

CHILD LABOUR AND CHILDREN'S EDUCATION IN NORTHERN REGION OF
GHANA. CASE STUDY OF BUNKPURUGU-YUNYOO AND EAST MAMPRUSI
DISTRICTS

BY

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work towards the award of the MSc in Planning (Development Policy and Planning) and that to the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree of the university, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

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DEDICATION

To

Yennumi and Banleman with love

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ABSTRACT

Education is the key element in the prevention of child labour, at the same time child labour is one of the main obstacles of education at the basic level. Child labour has assumed alarming proportion the world over and most especially in the developing world. Literature indicates that child labour is the main obstacle of human resource development which is a necessary ingredient of national development. Understanding the interplay between education and child labour will help to eliminate it and improve on school enrolment. According to the Ghana Child Labour Survey carried out in 2001, half of the rural and about one fifth of the urban children was economically active. The survey examines child labour and children's education in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts of the Northern Region of Ghana. The case study method was used in the study because of its relevance in contemporary developmental issues like the child labour. The sample frame was the list of all the houses in the selected communities from which a sample size of 155 was determined through the use of the mathematical formula given by Miller and Brewer (2003). Systematic sampling was then used to select the households who were interviewed. The study relied on data gathered from the secondary sources and primary data from the field to do the analysis. The results of the study indicate Child labour is considered as a normal practice and indeed healthy to the proper upbringing of the child. Children working on family farms and with family enterprises are seen as part of the process by which they are trained towards adulthood. The reasons given by the heads of households surveyed for allowing their children to work were categorized into four and they are as follows; to support family income (38.1%), as a form of child training (41.3%), to support child education (7.7%) and to help in household enterprises (12.9%). The results of the survey show that all children in ages 5- 17 years of households surveyed in the study area at least do household chores. In all there are six hundred and seventy-five (675) children in this age bracket of the households surveyed. Most of them apart from household chores also work to assist their parents in their enterprises and on the farms especially during rainy season. International NGOs such as CAMFED and FAWA are in the study area sensitizing girls on their rights including their right to education. The activities of these NGOs according to some of the beneficiaries have impacted positively on their

education since they no longer depend on their parents for school fees and uniforms. There are no specific programmes by the district assemblies to fight the child labour problem though the officials admit child labour exist in their districts. The study made a number of recommendations including the following; improving the local economy, tackling the broader socio-cultural and economic situation of farmers, increasing access, quality and relevance of education, motivating teachers to give their best, embarking on family planning campaigns, extension of social amenities to the area and making and enforcing laws on child labour. With the knowledge of what pertains on the ground about child labour would help to improve education if suggestions are factored into plans for the area.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

BECE	Basic Education Certificate Examination
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GPRS I	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy
GPRS II	Growth and Poverty Reduction
GNCC	Ghana National Commission on Children
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
LEAP	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty
MOWAC	Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NGOs	Nongovernmental Organisations
UN	United Nations
NYEP	National Youth Employment Programme
OAU	Organisation of African Unity
SSSCE	Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination
UNCHR	United Nations Commission on Human Rights
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

Child Labour is a social problem associated with the rise of industrial production and capitalism. It appeared in earlier ages in agricultural societies, but during the Industrial Revolution of the 18th century in Great Britain it was especially conspicuous and began to be opposed. It was one of the biggest scandals of the 19th century, spreading to other countries as they industrialized (Shahrokhi, 1996).

By now, many people were aware of increasing demand for educated workforce and the people of upper class had started to rule over the poor children. The demand for educated workforce provided all the extra reasons for children to join school. But there were parents who could not afford to send their children to schools, and hence children volunteered to work in factories, mines, mills etc

In mines, children were to crawl through tiny pits to reach the coalface, and also were to operate on the ventilation ports. In mills, this child workforce grew annually. Out-working others and long working hours with more intensity was the dream each child had, and this would mentally challenge them (UNICEF, 2008). This issue of child labour is not confined only to the industrialized world. Child labour is a widespread problem in developing countries as well. When children under age work, their labour time disrupts their schooling and in majority of cases prevent them from attending school altogether.

The International Labour Office (ILO), a UN body that has played a leading role on the child labour issue, estimated that some 120 million children in developing countries between the ages of 5 and 15 are working full time, with another 130 million working half time. Some 61% of these 250 million working children, or 153 million, live in Asia, while 32%, or 80 million, live in Africa, and 7%, or 17 million, live in Latin America. Although Asia has the largest number of child labourers, in relative terms, Africa has the highest child labour rate, estimated at about 41% of all children between

5 and 14 years old (Todaro et al, 2009).

The above statistics indicate the intensity of child labour and the need to address it, in order to eliminate its adverse effects on human capital development and the future growth potential of developing countries.

The literature distinguishes *child labour* and *child work*, where the latter is the more unarmful and probably healthy kind, and includes helping household in various chores and household activity.

These activities may take place after school hours or during holidays more intensively and are probably inevitable in rural areas. ILO's Minimum Age convention authorizes the employment of children above 12 or 13 years in certain type of light work such as distributing News Papers under certain conditions (ILO, 1995).

The world has witnessed many children involved in military campaigns in spite of this activity being against the cultural morals. It was a custom for youths from the Mediterranean basin to serve as aides, charioteers, and armor bearers to their adult counterparts. A few examples can be found in the Bible (David serving his King Saul), Greek Mythology (Hercules and Hylas). In Greece, this practice was considered to be an educational tradition, and the Man/Boy couple was considered to be an efficient fighting force. Hitler Youth (Hitlerjünged or HJ) was an official organization in the Nazi Army. During the Battle of Berlin, this youth force was a major part of the German Defenses. The recent wars experienced in Africa, the issue of child soldiers features prominently in both international and local media.

One of the major constraints in Ghana's growth challenge has been the lack of human capital development. The non-school attendance rates in Ghana are very high with wide gender disparities. The 2008 Ghana Living Standards Survey Report indicates that attendance rates are generally high in all localities except in rural savannah. While the rates range from a high of 97.0 percent in the other localities, in rural savannah it is 63.5 percent for males and 56.6 percent for females. The three regions in the northern part of Ghana have the highest illiteracy rates in the country, with Upper East having 76.5 per cent of the population 15 years and older being totally illiterate. The corresponding rates

for Northern and Upper West regions are 76.2 per cent and 73.4 per cent. The three regions in northern part of Ghana are very seriously handicapped in almost every human development indicator including education. Of the three least literate regions, Northern has one of the worst educational records, falling behind the Upper East and Upper West in many literacy and enrolment criteria from primary to the tertiary levels. In *Ghana in the year 2000* the strategy for accelerated growth argued for massive investment in primary education as a way of building the necessary human capital for sustainable growth (World Bank, 1993). In this context, it is important to understand the dynamics of household decision making of whether to send children to school and/or work, to benefit from investments in education. If not, colossal public investments in education are not likely to get children into class rooms. It has been noted that inconsistency between minimum age for employment and schooling in most countries makes the implementation of these laws complicated (ILO, 1996). This seems to be the case for Ghana as well. Ghana's labour Decree (1967) prohibits employment of children under the age of 15; although the law permits undefined "light" work by children. This unclear definition of light work makes many people including parents to abuse this clause in the decree.

1.2. Problem Statement

A lot is reported about child labour and in these reports there are explicit concerns about the effects of child labour on children's education and its long term consequences on human capital development. It is reported on daily basis, situations where children of school going age are engaged in active work at the expense of school. This situation existed even before Ghana attained her independence in 1957. There are some parts of the country where access to basic education is lower and in some cases persistently underserved. The Northern region has persistently lower school attendance rates than the national average. According to the 2008 Ghana Living Standards Survey Report, attendance rates are generally high in all localities except in the rural savannah. While the rates range from a high of 97.0 percent in the other localities, in rural savannah it is 63.5 percent for males and 56.6 percent for females. Generally, attendance rates for males are higher than that of females but the differences are minimal at both the

national and locality levels. This situation can partly be blamed on social problems like child labour. Teachers and other concerned people in the study area complain about irregular attendance to school by children and this eventually affects the output in terms of the results. Most parents in the study area are farmers and sometimes turn to use the children to support them in their farm work which affect school attendance. The other issue that compounds the problem in the study area is the low literacy rate of the parents. According to the UNICEF office in Ghana, in some northern districts fewer than 50 percent of teachers are qualified and fewer than 40 percent of primary school-aged children attend class.

