheets. After the researcher finished coding the sheets, the data were entered into the computer using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software version 20.0 to produce tables, graphs, and percentages, which were used to illustrate the various aspects of the study. The data were then analyzed quantitatively using descriptive statistics including percentages and graphical representations. Data collected through focus group discussion and indepth interview were transcribed and translated from the tapes and notes into readable formats and arranged in themes based on study objectives. The data were then utilized during data analysis to complement information collected through the questionnaire method as they were put in prose writing.

In general, the processes of analysis included coding the questionnaire responses, transcription and translation of the FGD and indepth interviews; tabulation and statistical

computation of data collected from the field. Data collected through Focus Group Discussion and Indepth interview were used to validate claims and information obtained through the questionnaire method.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

The researcher assured the migrants and the heads of families that the research is strictly governed by ethical principles. This was done during data collection. The consent of the migrants, heads of families and other participants in the study were sought as consent forms were administered to them in their localities and no one was forced to take part in the research. Also, their confidentiality was guaranteed by the researcher.

3.11 Methodological Challenges

This study encountered a number of challenges. The researcher encountered financial difficulties because the study lasted longer than expected. Respondents were reluctant to volunteer information to the researcher as many of them were mistaken the researcher for a government agent or somebody collecting information on behalf of an international organization. It took the intervention of traditional rulers and other stakeholders in those areas before respondents started volunteering information. This made the field work very stressful.

Again, the in-depth interviews conducted were very stressful because the earlier scheduled dates and time were severally changed because some interviewees were engaged in other activities. The researcher has to cancel and reschedule many sessions before he was finally successful.

Another methodological challenge was the literacy level of the respondents and participants. Many of the respondents were not literate. Consequently, the researcher has to direct-administer the questionnaire with the help of field assistants whom he had earlier on trained for that purpose.

Also in many of the areas covered, the conflict between herdsmen and farmers had made many families earlier selected for questionnaire administration to relocate. Getting them was not easy but after a thorough search they were found in the IDP camps and some were staying in nearby safe villages. These challenges were however resolved as the researcher intensify his search for the displaced respondents and finally got them.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data gathered on the implications of youth rural urban migration on agricultural productivity of families of peasant farmers in Benue State. The data were collected through the use of questionnaire, Focus Group Discussion and In-depth interviews. Although, 445 copies of questionnaire were administered to respondents who were mainly family heads, only 429 were returned and processed. The remaining 16 (4%) were found during data cleaning to have problems and therefore invalidated. The spread of the invalidated questionnaire across families show that 3 (19%) of the total invalidated questionnaire were from families without migrants, while 13(81%) were from families with migrants. The presentation here is therefore based on the 429 validated responses. The data collected from Focus Group Discussion and In-depth interviews were processed and presented in prose form. It was then used in triangulation during data analysis.

4.2 The Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

This section represents and analyzes the socio–demographic characteristics of respondents who participated in the study. The socio–demographic characteristics investigated here were type of peasant family, age, sex, marital status, level of formal education, and annual income of respondents. These are presented in Table 4.2.1.

Table 4.2.1: Socio–Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Socio- Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	percentage (%)
Type of Peasant Families		
Families without migrants	79	18.4
Families with migrants	350	81.6
Total	**429**	**100.0**
Age of Family Heads (Years)		
26-30	48	11.2
31-35	24	5.6
36-40	87	20.3
41-45	151	35.2
46 or older	119	27.7
Total	**429**	**100.0**
Gender		
Male	355	82.8
Female	74	17.2
Total	**429**	**100.0**
Marital Status		
Single	8	1.9
Married	251	58.5
Divorced/separated	57	13.3
Widowed	113	26.3
Total	**429**	**100.0**
Level of Educational attainment		
None	231	59.9
First School Leaving Certificate	121	28.2
WAEC/GCE/NECO/NAPEC	62	14.5
ND/NCE/DEGREE	13	3.0
No Response	2	0.5
Total	**429**	**100.0**
Estimated Annual Income (₦)		
50,000 or less	24	5.6
51,000 - 100,000	133	31.0
101,000 - 150,000	144	33.6
151,000 - 200,000	30	7.0
201,000 - 250,000	18	4.2
251,000 and above	77	17.9
No Response	3	0.7
Total	**429**	**100.0**

Source: Field Work, 2018

The first socio-demographic characteristic presented was type of peasant family of respondents. Peasant families were categorized into two; families without migrants and families with migrants. The distribution shows that the majority of the respondents

350(81.6%) were from families with migrants. The explanation for this is that in the study area migration of young men/women to the urban centres is perceived as an activity that increases the economic fortunes of sending families. A family with a lot of migrants is looked upon with great respect and accorded much dignity. This may have accounted for why they are in the majority.

The age distribution of respondents show that, a greater number were found to be aged 41 or older. The implication of this finding on agricultural productivity of families of peasant farmers is that productivity may fall because the older population cannot work effectively on the farm.

The Gender distribution of respondents reveal that majority (82.8%) of the respondents were male. That the male gender is in the larger number is an indication that the study area is a male dominated society where women are hardly in a position to head families. In such male dominated societies, most decisions relating to migration and agriculture are taken with little or no consultation with the female gender. This may have over the years affected productivity. This is because the contribution of women is often neglected. In rural economies where most agricultural activities are undertaken by women neglecting them in the decision making process is retrogressive.

The educational distribution of respondents showed that majority of the respondents (59.9%) had no formal education with a fewer number acquiring various secondary and post - secondary certificates. The implication of this finding is that many youths from these families may choose to migrate to the urban centres to learn a trade, engage in

business or acquire western education. The migration of such youths to the town may affect agricultural productivity.

The distribution of respondents by annual income showed that majority 144(33,6%) of the respondents earn between ₦101, 000 - ₦150, 000 per annum. The income level of the respondents was ge3nerally found to be poor. From table 4.2.1, the income of the respondents is far below the United Nations minimum bench mark of one dollar per day. This finding has obvious implications on youth rural urban migration and Agricultural production. Low annual income at the disposal of family heads means that most agricultural activities may be hampered. The head of families may in the alternative encourage their members to migrate to the urban areas to find better paying jobs.

4.3 Predisposing Factors for Youth Rural – Urban Migration

This section examines the predisposing factors responsible for youth rural-urban migration in the study area. Respondents were asked to state to what extent a number of stated factors were considered to be responsible for youth rural –urban migration. The presentation is shown in Table 4.3.1.

Table 4.3.1: Mean of predisposing Factors Responsible for Youth Rural – Urban Migration

S/No	Factor	Mean*	Standard Deviation
01	Search for job	2.99	0.07
02	Family affair	2.83	0.38
03	Marriage	2.21	0.41
04	Education	2.65	0.47
05	Famine	2.43	0.50
06	Health issues	2.39	0.49
07	Conflict/wars	3.00	0.05
08	Land tenure system	2.45	0.50
09	Differences in employment	2.99	0.00
10	Family Size	2.46	0.50
11	Age	2.50	0.50
12	Flood/drought	2.51	0.50

***Multiple Responses.** **Mean Cut off = 1.5**

Source: Field Work, 2018

A number of predisposing factors were found to be responsible for youth rural –urban migration in Benue State. From Table 4.3.1, the highest mean value of predisposing factors that influence youth rural-urban migration is that of conflicts/wars ($\overline{X}$=3.00), followed by search for jobs ($\overline{X}$=.2.99), and differences in employment ($\overline{X}$=2.99). The factor with the lowest mean value is marriage ($\overline{X}$= 2.21). It is observed that conflict/war has the highest mean of 3.00. This may be attributable to the fact that the state is presently experiencing communal conflicts as well as farmer-herder conflicts which many respondents consider as the most potent factor responsible for youth rural –urban migration as opposed to the idea of youth rural urban migration. The farmer – herder conflict in the state has displaced over 65,000 people with many moving into camps which are concentrated in the urban areas (Mbah *et al*, 2016).

Data collected from FGD and indepth interviews revealed similar factors with fewer differences as being responsible for youth rural-urban migration. Among the factors identified by participants include conflicts, differences in employment opportunities, oppressive land policies, famine, health issues, education and search for job. Those mentioned by participants that were not identified by respondents include, poor infrastructure, poverty, land scarcity, family structure, population growth and climatic change. A traditional ruler during one of the indepth interview sessions in Adaka community retorted that:

> Although our children migrate to the city for several reasons ranging from search for jobs, marriage, education etc, the most potent factor in their migrating to urban centres now is the conflict between farmers and herdsmen. Many of us have moved our children to stay with our relatives because of fear of attacks.

A female youth migrant during a Focus Group Discussion session in Oju, one of the urban sites for the study stated that many of her family members migrate to the urban areas to escape from poverty which is widespread in the rural areas. She furthered that:

> Agriculture is no longer viable as the soil has lost fertility and we rely on fertilizer for a good harvest. The fertilizer itself is too expensive and sometimes we cannot even find it. Apart from that the poverty level here is not worth it so we decide to move to the urban area where we hope to get small jobs and survive. Other reasons for migration include poor infrastructure, land scarcity and wars between communities and herdsmen.

A farmer who said he has four children living in the urban area during an indepth interview in Igwu – Akor community explained that they cannot continue to ask their children to stay in the villages since the city seem to have most of what the young men desire. He narrated that:

> Our village here has no basic infrastructure such as electricity, good schools and there are no job opportunities for our children. Some of them want to learn computer but we can't find computer training schools here. After initial denial of permission for them to go to the urban area, I and my wife decided to let them go

One of the youth migrants in Makurdi explained during a Focus Group Discussion session that the lack of basic infrastructure in his village coupled with incessant herdsmen attacks has driven many of them off agricultural lands to the urban centres. He lamented thus:

> Many of us have been compelled to leave our rural communities for the town because our areas have poor infrastructure. Apart from that, there are no job opportunities and the recent spate of attacks by herdsmen has complicated matters as many youths are moving to the urban centers not necessarily for jobs but for security

A female farmer who ran away from her home and is living in Gbajumba one of the urban sites for the study with a relative lamented during a FGD session that, she cannot go to the farm again because she has become used to urban life and as such she prefers business to farm work. She further stated that:

> We came to this place (Gbajumba) when life in the village became unbearable for us as a result of lack of employment opportunities, decaying infrastructure, family quarrels and cultural restrictions that prohibit the girl child from owning property in her father's house. Aggravating the situation was the conflict between farmers and herders which lead to the destruction of farms and even the crops we had harvested. I came here with my children so that the children can go to school. I also do petty business and think this is more rewarding than farming. I think going back to the village to engage in farming is for now completely out of the way. We will stay here. This is because the schools here are better than those in the village. So while my children go to school, I will be frying and selling this Akara and the little money I make here will sustain us.

From what participants stated at both IDI sessions and focus group discussions, it is evident that youths migrate to the urban centers for various reasons. In the study area, the most important factor now is conflict/wars. While in some areas the rural communities are experiencing communal skirmishes, others are experiencing farmer – herder's conflict. These have in conjunction with other predisposing factors encourage youths to migrate to the urban centres.

The next area investigated was the participation in agricultural activities by gender. The aim was to determine the extent to which the female and male gender contributes to agricultural productivity through engagement in various agricultural activities in the production chain. Towards this end respondents were asked to tick from a number of stated agricultural activities the ones they often participate in during the farming cycle. The responses were collated and presented in Table 4.3.2

Table 4.3.2: Participation in Agricultural activities by Gender in the study area

Agricultural activity	Gender/contribution				
	Male*	Female*	Total	Difference	% Difference
Clearing the land	54(58.06%)	39(41.94%)	93(100%)	15	16.12%
Tilling the soil	102(60.71%)	66(39.29%)	168(100%)	36	21.42%
Planting	27(30%)	63(70%)	90(100%)	-36	40%
Weeding	45(38.79%)	71(61.21%)	116(100%)	-26	22.42%
Harvesting	92(67.15%)	45(32.83%)	137(100%)	47	34.32%
Processing	15(17.44%)	71(82.56%)	86(100%)	-56	65.12%
Transportation of crops to the house	67(48.91%)	70(51.09%)	137(100%)	-3	2.18%

*Multiple Responses

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.3.2 represents a number of agricultural activities undertaken by both gender in the study area. From the Table an agricultural activity such as clearing of the land has a total of 93 respondents involved. Out of this number 54(58.06%) were male while 39(41.94%) were female. For planting, a total of 90 respondents were reported to be involved. Out of this number, 63(70%) were females while 27(30%) were male. Weeding as an agricultural activity has 116 respondents who reported that they were involved in it. Out of this number, 71(61.21%) were females compared to 45(38.79%) that were males. This represents a 22.42% difference. Also processing as an agricultural activity has 86 respondents who indicated that they were involved in it. Out of this number 71(82.56%)

were females while 15(17.44%) were found to be males. This has shown a 65.12% difference. In all, most agricultural activities undertaken in the area have most females participating. This is in acknowledgement of the role played by the female gender in agricultural production in the study area.

Data collected through FGD and IDI have indicated divergent opinions on the matter. A female participant at an IDI session in Otukpo stated thus:

> I think both gender play complimentary roles in the agricultural production process. To say one participates more than the other will be a negation of the truth. While some activities are dominated by the female gender, others have more males engaged in them. Usually, while the more strenuous activities are under taken by the male gender, the less strenuous are for the female gender.

Another participant during a FGD session in Oju stated that in most rural areas, both gender cooperate in ensuring that all the agricultural activities are completed on time. He noted that:

> The goal in every task is to ensure timely completion of each activity. So we unite in our efforts towards timely completion of each task so that all crops cultivated do not exceed the period of cultivation. You know cultivating crops on time is very important as this ensure good harvest

A male farmer in Aune disagreed with the notion of men jointly carrying out activities with the female gender. He stated that in his own village there is an established tradition that excludes the male gender from participating in certain activities. He observed that:

> In my community here men are excluded from certain farming activities. For example, winnowing of grains, is for women and we frown at men involvement in winnowing activities in the family. Processing of cassava into Garri is also undertaken by women. We also exempt the men from carrying crops from the farm to the house by head. The women do most of these activities all by themselves.

4.4 The Implications of Youth Rural – Urban Migration on Labour Cost

This section of the work examines issues relating to youth rural-urban migration and labour cost. The aim is to first ascertain to what extent the migration of youths to the cities has affected the cost of labour per unit of land. The second aim is to determine whether the out migration of youths has affected the stock of labour available to families with a view to determining whether what is left behind after migration is enough to engage in any meaningful agricultural activities.

In order to determine the stock of available labour, respondents were asked to state the available labour force in their families before and after migration for a number of agricultural activities such as land clearing, planting and fertilizer, weeding, harvesting and thrashing, processing, transportation of crops to the house, as well as marketing. The presentation is done on Table 4.4.1

Table 4.4.1: Mean Number of Available Labour for Agricultural Activities Before and After Commencement of Migration in peasant families in the Study Area

Agricultural activity	Period							
	Mean available labour before migration*				Mean available labour after migration*			
	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total mean	Mean difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Mean difference
Land clearing	3.32	3.28	6.60	-0.04	0.30	2.00	2.30	1.70
Planting and fertilizer	2.52	2.62	5.14	0.1	0.10	1.9	2.00	1.80
Weeding	2.32	2.35	4.67	0.03	0.41	2.11	2.52	1.70
Harvesting and thrashing	3.01	3.09	6.10	0.08	0.31	2.79	3.10	2.48
Processing	3.45	3.70	7.15	0.25	2.23	4.28	5.51	2.05
Transportation of crops to the house	2.45	2.71	5.16	0.26	0.32	1.92	2.24	1.60
Marketing	2.47	2.54	5.01	0.07	0.41	1.72	2.13	1.31

*Multiple Responses

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.4.1 shows the $\overline{X}$ number of available labour by families before and after commencement of migration. It can be observed that before commencement of migration from families there were no significant differences in the stock of available labour for both families with migrants and those without migrants. For example, an agricultural activity such as land clearing before migration has a total $\overline{X}$ available labour of 6.60. A breakdown of this stock along family types based on migratory pattern shows that families with migrants has a $\overline{X}$ value of 3.28 stock of available labour while families without migrants has a $\overline{X}$ number of 3.32. The absolute difference between both family types was -0.04. It can be observed that before migration, there were no significant differences between the family types in terms of stock of labour available to them since each has most of their youth available. However, the commencement of migration saw a drop in labour available to families. During this period, the stock of labour dwindled as the total stock dropped to a $\overline{X}$ value of 2.30. A distribution of this $\overline{X}$ value among the types of families within this period shows that families with migrants have a $\overline{X}$ value of 0.30 while families without migrants have a $\overline{X}$ value of 2.00. This represents a $\overline{X}$ difference of 1.70. From the Table it is evident that after migration, families without migrants have a larger stock of labour available to it since most of its members were intact. The stock of labour available to families with migrants dropped significantly during this period since most of its members moved to the urban centres. It was also observed that processing as an agricultural activity has the highest total $\overline{X}$ available labour (7.15 before and 5.51 after migration). This is explained in terms of the category of persons involved in this activity and their ability to migrate. In the study

area, processing is undertaken by women and cultural prohibitions have over the period made it difficult for women to migrate with ease to the urban areas. On the whole all agricultural activities dropped in available labour after migration. The inference one can draw from this trend of migration is that the drift of youths from the rural areas to the urban areas has created labour shortages for agricultural activities. The implication is that many families that have their members migrated to the urban areas are likely to cut down their farm size or use money which would have been used for other family commitments to hire labour.

