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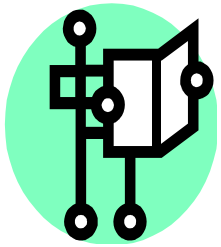

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BRIEF HISTORY OF THE JOURNAL

At the 7th Annual General Meeting of the International Research and Development Network of Children and Youth in Agriculture Programme (CYIAP-Network: visit our website www.cyiap network.org for more information) held at Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ijebu-Ode, Nigeria on the 28th November, 2006, it was resolved that a journal named Annals of Child and Youth Studies (ACYS) of the Network be established Dr. Dixon OlutadeTorimiro, an Associate Professor in the Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural Development, ObafemiAwolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria was unanimously appointed as the Editor-in-Chief and the Department was chosen as the Editorial Office of the Journal.

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From the Editorial Desk

The framing and formation of this Volume is quite fascinating. The authors, although working separately, converge around issues of living and giving meaning to living in our ever-changing world. All the articles in this Volume have accent of structuralism. The Volume begins with menstrual blood, an idiom of dignity, dirt, danger and death in many contexts. Menarche is a marker of rite of passage. It is celebrated with great fanfare in many cultures. Blood, in structuralists' paradigm, is meant to circulate inside and give life to the body (structure). Menstrual blood, however, flows out of the body, and weakens it. The blood is out of its place. It is a form of disorder/out of order, hence, constitutes a danger. Menstrual blood symbolizes a failed reproduction cycle and the preparation for another. It indicates impediment and hope with respect to building and elongating the super-organic structure (society). Blood is life. The loss of it is a symbol of dying and death that depletes the society(structure). These ideas perhaps explain why some religious groups tend to limit activities of menstruators. Olajide *et al*'s article, in this Volume, conceptualizes menstrual blood as a decaying dirt that has influence on menstruators' agency. The authors indicate that the blood requires a certain degree of bodily hygiene to ameliorate its negative influences among girls in secondary

schools. They insist that this category of menstruators, due to limited resources and experiences, are prone to problems of inadequate menstrual hygiene such as infections and repugnant odor capable of staining, straining and severing social relationship. Stigmatization, stress, low self-esteem, amongst others, arising from limited bodily hygiene may cause self-rejection, depression, suicide ideation among menstruators. The authors suggest that adequate hygiene education is important for preventing problems associated with menstrual blood, including suicide ideations as implied in Durkheim's Suicide.

Suicide and stress are multifactorial phenomena. Associated factors of stress and suicidal ideation among undergraduate students is the focus of Anuodo *et.al*'s article in this Volume. These authors offer insights into various ways of reducing suicide ideation and thus deaths among young people.

Death, although a natural process, is anti-structural. The longevity of any structure is predicated on both natural and social processes. Okorie and Torimiro explore ethnocultural relations, as a social process, to indicate how the process might be engineered to engender, elongate and enliven egalitarian structure with respect to nomadic Fulani in Yoruba land. The authors show that inter-marriages,

religious harmony, and coproduction of infrastructure are precursors of inclusive structures even in this era of persistent nomadism and unabating migration

Migration may weaken or strengthen a structure. To this end, Onuekwusi *et al* (in this Volume), highlight the causes and effects of seasonal migration in south eastern Nigeria, paying attention to issues of rural livelihoods. Opportunities in exploiting agrarian-based livelihoods are highly important to the sustenance of any society or structure that has an agrarian economy, like Nigeria. Therefore, issues of agrarian-based livelihood should be a source of concern to every stratum of an agrarian society. Oyegbami *et al* and Kayode *et al* all in this Volume share this view. These authors separately interrogate perceived conditions that might enhance and/or inhibit students' continual eking of a living from the agricultural sector in various geographies in Nigeria. Oyegbami *et al* identify infrastructure as a crucial condition for students in Ibadan whereas Kayode et al, discuss crop farmers and herdsmen's conflict as a great inhibitor to in-school youth participation in agripreneurship in Ilorin. Ojo and Akinyemi explore the effectiveness of some communication methods in increasing the participation of youth in Nigerian government agricultural program. They identify social media as one the effective outlets for the

program. Ohiagu underscores the importance of social media in human communication and discusses how malleability of identity fuels cybercrime reduces its usefulness in the society. The author, however, shows how a model of communication might be used to reduce the frauds.