According to Marcus (1998) that wide scale poverty is among the most reasons why children work. However, manifold other factors also influence children's work such as the accessibility and quality of education and the impact of interventions. Although Ghana provide free compulsory basic education, it does not mean that education is totally free. Associated fees for schooling, such as costs for uniforms, text books, transportation and sometimes teachers' own insinences, are a huge burden for people who are poor. Although Ghana's school enrolment rates are high compared to some other African countries, a persistent 40 per cent of children between 6 and 11 years of age remained out of school as of 2003. One of the main reasons why these children did not attend school was that their parents' could not afford to pay the levies charged by the schools. Despite the policy of fee-free tuition in basic schools, many districts charge levies as a means of raising funds, for example, for school repairs, cultural and sporting activities. This has the effect of deterring many families, particularly the poorest, from sending their children, especially girls, to school (UNICEF, 2007). In some parts of Ghana, economic and socio-cultural factors contribute to low enrollment and attendance rates particularly of girls. For example as poor families struggle to make a living, often girls play a key role in the survival of the household by either contributing income or taking care of household chores like looking after younger siblings. In these situations girls are less likely to be sent to school. In the Northern Region, for instance, the practice of sending girls to live with their aunts serve to keep many girls out of school as many of these aunts keep the girls at home to help them in their income-generating businesses. Some of these aunts, especially the old ones, may also be too poor to pay for

the education of such girls. Often there is a mismatch between school calendar/timetable and household duties (e.g. fetching water, collecting firewood, cooking, caring for younger siblings and sick family members) resulting in some children not being able to go to school.

In Ghana the cooperative effort of the government, voluntary agencies and international nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have employed their resources into improving the lot of children especially in northern Ghana. The objectives of the UN's MDG compact, which are reflected in the original poverty reduction proposals of Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I), included raising the access of all the nation's children and youth to a defined minimum of basic education, unhampered by the particular economic circumstances of their parents or guardians.

There is the need for further interventions if this problem of child labour would be reduced to the barest minimum in Ghana and especially in the study area. The causes of this phenomenon are multi faceted and need multi faceted solutions.

In light of the above issues the problem of child labour in the study area needs to be given more attention. Though a lot of studies have been conducted about the problem it still persists. In order to address it there is the need to have a clear understanding of the nature, causes and trends of child labour. The effects of child labour on children's education calls for further investigations.

1.3. Research Questions

In view of the above discussion, four questions are posed which the study will seek to address:

- How widespread is the phenomenon of child labour in the study area?
- Which factors influence family's decision to subject the child to work?
- How does child labour affect children's education?
- How can the problem be addressed by different stakeholders?

1.4. Objectives of the study

The broad objective of this study is to investigate and understand the dynamics of child labour, assess the extent to which it has affected children's education in the study area and to propose policy recommendations to improve human capital development which is a key to national development.

The specific objectives of the study include the following:

- To examine how widespread the phenomena of child labour and the causes in the districts.
- To examine the effects of child labour on school attendance, academic performance and the retention rate of children in school.
- To assess the interventions of governmental and non governmental agencies in the education sector in the area and propose measures to improve their activities in contributing to solving the problem.
- To give recommendations to inform policy to minimize the activities of child labour.

1.5. Scope of the Study

Geographically, the study will cover these two districts in the northern region of Ghana, Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts. The Bunkpurugu- Yunyoo district is located at the north-eastern end of the Northern region of Ghana. It shares boundaries in the north with Garu –Tempene, to the east with Togo, west with East Mamprusi and to the south by Gusheigu and Saboba Chereponi districts.

The East Mamprusi district is located to the north- eastern part of the region. To the north it shares boundaries with the Talensi- Nabdam district, Bawku West and Garu Tempene districts and to the east Bunkpurugu- Yunyoo district. It is bordered to the west by West Mamprusi and the south by Gusheigu districts. The two districts have similar characteristics in terms of the environment and the local economy and equally have similar social problems.

Child labour is a real contemporary issue in the developing world and Ghana in particular. Northern region is one of the regions in Ghana with high child labour issues and earlier studies also indicate that it is mostly a rural phenomenon. The Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo and the East Mamprusi are rural districts with similar socio-cultural characteristics, economic activities and also share boundaries. The abysmal performance of students especially in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) results cut across the entire area. These similarities in the above characteristics coupled with the closeness of the two districts are the reasons of my choice of the area for the study.

1.6. Justification of the Study

The future of every nation lies in her children and this can only be realized if the children are well equipped with the necessary skills to enable them take over from the aging population. Child labour from literature available indicates that it depends to a great extent on the income of the family and the educational level of parents concerned. This study is expected to throw more light into the ‘problem’ of child labour in our society especially in the study area. It also seeks to bring awareness of the issues to the local community and how to address them. The findings from the studies will help authorities concern to know the magnitude of the problem in the study area. The recommendations if implemented can help minimize the effects of the problem of child labour in the study area. Though there are already existing legislations on child labour and school attendance the study will help to re-enforce the need for appropriate enforcement mechanisms to safeguard the exploitation of children at the expense of their future. The research findings will also add to the existing literature of knowledge. The research findings and recommendations will stimulate interest in the area and call for further research in future.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

A number of challenges were encountered during the survey and they are enumerated below. Another area of concern is the language barrier because the area is inhabited by many ethnic groups who speak different languages but this problem was solved through

the use of research assistants who live in those communities.

The institutions were not able to give the required information needed for the analysis of the problem. The district assemblies did not attach much importance to the questionnaire.

The heads of the households were not able to disclose their monthly incomes since most of them are not on monthly salaries and they could not equally give accurate expenditure on their wards education. The monthly earnings that were given by the households were inconsistent with their expenditure. However, other household data critical to the study were obtained.

At the time of collection of the data basic schools were on holidays and that made it very difficult for getting access to the school registers to check attendance. The third term information was not available because they were yet to resume for that term. The attendance records of the few schools obtained were able to give the general outlook of the situation on the ground.

1.8. Organisation of the Study

The research has been organized into five chapters. The first chapter introduces the research, identifies the key problem under investigation and asks the relevant research questions. It further states the specific objectives for the research, defines its scope, gives a justification for the topic and outlines the limitations of the research. This chapter is relevant to the study because it puts the study into perspective and helps to check deviations.

The second chapter presents a review of relevant literature on child labour and the definitions of relevant terminologies. The chapter provides the theoretical and historical information needed to carve a methodology for the research.

Chapter Three contains the research design adopted, the data requirement and the sources of the data, the data collection tools employed, the sampling technique, the key data variables and the framework for data analysis and reporting. This chapter provides a guide as to the conduct of the field survey.

The fourth chapter touches on the profile of the study area spelling out the demographic and physical characteristics. It also analyses data collected from the field in terms of the socio-economic background of the respondents in the selected communities in the two districts. This is a very important chapter in the research because it provides the information to answer the research questions raised. The findings are based on the data analysed in this chapter.

The fifth chapter constitutes the key findings of the study and a set of recommendations and a general conclusion for the study. This is very relevant to the study because it discloses information which hitherto was unknown and hence adds to the existing body of knowledge.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL ISSUES ON CHILD LABOUR

There is no single universally accepted definition of child labour. Child labour is regarded as a social construct which differs by actors, history, context and purpose (Weston, 2005). There are differences in what constitute child labour. For example, the World Bank describes child labour as a 'serious threat' from the point of view of the harm it can do to long term national investment (Weston, 2005). The ILO relates the phenomenon to the harm done to children by their current engagement in certain types of economic activity. UNICEF emphasizes that the issue goes way beyond the concerns of investment or its relation to economic activity, and includes several aspects of domestic work which conflicts with the best interest of the child (Huebler, 2006). There are many dimensions and views of the phenomenon but much emphasis will be placed on the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and United Nations Children's Fund's (UNICEF) views on the subject.