The data obtained from the focus group discussion and indepth interview tended to support the above finding with few divergences. Participants at most of the focus group discussion sessions were unanimous that migration of young ones from the rural areas to the city has left families with fewer labourers for agricultural activities. A farmer during one of the IDI sessions in Adaka, Makurdi local government area stated that:

> We used to have enough labour before our children began moving to the urban areas. Then our farmlands were large and would be cultivated on time. But all that is now history. Our children have all moved to the city and as such we have fewer available labourers for agricultural activities. The problem is even compounded by the fact that we have no money to hire labour.

Another farmer in Ainu retorted that:

> The stock of labour for farm activities has been drastically reduced since out migration of our youths began. At the initial stage of the phenomenon, it involved a few people but the trend has seen a lot of youth being involved which has significantly reduced the available labour for our families. Presently, families no longer have their members together. Most families have their members living in the urban areas either working or schooling.

A female farmer from Igwu – Akor a rural community in Oju Local government area disagreed with the view that youth rural urban migration has depleted the quantity of labour available to peasant families in the rural areas. She stated during one of the I.D.I that:

> The problem with labour shortages is not so much resulting from youth rural urban migration. I think the youth did not just like farm work now. Even with migration the ones left behind would have been enough for each family to produce sufficient food for itself coupled with the money sent by those who left for the cities. I want to believe that farm work is no longer viable in meeting the needs of the rural youths. The ones left in the villages are increasingly diversifying by venturing into other non - farm sources of income in order to take care of their families.

A traditional rural in Ainu, explained during an IDI session that the labour shortages been experienced in the rural areas is not necessarily due to youth out migration. He stated that labour shortages experienced are due to lack of interest in agriculture by the youth coupled with the fact that parents no longer teach the younger ones farming practices. He retorted:

> The youth are no longer brought up in our culture. When we were growing up our parents thought us farming practices that made farm work interesting. Today, parents are no longer doing this and as such the youth feel everything in farming is bad. They feel engaging in agricultural practice is degrading and punitive. Consequently, though they may be found in large numbers in the rural areas, they do not subscribe to agriculture and do not constitute labour.

Respondents were further asked to estimate the cost of hiring labour per hectare for cultivation of a number of crops especially for rice, maize, sorghum, yam and cassava. The intention here was to determine whether the movement of the younger ones who constitute the labour force on the farms to the city has any direct impact on cost of hiring labourers. The responses are shown in Table 4.4.2**.**

Table 4.4.2: Average Cost of Hiring Labour for the Cultivation of Five Crops (per hectare in thousands of Naira) Before and After Commencement of Migration of Youths in two Rural Communities in the Study Area

Name of Community/Period																
Crops	**Adaka**								**Aune**							
	Cost of hiring labour before migration				**Cost of hiring labour after migration**				**Cost of hiring labour before migration**				**Cost of hiring labour after migration**			
	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Absolute difference	% difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Absolute difference	% difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Absolute difference	% difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Absolute difference	% difference
Rice	25000	24300	-700	60.87	45000	25000	-20000	30.82	20450	21300	850	242.86	27200	21300	-5900	18.73
Maize	20000	19750	-250	21.74	30000	20000	-10000	15.41	19000	18500	-500	-142.86	21500	18500	-3000	9.52
Sorghum	20000	20000	00	00	30000	20000	-10000	15.41	18000	18800	800	228.57	21500	18500	-3000	9.52
Yam	28500	27800	-700	60/87	48500	28500	-20000	30.82	26800	26400	-400	-114.29	41000	26500	-14500	46.03
Cassava	16000	16500	500	-43.48	21400	16500	-4900	7.55	17700	17300	-400	-114.29	22600	17500	-5100	16.19
Total	109500	108350	-1150	100	174900	110000	-64900	100	101950	102300	350	100	133800	102300	-31500	100

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.4.2 shows respondent's estimated cost of hiring labour per hectare in naira for five crops before and after migration commenced in their families in two communities covered by the study. From the Table, it can be observed that the cost of hiring labour for the cultivation of various crops increased significantly after migration of family members to the city. In Adaka, among the crops, the pre-migration costs of hiring labour amongst families with migrants for the cultivation of yams is the highest (₦28500 per hectare) while the lowest pre – migration cost of cultivation is that of cassava (₦16,000 per hectare). The highest cost of hiring labour in Adaka for the cultivation of crops after migration amongst families with migrants is that of yams (₦48500 per hectare) while the lowest cost for crop cultivation after migration amongst families with migrants is that of cassava (₦ 21,400 per hectare). On the whole, it was observed that no significant differentials in labour cost exist among families before migration. However, significant cost differences were noticed after migration commenced amongst families in Adaka.

For Aune, no significant cost differentials among the family types were observed before migration. From the Table, before migration, families with migrants and those without migrants shared almost similar labour cost. For example, the cost differences for hiring labour for the production of rice (₦ 850), maize (₦-500), sorghum (-400), and cassava (-400) does not indicate significant cost differentials. This is further indicated by the total absolute difference in cost put at ₦350.00.

After migration however, significant cost differentials were noticed among the family types. Here, the cost of hiring labour amongst the various family types changed. The crop with the highest cost differential is yam (₦-14500), with a percentage difference of

46.03%. The lowest cost differential is that of sorghum and maize (₦-3000) indicating a percentage change of 9.52%.

The data gathered through indepth interview and focus group discussion sessions indicated that the cost of hiring labour is on the increase. A prominent farmer in Ainu lamented the rising cost of hiring labour during an IDI session thus:

> Hiring labour in this place has become a nightmare for us. This is because the cost of hiring a labourer to work for you on a piece of land has been on the increase. This is in spite of the fact that the bad economy has left us with little cash to hire labour. Furthermore, inviting relatives and friends to come and help you on the farm is even out of the question these days. When we invite them, they hardly show up and if they seldom did, the job done is always very small. The use of mechanized agriculture would have helped us but the tractors are not available and we cannot even pay for their services.

A female farmer in Adaka during an IDI session retorted that:

> For many of us who rely on hiring labour for our agricultural activities, life has been very difficult. This is due to the rising cost of hiring workers from clearing the land to cultivation through harvesting everything has changed in terms of cost. Gone are the days when we used little money to get workers on our farm. Today, when the rain comes, everybody engages himself on their farm and the few who are free charges exorbitant prices for their services which are usually out of reach of the poor.

A traditional ruler in Gbajumba, one of the locations for the IDI noted that hiring labourers for farming activities in his domain was increasingly becoming difficult and expensive. He further lamented that:

> Hiring people to work on the farm has been difficult. The difficulty arises from the high cost of hiring the labourers. For those of us that have sent our children to the city for education, the situation is even worse as most labourers here refuse to work for us. We are therefore left with no option than to go to neighbouring villages to bring workers and this means additional cost.

A youth leader of one of the community based rural farmer Associations in Akpagher indicated that even as youths themselves, it was increasingly becoming difficult to hire labourers. It was out of the desire to meet the labour needs of its members that the association embarked on cooperation among its members. He narrated that:

> The scarcity of labour resulting from youth rural – urban migration in our community has hiked the unit cost of hiring labour. The last farming session witnessed even higher labour cost and we therefore have to think of a way of overcoming the problem. Members of our Association decided to help each by designing a scheme where members work on each other's farm in turns. Through this method, we have been able to overcome the problem of high cost of labour though momentarily

Another farmer in Akpagher observed that the hike in labour cost is not necessarily out of labour scarcity arising from youth out migration but due to pressure on labour especially during peak periods. He insisted that:

> The movement of youths to the urban areas though has depleted labour in our area. I think the hike in cost of labour is not because of youth out migration but is due to pressure on labour especially during peak periods. During particular periods in our community whether the youths refuse to migrate and are available, labour cost usually rise. This is usually due to excess demand.

From all indications, hiring labour for farm work has been very expensive for farm families. As revealed by both the quantitative and qualitative data, the families in the study area are charged huge amounts of money before their pieces of lands are cleared, cultivated or harvested. Many families cannot afford such money thereby making them cultivate less land which inevitably leads to decline in the stock of food available for consumption.

4.5. The Implications of Youth Rural-Urban Migration on Agricultural Productivity of Peasant Families in Benue State.

In this section, the implications of youth rural-urban migration on agricultural production of peasant families were examined. The implications of youth rural –urban migration on agricultural productivity were determined based on quantity of crops and livestock production undertaken by peasant families in the state. Other criteria include farm size, working hours and quality of labour. In crop production five popular crops that constitute food staples in Benue State which include, rice, maize, sorghum, yam and cassava were evaluated. For livestock production, five livestock namely sheep, pigs, goats, chicken and guinea fowl were evaluated. Here also, the pre-migration and post migration production were compared using mean production quantities. The mean differences and percentages were taken with a view to determining changes that have been noticed.

The first area investigated relates to the type of cropping system practiced by farmers in the study area. The aim was to understand whether a particular cropping system is dominant in the face of youth rural – urban migration. The presentation is done in the Table 4.5.1.

Table: 4.5.1. Type of Cropping System Practiced by peasant families in Benue State

Type of cropping system	Type of family/Period									
	Number of families practicing a particular cropping system before migration					Number of families practicing a particular cropping system after migration				
	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Difference	% difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Difference	% Difference
Mono cropping	89(49.72%)	90(50.27%)	179(100)	01	11.11	24(26.09%)	68(73.91%)	92(100%)	44	-31.21
Crop Rotation	81(49.09)	84(50.91%)	165(100)	03	33.33	16(22.22%)	56(77.78%)	72(100%)	40	-28.37
Mixed Cropping	40(47.06%)	45(52.94%)	85(100)	05	55.56	245(92.45%)	20(7.55%)	265(100%)	-225	159.57
Total	210	219	429	09	100	285(66.43%)	144(33.57%)	429(100)	-141	100

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.5.1 shows the result when the question on the type of cropping system practiced by farmers in the study area was presented to respondents. On the one hand, a total of 179 families indicated that they practice mono cropping system of farming before migration commenced in their families. Out of this number 90(50.27%) were from families without migrants as compared to 89(49.72%) of those who practiced mono cropping that were from families with migrants. The absolute difference is 01 while the percentage difference is 11.11%. Also, a total of 165 respondents stated that they practice crop rotation. Out of this number 84(50.91) were from families without migrants compared to 81(33.33%) of those from families with migrants that indicated that they practiced crop rotation. Again, 85 families stated that they practice mix cropping. Out of this number, 45(52.94%) were from families without migrants as compared to 40(47.06%) that were from families with migrants.

On the other hand, 92 families indicated that they practice mono cropping system after migration of youth commenced from their families. Out of this number 24(26.09%) were from families without migrants compared to 68(73.91%) of those that practiced mono cropping that were from families with migrants. A further 72 families practiced crop rotation. Out of this number, 16(22.22%) reported that they were from families without migrants as compared to 56(77.78%) of those who practiced crop rotation that were families with migrants. Again, 265 families indicated that they practice mix cropping. Out of this number, 245(92.45%) were from families with migrants compared to 20(7.55%) of those who practiced mix cropping that are from families without migrants.

On the whole, there seems to be no significant difference in the number of families that practiced a particular cropping system before commencement of migration. After

commencement of migration however, most families with migrants moved over to the practice of mix cropping. The reason for this movement is borne out of the fact that mix cropping involves cultivating many crops on the same plot of land and both grow together. Families with many migrants chose this practice so as to use few labour but plant much on the same plot of land.

Qualitative data collected through indepth interview and focus group discussion indicated that most participants were inclined to the practice of mixed cropping in the study area. The participants were of the opinion that the practice of mixed cropping minimizes cost and at the same time maximizes output. A farmer in Igwu Akor during an IDI session stated thus:

> We engage in mixed cropping so as to minimize the extra cost that would have been incurred if each crop were to be planted on a separate plot of land. We therefore save cost of cultivation, fertilization and weeding by planting several crops together. At the end, each crop is harvested when it matures

In contrast to this view, another farmer in Agasha during an FGD session insisted that mix cropping does not increase farm yields as jumbling several crops on the same piece of lands decreases output. He noted that:

> The practice of planting several crops on the same piece of land together does not always lead to bumper harvest. Very often when crops are jammed packed on a plot of land in the name of mix cropping, they grow thin and yield less. I think it is better to plant one crop at a time on a piece of land or at most two so as to allow them grow and yield effectively.

Another farmer in Agasha during an IDI session reveal that the scarcity of land presently does not encourage mono –cropping. He explained further that population expansion as a result of child birth has made many families to engage in mixed cropping. He observed

that crop rotation as a farming system was no longer in vogue. This he explains was as a result of land scarcity. He further narrated thus:

> Farmers no longer engage in mono-cropping and crop rotation because these practices require vast lands. Because land is scarce and in short supply, we go for mixed cropping. Through this farming system, we can plant several crops together. Some of the crops that we can plant together include, yams, cassava, maize, okra and beans.

Attempts were also made to establish from respondents the major type of crops they cultivate and the quantity produced for each crop in the study area. The aim was to determine whether a particular crop dominates the others in contributing to food sustainability of families in the study area. The finding reveals varying crops and quantities that were produced by families. The presentation is shown in Table 4.5.2.

Table: 4.5.2: Major Crops and their Quantities Produced by Families in the Study Area (in tons).

Crop	Type of Family/Period							
	Quantities of crops produced before migration (in tons)				Quantity of crops produced after migration (in tons)			
	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Difference
Rice	210	208	418	-2.00	76.21	170.79	247	94.58
Yam	478.65	480.35	959	1.70	121.75	313.25	435	191.50
Cassava	190.50	194.50	385	04	51.88	198.12	250	146.24
Total	879.15	882.85	1762	3.70	249.84	682.16	1944.79	432.32

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.5.2 shows the major crops produced by families in the study area. Three crops were identified by families as major type of crops they produced. The crops include yam, rice and cassava. The distribution of crops produced according to type of family migratory pattern show that families produced a grand total of 1762 tons before commencement of migration in the study area. The distribution further indicated that 418 tons of this was rice. Out of the quantity that was rice, 208(49.76%) tons were produced by families without migrants as compared to 210(48.95%) that were produced by families with migrants. Also 959 tons of yams were produced by families before migration. Out of this number 480.35(50.09%) tons were produced by families without migrants as compared to 478.65(49.91%) tons produced by families with migrants. In all, one can infer that there is no significant difference in the total quantities of crops produced amongst family types based on migratory pattern (families with migrants and those without migrants) before migration. The total difference of 3.70 tons further buttresses this fact.

It was however observed that after commencement of migration families produced a grand total of 1944.79 tons of crops in the study area. A total of 247 tons of this grand quantity produced was rice. The distribution of the quantity of rice produced show that 170.79(69.15%) tons were produced by families without migrants as compared to 76.21(30/85%) tons produced by families with migrants. Again, 435 tons of the grand total produced was yams. Out of this quantity, 313.25(72.01%) was produced by families without migrants. When this is compared with 121.75(27.82%) produced by families with migrants, a difference of 191.50 tons was found to exist. A similar trend was found in the production of cassava. For cassava production, a total of 250 tons was produced by

families. Out of this number 198.12(79.23%) tons was produced by families without migrants as compared to 51.88(20.75%) tons produced by families with migrants. The absolute difference here is 146.24 tons.

On the whole it was observed that, after commencement of migration, families without migrants tend to produce more quantities of crops when compared to quantities produced by families with migrants. This can be explained based on the fact that families without migrants have their family labour intact and as such can produce higher quantities. In the case of families with migrants, they are constrained to produce less since most of their members have migrated to the urban centres and hiring labour has proved to be expensive.

The results from the qualitative data collected through indepth interviews and focus group discussion indicated similar trends with few divergent views. Participants identified the same crops upon which they were engaged as farmers. They stated that these crops were cultivated and produced in large quantities because they were used for food in the families. A head of one of the families in Ainu stated thus:

> We cultivate and produce a variety of crops in this part of the country because the land is good for their cultivation. Besides, most of these crops constitute food staples which we use in feeding our family members. For example, cassava is used in the production of Garri, Akpu and even starch. These products are consumed in our families and also sold to generate income.

A female farmer who was interviewed stated that the quantity of these crops produced presently fall short of what they used to produce ten years ago. She lamented thus:

> Although we engage in the production of a variety of crops, what we produce is not always enough to sustain us and our families. This is because we are presently facing the challenge of non-availability of labourers to work on our farms. This challenge has led to less cultivation of crops which has invariably led to dwindling crop production. What we therefore produce cannot take

> us all year round. Sometimes we buy food to augment the shortage so that the children will not starve.

Another farmer in Akpagher stated that a number of other crops hitherto not produced in the area are gradually coming on board. He added that these new crops are now produced in large quantities. He noted that:

> It is no longer a fact that the state produces crops such as yams, cassava and rice only in large quantities. Other crops such as cucumber, cabbage, onions, carrot, and water melon are now been produced in large quantities in Benue State. A few families in the area have gone ahead to engage in the processing of cassava into Akpu, Garri and starch in far larger quantities for domestic and commercial use. This is mainly undertaken by women

A female farmer in Igwu – Akor, one of the rural sites for the study further identified other crops produced in the State. She stated that:

> The belief that Benue State can only produce yams, maize and Cassava is gradually eroding as families are now cultivating and harvesting bountifully other crops such as Millet, Groundnuts, and Irish potatoes. These crops hitherto grown in the State are gradually coming up and are been planted and harvested all over the State in large quantities.

From the analyses thus far, one can infer that different types of crops can be grown in the State. This then means that peasant families can cultivate and harvest a variety of crops which can be consumed and sold in markets for income. The problem however is the labour that is required to till the soil for cultivation, tendering, harvesting and processing of the crops.