Causes and effect of youths' seasonal migration on rural livelihoods in South-East, Nigeria.

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Abstract
.This study identified causes of youths' seasonal migration, ascertained the effects of this migration on rural livelihoods and ascertained the factors influencing seasonal migration in the study area. Multi-stage sampling procedure was used to select 450 migrant youths' households. Data for the study were collected using structured questionnaire, key informant interviews, Focus Group Discussion and household case studies. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics like frequency, percentages as well inferential statistics involving multiple regression analysis. Results on causes of migration indicated that the desire to earn additional income (100%), lack of viable non-farm activities (91.6%), and increased competition (70.6%) were identified as the causes of youths' seasonal migration. From the result, the major effects of seasonal migration were improved family members education/medication ($\bar{x}$= 4.67), able to purchase improved agricultural inputs ($\bar{x}$= 4.11), makes the individuals less involved in leasing and working on owned lands ($\bar{x}$= 3.64), and less pressure on land ($\bar{x}$= 3.2) and the regression result showed that age (t = 4.083*** <0.01), extended family network (t = 1.828*<0.1), household size (t = 3.892*** < 0.01), perceived poverty situation (t = 3.435***<0.01), marital status (t = 9.441*** <0.01), education (t = 2.170** <0.05) were all positive and significantly related to causes and effects of youths' seasonal migration. Therefore, the study concluded that migration can ease the pressure on local labour market, reduce household liquidity constraints foster capital investment and assistance from remittance receiving household and increase local human capital through transfer of skills, technology know-how and by means of social network. The paper therefore recommends that investing in agriculture and rural development in rural areas to create productive employment opportunities and upgrade the quality of existing ones, particularly for youths, is one of the most effective means of reducing seasonal migration.

Key words: Seasonal Migration, Rural Youths, Livelihoods.

INTRODUCTION

Migration is a complex phenomenon and a key component of livelihood strategies in rural households which focus on minimizing risks and diversifying household income. There are many reasons for migration. According to Makonnen, (2016), migration is an old and inevitable phenomenon that has accelerated in recent times because of improvements in transportation and communication technology. Some of the migration common in rural areas are distress migration and seasonal migration. Distress migration refers to all migrating movements, made in conditions where the individuals and/or household perceive that only viable livelihood option for moving out of poverty is to migrate (Levy and Hossain, 2014). Such distress is usually associated with lack of livelihood options, given the limited economic and employment opportunities, as well as

drought, crop failure and food security (Awumbila *et, al;*2015). For most of them, migration is not an informed and voluntary choice but the only perceived option for improving their employment and life prospects and meeting their particular aspirations and needs (FAO, 2013). While seasonal migration is the movement of population from their place of origin after and before planting and harvesting activities, before and after planting and harvesting seasons to jobs target places. After the temporary labour, they return to their place of origin. It is driven by seasonal peaks in labour demand, mostly in agriculture. Seasonal migration is undertaken to improve the economic position of the household. Rural migration could be triggered by numerous factors like intensifying population pressure, land degradation, fragmentation, and limited non-agricultural employment opportunities Ayalew, 2010). Rural poverty, urban-oriented education and improvements in access to information about places and transportation networks increase the propensity to migrate (Anna, 2006). Migration is an important component of rural-urban linkages and a means of achieving economic efficiency (Samuel, 2006). It increases level of urbanization and creates open society to new ideas. It is considered as a development fostering process that creates corrects rural-urban, inter urban and regional imbalances.

The rate of migration in South East, Nigeria is one of the highest in the country and is fueled by population growth and the adverse economic and political situation in the country. This has led to a continued removal of potential human resources from the primary production sector of agricultural to other areas such as "spare parts trading" in urban areas across the nation. There are very high degree of rural-urban migration with 78% of indigenes residing outside their homes. About 32% reside within the South region but not in their home communities and 14% reside in locations within Nigeria but outside the South East (Nwajiuba, 2011).

Therefore, the process of people migrating to other areas in search of better life is not a novel one. What has however gained currency is the increasing voluntary involvement in quest for better quality of life by low-skilled and low-wage workers as well as high-skilled and high wage workers from less developed rural areas to more developed urban areas, especially among the poor youths in developing countries (Ajaero et al, 2013).