2.1. The ILO Concept and Definition of Child Labour

The ILO concept of child labour is derived from the ILO Minimum Age Convention No. 138 of 1973, which sets 15 years as the general minimum age for employment. Any work in violation of Convention No. 138 is considered illegal child labour that should be eliminated. ILO introduces a distinction between child work, which may be acceptable, and child labour, which needs to be eliminated. In this regard, four groups of children engaged in work/labour are identified:

- ❖ Children at work
- ❖ Children engaged in child labour, including all economically active children 5 to 11 years of age; economically active children aged 12 to 14 years, except those doing light work only for less than 14 hours per week; and, children aged 15 to 17 years engaged in any type of hazardous work.
- ❖ Children in hazardous work, that is, work that will likely harm the health, safety, or moral development of a child. In addition to children working in mines,

construction or other hazardous activities, this group includes all children below 18 years of age who work 43 hours or more per week.

- ❖ Children in unconditional worst forms of child labour, as defined by ILO Convention No. 182.

This includes children in forced or bonded labour, armed conflict, prostitution and pornography, and illicit activities.

There are two points to note in this view of the ILO. Firstly, the first group covers activities that might be regarded as positive from an ILO perspective. The second and third groups cover child labour that deserves to be eliminated, and the fourth group requires an urgent action for elimination. Children under five years of age who are not included in these four groups are generally considered too young to be working. Secondly, the ILO definition covers only economic activity, that is, work related to the production of goods and services. Domestic work – such as cooking, cleaning, or caring for children – is ignored. The major criticism of this definition is that it is narrow as it underestimates the burden of work on children, especially for girls, who are more likely than boys to perform work in a household (Gibbons, Huebler, and Loaiza, 2005).

2.2. The UNICEF Concept and Definition of Child Labour

UNICEF has expanded the ILO definition of child labour by emphasizing the importance of domestic work by children, that is, in addition to economic work. UNICEF defines child labour as follows:

- ❖ Children 5 -11 years engaged in any economic activity, or 28 hours or more domestic work per week;
- ❖ Children 12-14 years engaged in any economic activity (except light work for less than 14 hours per week), or 28 hours or more domestic work per week;
- ❖ Children 15-17 years engaged in any hazardous work.

The UNICEF definition has the advantage of theoretically capturing all work that children do. The definition of UNICEF provides a good indicator of child labour that is harmful to a child's physical or mental development. However, it is of limited value for an analysis of the trade-off between work and school attendance.

2.3. Operational Definition of Child Labour

For the purpose of this study, child labour is defined as any activity, economic or non-economic, performed by a child, that is either too dangerous or hazardous and/or for which the child is too small to perform and that has the potential to negatively affect his/her health, education, moral and normal development.

The legal definition of a child in Ghana is anyone who has not reached the age of maturity, which is 18 years (GSS, 2003). It is accepted that children under 5 years are not physically capable of undertaking work of any significance, whether economic or non-economic. The target group for the survey, therefore, comprised all children aged 5-17 years, engaged in economic or non-economic activities (including housekeeping/household chores in their own parent'/guardians' household).

2.4. History of Child Labour

Child labour is not a new phenomenon. It has existed in every part of the world since ancient times. In more recent history, it emerged as an issue during the industrial revolution when children were forced to work in dangerous conditions for up to 12 hours a day. In 1860, 50% of children in England between the age of 5 and 15 years were working. In England and Scotland in 1788, two-thirds of the workers in 143 water-powered cotton mills were described as children. In 1919, the world began to address the issue of child labour and the International Labour Organisation (ILO) adopted standards to eliminate it. Throughout the 20th Century, a number of legally binding agreements and international conventions were adopted but in spite of these, child labour continues to this day. The highest number of child labourers is in the Asia-Pacific region but the largest percentage of children working, as proportion of the child population, is found in sub-Saharan Africa.

Child labour is still common in some parts of the world, it can be factory work, mining, prostitution, quarrying, agriculture, helping in the parents' business, having one's own small business (for example selling food), or doing odd jobs. Some children work as guides for tourists, sometimes combined with bringing in business for shops and restaurants (where they may also work as waiters). Other children are forced to do

tedious and repetitive jobs such as: assembling boxes, polishing shoes, stocking a store's products, or cleaning. However, rather than in factories and sweatshops, most child labour occurs in the informal sector, "selling many things on the streets, at work in agriculture or hidden away in houses—far from the reach of official labour inspectors and from media scrutiny." As long as there is family poverty there will be child labour (UNICEF, 2008).

2.5. Causes of Child Labour

Researchers and practitioners agree that poverty is the main determinant of child labour supply, and that child labour significantly increases the income and the probability of survival of the family. Basu and Van (1998) argue that the primary cause of child labour is parental poverty. That being so, they caution against the use of a legislative ban against child labour, and argue that it should be used only when there is reason to believe that a ban on child labour will cause adult wages to rise and so compensate adequately the households of the poor children. The contribution of children is most of the time critical since children are sent to work when parents' earnings are insufficient to guarantee the survival of the family, or are insecure so that child labour is used as a means of minimizing the impact of possible job loss, failed harvest and other shocks on the family's income stream (Galli 2001). Poor households also tend to have more children, and with large families there is a greater likelihood that children will work and have lower school attendance and completion.

ILO (2006) observes that while poverty is almost always a context for the early entry of children into regular work and into child labour, poverty can also be a function of: a) access to labour markets and income-raising activities; b) family members of working age not having appropriate skills to match market needs in the area where they live; c) family members low educational levels; d) unemployment in the area where the family lives; e) conflict, illness or natural disaster having taken away the breadwinner of the family leaving a dependent household with no-one to depend on. Apart from the incidence of parental poverty others think the causes of child labour goes beyond that.

Many children live in areas that do not have adequate school facilities, so they are compelled to work.

Odonkor (2007) claims “rural parents should rather be seen as people dissatisfied with the education system than as illiterates ignorant of the value of education”. The results of a study conducted confirmed that because of the low quality of education, difficulties in access and also the uncertainty of finding an adequate job after graduation, parents have developed a coping strategy by which they send some of their children to school and the others help in fishing, farming or other economic activities. Where education is mandatory, available and understood as important, the proportion of child labour is lower.

Poverty may not be the main cause but certainly an important cause that influences a lot in child labour. Why would a child prefer to get an education or go to school when staying in work can make him eat on that day? Or even worse, not even have the opportunity of choice between attending schools or work (UNICEF, 2008).

The fact is that the opportunity or the proportion of work for kids is the one that makes child labour occur. It exists because it is treated as acceptable culturally or politically. In many countries there exists a strong tradition of tolerance for child labour. The result is the child labour expansion among some poor ethnic groups. In a similar form discriminatory attitudes for women and girls can enforce their parents will to send their daughters to serve in homes or do other forms of work.

The results of four African countries surveyed by ILO on child labour indicate that working children were considered essential as contributors to the household economies in all four of the surveyed countries, either in the form of work for wages or in the form of help in household enterprises. In most of the businesses surveyed in Ghana, for example, the employed children were either those of the owner or were close relatives. The two main reasons why enterprises employed child labour were the "willingness" of children to work as many hours as required, and the absence of labour disputes, (ILO,1996).

In the northern region of Ghana in particular the issue of education has been a problem over the years and has to do with the inadequate infrastructure for schooling coupled with cultural beliefs that attach less importance to education especially female education.

2.6. Magnitude of the Problem

Child labour remains globally widespread, complex and a multi-faceted phenomenon. A recent estimate of the International Labour Organisation is that worldwide over 350 million children work (ILO, 2004). That means that over one fifth of the world's children aged 5-17 years are exploited in child labour of different forms. The Asian-Pacific region continues to have the largest number of child workers, 122 million in total. It is followed by Sub-Saharan Africa (49.3 million) and Latin America and the Caribbean (5.7 million). Still large numbers of children toil in appalling conditions and are ruthlessly exploited to perform dangerous jobs with little or no pay, and as a result of these conditions, oftentimes suffer severe physical and emotional abuse (Weston, 2005).