The next area investigated relates to major livestock reared by families in the study area. The aim was to understand the dominant livestock reared in view of the introduction of the anti-open grazing law in the state. Consequently, attempts were made to find out from respondents the major livestock they reared. The most common livestock identified by respondents include, chickens, pigs, sheep and goats. The presentation is done in Table 4.5.3.

Table 4.5.3: Livestock Reared by Peasant Families and their Quantities in the Study Area (in absolute numbers).

Type of Livestock	Type of Family/Period							
	Quantity of Livestock reared before migration (in tons)				Quantity of Livestock Reared after migration (in tons)			
	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Difference
Chicken	1180(47.35%)	1312(52.65%)	2492(100%)	32(45.07%)	540(31.91%)	1152(68.09%)	1692(100%)	612(52.44%)
Pigs	328(48.59%)	347(51.41%)	675(100%)	19(26.76%)	81(23.41%)	265(76.59%)	346(100%)	184(15.77%)
Sheep and Goats	803(49.38%)	823(50.62%)	1626(100%)	20(28.17%)	227(27.52%)	598(72.48%)	825(100%)	371(31.79%)
Total	2311(48.22%)	2482(51.78%)	4793(100%)	71(100%)	848(29.62%)	2015(70.38%)	2863(100%)	1167((100%))

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.5.3 shows responses of respondents when they were asked to state the major livestock and quantities reared in their families. From the Table, 4793(100%) livestock were reared by peasant families before commencement of youth rural urban migration in the study area. Out of this number 2492(51.99%) were chickens. The distribution of this quantity of chickens amongst peasant families based on migration pattern show that 1312(56.65%) were reared by families without migrants. This can be compared to 1180(47.35%) reared by families with migrants. The difference of 32 chickens does not represent any significant difference in the quantities reared by both families.

Similarly, 1626 sheep and goats were indicated to have been reared by peasant families before migration. Out of this number 823(50.62%) were reared by families without migrants when compared to 803(49.38%) reported to have been reared by families with migrants. The difference here is 20 sheep and goats. In the end, there seems to be no much difference in the quantities of livestock reared between families with migrants and those without migrants before commencement of migration.

On the other hand, a total of 2863 livestock were indicated to have been reared by families after commencement of migration. Further detailed investigation revealed that 1692 were chickens. Out of this number that was chickens, 1152(68.09%) were reared by families without migrants as compared to 540(31.91%) that were reared by families with migrants. A total of 346 were indicated to be pigs. Out of this number 265(76.59%) were reared by families without migrants as compared to 81(23.41) that were reared by families with migrants. It was also observed that the most reared livestock before and after migration was chicken while the least reared livestock before and after migration was pig. The reason for this could be that the rearing of chickens does not require large

size of labour if they are to be reared using free - range management system. Under this system, chickens are allowed to move freely and feed around the house and even in the neighborhood. Majority of the farmers rearing chickens it was observed use the free - range method. Furthermore, families who were before now rearing pigs, goats and sheep are increasingly moving over to the rearing of chickens. This has made the pigs to be the least reared livestock in the study area. This is as a result of the introduction of the anti-open grazing and Prohibition law passed in the state. Under this law, domestic animals such as cows, goats, pigs and sheep are to be reared in ranches and not allowed to move freely. Violators of this law attract appropriate sanctions such as fines, seizure or outright forfeiture of the livestock which may be auctioned to members of the public.

The data collected from FGD and Indepth interviews indicated that most farmers now rear chickens although they rear goats, sheep and even cows. A farmer during one of the FGD sessions in Agasha said:

> Most of us farmers who were rearing goats, sheep, pigs and cows have now moved over to the rearing of chickens. This is because apart from the quick turnover that is possible with this kind of farming, the law introduced by the government now requires us to confine our animals. This means more labourers to take care of them and our children are not there. They have since moved over to the city for work and education. But the rearing of chickens does not require all this trouble since they can be allowed to move around and feed on their own.

Another farmer in Ainu stated that though many farmers are moving over to rearing of chickens, some of them believe that both can be reared in large quantities. He further stated that:

> Though many farmers are moving over to the rearing of chickens, I think both can be reared together. Especially for those of us from families without migrants, there is the compelling need to continue in this regards since we have our children still living with us

Determining the Implications of Youth Rural-Urban Migration on Crop Production of Families of Peasant farmers in the study area

In order to determine the implications of youth rural-urban migration on crop production, five crops considered to be vital to the food needs of the people were evaluated across two study locations of Adaka and Aune, The production quantity for the two periods (Before migration and after migration) were obtained and compared for differences. The presentation of the data is shown in Table 4.5.4.

Table 4.5.4: Determination of the Implications of Youth Rural-Urban Migration on Quantity of Crops Produced by peasant Families for Five Crops across two communities in the Study Area (in tons)

Name of Community/Period																
Crops	Adaka								Aune							
	Quantity of crops produced before migration (tons)				Quantity of crops produced after migration (tons)				Quantity of crops produced before migration (tons)				Quantity of crops produced after migration (tons)			
	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Absolute difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Absolute difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Absolute difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Absolute difference
Rice	19	21	40	2.00	10	25	35	15	62.20	62.80	125	0.60	20.79	64.21	85	43.42
Maize	18.50	16.50	35	-1.00	08	18	26	10	35.79	34.21	70	-1.58	8.38	25.62	34	17.24
Sorghum	19.60	21.40	41	1.80	11	19	30	08	58.68	61.32	120	2.64	19.75	48.25	68	28,50
Yam	96.65	98.35	195	1.70	19	66	85	47	90.55	91.45	182	0.9	16.82	43.18	60	26.36
Cassava	31.69	32.31	64	0.62	09	31	40	22	25.65	24,35	50	-1.30	8.66	21.34	30	12.68
Total	185.44	189.56	375	5.12	57	159	216	102	272.87	274.13	547	1.26	74.40	202.60	277	128.20

Source: Field Work, 2018

In Table 4.5.4, the quantities of five crops produced by families in two study locations of Adaka and Aune before and after migration of young members from families are presented. From the Table, in Adaka before migration, a total of 375 tons of crops was produced by families. Out of this number, 40 tons were rice. The distribution among families based on migration pattern indicated that 21 tons were produced by families without migrants as compared to 19 tons produced by families with migrants. The production difference is put at 2 tons. Similarly, 41 tons of sorghum were produced. Out of this number, 21.40 tons were produced by families without migrants. This is compared to 19.60 tons produced by families with migrants. The absolute difference here is 1.80 tons.

After migration in Adaka, 216 tons of different crops were produced by families. Out of this quantity, 35 tons was rice. The distribution by family type shows that 25 tons were from families without migrants compared to 10 tons that were produced by families with migrants. Also 85 tons were yams. Out of this number 66 tons were produced by families without migrants compared to19 tons that were produced by families with migrants. On the whole, there seems to be little difference in production quantities amongst families (families with migrants and families without migrants) before commencement of migration. After migration however there appear to be much difference between the family types based on migratory pattern. After commencement of migration from families, the family without migrants tends to produce more than the family with migrants. This is because as youths move out to the cities, families with migrants have less labour to carry out any meaningful production. The families without migrants however have their members intact and as such can engage in the production of larger

quantities of crops. In Adaka, the crop least affected before commencement of migration is maize. Maize has a total pre migration production quantity of 35 tons and an after migration production quantity of 26 tons. The most affected crop in Adaka before and after migration is yam with a pre – migration production quantity of 195 tons and an after migration production quantity of 85 tons.

In Aune, the total production of crops before migration for families without migrants stood at 274.13 while that of families with migrants is indicated at 272.87. This shows a slim production difference of 1.26 tons. The crop most affected before commencement of migration in Aune was cassava (50 tons), while the least affected was yam (182 tons).

The situation of production after commencement of migration in Aune indicated that the total crop production for families without migrants stood at 202.60. However families with migrants have a total production quantity of 74.40. This implies a difference of 277 tons. The data presented also shows that families with migrants experienced a production decrease for all crops after migration commenced from their families. This is because many of their youth that constituted farm labour left for the city leaving behind the old and children. This has affected production negatively. It can be further observed that the crop most affected in terms of production after migration was cassava (30 tons) while the least affected is yams (85 tons).

Data gathered from indepth interview and Focus Group Discussion has indicated that crop production in the study area have systematically declined following the out migration of youths from the rural areas. During indepth interview with farmers, many of them decried the drastic fall in production of crops which they attributed to abandonment

of farming by the youths who constitute the main source of labour for farming activities. The farmers insisted that the preference by the youth for white collar jobs no matter how menial to farming activities has led to a fall in production of crops that are required to fill the food basket of the nation. A farmer in Igwu-Akor village narrated his plight thus:

> In this village before now, we used to produce a lot of crops by engaging in agriculture. These products we use for food and some we sell in our markets. That was then, presently we cannot even produce enough for ourselves and children. With declining fertility of the soil, we need to cultivate large parcels of land to produce the required quantity of crops. This then requires that we use additional labour and we can only use family labour as our main source. The children who constitute the main source of labour for the family have already migrated to the cities thereby making us to produce less quantity of crops.

The President of Adaka Young Farmers Association in a separate interview session at Adaka village in Makurdi Local Government Area disagreed with this view point highlighted above. He retorted that:

> The blame for diminishing agricultural productivity is often placed on youth rural urban migration but I do not agree with that viewpoint. This is because youth migrants send money to their parents and relatives to hire labour for faming activities. I think the problem is the soil that has grown infertile as a result of repeated use. The rural areas need farm inputs such as fertilizer, herbicides amongst others that can improve the soil quality and ensure bumper harvest

Another youth in Oju insisted that more credible alternatives towards improving productivity should be explored rather than blame the youth. He noted that:

> In the 21st century Nigeria should be exploring modern trends in agriculture rather than blame youth rural urban migration for its woes. I think the government should improve the working conditions of our peasant farmers such that they can upgrade their methods of cultivating, harvesting and processing crops. In the 21st century Nigeria, the youth has other issues of development to attend to instead of spending all his time in the village as a farm labourer

A farmer in Igwu – Akor noted that agricultural productivity has declined mainly due to smaller cultivated portions arising from lack of labour to till the soil. He observed that:

> We were known to be popular producers of maize, rice and cassava. These crops we use to produce in large quantities. This is no longer possible as the quantities we produce are just for our family consumption. Since we rarely use tractors for tilling the soil, we rely on the available family labour which has been greatly depleted due to out-migration from our villages. This has finally resulted in food shortages among our s.

Attempts were further made to determine the relationship between youth rural-urban migration and livestock production in the study area. Toward this end, four dominant livestock were focused; they include sheep/goats, pigs, chickens and guinea fowl. The production quantities for these livestock before and after migration in the two study locations were collected and absolute differences as well as percentages determined. The presentation is shown in Table 4.5.5:

Table 4.5.5: Determination of the Implications of Youth Rural-Urban migration on Livestock Production in two communities the study area (in absolute numbers)

Name of Community/Period																
Livestock	Adaka								Aune							
	Quantity of livestock produced before migration (tons)				Quantity of livestock produced after migration (tons)				Quantity of livestock produced before migration (tons)				Quantity of livestock produced after migration (tons)			
	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Absolute difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Absolute difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Absolute difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Absolute difference
Sheep/ Goat	130	126	256	-04	41	111	152	70	145	149	294	04	33	81	114	48
Pigs	66	62	128	-04	37	42	79	05	18	16	34	-02	04	10	14	06
Chicken	201	198	399	-03	121	177	298	56	215	211	426	-04	87	167	254	80
Guinea - fowl	87	92	179	05	57	64	121	07	96	107	203	11	34	59	93	25
Total	484	478	962	-06	256	394	650	138	474	483	956	09	158	317	475	159

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.5.5 shows the production quantities of five livestock before and after migration of youth from rural areas to the urban centers in two locations covered by the study. From the Table, in Adaka, a total of 962 livestock were reared by families before commencement of migration. The distribution of this quantity among the families based on migratory pattern shows that a total of 256 sheep and goats were produced. Out of this number126 were from families without migrants as compared to 130 that were produced by families with migrants. The absolute difference here is -04. The situation for Guinea – fowl is not different as it indicates little difference in production quantities between the family types before migration. A total of 179 Guinea – fowls were produced. Out of this quantity, 92 were produced by families without migrants as compared to 87 that were produced by families with migrants. It can be observed that before commencement of migration, no significant differences in production were identified between families with migrants and those without migrants. In Adaka before migration, a total of 962 livestock were produced. This quantity shrieked to 650 livestock upon commencement of migration in the community. In Aune community, 956 livestock were produced by families before migration but got reduced to 475 after commencement of migration. The most affected livestock before migration was pig (128) while the least affected was chickens (399).

Significant differences in production quantities were however noticed when migration commenced from families in the study area. It was observed after migration that a total of 650 livestock were produced by families in the study area. Out of this stock, 152 were sheep and goats. The spread amongst the family types indicated that 111 sheep and goats were produced by families without migrants while 41 were produced by families with

migrants. The absolute difference here is 70. For chickens 298 were produced by families in Adaka. Out of this number, 177 were produced by families without migrants while 121 were produced by families with migrants. The absolute difference here is 56. It was further observed that families without migrants tend to produce more quantities of livestock than families with migrants following the commencement of migration. The reason for this is that while families with migrants have most of their young ones move to the cities, those without migrants have theirs intact and as such would engage in more production. The livestock whose production has been most affected after migration is pig (79), while the least affected is chickens (298). This is an indication of a declining productivity in livestock production. This means that the movement of youths from the rural areas of Benue State has affected livestock production of peasant families. As youths move to the urban areas, labour available cannot adequately allow families engage in large scale livestock production.

Participants at the FGDs indicated that livestock production had tremendously fallen. They were of the opinion that the rearing of livestock such as goats, sheep, pigs and chickens require people to take care of them if they were to be properly managed. They argued that the introduction of the anti- open grazing law in Benue State implies that livestock cannot move freely and feed on their own. This means that additional labour is required for families to meaningfully practice rearing of livestock. The migration of youths from the rural areas to the urban centers portended danger for meaningful engagement in livestock production by families.

A farmer in Ainu village who rears chickens, goats and sheep stated that:

> The quantity of livestock that we use to rear as farmers has dropped over the years. This is because the introduction of anti-grazing law requires that we confine our livestock to one place. This means rearing livestock requires extra labour. For us that majority of our children are not staying here with us but have migrated to the city, it means we have to hire labourers and the money to do that is not there. We therefore cut down the number of livestock so that we can be able to manage it ourselves.

Another farmer at Aune community retorted during one of the IDIs that:

> Although we rear a lot of animals, the most reared once are chickens, goats, sheep and pigs. These animals we rear them not so much for marketing but for meeting our family needs. That is why you can see that they are not in large quantity. Sometimes, a need might arise for example, during festivities and we may not have the money to buy from the market and as such we resort to using what we have at home. But rearing them is now proving difficult because our children are no longer here with us. So we have to reduce their quantity to a number we can manage.

A youth leader of a community based association in Agasha further stated that:

> The migration of youths from our community here to the urban centers has created difficulties. For us that are rearing livestock, it has been problematic obtaining grasses to feed the animals, provide water for them and even ensure that they do not stray into other people's farms. Sometimes, livestock guards would come and carry our animals for roaming around. In such situations, we have to go and pay fines before they are released to us.

Efforts were also made to determine the effect of youth rural-urban migration on cultivable land (farm size) by peasant farmers. To this end, respondents were asked to state their cultivable land for five crops before and after migration commenced from their families. The area cultivated in hectares for each crop across the two rural locations was then determined and presented. The result is shown in Table 4.5.6.

Table 4.5.6: Size of Cultivated Land Before and After Emigration of Youths in the Study Area (in hectares)

Crops	Name of Community/Period/size of land															
	Adaka								Aune							
	Size of cultivated land before migration				Size of cultivated land after migration				Size of cultivated land before migration				Size of cultivated land after migration			
	Families with migrant	Families without migrants	Total	Absolute difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Absolute difference	Families with migrant	Families without migrant	Total	Absolute difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Absolute difference
Rice	63	62	125	-1	20	48	68	28	56	53	109	-3	31	53	84	22
Maize	75	70	145	-5	25	45	70	20	69	65	134	-4	33	48	81	15
Sorghum	78	74	152	-4	19	46	65	27	70	61	131	-9	31	55	86	24
Yam	88	84	172	-4	31	73	104	42	43	37	80	-6	27	41	68	14
Cassava	83	79	162	-4	28	50	78	22	127	123	250	-4	73	91	164	18
Total	387	369	756	-18	123	262	385	139	365	339	704	-26	195	288	483	93

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.5.6 shows the cultivable land by peasant farmers before and after migration commenced from their families for five crops across two rural locations of the study. From Table 4.5.6, it is evident that youth rural urban migration has affected the total land mass that rural families can cultivate. It can be observed that the total land mass cultivated by families before migration in Adaka community was 756 hectares. This shrieked to 385 hectares after migration commenced from families in the study area. This represents an absolute difference of 139 hectares from the cultivable land mass before migration. In Ainu community, the total cultivable land before migration was 704 hectares but reduced to 483 after migration of youths commenced from the families. This is an indication that farmers cut down their farm size because of lack of labour to cultivate large portions of land after migration of the youths to the urban centers. These youths constitute the labour force that families require for farm work since mechanized agriculture is rarely practiced. Their migration to the urban centers creates a shortfall in labour supply to families with a concomitant shrink in farm size.