It is clear that most of the rural-urban youth migration studies in Nigeria virtually excluded the effects of these youths' seasonal migration on rural livelihood and are in most cases sample surveys on characteristics and determinants of migration. Therefore, there is need for studies that will determine causes and effects of seasonal migration of youths on rural livelihoods in South-East Nigeria with the following specific objectives:

i. identify causes of youths' seasonal migration;
ii. ascertain the effects of this migration on rural livelihoods; and
iii. determine the socio-economic factors influencing seasonal migration in the study area.

Measurement of Variables

Determinants of migration

We investigated the determinants of the likelihood of seasonal migration by using regression analysis. Our dependent variable is given the value of 1 (one) if at least one number of the household migrate during the year and otherwise 0. Our explanatory variable are the log of age, land, household size. Family migration experience, marital status, perceived poverty situation and education.

Seasonal migration

Movements of youths form their place of origin after or before planting and harvesting activities to job target places. Youths under this study is defined as people under the age of 19 – 40.

Rural livelihood

The capabilities, assets and activities that rural people might require for a means of living enhanced from the remittance received from their immigrant youths.

Methodology

The study area

The study was carried out in the South East agricultural zone of Nigeria. The choice of this region was informed by the fact that agriculture is the largest employer of labour in the zone and rural-urban migration and seasonal migration is also very high (Nwajiuba, 2011).

The zone comprises of five states, namely Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu and Imo. The South-East agricultural zone of Nigeria lies between latitudes 4^0 20^1N and 7^0 25^1N and longitude 5^0 21^1E and 8^0 51^1E (Ekwe, 2006). It occupies a land area of about 109524_{sq}km which represents about 11.86% of the total land area of Nigeria with a population of 18.92 million inhabitants (Ekong, 2008). The area lies mainly on plains under zoom above sea level. It is bounded on the South by bight of Bonny, on the East by Republic of Cameroun, on the West by River Nigeria and Delta state, and on the North by Benue State.

It supports a wide variety of agricultural practices such as crop production, agro forestry and livestock production. The population of the study consists of households with at least one migrant youth in the last one year.

A two-stage sampling procedure was adopted for sample selection. The first stage involved a purposive selection of three farming communities in each of the agricultural development programme zones; Ohafia agricultural zone for Abia state, Ebonyi South agricultural zone for Ebonyi State and Orlu agricultural zone for Imo State based on the degree of rural-urban migration and levels of farming activities. In the second stage, 10 rural household with immigrant youths in the last one year selected from each community bringing the total to 450 respondents. Data for the study were collected using structured questionnaire, key informant interviews, household case studies and Focus Group Discussion (FGDs). Data collected were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics like frequency distribution and multiple regression model;

Objective one, was analyzed using frequency counts and percentages while objective 2 was realized using a 5-point Likert scale of strongly agreed – 5, agreed – 4, undecided – 3, disagree – 2 and strongly disagree – 1. to generate mean and the mean were used for the analysis. On determinants of seasonal migration of youths, the dependent variables were measured as;

$Y = F (X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, + e)$

Where Y = dependent variable (causes and effects of seasonal migration measured as sum of mean scores)

while $X_1 – X_6$ (Independent variables) where;

X_1 = Age (measured in years)

X_2 = Marital status (dummy variable married 1, Otherwise 0)

X_3 = Educational level (number of years of formal schooling)

X_4 = Perceived poverty situation (mean scores)

X_5 = Size of land holdings (measured in hectares)

X_6 = Household size (number of people living together in a home)

Results and Discussion

Causes of youth seasonal migration

Results on Table 1, shows the causes of youth seasonal migration in the study area. From the results, about 60.0% of the

respondents reported poverty as the major cause of agreeing their child to migrate outside their communities. Waniganeththi (2017) reported that migration is one of the ways the poor can use to improve their living standard. Table 1, further revealed that (75%) of the respondents reported that food insecurity as the major reasons for allowing their members to migrate. Some of the respondents (90.0%) reported that lack of work opportunity during slack season, (70.6%) reported increase in farmland competition. About (91.6%) stated lack of viable non-farm activities, while all the participated households agreed the desire to earn additional incomes as a push factor for allowing youth migration to other communities. One of the respondents stated, "that during the slack season, the youths often find themselves in a situation they cannot afford basic needs for themselves and their family. So to cover up the basic needs as well as developing their property, they must depend on seasonal migration, he concluded.