No reasonable estimates exist of the size of the child labour problem in Africa. No one has tried to assess how much of the labour performed by children in the households is lasting so long or has such a time shape as to seriously interfere with schooling. Further, there is no solid basis for counting the number of children working in the rural areas whose work is physically dangerous or psychologically harmful, (Andvig, Canagarajah & Kielland, 2001)

In 1996, ILO's child labour program IPEC (International Program to Eliminate Child Labour) conducted a preliminary study of children in commercial agriculture in thirteen African countries. They estimate that among 17 million economically active children under age fifteen, and that 77 percent work in the agricultural sector. They further assume that as much as 38 percent of this labour is paid employment.

The vast majority of working children in developing countries are engaged in agricultural work. Yet, this work is severely understudied as compared with the more

visible forms of work in Latin America and Asia, which involve children in labour-intensive manufacturing.

About thirty-one percent (31%) of Ghana's population of 20.3 million is made up of children aged 5-17 years. Information from the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) indicated that there was an increase in child labour cases involving children between the ages of five and seventeen in the country in 2001. A report by the United Nations Commission on Human Rights (UNCHR) also indicates that, based on a study conducted by the Tulane University in 2008, an estimated number of 1.6 million children are engaged in child labour in Ghana. In Ghana, 49% of boys and 44% of girls undertake work on the household farm, about a further 3% of each gender are engaged in household enterprises, while less than 1% report any employment outside the household (Bhalotra and Heady 2001). In Ghana, virtually all boys and almost half of the girls combine working on the household enterprise with going to school.

Experimental statistical surveys carried out by the ILO in Ghana, India, Indonesia and Senegal have shown that the economic activities of more than 75 percent of children between the ages of 5 and 14 takes place in a family enterprise setting.

According to the Ghana Child Labour Survey carried out in 2001, nearly 40 percent of the children had engaged in economic activities within the twelve months preceding the interviews; 31 percent within the last seven days. Half of the rural and about one fifth of the urban children was economically active. Nearly all of them (87 percent of the boys and 92 percent of the girls) had household duties in addition. 57 percent of the children were engaged in agriculture, forestry and fishing; 21 percent worked as hawkers and street vendors, selling food, iced water and other items. Other occupations were washing cars, fetching fire wood and water, pushing trucks (large wheelbarrows) and carrying goods as porters. Most of the children worked in the family business. As many as 1.59 million children were working while attending school. Nearly 20 percent of children (about 1.27million) were engaged in activities classified as child labour. The phenomenon is prevalent in all regions of the country (GSS, 2003; MMYE, 2006).

2.7. Effects and Ramifications of Child Labour

According to the ILO's 2002 global estimates on child labour, close to half of all working children are enrolled in school. Child labour interferes with education. Either school attendance is foregone in favour of work, or learning is inefficient, either because the children are not allowed to spend time doing their homework or because they are unable to pay proper attention in school because of fatigue (Canagarajah, & Nielsen, 1999). UNICEF's study in Ghana and a review of similar studies by the ILO have shown that work has a detrimental effect on learning achievements in the key areas of language and mathematics. Heady (2003) also found that working children in Ghana spent an average of one hour per week less in school. According to Gibbons et al (2003) child labour is associated with higher repetition and dropout rates. Child labour competes with school attendance and proficiency, children sent to work do not accumulate (or under-accumulate) human capital, missing the opportunity to enhance their productivity and future earnings capacity. This lowers the wage of their future families, and increases the probability of their offspring being sent to work. In this way poverty and child labour is passed on from generation to generation. Child labour not only prevents children from acquiring the skills and education they need for a better future, it also perpetuates poverty and affects national economies through losses in competitiveness, productivity and potential income.

(ILO, 2006) demonstrate that early entry into the labour force reduces lifetime earnings by 13-20 per cent, increasing significantly the probability of being poor later in life. There is a general agreement that some trade-off between children in labour and human capital accumulation takes place. With respect to school attendance and progress, full-time jobs have the worst impact on children's future productivity. Part-time jobs, especially those that are physically very demanding, also disrupt education since children are too tired to participate adequately at school activities or to study at home. The age of entry into the labour force is also important in this context: the younger the child enters the labour force, the less human capital he/she will be able to accumulate. Child labour seriously undermines efforts to provide children with the necessary knowledge and skills to meet the challenges of the 21st Century.

Statistics in this field of child labour are far from reliable, but it is assumed that in some regions of Africa, labour force participation rates for children might be as high as 30 percent. Furthermore, cost benefit analyses show annual GDP losses of 1- 2% because of the loss in human capital stock due to the use of child labour. The long term effect of child labour on the nation is enormous and need to be addressed.

2.8. Defence of Child Labour

Concerns have often been raised by civil society over the buying public's moral complicity in purchasing products assembled or otherwise manufactured in developing countries with child labour. The recent threat from the developed world of boycotting cocoa from Ghana and other African countries is a case in point. However, others have raised concerns that boycotting products produced through child labour may force these children to turn to more dangerous or strenuous professions. For example, a UNICEF study found that after the Child Labour Deterrence Act was introduced in the US, an estimated 50,000 children were dismissed from their garment industry jobs in Bangladesh, leaving many to resort to jobs such as "stone-crushing, street hustling, and prostitution", jobs that are "more hazardous and exploitative than garment production". The study suggests that boycotts are "blunt instruments with long-term consequences that can actually harm rather than help the children involved."

According to Milton Friedman (2002), before the Industrial Revolution virtually all children worked in agriculture. During the Industrial Revolution many of these children moved from farm work to factory work. Over time, as real wages rose, parents became able to afford to send their children to school instead of work and as a result child labour declined, both before and after legislation.

Austrian school economist Murray Rothbard (1995) also defended child labour, stating that British and American children of the pre- and post-Industrial Revolution lived and suffered in infinitely worse conditions where jobs were not available for them and went "voluntarily and gladly" to work in factories.

According to Thomas DeGregori (2002), economics professor at the University of Houston, in an article published by the Cato Institute, a libertarian think-tank operating in Washington D.C., "it is clear that technological and economic change are vital ingredients in getting children out of the workplace and into schools. Then they can grow to become productive adults and live longer, healthier lives. However, in poor countries, working children are essential for survival in many families, as they were in our own heritage until the late 19th century. So, while the struggle to end child labour is necessary, getting there often requires taking different routes—and, sadly, there are many political obstacles. Compulsory laws are evil and unnecessary. If they spent time picking up a skill, their life would be much better.

Child labour laws penalize families with children because the period of time in which children remain net monetary liabilities to their parents is thereby prolonged. This is especially true in Third World and helps weaken the traditional family, along with so many other government laws and programs.

Children in the traditional Ghanaian society learn by helping their parents and their communities to perform certain social and economic activities. The nature and magnitude of roles performed by children in Ghana differ, because there is cultural diversity in terms of language, religion, and ethnicity, moral and aesthetic values. In spite of this diversity, one common strand is that a child is initiated into a form of occupation and self-recognized role-plays in order to become a responsible adult who can be relied upon to perpetuate the culture of the people. In the light of this, the family (nuclear or extended) is seen as a unit with collective responsibilities working towards a common goal, and children are seen as playing a vital part of the shared responsibilities.

It is therefore considered normal for a child to play any role that his/her mental and physical abilities can support. Indeed, in Ghana, a child is considered a deviant, lazy or having poor upbringing if he/she cannot perform basic household chores like fetching water, washing plates, sweeping and running errands. In most cases, females are expected to assist their mothers in the kitchen, while males assist their fathers on the farms or in the family business. The situation becomes very challenging when parents,

especially farmers, expect their children to take over from them (GSS, 2003). What is considered as child labour in the western countries may be considered a normal practice in Ghana. This practice becomes a problem only if the work that the child does is injurious to his/her health or affects his/her schooling.