From the Table, it can be observed that the crop with the highest total cultivated land before migration in Adaka was yam (172 hectares) while the crop with the least total cultivable land was rice (125 hectares). It is also observed that the crop with the least cultivated land after commencement of migration was sorghum (65 hectares) and the most was yam (104 hectares). In Ainu community, the most cultivated land mass before migration was for cassava (250 hectares) while the least was yams (80 hectares). After migration, the crop with the most cultivated land was cassava (164 hectares), the least was for yams (68 hectares).

Participants during focus group discussion and IDI sessions were divided in their opinions as to the effects of youth rural – urban migration on cultivable land. While some were of the opinion that they reduce their portion of land cultivated so as to diversify their sources of income by engaging in other businesses, others stated that the reduction in farm size was due to lack of labour to carry out extensive farming. One of the farmers in Gbajumba noted that:

> Cultivation of our farms has reduced significantly since our children began migrating to the urban centers. You know these children were the ones working the land for us. Now that they are no longer there, cultivation of large portions of land is very difficult and we therefore decided that we will cultivate less land using available means and lease out the rest to raise more money.

A traditional ruler in Ainu who engaged in the cultivation of yams and cassava in large quantity noted that he has since reduced his farm size due to the problems associated with getting labour to work for him. He noted that:

> My farm size has been reduced because my children are no longer there to work on it. My subjects that would have helped me are not forth-coming. They also have their portions to work on. I therefore, decided to reduce the size of land we use to cultivate. This is better for me now since I can now hire labourers to work on it.

A youth migrant in Gboko, one of the urban sites for the study stated that the youth should not be held accountable for the failure of the rural farmers to extend their farm practice. He observed that:

> The failure of the rural farmers to cultivate large parcels of land cannot be reasonably attributed to youth rural urban migration. I think the problem is that the land itself is becoming smaller due to increase in populations and the need to divide land amongst increasing population. It is therefore becoming more difficult for the rural farmers to cultivate large hectares of land since the portion allocated to him by his kinsmen is small.

The study further sought to know more about the quality of labour left in the family after migration. Consequently, respondents were asked to state the average age of those left in their family after commencement of migration. Age is an important socioeconomic variable. It could designate the quality of labour mainly due to the experience and exposure which the matured farmers possess. The presentation is shown in Table 4.5.7

Table 4.5.7: Average Age of those Left in the Family after Commencement of Out – Migration

Age category	Average age of those left in the family after youth migration to the city				
	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	difference	% Difference
26-30	30	18	48	-12	7.84
31-35	15	9	24	-6	3.92
36-40	48	39	87	-9	5.88
41-45	114	37	151	-77	50.33
46 or older	84	35	119	-49	32.03
Total	291	138	429	-153	100%

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.5.7 shows the reaction of respondents when they were asked to state the average age of those left in their families after migration. From the Table, it is evident that majority of the respondents are aged 41 years and above. For both families (families with migrants and those without migrants) this distribution portends grave danger for agricultural productivity. For families with migrants, the working age category (26- 40) has fewer members while the age category of older men (41 years and above) is much

larger. This distribution has obvious implications on the quality of available labour and agricultural productivity in the study area. In the first place, for a population to have more older men is indicative of the fact that majority of the members of families cannot engage in any meaningful work. They therefore, depend on what the others would produce for survival. This will definitely place a lot of strain on the working population who in this case are migrants who are even available. Secondly, the dependent population may require other supportive services such as nurses and other health care facilities whose provision may place more pressure on available resources. This may in the long run constrain production of agricultural products by diverting resources to other areas.

The indepth interviews and focus group discussions on quality of available labour show divergent views among participants. While some participants agree, others disagree with the view that when young men and women from their families migrate to the urban areas, those left behind in the family are usually children and the aged who cannot engage in any meaningful agricultural activity.

One of the participants in an indepth interview conducted in Akpagher, Gboko Local Government Area stated thus;

> Since my grown up children started moving to the city five years ago, I am left at home with two younger ones, myself and my wife. Although I have a family of nine, what is now left is just four of us. The rest have moved out to the city to seek employment after graduation from the university.

Another participant in Adaka stated that:

> As heads of families in this village, we are left with only our grandchildren to play around us since our adult children moved out to work in the city. I personally insisted that they work here in the village but all my children insisted that working in the city is the best for them. I

> have no option but to remain in this big compound alone with only my grandchildren who are small and cannot work on the farm. The small farm I now own is worked for me by hired labourers using money which my children often send to me to take care of myself and their siblings.

During a visit to Aune community in Otukpo local government area, the entire village was deserted and the only persons left behind were old men and children. An elderly man in the community during an IDI started that:

> Our village is near Otukpo and as such most of our young men have moved there to live and work. The few left here with us also use to go the city every morning to do one business or the other. Some of them are Okada riders and they only return to the village by evening.

Commenting further on the average age of those left in the village, a female interviewee in Agasha disagreed with the view that when youths migrate to the cities those left behind are children and the aged. She explained that:

> When youths migrate to the cities they often send money to their aged parents to take care of themselves, siblings and hire labourers to work for them. Sending money for all these activities is like the migrants are around so there is no problem of vacuum. The migrants who may be nearer their villages often go home during the weekends and public holidays.

Another youth migrant from Makurdi insisted that though youths may be away from home they still engage in farming. He stated that:

> In my village most migrants that have relocated to the city still retain their lands where they farm going there every weekend to work. You know especially these days that salaries are not regular; one has to retain his portion of land. Here in Benue State, government is even encouraging farmers by granting some days in the week for farm work.

Efforts were further made at examining the effects of youth rural-urban migration on working hours by farmers in the study area. In order to do this, respondents were asked to state the average working hours per day in a week during the farming season before and after migration of its members to the urban centers. The mean working hours per day were then collated and presented in Table 4.5.8.

Table 4.5.8: Determination of the Implications of Youth Rural-Urban Migration on Working Hours of Families in the study area

Day of the week	Period							
	Mean working hours before migration				Mean working hours after migration			
	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Mean difference	Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Total	Mean difference
Monday	2.14	2.06	4.20	-0.08	4.31	2.81	7.12	-1.50
Tuesday	1.89	2.21	4.10	0.32	5.15	2.85	8.00	-2.30
Wednesday	1.92	1.98	3.90	0.06	5.10	3.10	8.20	-2.00
Thursday	1.20	1.05	2.25	-0.15	4.02	2.13	6.15	-1.89
Friday	1.62	1.53	3.15	-0.09	4.21	2.14	6.35	-2.07
Saturday	2.21	2.34	4.55	0.13	5.24	3.16	8.40	-2.08
Total	10.98	11.17	22.15	0.19	28.03	16.19	44.22	-11.84

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.5.8 shows the average working hours per day in a week by families before and after migration commenced. From the Table, the average working hours per week before migration is 22.15 hours while the total average working hours per week after migration is 44.22 hours. It can be observed that the total average working hours after migration is greater than the total average hours before migration. This indicates that families work for more hours after the migration of its members to the urban centers. As more members migrate to the urban centers, families now make up by working for more hours in order to maintain the same level of production that will be capable of producing the food need by families. From the Table, it can be observed that, the working hours difference between families with migrants and those without migrants were not much. After commencement of migration however significant differences in working hours were noticed amongst the family types. Specifically, it can be observed from the Table that after migration, families with migrants tend to work for longer hours compared to those without migrants. This can be explained based on the fact that families with migrants have its members migrated to urban areas and as such has to work for longer hours in order to keep pace with the required food production for domestic use.

The results of FGD and IDI indicated that the number of working hours put in by members of families in the study area has increased since migration commenced. One of the heads of such families interviewed in Aune revealed that:

> Since migration commenced from my family we have engaged the children left with me for more hours on the farm so as to produce what we need. We now go to the farm early and come back late in the evenings. The essence is to put in more time to work with the little labour left at my disposal and yet produce more food. Therefore the family now spends more time on the farm.

A female participant who was the head of a family in Igwu – Akor stated thus:

> In my family of eleven children we now have only four people in the house due to migration. These ones that are left are the source of labour for the family. We therefore spend longer time on the farm now than before. The children themselves know that this has to be so if they must have to eat.

Another participant in an IDI session at Akpagher opposed the idea of increasing working hours. He narrated that:

> I do not agree with the idea of increasing working hours for family members because of migration. Because all the children I have in the village here are of school age, they usually help me on the farm by evenings when they close from school. Our farms are closer to our homes and as such when our children close from school they join us on the farm and then we all come home together.

Respondents were further asked to state to what extent they attribute the conditions of the Benue State peasant family to youth rural urban migration on a four point rating scale of; to no extent = 0, to some extent =1, to a greater extent =2, to the very greatest extent =3. A mean value of 1.5 was determined. Any condition with a mean score of 1.5 and above was considered attributable and any mean score of less than 1.5 was considered not attributable. The presentation is done in Table 4.5.9.

Table 4.5.9: Mean Distribution of Respondents on conditions of Peasant Farming Families Attributable to Youth Rural-Urban Migration

Condition	**Mean* ($\bar{x}$)**	**Standard Deviation**
Drain of agricultural skills	1.38	0.80
High cost of labour	2.53	0.81
Low production in agriculture	2.21	0.60
Food insecurity	2.04	0.89
Determination of rural economy	1.57	1.07
Scarcity of labour	1.87	0.87
Poverty	1.99	0.87
Loss of traditional farming values and practices	1.95	0.85

Source: Field Work, 2018 **Mean cut off = 1.5**
***Multiple Responses**

Table 4.5.9 shows the mean and standard deviation of conditions of the Benue State peasant rural families attributable to youth rural-urban migration. Except for drain of agricultural skills ($\overline{X}$= 1.38), all the other condition were perceived as attributable to youth rural-urban migration. The conditions attributable to youth rural-urban migration include, high cost of labour ($\overline{X}$= 2.53), low production in agriculture ($\overline{X}$ = 2.21), food insecurity ($\overline{X}$= 2.04), deterioration of rural economy ($\overline{X}$= 1.53), scarcity of labour ($\overline{X}$=1.87), poverty ($\overline{X}$=.1.99) and loss of traditional farming values and practices ($\overline{X}$= 1.95).

This result shows that youth rural-urban migration has led to deterioration of living conditions, poverty, food shortages, high cost of labour and general deterioration of the rural economy and livelihood of s. As youths migrate from the rural areas to the urban centers, there is no enough labour to work the land and create wealth, food and sustain general social life.

Participants during the FGD and IDI identified several conditions of the peasant farming family that can be attributable to youth rural urban migration. A youth migrant in Otukpo during a FGD session lamented that:

> Instead of bringing prosperity and good living to our families left in the villages, some of us have found that our family members especially our parents are experiencing misery as a result of our long absence from home. Although we send them money to carry out farming activities, most of the boys being hired for labour refuse they would collect the money but refuse to do the work. There is therefore so much emotional trauma, anxiety, poverty, insecurity, food shortages and lack of people to work on the farms.

An elderly man in Akpagher insisted that youth rural urban migration has led to a situation whereby traditional farming values are being gradually eroded. He noted that:

> Most of our children no longer live with us and as such are not taught basic traditional farm practices that would have enhance productivity. He observed that as a young man growing with my parents in the village, my father taught me how to make heaps for planting yams and ridges for planting cassava. I was also taught how to make 'Dechi' (the first line on the farm usually in the middle of the farmland). These things are no longer taught to children and as such they don't have interest in farming. Thus, crop productivity keep dwindling.

4.6 The Nature of Family Relationships Engendered by Youth Rural-Urban Migration in Benue State

Efforts were further made to identify the nature of family relationships engendered by youth rural-urban migration in Benue state. Youth rural-urban migration has been established to have had adverse implications on the nature of relationship amongst families in Benue State. It was therefore pertinent to understand the type of relations entered into by families following the migration of its members to the urban centres. Towards this end, respondents were asked to list the relationships they have entered into before and after migration commenced from families. The responses were then collated and presented in Table 4.6.1.

Table 4.6.1: Family Relationships Engendered by Youth Rural-Urban Migration in the study Area

Family Relationship Engendered	Period									
	Before Migration					After migration				
	*Families with migrants	*Families without migrants	Total	Difference	% Difference	*Families with migrants	*Families without migrants	Total	Difference	% Difference
Joining cooperative society	82(53.59%)	71(46.41%)	153(100%)	11(9.73%)	9.73%	293(84.43%)	54(15.56%)	347(100%)	239(18.15%)	18.15%
Local thrift (Bam)	72(51.43%)	68(48.57%)	140(100%)	4(3.54%)	3.54%	221(82.46%)	47(17.54%)	268(100%)	174(13.21%)	13.21%
Communal Cooperation (Tom Lohon)	82(52.56%)	74(47.44%)	156(100%)	8(7.08%)	7.08%	320(84.43%)	59(15.58%)	379(100%)	261(19.82%)	19.82%
Local Contribution (Adashi)	76(54.29%)	64(45.71)	140(100%)	12(10.62%)	10.62%	280(85.37%)	48(14.63%)	328(100%)	232(17.62%)	17.62%
Appeal to Age grade of children	76(59.38%)	52(40.63%)	128(100%)	24(21.24%)	21.24%	335(85.68%)	56(14.32%)	391(100%)	279(21.18%)	21.18%
Diversification into other areas	97(69.29%)	43(30.71%)	140(100%)	54(47.79%)	47.79%	164(83.67%)	32(16.33%)	196(100%)	132(10.02%)	10.02%
Total	485	372	857	113	100%	1613	296	1909	1317	100%

Source: Field Work, 2018

*Multiple Responses

From Table 4.6.1, it is evident that there were no significant differences in the type of relationships entered into by families before commencement of migration from their families. From the Table, it can be observed that before commencement of migration a relationship like cooperative society has a total of 153 families indicating that they were involved in that relationship. Out of this number 82(53.59%) were from families with migrants while 71(46.41%) were from families without migrants. The difference is 9.73%. Also, a total of 156 families indicated that they engage in communal cooperation as a form of relationship with other families. Out of this number, 82(82.26%) were from families with migrants as compared to 74(47.44%) that were from families without migrants. The percentage difference here was 7.08%. A further 140 families reported that they engage in thrift as a form of relationship with other families. Out of this number, 72(51.43%) were from families with migrants while 68(48.57) were from families without migrants. On the whole, there are no significant differences in the number of families involved in any particular relationship before commencement of migration in the study area as everyone irrespective of type of family seem not to be making any extra effort to engage in any relationship.

The situation is however different when migration commenced from families in the study area. From the Table, a total of 347 families indicated that they were involved in cooperative societies as a form of relationship after migration began in their s. Out of this number 293(84.43%) were from families with migrants while 54(15.56%) were from families without migrants. Again, 379 families indicated that they were engage in communal cooperation. Out of this number, 320(84.43%) were from families with migrants as compared to 59(15.58) that were from families without migrants. From the

Table one can observe a common pattern of relationship amongst the families: namely that there has been increase in involvement in various relationships amongst families with migrants in the study area within this period. On the other hand, a steady reduction in the number of families involved in relationships has been noticed among families without migrants. This may be attributed to the fact that families with migrants have less labour at their disposal as their members move to cities compared to families without migrants who retain its labour force intact. They therefore have less need of engaging in numerous relationships that may help them on the farm. But as for families with migrants, the movement of its members is a compelling factor for many of them to enter into such relationships so as to be able to obtain labour for its farming activities.

Data collected from FGD and IDI have indicated diverse views on ths matter. While many agreed that they enter into various relationships with other members of their community so as to obtain assistance on their farms, others disagreed stating that their involvement was purely for solidarity, interaction and development of their communities. A head of family in Aune stated that:

> As a family whose numerous members have moved to the city, I joined many of these Associations so as to get help in times of need. Like this community group that I joined recently, they have been mobilizing their younger members to help us the older ones on our farms. They help us clear, till, plant and harvest our crops. If not for such groups, things would have actually gone out of control.

Another famer who is a widow in Adaka declares that:

> Since I lost my husband ten years ago and my two children moved to the city, it is these groups that I joined that have been helping me do most of my farm activities. I have since joined five of them in this community and all of them have one goal: to help each member in carrying out farm activities. So far, they have been of great assistance to us.

A traditional ruler in one of the communities (Ainu) disagreed with those that join such groups just for the group to help them in their farm work. To him, these groups engage in rendering assistance in other areas of community development and this is more important. He noted that:

> In the community we enter into many social relationships amongst ourselves not just for what will benefit us but also what can benefit the community. Many of these groups we have in our community engage in rendering services that are of benefit to the entire community. So, some of us join them so that we can contribute our quota. So it is not so much out of what we can benefit but what we can contribute to the development of the society.

Efforts were further made to ascertain the coping strategies that families adopt as part of their effort to mitigate the challenges of youth rural urban migration. Youth rural urban migration has been established to have adverse effects on the agricultural production of peasant families. It was therefore pertinent to further understand how rural farming families cope and the strategies they adopt. Towards this end, respondents were asked to list the coping strategies they have adopted over the years in order to survive the challenges of youth rural urban migration. There mean ($\bar{x}$) values were determined and presented in Table 4.6.2.