Effects of Youths' Seasonal Migration on Rural Livelihood

Result on Table 2 revealed the effect of youth seasonal migration on rural livelihoods in the study area. From the result, the foremost effects of youth seasonal migration on rural livelihood were Improved family members education/medication with a mean score of ($\bar{X}$= 4.67), household ability to purchase improved agricultural inputs ($\bar{X}$= 4.11). This shows that the departure of a young family member tends to augment family member's education and medication through remittance sent to the family by the immigrant youth. Transmission of technical know-how ($\bar{X}$= 3.64), migrants can transmit technical know-how and new norms; values and ideas to non-migrants. This transfer of knowledge may take place on return to their place of origin through contacts with relatives or indirectly through networks connecting diasporas with groups in the area of origin (Beine, *et, al;* 2011).

Less pressure on land ($\bar{X}$= 3.21), out-migration can lead to agricultural de-intensification and reduced pressure on natural resources, due to decline in availability labour force combined with an increase in income through remittance (Qin, 2010). There is less tendency to overuse the land, with positive impacts on agricultural productivity and soil fertility. In Ghana, Van der Geest (2011) showed that that the vegetation trend is more positive in districts with a high level of out-migration. Improves household income assets ($\bar{X}$= 3.04), return immigrants youth can increase productivity in their place of origin, creating new employments opportunities for other villages and inspiring others to start up new enterprise thereby increasing household income (Neilsen and Riddle, 2010). Labour productivity ($\bar{X}$ = 2.06), the departure of job seekers eases the pressure on local labour markets, resulting in more employment opportunities and higher wages for those who remain (Lucas, 2015). Furthermore, the migrants also meet the labour demands of receiving areas. The continued drift of these young men/women, educated, skilled and energetic agricultural labour force into other areas, if uncontrolled is likely to weaken the role of agriculture through manpower shortage and reduction in agriculture productivity. Use of remittances for productive investment in agriculture ($\bar{X}$ = 1.64) remittance can be used to buy agricultural inputs and improved seeds or to fund productive investment activities (Ratha, 2013). De Haan *et, al;*(2003), reported that in South Africa and Botswana, where rural financial markets are almost absent, cash remittance are essential to finance the purchase of agricultural inputs. The extent of which a migrant's success in accumulating capital

and skills translate into higher investments in the area of origin depends on other factors including the migrant's degree of education and capacity to access local assessment and the business environment (Macarthy *et, al;*2006). These findings are supported by (Makonnen, 2016) who cited that seasonal migration is undertaken to improve economic position of the households. On the other hand, Kotharis (2002) reported that review of migration studies finds that migration can both reduce and perpetuate poverty. Improvement on household debt repayment had a mean score of ($\bar{X}$ = 1.80). According to Leighton (2016), remittance from the immigrants youths most of the time are used to pay off household debt. And the result seems to agree with the findings of (Erdkamp, 2016) who reported that remittance from the immigrant youths are used to buy food, build or repay houses and upgrade household facilities. This will lead to improvement on the livelihood.

Socio-economic factors influencing youth's seasonal migration using multiple regression analysis

Results in Table 3 revealed the multiple regression analysis result of factors influencing youth's seasonal migration in the study area. From the Table, the coefficient of determination (R^2), of 0.785 implies that 78.5% of the variations in the youth's seasonal migration were explained by the explanatory variables. The F-ratio of 4.385 which was significant at 1% shows the goodness-of-fit of the model.

The t-value for age (t = 4.083***<0.01) was positive and significant at 1% level, implying that the higher the age of the household head, the higher the probability of sending a migrant increase, by about 8 per cent (Ratha, and Plaza 2011). In Nigeria, households' heads aged 21 – 40 years were found to be more prone to migrate (Osawe, 2013). This could be due to the fact that the older an individual, the higher the responsibilities on him and the higher the expectation for support for household members, which might propel the youths to migrate when there is no substantial livelihood means to meet the needs and demands in his/her household especially during the stake period.