2.9. Efforts in addressing the problem of child labour

The ILO has been campaigning to end child labour since the organization was founded in 1919. The ILO doctrine on child labour states that labour carried out by children of 15 years or younger under conditions which stifle their physical, psychological and intellectual development must be eliminated. Today, the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138) is the ILO's main instrument on child labour. Unlike previous conventions, it applies to all sectors of economic activity. The ILO's ongoing offensive against child labour includes a technical cooperation programme designed to help countries build up a permanent capacity to address the problem. Launched in 1992, the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) fosters the development of an effective partnership between government services, employers' organizations, trade unions, non-governmental organizations and other interested parties including universities and members of the media.

As early as 1921, the ILO passed the first Minimum Age Convention, the world has attempted to protect children's right to an education and to prevent any child labour which would prejudice their school attendance.(Gibbons et al, 2003). Since 1990, with the entry into force of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the child's right to be protected from "any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education" (Article 32) and his or her right, on an equal, nondiscriminatory basis to "primary education compulsory and available free to all" (Article 28) have gained the status of internationally recognised norms, while imposing an obligation on the 192 states parties to the Convention to realise these rights for the children under their jurisdiction. In the year 2000, children were provided further protection through the entry into force of ILO Convention 182, which was ratified by 150 countries as of May 2004. Convention 182 prohibits the worst forms of child labour, defined as all forms of

slavery and similar practices; child prostitution and pornography; illicit activities (in particular the production and trafficking of drugs); and work that is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children.

The International Labour Organization's International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) was created in 1992 with the overall goal of the progressive elimination of child labour, which was to be achieved through strengthening the capacity of countries to deal with the problem and promoting a worldwide movement to combat child labour. IPEC currently has operations in 88 countries, with an annual expenditure on technical cooperation projects that reached over US\$61 million in 2008. It is the largest programme of its kind globally and the biggest single operational programme of the ILO.

The number and range of IPEC's partners have expanded over the years and now include employers' and workers' organizations, other international and government agencies, private businesses, community-based organizations, NGOs, the media, parliamentarians, the judiciary, universities, religious groups and, of course, children and their families.

IPEC's work to eliminate child labour is an important facet of the ILO's Decent Work Agenda. Withdrawing children from child labour, providing them with education and assisting their families with training and employment opportunities contribute directly to creating decent work for adults. Ghana has a comparatively progressive child labour law. The constitution of the Republic of Ghana (1992) prohibits slavery and forced labour (section 16) and states that it is the right of any person "to work under satisfactory, safe and healthy conditions" (section 24). Section 28 guarantees children "the right to be protected from engaging in work that constitutes a threat to ... (their) health, education or development". As in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child every person under the age of 18 is defined as a child (Zdunnek, et al 2008). The ILO in collaboration with the government of Ghana has signed an agreement to eliminate worse forms of child labour in Ghana by the year 2015. In 2008, the Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment drafted a National Plan of Action for

the Elimination of (the worst forms of) Child Labour 2008-2015 as an overall strategy and basis for cooperation between institutions and organisations.

Ghana's Labour Laws and Regulations prohibit child labour, putting the minimum age of employment at 15 in consonance with ILO Standards and Regulations. Ghana has also ratified the OAU Charter on the Rights of the Child. Section 28(1) of the 1992 Constitution guarantees the child in Ghana to be protected from engaging in any work that is considered injurious to his or her health, education and/or development. The Government enacted, in December 1998, the Children's Act, which seeks to protect the rights of children, including the right of education, health and shelter. The establishment of the Ghana National Commission on Children (GNCC) under the Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs (MOWAC) in 2001 was also to oversee the welfare and development of children, and to coordinate services which would aim at promoting the rights of the child.

Poverty is considered a major determinant of child labour in Ghana. To lessen the effect of poverty on the Ghanaian child there was the need of policy interventions by the government. Since the mid 1990s, Ghana has developed several poverty reduction strategies and one of such strategies is the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy for 2006 through 2009 (GPRS II) is to achieve "the status of a middle-income economy by the year 2015 within a decentralised democratic environment" characterised by an increase in per capita income and an improvement in living standards (Republic of Ghana 2005:5). The GPRS II indicated that priority will be given to special programmes to combat the worst forms of child labour under which the government is implementing the Livelihood Empowerment against Poverty (LEAP) programme to support families to fight against child labour. To qualify for the LEAP programme, all the household children of school age should be enrolled in schools and that no child should be trafficked or is engaged in any of the worst forms of labour. All these interventions by government and NGOs are geared towards finding solutions to the child labour problem.

A cost/benefit analysis carried out by the United Nations in 2003 convincingly demonstrated the value of eliminating child labour by reference to the long term economic benefit of a more skilled and healthy workforce. As further evidence of interdependence, there is correlation between those countries lagging behind the MDG for education and those in which child labour thrives. The integration of child labour concerns into national development strategies, backed by effective legislation, is therefore the preferred route to a lasting solution.

2.10. Challenges in addressing the problem

In principle, children who are withdrawn from the labour market should attend school, acquire human capital, become more productive adults, earn higher wages, increase the welfare of their own families and escape the need for their underage offspring to work. Unfortunately, however, the transmission chain from lower child labour to reduced poverty and child labour in the long run is not smooth, and a number of hitches can occur. First of all, even assuming a successful reduction in child labour both in the formal and informal economy, this notion relies crucially on the fact that lower child labour means higher schooling, which is not at all automatic. According to UNICEF (2006), to succeed in eliminating child labour, schools must be available, accessible and affordable for poor families. Schools must be of sufficiently good quality, and the curricula must be of practical help for the children living in a specific region and condition. Most importantly, school should be a safe and healthy place where to send children. Unfortunately this is not the case in developing countries especially in Ghana. In the 2001 Ghana Child Labour Survey, in all the regions and for all age groups, the most frequent (44.2 per cent) reason cited for non-attendance at school was non-affordability by parents to cater for children. The next most frequently cited reasons were long distance of place of residence from school (18.4 per cent) and children not being interested in school (17.1 per cent). Classrooms are often not available especially in the rural areas and where they exist they are not in good shape and therefore not conducive enough for academic work. The Participatory Poverty Assessment according to Norton et al, (1995) cited in Canagarajah and Coulombe (1997) found that parents did not want to send their children to school due to inferior quality of teaching and

teacher absenteeism. It was also noted that some teachers wanted the children to work in their farms in return for classes for them. This practice has disgusted many parents with Ghana's schooling system and has pushed them into involving their children in their own farms instead of teachers' farms. The high opportunity cost of sending children to school has also been stated as a reason for not sending them to school by many rural households.

Both parents and pupils need to see the fruits of education from those who have passed through the school system to serve as a source of motivation for those in school and those yet to enroll. Low returns to education have made education less attractive for many parents. This has especially been the case in rural areas, where formal education makes very little difference given limited formal sector opportunities and most skills are acquired by the "learning by doing" principle. Child labour is perceived as a process of socialization in many countries and it is believed that working enables a child to get acquainted with employable skills. These can therefore be contributory factors in the low interest in formal education in the study area by both parents and pupils.

2.11. Theoretical Framework

In recent years, many theoretical frameworks of child labour have been developed. Some of the more common models which try to explain child labour are the household bargaining models. Bargaining models may be of two distinct kinds, depending on who the agents involved in the bargaining are. Intra-household bargaining models – whose main focus is often not child labour but general household behaviour - assume that the bargaining occurs within the family between parents and the child (children). Solutions to these models usually specify that a child's labour supply depends on the adult wages and child's wage that prevail on the market. In the extra household approach, it is assumed that children have negligible bargaining power in households, and are basically an instrument for the parents' maximization of utility. These models usually treat employers and parents of the children as the two main factors involved in the bargaining process.

These models- especially the extra-household bargaining model – sharply contrast with

altruist models of child labour, in which the parents are altruistically concerned with the child's welfare. Furthermore, the altruistic class of models is differentiated from bargaining models, as they assume multiple equilibriums. Foremost among the altruistic models is presented in Basu and Van (1998), which provides a framework for investigating how child labour and adult labour are interdependent in economic activity and under what conditions child labour emerges in the labour market. The main findings in their paper are essentially derived from two axioms referred to as the "Luxury" and "Substitution" axioms, respectively. These axioms are defined as follows: *Luxury Axiom*: A family sends the children to the labour market only if the family's income from non-child labour sources drops below the subsistence level. *Substitution Axiom*: Child labour and adult labour are substitutes from a firm's point of view.