Table 4.6.2: Coping Strategies Adopted by Peasant Families to Survive the Challenges of Youth Rural-Urban Migration

S/No	Coping Strategy	Mean*				
		Families with migrants	Families without migrants	Difference	Total	Standard Deviation
1	Reduction in farm size	1.68	0.76	0.92	2.44	1.08
2	Engaged in salaried jobs	0.80	0.93	-0.13	1.73	0.54
3	Abandon farming for sale of groceries	1.30	0.87	0.43	2.17	0.95
4	Blacksmithing	1.90	0.21	1.69	2.11	1.06
5	Tailoring and sale of fabrics	1.10	1.01	0.o9	2.11	1.06
6	Barbing and hair dressing	0.86	0.90	-0.04	1.76	0.83
7	Hawking of products	0.52	1.00	-0.48	1.52	0.65
8	Marketing of Agricultural products	1.20	1.10	0.10	2.30	0.99
9	Weaving and dyeing of clothes	1.21	1.09	0.12	2.30	1.07
10	Remittances	1.55	0.22	1.33	1.77	0.84
11	Sale of food in local restaurants	0.98	1.24	-0.26	2.22	1.oo

***Multiple Responses**

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.6.2 shows the $\bar{x}$ distribution of respondents by their coping strategies adopted to survive the challenges of youth rural-urban migration. From the Table the highest $\bar{x}$ distribution is for Reduction of farm size (2.44) and the lowest $\bar{x}$ is for hawking of products (1.52). It can also be observed that families adopt several other coping strategies including marketing of agricultural products, weaving and dying of clothes, tailoring and reduction of farm size. It is also observed that a number of respondents abandon farming for groceries retail business. Yet others use engagement in salaried jobs as well as barbing and hair dressing.

From the result in Table 4.6.2, it is evident that respondents have adopted several coping strategies to survive the challenges of youth rural urban migration. This is an indication that farming is no longer of optimal benefit to peasant families. This is largely due to the declining income from agricultural production in the face of rising cost of farm inputs and cost of labour. Another inference that can be derived from the result is that most of the coping strategies adopted by farmers were outside the domain of agriculture. For example, apart from the reduction in farm size and use of communal cooperation as coping strategies, the rest of the other strategies entail moving out of the agricultural sector into other areas. From the result most families have taken to tailoring and sale of fabrics as a coping strategy. This is an indication that farming is no longer an attractive engagement and the people are moving out of it.

The data gathered from focus group discussion and indepth interview indicated similar trend in this regard with a few divergent views. Most participants in the focus group discussion session listed varying coping strategies adopted to survive the challenges of youth rural-urban migration. One of the farmers stated during an IDI session at Adaka that:

> Out- migration of my children to the urban area has forced the family to adopt several coping strategies to survive. Since out- migration involves movement of able-bodied young men who constitute our family labour, we have to cut down our farm size, diversify our sources of income by engaging in sale of groceries in our shop located in front of the compound and my wife also weaves bags. These are things we were not doing before.

Another participant at Igwu – Akor stated during an IDI session that:

> We cope with the challenges of youth rural urban migration by adopting different strategies. While others cope by receiving money from their relatives in the urban centers, others cope by letting out their lands for hire, yet others cope by outright sale of their land to people who need them for development.

A female respondent in Adaka stated that:

> I and members of my family cope by adopting many strategies. In the first place, I engage in grocery business, sale of assorted drinks and recharge cards. I also operate a small thrift society where we gather money and give out to these who need them on interest.

Another farmer in Agasha disagreed with the notion of coping strategies. To him, all that is been referred to as coping strategies has been there with them not necessary as a result of youth rural urban migration but the need to survive the challenges of life generally. He noted that:

> What is now considered as coping strategies as a result of migration has been there with us from time immemorial even before commencement of migration from my family. To my family, it has been the usual way of survival with the hard economic situation and not necessary for the sake of youth rural urban migration. We diversify our sources of income not necessarily out of the need to survive the problems of youth rural urban migration, but to mellow down the economic realities of our time.

Other coping strategies identified by participants include, engaging in other income yielding activities, such as hawking of products, weaving and dying of clothes, blacksmithing, hair dressing and tailoring as well as sale of fabrics. The many coping strategies adopted by participants is a further indication that income from farming was no longer sustaining the needs of peasant families and financial obligations.

4.7 Government Policies Aimed at Encouraging Youth engagement in Agriculture in Benue State

Under this section, various government policies aimed at encouraging youth engagement in agriculture were examined. The aim was to ascertain to what extent the various policies identified have been useful in stemming the tide of youth rural-urban migration. Owing to the high illiteracy level amongst peasant families, it was difficult for them to meaningfully identify the various previous policies in Agriculture. The researcher therefore involved staff of the ministry of Agriculture at both the state and Federal levels in the State. Also involved were staff of the Benue Agricultural and Rural Development Authority (BANARDA). IDIs were conducted on this category of participants inorder to elicit from them relevant information relating to youth rural urban migration and Agricultural productivity of peasant families. One of the issues raised during the IDIs relates to the identification of previous government policies on Agriculture. Here several policies were identified by participants to include the following: Farm Settlement Schemes (FSS), National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP), Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Green Revolution Programme (GRP), Agricultural Development Programme (ADP), River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs), Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI), Agricultural Promotion Policy (APP), Fertilizer Procurement, Subsidy and Distribution Policy, Farmers Agricultural Loan Scheme and Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA). These policies identified were presented to respondents, who were then asked to select from the list the ones they may have benefitted. The result is presented in Table 4.7.1

Table 4.7.1: Distribution of respondents according to government policies/interventions benefited.

S/No	Government Policy	Frequency*	Percentage (%)
01	Farmers agricultural loan scheme	143	21.54
02	Fertilizer procurement, subsidy and distribution policy	207	31.17
03	River Basin Development Authority	43	6.48
04	Agricultural Development Project	78	11.47
05	Farm settlement scheme	24	3.61
06	National Accelerated Food Production Programme	61	9.19
07	Agricultural Promotion Policy	36	5.42
08	Operation Feed the Nation	19	2.86
09	Green revolution Programme	10	1.51
10	Directorate of Foods, Roads and Rural Infrastructure	15	2.26
11	Agricultural Transformation Agenda	28	4.22

***Multiple Responses**
Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.7.1 shows respondents' views when they were asked to select from a list of identified government policies on agriculture those they have benefitted. From the table, 143(21.54%) of respondents stated that they have benefited from the famers agricultural loan scheme, 207(31.17%) stated that they have benefited from the government fertilizer procurement, subsidy and distribution policy, while 43(6.48%) indicated that they have benefited from government establishment of River basin Development Authority projects in their various communities. Furthermore, 78(11.47%) stated that they benefited from the Agricultural Development projects, 36(5.42%) indicated that they benefited from the

various programmes of the Agricultural promotion policy. A further 28 (4.22%) indicated that they benefited from the Agricultural Transformation Agenda.

Qualitative data collected revealed that most participants benefited at least from one government policy or intervention on agriculture. A participant who benefited from one of the government policies on agriculture stated during an IDI session in Aune that:

> I benefited from the federal government policy on loans to farmers. Precisely I applied for the individual loan scheme and was given ₦200,000. This money I use in rearing chickens which later on died from bird flu attack that came that year. Generally, obtaining the loan is not easy and flexible. The banks attach so many conditions which one must fulfill before getting the loan. This has discouraged many farmers from applying for the loans. We rather prefer to get our loans from our local cooperative and thrift societies although these loan amounts are very small.

Another farmer in Adaka noted that:

> Though I benefited from previous government policies on agriculture especially fertilizer procurement and distribution as well as loans, the benefits cannot be compared to the struggle. I applied for fertilizer and it took a long time before the product came. It came after that cropping season had elapsed.

Further attempts were made to ascertain the functionality or otherwise of these programmes from respondents who had benefited from them. In order to do this, respondents were asked to rate the programs and policies which they have benefited. The presentation is shown in Table 4.7.2.

Table 4.7.2: Respondents' Rating of Government Programmes and Policies on Agriculture.

Programme Rating	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Poor	185	43.12
Good	80	18.65
Excellent	42	9.79
No response	122	28.44
Total	429	100.0

Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.7.2. show the rating of government programmes and policies on agriculture by respondents as it affects them. From Table 4.7.2, 185(43.1%) of the total respondents rated government programmes and policies poor while 80(18.7%) rated them as good. Also 42(9.8%) rated government programmes and policies on agriculture as excellent while 122(28.4%) did not indicate their response. This result has shown that majority of the respondents rated government programmes and policies on agriculture poor. The explanations for this type of poor rating are found in the fact that government policies and their implementation are full of bureaucratic bottlenecks characterized by delays and sentiments which are not based on merit and world best practices. Also, the implementation of most of these agricultural policies is full of corrupt practices and embezzlement of funds by government officials and politicians. Furthermore, there is ineffective supervision of the implementation of the policies which have often led to these policies being hijacked by politicians. These challenges have over the years denied government policies credibility which has accounted for their poor rating by respondents.

The qualitative data gathered through indepth interview and focus group discussion also buttress this argument. Participants at the various FGD sessions held at several locations were unanimous in their submissions that government programmes and policies on agriculture were poor. A Youth Cooperative Farmer Association chairman at Akpagher Gboko Local Government Area narrated his experience thus:

> We were encouraged to register our cooperative societies which we did and there after applied for the federal government loan meant for farmers. We have been pursuing this loan facility since 2015 until today we have not accessed the loan facility after several assurances from the bank. Furthermore, the conditions to be met for the loan are too stringent which an average rural farmer cannot afford.

Another farmer who paid money for the fertilizer scheme of the Benue State government narrated his ordeal thus:

> The introduction of the fertilizer subsidy, purchase and distribution scheme by the state government was saluted by majority of farmers. We thought there was light at the end of the dark tunnel especially the involvement in the distribution process of our traditional rulers. We hurriedly paid in our money for the fertilizer and that was all. The fertilizer which we paid for in April 2016 only got to us by November of 2017 when the 2016 crop growing season had ended.

A female farmer from Adaka, one of the rural sites stated that she would never rate government policies on Agricultural as wholly poor. She noted that:

> Though the performances of some of these policies have not been so good, but rating them as wholly poor is not acceptable by my own terms. I think government has done well. Most of what amounts to failure can be attributed to uncooperative attitude of the recipients and sometimes their intermediaries. While government releases money for Agricultural activities, some of the monies are diverted by those saddled with the responsibility of carrying out these projects.

From the quantitative and qualitative data presented one can infer that government policies on agriculture in Benue State are full of inherent problems that have over the years accounted for their failure and poor rating by respondents.

The investigator then sought to probe further into the performance of these policies and programmes. Towards this end, one of the policy documents; the Agricultural Promotion Policy of the Buhari administration was obtained from the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development and analyzed. The analyses involve a thematic exposition on key aspects of the document relating to Agriculture especially the objectives. Special attention was paid to those aspects of the policy that it is envisaged will have direct effect on youth rural urban migration. The views of participants mainly staff from the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development as well as those from BANARDA were utilized in the course of this analysis. The analysis was generally qualitative in its approach.

Thematic Analysis of the Agriculture Promotion Policy (APP) (2016 – 2020)

Nigeria is facing two key gaps in agriculture today: an inability to meet domestic food requirements and an inability to export at quality levels required for market success. The former problem is a productivity challenge driven by an input system and farming model that is largely inefficient. As a result, an aging population of farmers does not have enough seeds, fertilizers, irrigation, crop protection and related support to be successful. The latter challenge is driven by an equally inefficient system for setting and enforcing food quality standards, as well as poor knowledge of target markets. Insufficient food testing facilities, a weak inspectorate system in FMARD, and poor coordination among relevant federal agencies serve to compound early stage problems such as poor knowledge of permissible contaminant levels. These were the limitations which the Buhari administration sought to tackle through the new agricultural policy; the Agricultural Promotion Policy (APP).

To ensure that the policy is executed as intended, the Agricultural Promotion Policy set out to accomplish the following objectives:

1. Growing the integrated agriculture sector rapidly at an unprecedented 1x to 2x the average Nigerian GDP for 2016 – 2020.

The sector's historical growth rate was between 3% - 6% per annum in 2011 – 2015. There is therefore the need to raise performance. Assuming GDP growth of 6% in 2017, agriculture would aim to achieve 6% - 12%. This would allow agricultural income to double in 6 – 12 years. All things been equal the agriculture's Share of GDP is projected at 23% in the first quota of 2016. The agricultural share of the labour force is put at 70%

while the agricultural activity mix is put variously: Crop Production: 85%; Livestock and other non-crop: 15%.

Participants at the IDI sessions indicated that these projections for this particular objective have been largely unachievable. This they attribute to gaps in input supplies, delays in releasing loans to farmers due to bureaucratic bottlenecks, late release of budgetary allocations to the agricultural sector and rising insecurity in the country. A deputy Director at the State Ministry of Agriculture stated that:

> The target production rates stated in the APP document remains largely desirable as achieving them remains a herculean task. This is based on the fact that budgetary allocations to this sector are hardly released on time. Apart from this, the insecurity situation in the country has worsened the problems of productivity. The farmers- herdsmen conflict, rising banditry and kidnapping has had a toll on agriculture productivity. Not left out are issues related to fall in international oil prices and the Covid-19 pandemic which further exerted pressure on government resources.

A female personnel at the Benue Agricultural and Rural Development Authority (BANARDA) insisted that the objective of raising productivity has been achieved. She stated that:

> I think the APP document objective of raising productivity has been achieved in many states in Nigeria. Look at what is happening in Kebbi State for instance, the anchor borrowers' programme has increased the quantity of rice production and I think this will be replicated in many other states. If this tempo is sustained, hunger and starvation will soon be a thing of the past and the country will have enough to feed her population and export to other countries

2. Integrate agricultural commodity value chains into the broader supply chain of Nigeria and global industry, driving job growth, increasing the contribution of agriculture to wealth creation, and enhancing the capacity of the country to earn foreign exchange from agricultural exports. This will involve increasing the Agriculture's Share of Non-Oil Exports Earnings to75%.

Though this objective seems a tall one to accomplish, participants at the IDI stated that as we are now in 2021, it is increasingly becoming very obvious that attaining this objective will require working round the clock. Creating jobs in the Agricultural sector will require taming armed banditry, farmers –Herders altercations and quelling a mirage of communal conflicts which have become the hallmark of many communities in Nigeria today. Participants were also of the view that increasing the contribution of agriculture to wealth creation, and enhancing the capacity of the country to earn foreign exchange from agricultural exports will require stakeholders in agriculture stepping up their game. Attaining 75% of the Agriculture's Share of Non-Oil Exports Earnings will further require paying more attention to agricultural financing more than is the practice presently.

During the IDI session in the State Ministry of Agriculture in Makurdi, the Director, Administration and Finance stated that the current financial imbalance in the country has slowed down the execution of strategic projects earmarked in the APP. He narrated thus:

> The release of the APP document by the Buhari administration in 2016 left many of us in no doubt about its success especially in the area of wealth creation. Six years on and the agricultural situation seemed to be worsened. Funds are not timely released to the sector and expansion that would have been necessary for attainment of this objective is not in sight. The country's earnings from the agricultural sector keep dwindling. The quality of Nigeria's agricultural products being exported is generally too poor to improve patronage and this made it difficult to attain improvements of the agricultural share.

Another participant who is a Deputy Director in charge of crop production observed that driving job growth, increasing the contribution of agriculture to wealth creation, and enhancing the capacity of the country to earn foreign exchange from agricultural exports will require overhauling the entire agricultural production architecture. He noted that:

> Creating jobs through agriculture seems the easiest way the country can create wealth for its citizenry. You can see that about 75% of the population of this country reside in the rural areas and are farmers. Improving production both for domestic and export purposes will require reaching out to the farmers directly. The government may use traditional rulers to reach out to the farmers. The traditional rulers know their subjects and can guarantee that they are the real farmers and not proxies. The monies been realized now are not reaching the real farmers. The politicians are hijacking everything.

3. Promote the responsible use of land, water and other natural resources to create a vibrant agricultural sector offering employment and livelihood for a growing population.

The accomplishment of this objective will require utilizing the existing laws to facilitate usage of mass bodies of water by farmers for both livestock and irrigational purposes. For many States in Nigeria cultivation of land is a seasonal practice where by crops are cultivated only during the rainy season when there are rains. The dry season is usually an off season for farmers. This practice is however not in line with international best practices in agriculture. To ensure sustainability of food production both for domestic and export purposes, water has to be available to farmers throughout the year.

Furthermore, the country's numerous mineral deposits must be harnessed and processed to give the country foreign exchange. The country is endowed with many natural minerals such as coal, bitumen, columbite, etc which are laying waste in the soil. These minerals when properly harnessed may save the country from the problems associated with mono-cultural economies.

Participants during IDI sessions were of the opinion that creating a vibrant agricultural sector through the effective use of land, water ways and mineral resources would require substantive investments in these areas. For the Nigerian waterways to be useful to farmers for irrigational purposes, it will require constructing artificial rivers, canals and drainages to reach farmers in the hinterlands. With these drainages and canals, water will be available to the rural farmers throughout the year so they can practice irrigational agriculture and improve production all year round. A director in charge of fisheries in the Federal Ministry of Agriculture during one of the IDI in Makurdi retorted that:

> Government desire to pursue the Promotion of responsible use of land, water and other natural resources to create a vibrant agricultural sector as enshrined in the Agriculture promotion policy is a laudable effort. For quite sometimes now the Nigerian numerous rivers, seas and Dams have not been utilized by farmers for fishing and irrigation. Proper practice of fishing based on international best practices alone will generate employment for many youths and earn the country the much desired foreign exchange.

A staff of the Benue Agricultural and Rural Development Authority in Makurdi noted that effective utilization of waterways as enshrined in the APP will enhance productivity. He further stated that:

> If sufficient attention is paid to waterways in the country, enough food will be produced and jobs created for the youth. Imagine in Benue State where dry season agriculture is not practiced, starting the practice will greatly be of benefit. When canals are been constructed, this will definitely lead to all year food production.