The t-value for household size (t = 3.892***<0.01) was positive and significantly related to seasonal migration at 1% level of probability. Large households are more likely to resort to seasonal migration. As the size of the family increases, its per capita income decreases and family members may migrate to seek work elsewhere. According to Thorat *et al;*(2011) an increase of one unit in family size produces an increase of 8.7 percent in the probability of migrating. Additional household member increases the probability of having a migrant in the household.

The t-value for marital status (t = 9.441***<0.01) was positive and significantly related to seasonal migration at 1% level of significance. According to (Nwajiuba, 2011) marital status has no effect on the decision of migration. May be this finding can be location specific because in some part of South-East, Nigeria, the pressure from family members is enough push the youths to migrate in order to send remittance to their households.

The t-value for household's perception of poverty (t = 3.435***<0.01) which functions as an indicator for the household's wealth was positive and significantly related to youths' migration at 1% significant level. The perception of being poor strongly increases the probability of sending a migrant. Many rural youths temporarily migrate in the slack seasons to neighbouring cities or elsewhere to find employment. The earnings obtained have allowed rural households to supplement their income

from agriculture and indirectly contributed to overcoming the problem of farmland scarcity and poverty.

Educational level (t = 2.170**<0.05) was positive and significantly related to youth seasonal migration. Youths who are more educated were observed to be more mobile; they seek work that matches their higher skills and expectation, and which pays return on education costs incurred (Acukah and Medvedev, 2010; Richter and Taylor, 2006). Also, relevant for rural youth is migration for education purposes, which depends on the two main factors: (i.) the potentially high returns on investment in education through access to more skilled, better paid job opportunities (ii.) the persistent scarcity of quality educational institutions in rural areas, especially at secondary or higher level.

The t-value of extended family network (t = 1.828*<0.1) was positive and significantly related to immigration at 10% level of probability. This finding is supported by the findings of (Leighton 2016) who reported that socio-economic network and information flows are also essential factors in decision about seasonal migration among households.

Conclusion

The paper investigated causes and effect of youths' seasonal migration on rural livelihoods in South-East, Nigeria. The result revealed that youths migrate as a result of household poverty, food insecurity, lack of job opportunities during off season, increase competition on scare resources, lack of viable non-farm and the desire to earn extra income for the household. The earning obtained from this type of migration has enabled households to repay back debts, has also helped them to break circle of poverty among others.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the paper recommended that;

- There is need to promote productive investment of remittance receiving households, and return immigrants in sustainable agricultural and green jobs and promote safe remmurative and regulated seasonal labour migration schemes.
- An effective intervention can be arrived on proper understanding of the development of the problem and the strategies that will improve living standard of the households. This calls for a system approach in studying the trend and then offering solution to the people.

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Table 1: Percentage distribution of respondents on causes of youth seasonal migration

Causes	Frequency	Percentage
Poverty	270	60.0
Food insecurity	340	75.0
Lack of work opportunity	406	90.0
Increased competition	318	70.6
Lack of viable non-farm activities	412	91.6
The desire to earn additional income	450	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2019.
Multiple response

Table 2: Mean Effects of Youths' Seasonal Migration on Rural Livelihoods

Effects	∑x	$\bar{x}$	Std. Dev.	Rank
Labour productivity	925	2.06	0.528	6th
Improvement on household debt repayment	810	1.80	0.320	8th
Less pressure on land	1445	3.21	0.454	4th
Household income assets improved	1370	3.04	0.394	5th
Able to purchase improved agricultural inputs	1850	4.11	0.429	2nd
Use of remittance for productive investment in agriculture	740	1.64	0.626	9th
Improved family members education/medication	2100	4.67	0.262	1st
Household income asset position declined	678	1.51	0.637	10th
Non-farm income generation decreased	860	1.91	0.604	7th
Transmission in technical know how	1640	3.64	0.354	3rd
Grand mean		**2.76**		

Source: Field survey, 2019

Table 3: Socio-economic factors influencing youth's seasonal migration using multiple regression analysis

Variables	Co-efficient	Std. error	t-value	P-value
Intercept	28.281	2.512	11.257***	0.000
Age	2.139	0.524	4.083***	0.000
Size of land holdings	1.446	1.235	1.171	0.451
Household size	2.338	0.601	3.892***	0.001