Basu and Van (1998) show that there exist two multiple (stable) equilibriums in which (1) both adults and children work with low wages ("bad" equilibrium) and (2) only adults work with high wages ("good" equilibrium). At the "good" equilibrium in which adult wages are above the subsistence level, parents have no incentive to send children to work according to the Luxury Axiom. In contrast, when the economy stays at the bad equilibrium in which adult wages are below the subsistence level, adults have to send children to work to sustain the household.

In this model, a household resource is the important factor in the determination of child labour. Other models exploring multiple equilibriums have looked at the relationship between child labour and social norms, and also at the question of income redistribution. A big caveat in the literature has been the treatment of dynamics. The dynamic consequences of child labour are likely to be significant since an increase in child labour frequently causes a decline in the acquisition of human capital. However, the long-run consequences of child labour have been largely ignored in the modeling literature. Baland and Robinson (2000) have looked at this issue to some extent. They demonstrate various channels through which inefficiently high levels of child labour may persist in equilibrium, even when parents are altruistic. First, lack of access to credit markets may force parents to let their children engage in child labour to an extent that is Pareto inferior to what they would have chosen with sufficient access to credit.

Second, since children cannot write credible and enforceable contracts with their parents to transfer resources to them in the future, this too may generate an inefficient level of child labour in equilibrium. Parents are unable to capture the full returns from their investment in children's education and therefore will under-invest, relative to what would otherwise be (Pareto) optimal. The issue of child labour in Ghana and in the Bunkpurugu – Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts in particular lends itself to the “bad economy” explanations that compel parents to send their children out to work to supplement family income. The theoretical underpinning of this study is on the Substitution Axiom where children work to supplement the inadequate income of the family.

2.12. Lessons Learnt from the Literature

From the available literature it is evidently clear that the issue of child labour is real but the problem with it in Africa is the availability of reliable data spelling out the magnitude of the problem. Several factors account for child labour in our society and they include the following; poverty, single parenting, sheer ignorance on the part of some parents and socio-cultural beliefs. From the data reviewed, poverty has been a major determinant of child labour in Ghana and in most developing countries. The vast majority of the children are engaged in agricultural related activities. The problem in the developing world and Ghana in particular is more rural than urban. Some rural dwellers regard child labour as part of a training programme for children. Working children are also considered essential contributors to household incomes.

The solution to the problem does not lie only in the enactment of laws but also in empowering individuals economically to be able to provide education to their children (Basu, 1998). Human capital is one of the keys to reducing poverty. Education opens up opportunities for better health and better nutrition. This is because education normally leads to higher income and greater access to social benefits, as well as greater productivity. Indeed education is central to all aspects of the impact of population and poverty. Therefore, in trying to find a solution to the problem, there is the need for a multifaceted approach taking into consideration the religious and cultural backgrounds

of the people. It has also been realized that formal education is key in the fight of the child labour problem in Ghana, but access to education for all is faced with numerous challenges especially in the rural areas. There are lack of infrastructural facilities and teachers in some of these areas and as a result some parents do not see the need of sending their children to school if at the end of the day the school does not make any difference in their lives. To deal with the problem of child labour, governments need to devote resources to education so that: Schooling is compulsory, of good quality and relevant, and is of little or no cost to poor families.

It is also observed that laws are necessary in fighting child labour but legal protection for child labourers does not extend beyond the formal sector to the kinds of work children are most involved in, such as agriculture and domestic service especially in the study area.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The techniques and the procedures employed to carry out the research is presented in this chapter. The chapter explains the research design adopted, and the type of data required for the research as well as the sampling procedure for data collection.

3.1. Research Design

The research is based on case study method. Case study research is good in facilitating understanding of a complex issue or object and can extend experience or add strength to what is already known through previous research. Case studies emphasize detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their relationships. Researchers have used the case study research method for many years across a variety of disciplines. Case study research method has been widely used in social science research. It has been used to examine contemporary real-life situations and provide the basis for the application of ideas and extension of methods. Yin (1984) defines the case study research method as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.

Case study method of research asks questions like why and how something happens and such questions are appropriate in this study. It also enables the researcher to learn from practice to be able to inform the theory on which that study is based.

A case study method was adopted to carry out the research because; the phenomenon under investigation is a real life contemporary developmental issue and needs a combination of methods to investigate. In addition, the case study brings the investigator to a direct contact with the problem in the field. This leads to a better conversance with the circumstances of a case and helps to assess the reactions of a group or a community to questions and issues raised in the cause of the investigation (Kumekpor, 2002).

3.2. Data Requirements and Sources

Two types of data is used in this work namely, primary and secondary data. The primary data was collected using in-depth interviews, focus group discussions (FGDs), questionnaires and direct observations. Results from these sources form the basis of the analysis. This information is obtained from households and institutions such as Ghana education service and district assemblies in the Bunkpurugu- Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts of the Northern Region. Secondary sources of data involved an intensive reviewing of relevant literature from books, journals, magazines, newspapers, the district medium term development plans of the two districts and individual writing exercises. This is to further supplement the data that is gathered during the fieldwork.

3.3. Tools and Techniques of Data Collection

The data collection tools employed in the research include the use of structured questionnaire, interview guide, and direct observation. These tools were used to facilitate data collection as and when the use of any one of them became necessary.

The study relied on both secondary and primary data for the analysis. The secondary data included class registers, academic reports, Ghana Living Standards Survey Reports, census reports and the primary data was collected in the field through the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods.

The class registers of some selected schools were studied to find out the attendance of pupils in the selected schools since the district education office did not have records on attendance. This was to help assess whether the work children engage in affect their school attendance. It was also to assess whether the absenteeism follows a certain pattern.

Interview guide was also used to seek the views of opinion leaders in the various communities about child labour, its effects and how the problem could be solved. Also, focus group discussions were held with children to find out their views about child labour in their communities. Through this, children were given the opportunity to share ideas with their colleagues on issues about whether child labour affects education in

their communities.

Structured questionnaires were designed and used to collect primary data from households in the communities in the study area. The data that was collected included the income of households, their educational background, their occupation, the number of children among others. Also information about availability of classrooms and teachers was sought for in the study area from the education authorities with the aid of semi structured questionnaires. These interviews were conducted with institutional heads and opinion leaders in the communities. The institutions in this regard are the Ghana Education Service and the District Assembly in the two districts. The provision of infrastructural facilities for the schools and the management of these institutions in the study area are under the control of these authorities. The vast nature of the study area and the size of the sample required the services of research assistance in administering the questionnaires and also helped in areas where there were barriers in terms of language.

3.4. Sampling Techniques

The target groups for this study include children both in school and out of school, parents, teachers and opinion leaders in the communities. Also, institutions that were studied included the Ghana Education Service and the District Assembly in Bunkpurugu- Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts in the Northern Region. These institutions were selected for the interview because information about child labour and children's education at that level can be gotten there. The District Assemblies are the planning authorities in the districts and are therefore in charge of developmental projects. By this they have the authority to speak about developmental problems in their districts including child labour.

According to the 2000 Population and Housing Census Report the total number of houses in the two districts considered for this study is 16,601. The mathematical formula below given by Miller and Brewer (2003) is used to calculate the sample size. That is:

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(\alpha)^2}$$

Where ‘N’ is the sample frame, ‘n’ is the sample size and ‘α’ is the margin of error which in this case is (8%). The 92% confidence interval was chosen for this study because the study deals with human beings which accuracy of information is subject to biases unlike the physical sciences with high degree of certainty. By the formula, N=16,601 and $\alpha = (0.08)^2$

$$n = \frac{16,601}{1+16,601(0.0064)}$$

$$n = \frac{16,601}{106.25} = 154.79$$

$$n = 155$$

By the use of the formula given by Miller and Brewer (2003), the sample size arrived at is 155. In addition, 4 institutions and some opinion leaders were surveyed making up the total sample size of 159.