4. **Facilitate the government's capacity to meet its obligations to Nigerians on food security, food safety and quality nutrition**

The requirements for effective realization of this objective are political commitment and dedication to the course. This will require intensifying efforts towards increasing agricultural share of the Federal budgetary contribution to at least 2.0% annually. It also

requires increasing the budget due to the agricultural sector to a minimum of 40% of the budgetary sum. Timely release of approved budgetary monies to the sector will also help in realizing this objective. Provision of quality nutrition will mean providing high quality seedlings, fertilizer and other inputs to farmers.

Data collected through the IDI indicated divergent views on this matter. Many of the participants were of the opinion that guaranteeing food security goes beyond just production of crops. The Secretary of BANARDA in an IDI session indicated that ensuring food security takes so many things into consideration. He further narrated that:

> Food security goes beyond mere cultivation of fields and plots of land. It involves a chain of activities including harvesting, processing and preservation of crops. Recently, the major threat to food security is the activities of armed bandits, insurgent groups, and the skirmishes between farmers and herders which have made it near impossible for farmers to go to their farms. Ensuring food security will mean stopping all of these.

Another participant focused on food safety which he noted is difficult to be guaranteed in Nigeria going by the practices of farming entrenched in the country. He noted that farmers are not properly guided on how to preserve crops and this often led to food poisoning. He insisted that:

> Food safety has to do with proper handling of farm yields such that the harvested foods are packaged in line with international best practices. In Nigeria, these practices are not adhered to as farmers disproportionately measure and use chemicals in preservation of crops. Most often, there are no extension workers to guide them. Consumers end up utilizing poisoned foods in the name of preservation.

5. **Creating a mechanism for improved governance of agriculture by the supervising institutions, and improving quality of engagement between the Federal and State Governments.**

The problem identified as accounting for the failure of past policies was ineffective supervision. Towards this end expressing the desire for effective supervision was regarded as a step in the right direction. Also the dichotomy between the federal, State and Local Government authorities have had negative impact on previous policies. The inclusion of all these as an objective to be accomplished by the APP, was viewed by participants as a right step in the right direction. During IDI with staff of BANARDA in Makurdi, Most Participants agreed that the most important factor that ensured policy failure in the country is ineffective supervision of institutions and personnel involved in execution of various aspects of the policy documents. Most of the participants were of the opinion that not much has been achieved in this regard as supervisory agencies have not done enough in their oversight functions of institutions charged with the execution of projects under the APP. Furthermore, the dichotomy between the federal and some state government tend to be widened as a result of party differences. Those in the people Democratic Party (PDP) seem not to be cooperating with the federal government because of party differences.

During an IDI session in Makurdi, the Commissioner of Agriculture in Benue State decried the non cooperation from the federal government over issues of Agricultural development. He noted that:

> This policy (APP) has no presence in this State. Even if it is executed in other states here no project has been done by the federal government in this regard. We have made our complaints known to the federal government but got no replies. At the local government

> level the story is the same. No single project that I know of that has been executed in the name of APP.

Another participant from the Federal Ministry of Agriculture noted that the quality of engagement between the federal, state and local government Areas on issues relating to the implementation of the Agricultural Promotion Policy has been very poor. He observed that:

> The execution of similar policies on Agriculture, use to involve us going for trainings and workshops on the basic elements of implementation. This present one seems to be an exception as staff of the ministry in the States are left in the limbo. Coordination seem to absent or is poorly done as we are properly carried along.

The Policy Thrust of the Agriculture Promotion Policy

The Policy thrust of the APA is founded on the following guiding principles, a number of which are carryovers from the Agricultural Transformation Agenda reflecting the strong desire for policy stability. New elements added reflect the lessons from the ATA, as well as priorities emerging from the aspirations of the Buhari Administration. The principles include:

1. Agriculture as a business – This involves focusing the policy instruments on a government-enabled, private sector-led engagement as the main growth driver of the sector. This essential principle was established in the ATA and will remain a cardinal design principle of Nigeria's agriculture policies going forward.

2. Agriculture as key to long-term economic growth and security— Government will focus policy instruments to ensure that the commercialization of agriculture includes technologies, financial services, inputs supply chains, and market linkages that directly engage rural poor farmers because rural economic growth will play a critical role in the

country's successful job creation, economic diversity, improved security and sustainable economic growth.

3. Food as a human right – This principle requires focusing the policy instruments for agricultural development on the social responsibility of government with respect to food security, social security and equity in the Nigerian society; and compelling the government to recognize, protect and fulfill the irreducible minimum degree of freedom of the people from hunger and malnutrition.

4. Value chain approach – Government is required to focus the policy instruments for enterprise development across successive stages of the commodity value chains for the development of crop, livestock and fisheries sub-sectors, namely input supply, production, storage, processing/utilization, marketing and consumption. Building complex linkages between value chain stages will be an important part of the ecosystem that will drive sustained prosperity for all Nigerians.

5. Prioritizing crops – The focus of policy here is on achieving improved domestic food security and boosting export earnings requires a measure of prioritization. Therefore, for domestic crops, the initial focus in 2016 – 2018 will be expanding the production of rice, wheat, maize, soya beans and tomatoes. For export crops, the initial focus will be on cocoa, cassava, oil palm, sesame and gum Arabic. In 2018 onwards, the export focus will add on bananas, avocado, mango, fish and cashew nuts. Investments in closing infrastructure gaps to accelerate productivity and investment in these crops will also be sequenced to reflect capital availability and management attention.

6. Market orientation – This principle involves focusing policy instruments on stimulating agricultural production on a sustainable basis, and stimulating supply and

demand for agricultural produce by facilitating linkages between producers and off takers, while stabilizing prices or reducing price volatility for agricultural produce through market-led price stabilization mechanisms (commodity exchanges, negotiated off-take agreements, extended farm-gate price under value chains coordination mechanisms, agricultural insurance, etc.)

7. Factoring Climate change and Environmental sustainability – The aim here is to focus policy instruments on the sustainability of the use of natural resources (land and soil, water and ecosystems) with the future generation in mind while increasing agricultural production, marketing and other human activities in the agricultural sector.

8. Participation and inclusiveness –The focus is on measures that will maximize the full participation of stakeholders including farmer's associations, cooperatives and other groups, as well as Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs), and Community Based Organizations (CBOs), development partners and the private sector. This places a premium on the role of these organizations or groups as agents of economic change in general and agricultural economy in particular, thereby drawing benefits from their policy advocacy roles as partners to and watchdog of government.

9. Policy integrity – Attention will be paid to measures for sanitizing the business environment for agriculture, in terms of accountability, transparency and due process of law, ensuring efficient allocation and use of public funding and fighting corruption on all programmes involving public resources. This also applies to compliance with international commitments, protocols and conventions that Nigeria is a signatory to.

10. Nutrition sensitive agriculture – Government will focus policy instruments on addressing the issues of stunting, wasting, underweight and other manifestations of

hunger and malnutrition with particular reference to the vulnerable groups, which include children under 5, nursing mothers and persons with chronic illness and disabilities

11. Agriculture's Linkages with Other Sectors – The task here is to focus policy instruments on the connected relationship between agriculture and other sectors at federal and state levels, particularly industry, environment, power, energy, works and water sectors.

Within this overall set of policy principles, the Federal Government will concentrate on providing an enabling environment for stakeholders at federal and state level to play their distinctive roles. The policy emphasis will be on providing a conducive legislative and agricultural knowledge framework, macro policies, security, enhancing physical infrastructure and institutional mechanisms for coordination and enhancing access to adequate inputs, finance, information on innovation, agricultural services and markets.

It is however noted that Unlocking Nigeria's full agricultural potential requires that Nigeria solve the underlying challenges in its agricultural system, which includes the following:

1. Policy Framework: Nigeria suffers from policy instability driven by high rate of turnover of programmes and personnel, which in turn has made the application of policy instruments unstable. The outcome is an uneven development pathway for agriculture; lack of policy accountability, transparency and due process of law, relating to willful violation of the constitution and subsidiary legislations governing the agriculture sector. That in turn has made the business environment unpredictable and discourages investors. To address this challenge, Nigeria needs to create a policy structure that matches evidence-driven coordination among decision-making authorities with common and

public goals for an agricultural transformation of the country. Building that evidence base requires that Nigeria adopt a consistent fact base to drive decision making, as well as build on prior successes e.g. the Jonathan Administration's pioneering Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA).

2. **Political Commitment:** This pertains to the non-implementation of international protocols or conventions agreed to with other members of the comity of nations. For example, Nigeria has failed to achieve the targets in the Maputo Declaration that prescribes a minimum of 10% budgetary allocation to the agricultural sector. Political commitment at both the Federal and State levels will be required to enforce reforms.

3. **Agricultural Technology:** Persistent shortcomings of the National Agricultural Research System (NARS) to generate and commercialize new agricultural technologies that meet local market needs. NARS's challenges have been relatively severe particularly around improved varieties of seed or other planting materials and breeds of livestock and aquatic species. The failure to also deliver already proven technologies available on the shelf to farmers' fields where they are needed is a challenge. Addressing these will require better coordination among extension delivery system, the national agricultural research system, as well as public and private sector suppliers of agricultural inputs.

4. **Infrastructure Deficit:** Nigeria's agricultural sector suffers from an infrastructure challenge. Infrastructure such as motor roads, railroads or irrigation dams are either insufficient, or when available, not cost competitive. They are thus unable to operate to support scale-driven agriculture. That imposes an added cost (up to 50% - 100%) on the delivered price of agricultural produce in Nigeria, making it uncompetitive compared to global peers. In order to boost farm productivity, raise the level of marketable surplus and

expand value chain participants' access to low cost infrastructure, Nigeria will need to rethink the business and operating model for agricultural infrastructure

5. **Finance and Risk Management**: Nigeria's agriculture sector continues to have poor access to financial services that enable farmers and other agricultural producers to adopt new technologies, improve market linkages, and increase their resilience to economic shocks. Poor access to financial services that enable input suppliers, processors, traders and others in agribusiness to address liquidity and encourage targeted private sector engagement in agriculture remains a challenge. Lending rates still routinely range from 10% to 30% subject to whether the borrower is considered prime, has access to low cost, government-provided financing (BOA, CBN, BOI), or is offered a NIRSAL Plc. -financed interest rate subsidy and credit guarantee. To improve financing options and de-risk value chains further, Nigeria will need to intensify innovation in financing ecosystems,

6. **Institutional Reform and Realignment:** Today, many federal and state agricultural institutions only exist on paper. In fact, the system even ignores local government areas which are actually where the majority of activity takes place. There is a need to streamline, clarify mandates and ensure continued accountability for results. Unless these issues are tackled, Nigeria will continue to struggle with the capacity of its agricultural institutions to deliver on their public mandates. A turnaround will mean, for example, adding more resources such as extension workers, setting up more operational coordination mechanisms between the Federal Government and States in between the National Council of Agriculture, and linking rewards to performance.

In addressing these constraints, the government is expected to apply prudent, market based policy measures to grow the sector, with a clear recognition that widespread poverty reduction through the transformation of the agriculture sector is integral to the country's long run economic growth trajectory and prosperity.

4.8 Improving Agriculture to Stem the Tide of Youth Rural – Urban Migration

Under this section, efforts at stemming the tide of youth rural-urban migration were addressed. The aim is to understand from the standard point of respondents what they think should be done to make youths remain at home to devote their time to farm work. The presentation is shown in Table 4.8.1

Table 4.8.1: Respondents' Suggestions on what government should do to stem the tide of youth rural – urban migration.

Suggestion	Frequency*	Percentage (%)
Provide credit facilities to the youth	97	22.7
Establish farm settlement areas in L.G.As	80	18.6
Provide tractors to farmers	120	28
Improve rural infrastructure	74	17.2
Make agriculture inputs available to youths	96	7.9
Make agriculture compulsory in universities	24	5.6
Provide subsidy on agricultural inputs	69	16.1
Establish Agro – allied industries in rural areas	62	14.5

***Multiple responses**
Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.8.1 shows the distribution of respondents by suggestions on what government should do to stem the tide of youths out migration. From the Table, 97(22.6%) of the respondents suggested that government should provide credit facilities to the youths, 80(18.7%) suggested the establishment of farm settlement areas in all the local

government in the country so as to encourage the youths to reside in the rural areas and farm instead of moving to the urban areas. Furthermore, 120 (28%) suggested that government should provide tractors to farmers, 74 (17.2%) suggested improvement in rural infrastructure, 34 (7.9%) suggested provision of agricultural inputs to the youths, while 24 (5.6%) suggested that government should make agriculture compulsory in all Nigerian universities. Students should be encouraged to undertake practical farm work, cultivate and produce a crop. This will enable them generate interest in agriculture as a form of entrepreneurship.

Participants during Focus Group Discussion sessions were divided in their opinions as to what government should do to stem the tide of youth rural-urban migration. Some of the suggestions made include improving rural infrastructure, provision of farm inputs such as pesticides, herbicides, fertilizers, tractors, making flexible credit facilities available and strengthening of agricultural extension programmes to be more effective. A traditional ruler during an indepth interview in Makurdi stated that:

> The migration of youths from rural to urban areas has negative effects on socio-economic development. I therefore suggest that government should provide jobs in the rural areas for the youths and ensure provision of infrastructure such as roads, electricity, pipe borne water and health facilities. In addition, agro-allied industries can be established in the rural areas to provide jobs for rural youths. This will discourage them from migrating to the urban areas.

Another participant in a focus group discussion session in Gboko insisted that the government can do better in terms of infrastructural facilities. He further observed that:

> Youth rural urban migration has obvious effects on production of agricultural production. Many of the youths migrated to the urban centers as a result of poor quality of infrastructure. I therefore recommend that government should develop the rural areas so as to make them at par with the urban centers. Government should provide

electricity, pipe borne water, god schools as well as health facilities in our rural areas.

Attempts were further made to identify the suggestions from families as to what they can do to discourage youth rural-urban migration. The presentation is shown in Table 4.8.2.

Table: 4.8.2: Respondents' suggestions on what families should do to stem the tide of youth rural-urban migration.

Suggestion	Frequency*	Percentage (%)
Encourage its members to embrace agricultural production	91	21.2
Encourage members to engage in processing of agriculture products	129	30.1
Engage in transportation of agricultural products	159	37.1
Discourage their members from migration	66	15.4
Encourage members to engage in marketing of agricultural products	102	23.8
Engage in business to supplement farming	98	22.8

***Multiple responses**
Source: Field Work, 2018

Table 4.8.2 shows respondent's suggestions on what families themselves can do to stem the tide of youth rural-urban migration and encourage agriculture. From the Table, 33(7.7%) of the total respondents suggested that families should encourage its members to embrace agriculture, 129(30.1%) suggested that family members be encouraged to engage in processing of agricultural products while 159(37.0%) suggested that families should encourage its members to engage in transportation of agricultural products from one place to another. Also, 66(15.38%) suggested that families should discourage their members from migration out of the rural areas to the urban areas while 42(9.8%) suggested that families should encourage its members to engage in marketing of agricultural products.

Data collected through focus group discussion and indepth interview revealed similar suggestions from participants. Participants suggested that families may encourage their members to process cassava into garri, Akpu and even starch which would attract more income. A farmer stated during an IDI session in Aune that:

> There are a lot of things that families can encourage their members to do. I suggest that families should encourage its members to engage in the sale of agricultural products in markets. Products such as yams, chickens and pigs may be sold in markets across the state. They could also transport agricultural products, discourage members from migrating to the urban areas and encourage them to embrace agriculture.

4.9 Discussion of Major Findings

This study examined the implications of youth rural-urban migration on the agricultural productivity of families of peasant farmers in Benue State. This section of the study is therefore dedicated to discussion of the major findings of the study. The discussion was conducted in line with the objectives and theoretical orientation of the study.

The first finding relates to objective one which seeks to identify the factors responsible for youth rural-urban migration. The study found that factors such as search for jobs, family affairs, marriage, education, famine, health issues, conflicts/wars, land tenure system, differences in employment opportunities, family size, age and floods/drought influence youth rural - urban migration. The most identified factor influencing youth rural-urban migration in Benue State was conflicts/wars while the least identified factor was marriage. It was found that these factors worked together to push out youths from the rural areas to urban centers. This finding has corroborated the findings of Naude (2010) and Ivan (2008) who in their separate studies found several factors as being responsible for youth rural-urban migration in Sub-Saharan Africa. Greenwood (1985)

also found that economic, social, demographic, educational, conflict and environmental factors as being responsible for youth rural-urban migration in West Africa.

The next finding relates to the second objective. This objective sought to study how youth rural urban migration affects families' labour in terms of costs. It was found that out-migration of youths to the urban centres negatively affected available labour as the number of persons available for agricultural activities declined tremendously and thus sharp rise in labour cost. Most families who had their members migrated to urban areas experienced labour shortages and pressure on existing labour led to price hikes. This finding has corroborated those of Usman (2006); Ogunlela and Mukthar (2009) who in their separate studies found that the migration of able bodied youths from the rural-areas to the urban centres creates labour shortages. In a study on the effects of youth rural urban migration on rural farmers in Oshogbo, Ogunlela and Mukthar (2009) found widespread shortages of labour especially during peak farming periods when majority of the youths who work in cities on temporary basis would have migrated to the urban centers.