Four communities in the study area were selected for the survey. These communities are Bunkpurugu, Nakpanduri, Namasim and Nalerigu where 155 sampled houses have been surveyed. One household head in each of the 155 houses were interviewed. The criteria for selection of the communities for the survey were by location and geographical distribution. Child labour activities are mostly found in these communities and also, the major ethnic groups in the study area are well represented in these communities. Also, because of the limited time and resources available for the study these communities were chosen because comparatively they are easily accessible.

The sample sizes of these communities were arrived at through a calculation based on the formula given by Miller and Brewer (2003). The sample size is divided by the total

number of houses in the selected communities and then multiplied by the total number of houses in each of the four communities. Table 3.1 shows the sample sizes of the selected communities surveyed.

Table 3.1: Number of Houses and sample sizes of selected communities

District	Community	Total Number of Houses	Confidence Interval of 92% ($\alpha=8\%$)	Sample Size
Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo	Bunkpurugu	1,010	$\alpha=(0.008)^2$	50.0
	Nakpanduri	706	$\alpha=(0.008)^2$	35.0
East Mamprusi	Nalerigu	1,315	$\alpha=(0.008)^2$	66.0
	Namasim	80	$\alpha=(0.008)^2$	4.0
	Total	3,111		155

Source: Author's Construct, April, 2010.

Systematic sampling procedure with equal probability allocated to each unit within the frame was used in the selection of the households that were interviewed. In every community the total number of houses was divided by the sample size of the community and the figure arrived at formed the basis of the selection of the households. The selection was done going by the K^{th} number after the first sample unit was selected at random from the population.

$$K = \frac{N}{n}$$

Where N= Total number of houses in the four communities selected and n= sample size which is 155.

By calculation, the result obtained is 20 which mean we are dealing with the 20th number or house but the first number was subjected to random selection and every twentieth house was then selected until the sample size was exhausted. This procedure was applied in each of the four communities selected.

3.5. Data Analysis

Even though two districts were selected for the study the data collected was analysed as one unit due to difficulty in sorting out the data. Based on the nature of the data collected, a combination of data analysis techniques were employed in the analysis. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were employed in the analysis of the data. Statistical tools such as percentages, ratios and graphs were used to represent demographic characteristics of respondents. Variables such as household income, educational background of households, employment status, and the number of children per household among others were measured. Cross tabulation was also used in the analysis by measuring the relationship between some of the variables. A qualitative method of analysis was also used to describe and interpret data mainly from the interview guide and data from secondary sources.

CHAPTER FOUR

PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA

This chapter presents the profile of the study area. It gives a brief profile of the Northern Region of Ghana and the profiles of the two districts that is, the East Mamprusi and Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo districts where the study was conducted. It highlighted the Local economy, physical and social characteristics of the area.

4.1. Profile of the Northern Region of Ghana

4.1.1. Physical Characteristics

The Northern Region, which occupies an area of about 70,383 square kilometres, is the largest region in Ghana, occupying approximately 30% of the total land mass of the country. It shares boundaries with the Upper East and the Upper West Regions to the north, the Brong-Ahafo and the Volta Regions to the south, and two neighbouring countries, the Republic of Togo to the east, and La Cote d' Ivoire to the west.

The land is mostly low lying except in the north-eastern corner with the Nakpanduri escarpment and along the western corridor. The region is drained by the Black and white Volta and their tributaries, Rivers Nasia, Daka, etc.

The climate of the region is relatively dry, with a single rainy season that begins in May and ends in October. The amount of rainfall recorded annually varies between 750 mm and 1100 mm. The dry season starts in November and ends in March/April with maximum temperatures occurring towards the end of the dry season (March-April) and minimum temperatures in December and January.

The harmattan winds, which occur during the months of December to early February, have considerable effect on the temperatures in the region, which may vary between 14°C at night and 40°C during the day. Humidity, however, which is very low, mitigates the effect of the daytime heat. The rather harsh climatic condition makes the cerebrospinal meningitis thrive, almost to the point of endemic proportions, and adversely affects economic activity in the region (RPCU, 2008).

The main vegetation is classified as vast areas of grassland, interspersed with the guinea savannah woodland, characterised by drought-resistant trees such as the acacia, baobab, shea nut, dawadawa, mango, and neem.

4.1.2. Population

The 2000 Population and Housing Census Report puts the population of the region at 1, 820, 806 of which 907, 177 were males and 913, 629 females. At a growth rate of 2.9 per annum the estimated population at 2,215,060 in 2007 of which 1,111,296 (50.2%) were females and 1,103,764 (49.8%) males. The population is predominantly rural with over 73% living in communities of population between 200-2000 people and 95% of settlements having fewer than 500 inhabitants.

The population between 15-19 years, which is the higher teenage group, constitutes between 8.0 and 10.6 per cent of the population. This is the age group sometimes treated as part of the working population, but in reality, are teenagers with all the problems and needs of the teenage and younger populations. Together with the population under 15 years, they constitute at least 54.0 per cent of the population in each district, and over 56.0 per cent, in eight districts with the exception of the Tamale municipality (51.4%) (GSS, 2005).

According to the 2000 Population and Housing Census Report the region has a youthful population and the implication of such a young population is the provision of social facilities. It also raises issues of youth mobilisation and employment creation to retain the younger population in the region.

The region continues to be sparsely populated with the lowest population density at each of the censuses since 1960. Major ethnic groups in the region include Dagombas, Mamprusis, Gonjas, Nanumbas, Bimobas, Komkombas etc.

4.1.3. Education

Literacy

Education poses one of the greatest challenges to the socio-economic development of the Northern Region. To a large extent, illiteracy and security have been considered as the twin, most serious problems of Northern Region. Among the youth (i.e. population aged between 15 – 24 years) Northern region has the lowest literacy rate of 36% compared to the national average of 69%.

Infrastructure

A lot of infrastructure have been constructed (a total of 1025 structures) covering all levels of education comprising, classroom blocks, staff quarters, office blocks, laboratories, libraries, student hostels/dormitories, dining halls, toilets/urinals etc.

Based on increases in enrolment at all levels, there is the need for additional facilities – 6,664 classrooms and 60,239 desks required at all levels. In spite of the massive expansion in infrastructure, there are still as many as 1,316 basic schools in dilapidated buildings or sitting under trees.

Enrolment

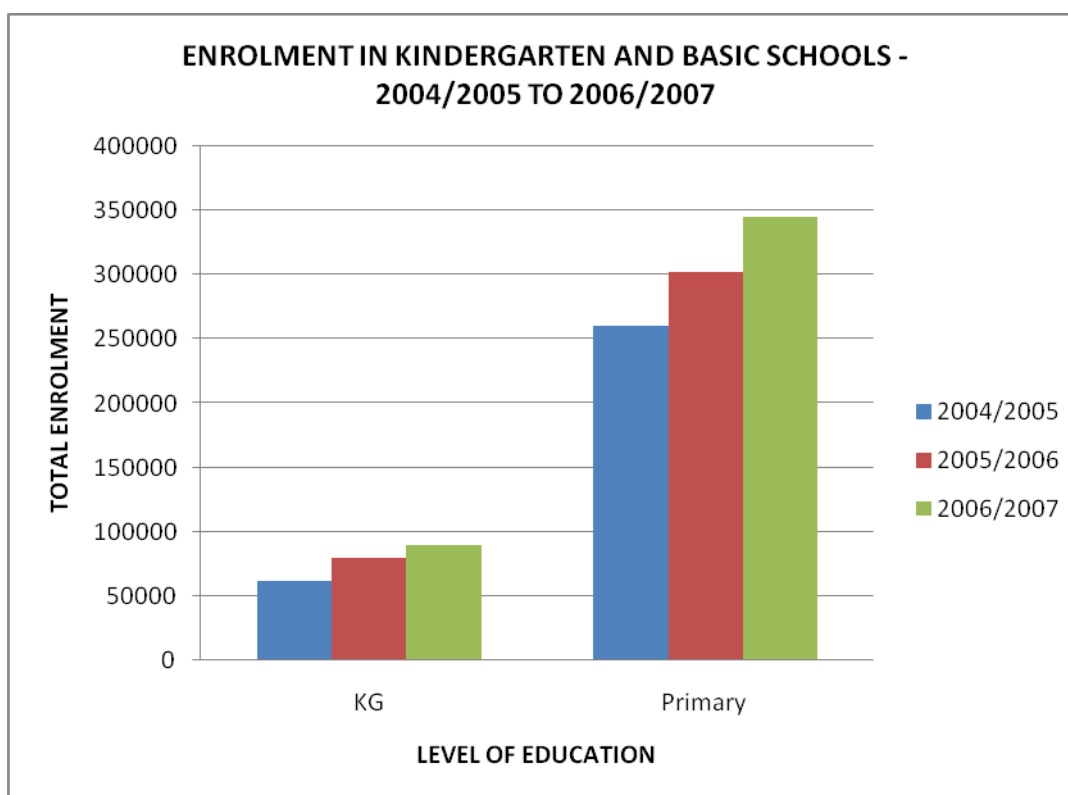
There is a marked increase in enrolment in schools over the years. At the basic level enrolment has increased from 371,161 in 2004/2005 to 500,760 in 2006/2007 averaging a yearly increase of 14%. These increases have partly been credited to the government's implementation of the capitation grant and the school feeding programme.