The findings on cost of labour further revealed that youth out-migration from the rural areas to the urban centers hiked the cost of labour in rural areas. This is because most of the migrants to the cities are the ones that would have supplied the labour on the farms. Their migration made the cost of the few left behind to increase the costs. Findings as it relates to the cost of cultivating crops in the study area show that the crop with the highest cost of hiring labour for its cultivation was yam and the lowest was found to be maize and sorghum. This finding corroborated the findings of Osemeobe (2012) who discovered that the cost of labour shot up after youths from Bachita migrated in great

numbers to the city during the planting season of 2011. The finding is also consistent with Mbah, Ezeano, and Agada (2016) who in a study in Agana, a village settlement in Gwer local government Area of Benue State found that the migration of youths from the community increased cost of labour.

The findings on the implications of youth rural-urban migration on agricultural productivity of peasant families(objective three) was determined using variables such as crop and livestock production, cultivated farm size and working hours of family members. It was found that the migration of youths from the rural-areas to the urban-centers have affected the production of both crop and livestock in the study area. With regard to crop production, it was found that the production of crops such as rice, maize, sorghum, yam and cassava which constitute the staple foods in the study area declined since the out-migration of youths commenced in rural families.

It was further established that the farm size of farmers in the study area had decreased. The study revealed that the cultivable land for crops such as rice, maize, sorghum, yam and cassava had reduced significantly when pre and post migration cultivated farm size were compared. This finding is similar to that of Gbor (1993) who found that increasing youth rural-urban migration led to reduction in farmer's farm size. This, it was found was a deliberate strategy to cope with labour shortages. The finding is however contrary to Tacoli (2002) who argued that youth rural-urban migration does not significantly affect farm size if the migrants send remittances to their families to hire tractors and labourers to work the farm. However, there are no tractors to hire in the study area while the demand for the human labour is much higher than the supply. David (1995) however found that most remittances sent to families by migrants were not utilized for agricultural

purposes which they were meant. Remittances may thereby be effective if only families are disciplined to use monies for purposes they are meant for. In Benue State, most monies sent by migrants to their families for agricultural activities are diverted. Such monies are rather used for marrying more wives or indulging in non – productive spending such as burial ceremonies, naming ceremonies or acquiring chieftaincy titles (Surma, 1995).

This study also revealed that families have increased their number of working hours following migration of their members to the urban centers. This is to enable them produce their food needs. Increasing working hours enables families to use the few available hands to maximize output. This finding has corroborated the findings of Adewale (2005) who in a study in Oyo State found that families increase their working hours in order to produce more food to feed its members and sell some in markets so as to meet other family needs. His findings also revealed that for a farmer to cover the same area of land as when he had extra assistance, he must work longer hours thus depriving himself of leisure and participation in social activities.

The ultimate result of the analysis of the extent to which respondents attribute the prevailing poor living conditions of the Benue rural farmers to youth rural-urban migration revealed that conditions such as high cost of labour, low production in agriculture, food security, deterioration of rural economy, scarcity of labour, poverty as well as loss of traditional farming values and practices were attributed to youth rural-urban migration. The finding is corroborated by Ivande (1997) who in a study in Makurdi found correlations between youth rural-urban migration and declining living standards of the rural people. The youth constitute the major source of labour for agricultural activities

in the rural areas. Their absence creates a vacuum which affects all the productive activities of the rural dwellers.

The result of the analysis on the new family relationships by farmers as a result of youth rural-urban migration (objective four) reveal that peasant families enter into varying relationships with other families as a result of its members migrating to the urban centres. Some of the relationships found include joining cooperative societies, local thrift, communal cooperation, local contribution schemes, appeal to age grade of children, and diversification into other areas. It was also found that families adopt different coping strategies to survive. Those identified include, reduction of farm size, engagement in salaried jobs, abandonment of farming for grocery retail business, blacksmithing and hawking of products. Others include, tailoring and sale of fabrics, barbing and hair dressing, marketing of agricultural products as well as weaving and dyeing of clothes. The most coping strategy found to have been adopted by families was reduction of farm size and the least was hawking of products.

This finding is consistent with the works of Yohanna (2014) who in a study in Biu, Jos, found that when youths migrate to the city, their families coped by adopting several coping strategies such as engaging in civil services jobs, businesses, relying on remittances, eateries, sale of local alcohol and tailoring. Shimada (1993) also found several strategies that rural farmers adopt to cope the challenges of youth rural-urban migration. Worthy of specific mention is that of remittances which migrants send to their s at home to engage in agricultural activities. He found that 75% of monies sent by migrants to their relatives in the rural areas for farming activities were used on other purposes other than farming which invariably affected family relationships.

With regards to previous government policies, respondent selected a number of policies to which they have benefited from a list of programmes identified by by staff of the Ministry of Agriculture and BANARDA. Those selected included Farm Settlement Schemes (FSS), National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP), Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Green Revolution Programme (GRP), Agricultural Development Programme (ADP), River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs), Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI), Agricultural Promotion Policy (APP), Fertilizer Procurement, Subsidy and Distribution Policy, Farmers Agricultural Loan Scheme and Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA). On rating the quality and satisfaction with the agricultural policies, the study found that most respondents rated the quality of these policies poor and express dissatisfaction with them. It was found that most of the agricultural policies were poorly executed thereby making them to fail. For example, the Farmer's revolving Loan scheme of the Federal Government under the Yaradua regime was found to have been hijacked by powerful politicians who use it to settle their cronies. Similarly, the fertilizer subsidy and procurement programme was reported to be hijacked by politicians who use it to their advantage. This finding contradicts the findings of Abdullahi and Abdulkarim (2018) who in a study on the effectiveness of the Federal Government anchor borrower programme in Kebbi State found farmers to be highly satisfied with the programme. The finding on the rating of the anchor borrower programme may be explained in terms of the strict supervision undertaken by the Federal government in the implementation of the policy and its zero tolerance on corruption.

The systems theory of youth rural urban migration has been found useful in explaining various aspects of the thesis of the work. The systems theory has helped explain how

youth rural – urban migration affects agricultural productivity of families of peasant farmers which is the central thesis of this work. In the systems theoretical framework, the rural urban migration process constitutes a system that interacts with the other subsystems such as the agriculture subsystem to produce results, effects and outcomes. With specific reference to youth rural-urban migration and agricultural productivity of peasant families, the theory submits that the interaction between the two systems (the youth rural urban migratory system and the agricultural production system) entails a number of effects that both have on each other. For youth rural urban migration, the effects manifests in form of low productivity, high cost of labour, decreases in farm size, amongst others. In its efforts to adjust itself to these effects, members of the agricultural system enter into several relationships and coping strategies to survive. To the systems theoretical framework of analysis, such adjustments are necessary for the survival of the system.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the key findings of the study. It also drew conclusions and made relevant recommendations based on the findings on the effects of youth rural-urban migration on agricultural productivity of families of peasant farmers in Benue State. There is also a section on the study's contribution to the stock of existing knowledge on the topic.

5.2 Summary of Key Findings

The study examines the implications of youth rural urban migration on the agricultural productivity of families of peasant farmers in Benue State. Six research questions and objectives were outlined.

The first objective was to investigate the predisposing factors of youth rural urban migration. Here, the study found that several factors were responsible for youth rural-urban migration. Those identified by respondents include search for jobs ($\overline{X}$= 2.99), family affair ($\overline{X}$=2.83), differences in employment opportunities ($\overline{X}$=2.99), poor infrastructure ($\overline{X}$= 2.43), marriage ($\overline{X}$=2.21) and onflicts/wars ($\overline{X}$=3.00). The most identified factor by respondents influencing youth rural-urban migration was conflicts/wars while the least identified factor was marriage.

The second objective was to study the extent of implication of youth rural urban migration on family labour in terms of availability and cost. The study revealed that

youth rural-urban migration has adversely affected the stock of available labour for agricultural activities. It was found that available labour for agricultural production activities was in short supply thereby making the cost of labour to rise. Findings as it relates to the cost of cultivating crops in the study area show that the crop with the highest cost of hiring labour for its cultivation was yam and the lowest was found to be maize and sorghum. It was further found that youth rural-urban migration has affected negatively the quality of labour of families. When youths migrate to the urban centers, what was left behind was aged men and women with children who cannot work the farms. The more energetic young men and women move to the urban centers where they hope to enjoy better lives leaving behind the weak, frail and elderly to take care of the family.

The third objective was to examine the implications of youth rural urban migration on peasant families' agricultural productivity in Benue State. The study found that youth rural-urban migration has affected agricultural productivity negatively in the study area. The study established that the production of both crop and livestock has declined significantly due to youth rural-urban migration. The production of staple agricultural crops such as rice, yams, cassava, maize and sorghum has significantly declined due to youth rural urban migration. Similarly, the production of livestock was significantly affected. The production of Livestock such as sheep, goats, pigs, chickens and Guinea fowl decreased tremendously.

Another objective of the study was to identify the nature of family relationships engendered by youth rural – urban migration in Benue State. some of the family relationships engendered include joining of cooperative societies, local thrift, communal

cooperation, local contribution (Adashi), appeal to age grades of children in the community and diversification into other areas. The migration of youths from the rural areas to the urban centers it was further revealed exerted various challenges on peasant farming families. It was found that in order to survive, families have adopted different coping strategies. Some of the strategies include reduction of farm size, abandoning farming for business, tailoring, blacksmithing, dyeing and weaving of clothes as well as increasing the number of working hours. These coping strategies it was found helped the families in no small measure. The most coping strategy found to have been adopted by families was the use of communal cooperation and the least was hawking of products.

The last objective was to identify various policies put in place by the government over the years to mitigate youth rural urban migration in Benue state. Respondents selected from a list of existing government policies on agriculture which they have benefited to include; Farm Settlement Schemes (FSS), National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP), Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Green Revolution Programme (GRP), Agricultural Development Programme (ADP), River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs), Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI), Agricultural Promotion Policy (APP), Fertilizer Procurement, Subsidy and Distribution Policy, Farmers Agricultural Loan Scheme and Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA). The peasant farmers however rated these policies as being poorly implemented by the government.

5.3 Conclusion

In concluding this study, it is evident that youth rural – urban migration is a problem in Benue State. The migration of young men from the rural areas to the urban center has impacted negatively on agricultural productivity in the study area. The phenomenon has crippled the production of both agricultural crops as well as livestock.

Migration trend in Benue State is attributable to the following predisposing factors: poverty, unemployment, poor infrastructure, differentials in job opportunities, conflicts, family affair, marriages, education, famine, health issues, family size and even age of migrants. The factors mentioned above which are said to constitute the main predisposing factors for youth rural urban migration in Benue State and Nigeria at large cannot be completely ignored. For example, the deliberate development of urban areas at the detriment of the rural communities can become a major snare for youth rural urban migration. In the same vein, the frustration which rural migrants often face in the rural areas in the midst of anticipated comfort of urban life could trigger unprecedented youth rural urban migration.

Furthermore, it may be concluded that youth rural – urban migration has affected the agricultural productivity of families of peasant farmers in Benue State both in terms of crop and livestock production leading to significant shortages. Regarding crop production, the effect of youth rural urban migration was highest for yam production and lowest for cassava. It was further concluded that the farm size of farmers in the study area had decreased. The cultivable land for crops such as rice, maize, sorghum, yam and

cassava had reduced significantly when pre and post migration cultivated farm size were compared.

It is also concluded that the migration of youths from the rural areas to the urban centres has led to labour shortages in the rural areas and pressure on the few labour hands available for farming activities such as land clearing, cultivation, weeding and harvesting have pushed the cost of labour per unit of land beyond the financial capabilities of the ordinary peasant families.

Another conclusion drawn from the findings of the study was that youth rural-urban migration has impacted negatively on the quality of labour of peasant farming families. As energetic young men and women move to the urban centers leaving behind the aged and children who cannot diligently work on the farm.

It is further concluded that in order to survive in the midst of the aforementioned challenges enumerated in the preceding discuss has made the rural families to enter into several relationships with other families. Some of the relationships include joining of cooperative societies, local thrift, communal cooperation, local contribution (Adashi), appeal to age grades of children in the community and diversification into other areas. Further more families adopt several coping strategies. Some of the coping strategies identified by respondents that they have benefited from include reduction of farm size, abandoning farming for business, tailoring, blacksmithing, dyeing and weaving of clothes as well as increasing the number of working hours.

The study has also concluded that that government has over the period put in place policies aimed at mitigating the challenges of youth rural – urban migration. Identified

government policies include Farm Settlement Schemes (FSS), National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP), Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Green Revolution Programme (GRP), Agricultural Development Programme (ADP), River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs), Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI), Agricultural Promotion Policy (APP), Fertilizer Procurement, Subsidy and Distribution Policy, Farmers Agricultural Loan Scheme and Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA). These policies were however rated poorly on performance.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations were made.

Rural infrastructure need to be improved upon as a way of making the rural areas more attractive. This recommendation is derived from the finding that youth-rural-urban migration has adversely affected the agricultural productivity of peasant farming families in Benue State. Encouraging the youth to engage in agriculture in the rural areas would require provision of electricity, water, good roads and general conducive environment in the rural areas. This requires alleviating poverty and improving the rural areas so as to make them more attractive to the youths. It means establishing agro-allied industries in the rural areas where agricultural products will be processed. It further requires constructing good roads for transporting products from farms to locations where they are in higher demand and can be sold at higher prices thereby adding value to them. In other to achieve this policy recommendation, government at the various levels in Nigeria must initiate conscious efforts towards achieving this goal. More resources should be

committed to transforming our rural communities and making them attractive to our youth thereby discouraging them from migrating. The implementation of the aforementioned suggested strategies will narrow the gap between the rural and urban areas such that migrating to urban areas will become less attractive. This will make youths in Nigeria remain in the rural areas and engage in agriculture and hence greater productivity and sustained food security. Additionally, government should ensure that the necessary security apparatus are activated in the rural and urban areas to tame the rising wave of armed banditry, farmer –Herdsmen skirmishes, kidnapping, cattle rustling and other criminal tendencies bedeviling rural communities. Once the rural communities are safe and rural infrastructure provided, the youth will settle in the villages and engage in agriculture.

The study also recommends that mechanized agriculture be encouraged for rural farmers. This recommendation stems from the finding that youth rural-urban migration has affected the stock of available labour for agricultural activities in Benue State and the pressure on the few available labourers has hiked the price of hiring labour per unit of land. Efforts by government and other stakeholders in agriculture should be geared towards procurement of tractors, harvesters and sprayers. Job opportunities should be created in the rural areas through the location of agro-processing industries that will employ the youths in their communities. This will discourage migration as some of these youths will be employed as tractor, harvester and sprayer operators.

The study further recommends that government, private organizations and other stakeholders in agriculture should provide loans to the families in the rural areas so as to ensure steady flow of finances to them for hiring labourers even at higher cost. This

recommendation is coming on the heels of the finding that youth rural-urban migration has affected the quality of labour available in peasant farming families in Benue State such that the underage and the elderly engage in agricultural activities. They could also use such funds to rear livestock and even engage in fish farming which is less strenuous compared to tilling of the soil.

The study also recommended careful, sincere, committed, and proper implementation of government policies in agriculture. This recommendation is derived from the finding that previous government policies failed to succeed because they were not properly implemented. Government should therefore create an enabling environment for effective supervision of its agricultural policies. It is worth stating that government agricultural policies such as fertilizer acquisition and distribution programme failed because of ineffective supervision as it was hijacked by politicians. Similarly, the farmer's loan scheme of President Good luck Jonathan failed at the implementation level largely due to lack of effective supervision. When effective supervision is not there politicians hijack the process thereby making it difficult for the intervention benefits to get to the rural farmers who are the intended beneficiaries. Effective supervision will remove all these bottlenecks and impediments thereby enhancing higher production quantity. The study further advocates, for the setting up of a supervisory and implementation committee under the presidency with branches in all the states and local government areas in Nigeria. The committee when established should be charged with the responsibility of overseeing the implementation of government policies relating to agriculture in Nigeria.

5.5. Contributions of the Study to the Stock of Available Knowledge

The study on the effects of youth rural-urban migration on the agricultural productivity of families of peasant farmers has made significant contributions to the existing stock of knowledge. This is indicated as follows:

1. The study established that youth rural-urban migration has affected the agricultural productivity of peasant rural families negatively. As such the production of both crop and livestock has been adversely affected. This has ultimately led to total food shortages and starvation. This study has contributed to knowledge as its findings have exposed the impending doom of imminent starvation and threat to wellbeing of the citizenry. Before now, the people were used to the knowledge that Benue State was the food basket of the nation and food was surplus in the State. the findings of this work has shown that food production is on the decline in the State Such awareness it is expected will serve as a basis for action by stakeholders in Agriculture throughout the country towards revamping the entire agricultural sector.
2. The study further established that conflicts/wars which had hitherto been considered to be of no serious consideration in youth rural urban migration has now become a potent factor predisposing youth rural-urban migration. This is largely due to the escalating communal, farmer –Herdsmen conflict going on in the state. This factor though circumstantial is novel and has added a new dimension to viewing youth rural urban migration. Consequently, government and other stakeholders in the food security realm must step up efforts towards restoring peace without which youth migration to the urban areas will persist.

3. The study also established that peasant farming families enter into several forms of relationships as a result of youth rural urban migration. They also adopt different coping strategies to survive the challenges of youth out-migration from the rural areas. Some of the strategies include, reduction of farm size, use of communal cooperation, engagement in salaried jobs, abandonment of farming for non – farming occupations such as grocery retail business, engagement in blacksmithing, tailoring, hawking of products and reception of remittances from relatives and members in the urban centers. Most of these remittances it was however found were not used for the purpose of agricultural production. The identification and documentation of these relationships and coping strategies will prove useful to farmers in their efforts to diversify their economic base by adopting more viable areas. Prior to now, the thinking was that Benue families were only agriculturists. It was even thought that for a Benue family to own a Business outlet was a taboo. With this finding more families may venture into business outside the agricultural domain if nothing is done to tame the tide of youth rural urban migration. Conversely, Policy interventions inform of loans, subsidies and grants from government can be well directed towards particular groups adapting specific coping strategies that government intends to encourage. Also family relationships that the study found as been engendered by youth rural urban migration can be built upon to create a system of self support for rural families. This will further encourage the spirit of self reliance in families instead of depending on government for everything.

4. A major propelling factor for this study was the dearth of empirical data on youth rural - urban migration in the study area which has over time hampered the design and implementation of policies that will checkmate youth rural urban migration and encourage agriculture. This study has therefore contributed to knowledge in this regard by generating empirical data that can be relied upon by government and other stakeholders to formulate policies towards rural development.

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APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEADS OF FAMILIES

Department of Sociology
Ahmadu Bello University
Zaria

Dear Respondent,

I am a postgraduate student in the Department of Sociology Ahmadu Bello University Zaria undertaking a PhD research work on the topic **"THE IMPLICATIONS OF YOUTH RURAL URBAN MIGRATION ON THE AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIVITY AMONGST PEASANT FAMILIES IN BENUE STATE, NIGERIA (1999 - 2020)** in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD Sociology) of Ahmadu Bello University Zaria. The research is entirely an academic exercise. Please endeavour to provide honest and sincere responses as information provided will be kept confidential and used only for the purpose of this research.

Thank you for your anticipated cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

KWAGHMANDE Joseph Iorhen

Instructions: Please fill or tick [√] in the spaces provided as honestly as possible.

SECTION A: Socio – Demographic Attributes of Respondents

1. Village name _____

2. Type of FAMILY **A.** Family with migrants ( ) **B.** Family without migrants ( )

3. Indicate the number of persons living in your family

---

4. Age _____

5. Sex **A.** Male ( ) **B.** Female ( )

6. Religion: **A.** Christianity ( ) **B.** Islam ( ) **C.** traditional ( )

7. Marital status

Single ( ) Married ( ) Divorced/separated ( ) Widowed ( ) Spouse left for job ( )

8. Indicate your source (s) of livelihood

A. crop farming ( ) **B.** Livestock farming ( ) **C.** both livestock and crop farming ( )

D. Trading in crop produce ( ) **E**. trading in livestock ( ) **F.** Government paid jobs ( )
G. Farming and government paid jobs ( )

9. List other economic activities you perform outside farming ----------

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Educational Background

10. What is your level of formal educational attainment?

None ( ) First school leaving certificate GCE/NCE/NAPTEC ( ) OND/NCE/Degree( )

11. Did you receive any vocational training? **A.** Yes ( ) **B.** No ( )

12. If yes in 11 above, specify the area of training _____

Occupation

13. What is your main occupation?

A. Civil Servant ( ) **B.** Business ( ) **C.** Business plus farming ( ) **D.** Farming ( )

E. Others, specify ----------

14. Annual income N ……..

SECTION B: Factors Responsible for Youth Rural Urban Migration

15. To what extent do you perceive the following factors as likely factors responsible for rural urban migration?(multiple responses are possible)

Factor	**TVGE=3**	**TGE=2**	**TSE=1**	**TNE=0**
Search for job				
Family affair				
Marriage				
Education				
Famine				
Health issues				
Conflict/wars				
Land shortage/land tenure system				
Differences in employment opportunities				
Family size				
Age				
Quakes				
Droughts/floods				
Others				

KEY: 0 = To No Extent, 1= To Some Extent, 2= To the Greatest Extent, 3 = To the Very Greatest Extent

16. Specify the year and duration since out - migration started in your family

Migration pattern	**Year migration began**	**Number**	**Duration**
Family with migrants			
Family without migrant			

17. Who decides for migration in the family?

A. Individual migrants ( ) **B.** family heads ( ) **C.** migrants and family together ( )

18. Is there enough labor available to take over the responsibilities of the migrants?

A. Yes ( ) **B.** No ( )

SECTION C: Youth Rural Urban Migration and Labour Availability and Cost

19. Do you have family members who have left you and are staying in the city?

A. Yes ( ) **B.** No ( )

20. If yes in 19 above, how many of them? _____

21. Can you list the source(s) of labour used on the farm

A. Family labour ( ) **B.** Hired labour ( ) **C.** Both family labour and Hired labour ( )

22. If you use family labour, has production been affected since some of your family members left for the city? **A.** Yes ( ) **B.** No ( )

23. What is the active labor force in the family before and after some members of your family left for the city? Before_____ After_____

24. Has labour been scarce for you to get since some of your family members left for the city?

A. Yes ( ) **B.** No ( )

25. If yes in question 24 above, what have you been doing to augment this shortfall?

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

5._____

26. Has labour been costly for you lately?

A. Yes ( ) **B.** No ( )

27. If yes in 26 above, what have you been doing to overcome this?

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

5._____

28. Can you estimate the cost of hiring labour per hectare for the cultivation of the following crops before and after migration commenced from your family?

Period	Rice	Yam	Maize	Sorghum	Cassava
Before migration					
After migration					

29. What is the average age of those left in the family after migration of young ones to the city began in your family? _____

30. Has this affected productivity negatively? **A.** Yes ( ) **B.** No ( )

31. State the Average Working Hours per day in a week during the farming season before and after members of your family migrated to the city.

A. Before_____ **B.** After_____

32. What is the number of available labour in your family for these agricultural activities before and after migration commenced in your family?

Period	**Number of experienced persons in the family for agricultural activities**							
	Land clearing	**Planting and fertilizer**	**Weeding**	**Harvesting and thrashing**	**Processing**	**Transportation of crops to the house**	**Marketing**	**Total**
Before								
After								

33. Can you estimate your farm size (in hectares) for the following crops before and after out - migration commenced in your family?

Period	**Cultivable land (in hectares)**				
	Rice	**Maize**	**Sorghum**	**Yam**	**Cassava**
Before					
After					

SECTION D: Effects of Youth Rural Urban Migration on Agricultural Productivity in Benue State

34. What type of cropping system do you practice?

A. mono cropping **B**. crop rotation **C.** mixed cropping

35. What are the major crops produced?

A. yam B. Rice C. Cassava C. Maize D. Sorghum

36. What are the major livestock produced?

A. chickens ( ) B**.** Cows ( ) **C.** Sheep ( ) D. Goat ( ) E. Pigs ( )

37. Can you estimate your harvest yield for the following crops in tons before and after some members of your family left for the city?

Period	**Crop yield (in tons)**				
	Rice	**Maize**	**Sorghum**	**Yam**	**Cassava**
Before					
After					

38. Can you estimate your harvest yield for the following livestock before and after some members of your family left for the city?

Period	**Livestock yield (in tons)**			
	Pigs	**Sheep and Goat**	**Guinea fowl**	**Chicken**
Before				
After				

39. If there is any noticeable change in the yield of the crops and livestock in question 37 and 38 above, will you attribute this to youth rural - urban migration?

A. Yes ( ) **B.** No ( )

40. What has been your major constraint in farming in the past five years?

A. Lack of credit ( ) **B.** Lack of improved seeds and fertilizer ( )

C. lack of farm implements ( ) **D.** lack of chemicals ( )**E.** lack of infrastructure ( )
F. labour shortages ( ) G**.** Land holding ( ) H**.** Youth rural urban migration ( )

I. cost of labour ( ) **J.** Natural disasters ( ) **K**. Others_____

41. List any production challenges encountered after members of your family left for the city

Challenges: **A**. labor shortage ( ) **B.** financing migration ( ) C**.** burden of activities and re-division of labor ( ) **D**. change in responsibilities of members ( ) **E.** increase in per capita physical capital and other resources ( )

F. others, specify _____

42. List the measures taken to overcome the above challenges. Against each challenge chosen state its letter and measure taken

1._____
2._____
3._____
4._____
5._____

43. Can you identify the ways through which you think youth rural urban migration has affected agricultural productivity?

_____
_____
_____

44. Did migration of members of your to the city create shortages of labour for your family?

Yes ( ) No ( )

45. If yes in 44 above, what has your family been doing to augment this short fall? -------
---
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46. Did migration of some members of your family to the city increase cost of labour in your village? Yes ( ) No ( )

47. Please, can you list any more ways in which youth rural urban migration has affected agriculture in Benue state?

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

5._____

48. To what extent will you attribute the following conditions of the Benue Rural family to youth rural - urban migration?

Condition	**TVSE(3)**	**TQSE(2)**	**TSE(1)**	**TNSE(0)**
Poverty				
High cost of labour				
Low production in agriculture				
Food insecurity				
Deterioration of rural economy				
Scarcity of labour				
Drain of agricultural skills				
Loss of traditional farming values and practices				

KEY: 0 = To No Extent, 1= To Some Extent, 2= To the Greatest Extent, 3 = To the Very Greatest Extent

SECTION E: The Implications of Youth Rural Urban Migration on the agricultural production of peasant families

49. List the family relationships engendered by **youth rural urban migration**

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

5._____

50. list the coping strategies that rural farmers adopt to survive the challenges of youth rural urban migration?

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

5._____

51. Do the migration of the other members of your family to the city make you to abandon farming for other means of livelihood? Yes ( ) No ( )

51. If yes list this other means of livelihood which you have adopted

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

5._____

52. Do your family now reduce their farm size because of migration of its members to the city?

Yes ( ) No ( )

53. Do you agree with the view that diversifying family sources of income is a coping strategy that rural farmers adopt to survive the challenges of youth rural urban migration?

A. Yes ( ) B. No ( )

54. Give reasons for your answer in question 53 above

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

5._____

55. To what extent do you think communal cooperation (*tom lohon*) can succeed in Benue state today as a relationship engendered by youth rural urban migration? A. To some extent ( ) B. to no extent ( ) C. To the greatest extent ( )

56. Give reasons for your answer in 55 above _____

_____

_____

_____

SECTION F: Previous Government Policies/Interventions Aimed at Encouraging Youths to Engage in Agriculture

_____

57. Have you benefited or participated in any government policy on agriculture?

A. Yes ( ) **B**. No ( )

58. Select from the list below, those previous government policies you have benefited from. You may tick more than one

1. Farm Settlement Schemes (FSS),
2. National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP),
3. Operation Feed the Nation (OFN),
4. Green Revolution Programme (GRP),
5. Agricultural Development Programme (ADP),
6. River Basin Development Authorities (RBDAs),
7. Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI),
8. Agricultural Promotion Policy (APP),
9. Fertilizer Procurement, Subsidy and Distribution Policy,
10. Farmers Agricultural Loan Scheme and Agricultural Transformation Agenda (ATA).

59. How do you rate them in terms of success?

A. Poor ( ) **B.** Good ( ) **C.** Excellent ( )

SECTION G: Improving Agriculture to Stem the Tide of Youth Rural - Urban Migration

60. What do you suggest government should do to improve agriculture and stem the tide of rural urban migration?

1._____
2._____
3._____
4._____
5._____

61. What do you suggest N.G.Os, Community Based Organizations, civil societies and Youth Movements do to discourage rural urban migration and encourage agriculture?

1._____
2._____
3._____
4._____
5._____

62. What can the youths themselves do to halt rural urban migration and encourage youth participation in agriculture?

1._____
2._____
3._____
4._____
5._____

63. What can the s do to help stem the tide of youth rural – urban migration and encourage youth participation in Agriculture?

1._____
2._____
3._____
4._____
5._____

64. Do you think providing credit facilities to the youth will discourage rural urban drift and encourage agricultural production?

A. Yes ( ) **B**. No ( )

65. Do you believe that establishing agricultural settlement areas in the local government areas will help discourage rural urban migration and enhance productivity?

A. Yes ( ) **B.** No ( )

66. Do you think teaching the youth basic agricultural skills in schools throughout the nation will help? **A.** Yes ( ) **B**. No ( )

APPENDIX II

FGD Guide for Youth Migrants and Leaders of Community Based Youth Organizations in the urban centers.

Section A: What are the effects of Youth Rural - urban migration on labour availability and cost?

Probe for:

a. Family members staying with the migrant in the city
b. Number of family members staying with the migrant in the city
c. The active size of labour force in the family before and after you left for the city
d. The category of persons left behind to work the farm
e. Whether labour has been scarce for your since you left for the city
f. The cost of labour for migrant's family now

Section B: What are the factors responsible for Youth Rural - Urban Migration?

Probe for:

a. Factors responsible for youth rural urban migration
b. Who decides for migration in your
c. The cost incurred for your initial migration and who bore them
d. Whether land scarcity may prompt youths to migrate to the city
e. Whether poverty and the need to get jobs prompts youth migration to the city

Section C: what are the effects of youth rural - urban migration on Agricultural productivity?

Probe for:

a. Identification of the ways through which participant think youth rural urban - migration has affected agricultural productivity
b. Whether participant migration to the city create shortages of labour for the
c. What the family has been doing to augment this short fall
d. Whether participant migration increase cost of labour in your village
e. Farm size of participant's family (in hectares) before he/she left for the city
f. The present farm size
g. Quantity of crops participant's family was producing before he/she left for the city
h. Quantity participant's family is producing currently

Section D: what are the coping strategies adopted by Family to survive the challenges of youth rural - urban migration?

Probe for:

a. Whether migration to the city has made your family abandon farming for other means of livelihood

b. List of these other means of livelihood which they have adopted

c. Whether participant in the village now reduce their farm size because of your migration

Section E: what are the Previous Government Policies aimed at Encouraging Youths to Engage in Agriculture?

Probe for:

a. Existing government policy/intervention on agriculture and youth rural urban migration

b. Identification of some of these policies that participants have benefitted from.

c. Rating of these policies in terms of performance

Section F: How can Agriculture be improved so as to Stem the Tide of Rural - Urban Migration?

Probe for:

a. Suggestions on what government should do to improve agriculture and stem the tide of rural urban migration

b. Suggestion on what N.G.Os, Community Based Organizations, civil societies and Youth Movements can do to discourage rural urban migration and encourage agriculture

c. Suggestion on what the youths themselves can do to halt rural urban migration and encourage youth participation in agriculture

d. Suggestion on what the families can do to help stem the tide of youth rural – urban migration and encourage youth participation in Agriculture

APPENDIX III

In-Depth Interview Guide for Selected Rural Farmers, Traditional Rulers and Leaders of Rural Farmer Associations in Benue state

1. Are you involved in any farming activity?
2. If yes what are the major crops you produce?
3. What major livestock do you produce?
4. Can you estimate your harvest yield for yams, maize sorghum rice and cassava in the last three years?
5. Is there any noticeable change in the yield of these crops in the last three years?
6. Will you attribute this to youth rural urban migration?
7. What are the source(s) of labour used on your farm?
8. If you use family labour, has production been affected in the last three years?
9. Will you attribute this change to youth rural – urban migration?
10. Has labour been scarce for you to get in the course of your farming activities?
11. If yes in question 10 above do you think this is connected to youth rural – urban migration?
12. What is the average age of those left in your family for farm labour?
13. What do you consider to be the factors responsible for youth rural – urban migration?
14. Who decides for migration in the family?
15. What in your opinion are the likely effects of rural – urban migration on agricultural production of family of farmers in Benue State?
16. What are the coping strategies that rural farmers adopt to survive the challenges of youth rural - urban migration?
17. Are you aware of any existing government policy on agriculture?
18. Have you benefited or participated in any of them?
19. Can you list the programmes/policies you have benefitted from?
20. How do you rate them in terms of success?
21. What do you suggest government should do to improve agriculture and stem the tide of youth rural urban migration?
22. What do you suggest N.G.Os, Community Based Organizations, civil societies and Youth Movements do to discourage rural urban migration and encourage agriculture?
23. What do you think can the youths themselves do to halt rural urban migration and encourage youth participation in agriculture?

APPENDIX IV

In-depth Interview Guide for Staff of Ministry of Agriculture and Benue Agricultural and Rural Development Authority (BANARDA)

1. As a civil servant, do you also engage in any farming activity?
2. If you are involved, what crops do you cultivate?
3. What are the livestock you rear?
4. Can you estimate your harvest yield for yams, maize sorghum rice and cassava in the last three years?
5. What are the source(s) of labour used on your farm?
5. If you use family labour, has production been affected in the last three years?
6. Will you attribute this change to youth rural – urban migration?
7. Has labour been scarce for you to get in the course of your farming activities?
8. If yes in question 8 above do you think this is connected to youth rural – urban migration?
9. What do you consider to be the factors responsible for youth rural – urban migration?
10. What in your opinion are the likely effects of rural – urban migration on agricultural production of families of farmers in Benue State?
11. Are you aware of any existing government policy on agriculture?
12. If yes, can you list them
13. Have you or any family you know in the rural areas benefited or participated in any of them?
14. Can you list the programmes/policies you or any family you know have benefitted from?
15. How do you rate them in terms of success?
16. What do you suggest government should do to improve agriculture and stem the tide of youth rural urban migration?
17. What do you suggest N.G.Os, Community Based Organizations, civil societies and Youth Movements do to discourage rural urban migration and encourage agriculture?
18. What do you think can the youths themselves do to halt rural urban migration and encourage youth participation in agriculture?