Table 4.1: Enrolment percentage at all levels in Basic Schools from 2004/05 to 2006/07

Year	Level							
	KG	% Increase	Primary	% Increase	JHS	% Increase	Total	% Increase
2004/2005	61895	30.1	260572	7.9	59366	12.1	371161	8.6
2005/2006	80279	29.7	302726	16.2	67980	14.5	450985	21.5
2006/2007	89986	12.1	344974	10.7	75695	11.3	500760	11.4
Avg % Increase		20.0		11.3		12.6		14.5

Source: GES, 2007

Figure 4.1: Enrolment in Kindergarten and Basic Schools - 2004/2005 to 2006/2007



Source: GES, 2007

This notwithstanding, there is still more to be done as in 2006/2007, 7.3% of children of school going age were out of school, although this figure has reduced from a 2005/2006 level of 16.8%.

Pupil: Teacher Ratio

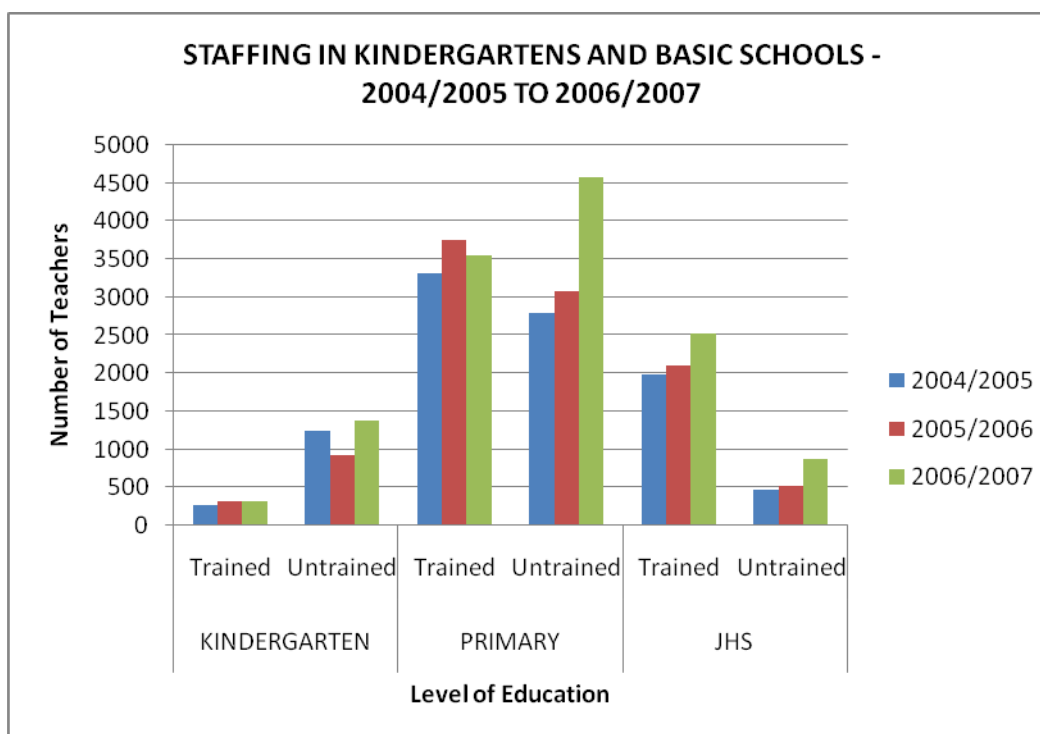
The total teacher population (trained & untrained) continues to rise over the years with government intervention. At the basic level, there has been an average yearly increase of 14% over the period 2004/2005 – 2006/2007. Particularly 2007 recorded an impressive increase of 28.3% in the total teacher population due to the recruitment of the Community Teaching Assistants under the National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP).

Table 4.2: Teacher Population in Basic Schools – (2004/2005 – 2006/2007)

Year	Kindergarten				Primary				JHS				Total	
	Trained	Untrained	Total	%	Trained	Untrained	Total	%	Trained	Untrained	Total	%	Total	%
2004/5	276	1252	1528	8.5	3316	2792	6108	.5	1993	477	2470	13.6	10106	7.4
2005/6	312	928	1240	.88	3756	3080	6836	11.9	2111	521	2623	6.2	10749	6.3
2006/7	314	1383	1697	36.9	3559	4573	8127	18.9	2517	871	3388	29.2	13212	28.3
AVG.				14.8				10.4				16.3		14.0

Source: GES, 2007.

Figure 4.2: Staffing in Kindergartens and Basic Schools - 2004/2005 to 2006/2007



Source: GES, 2007

Educational Performance

The performance of candidates in the B.E.C.E has been declining steadily over the period. The total percentage pass in 2003 was 55%, dropping to 53.6% in 2004 and dropping further to 46.1% in 2005, with a marginal increase of 1.7% to 47.6% in 2006. The reasons among others include shortage of qualified teachers, poor infrastructural facilities, absenteeism on the part of both children and teachers (GES, 2008)

4.2. Profile of Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District

4.2.1. Location and Size

The Bunkpurugu- Yunyoo district is located at the north-eastern end of the Northern region of Ghana. It shares boundaries in the north with Garu –Tempene, to the east with Togo, west with East Mamprusi and to the south by Gusheigu and Saboba Chereponi districts.

4.2.2. Relief and Drainage

The topography is generally gently rolling with the Nakpanduri escarpment marking the northern limits of the Volta in Sandstone Basin. Apart from the mountainous areas boarding the escarpment there is little runoffs when it rains. This implies that for a greater part of the District rainwater seeps into the ground. The White Volta, which enters the region in the Northeast, joined by Red Volta is important drainage features in the district. The Nawonga and Moba rivers also drain the south – Western part (DMTDP, 2006).

4.2.3. Climate and Vegetation

The District lies in the tropical continental belt western margin and experiences a single rainfall regime in April to October after which, it comes under the influence of the tropical continental air masses. (CT). The mean annual rainfall is about 100mm to 115mm. The annual range of temperature is between 25⁰C and 35⁰C.

The district lies in the interior woodland savannah belt and has common grass vegetation with tress like sheanut trees, baobab, and acacia. Grasses grow in tussocks and can reach a height of 3 meters or more. There is a marked change in vegetation depending on the prevailing condition.

The district experiences a unimodal rainfall pattern that last for 5 to 6 months (May-October) in a year, peaking in August and September. The rest of the year is virtually dry.

4.2.4. Population

The population of Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district as at 2005 is estimated at 153,329, with an annual growth rate of 3.1 %. This is made up of 73,598 males and 79,731 females constituting 48 % and 52 % respectively. The average density of population is 59 persons per square kilometer. There are five urban settlements with population of 5,000 and above. They are Bunkpurugu, Nakpanduri, Binde, Bimbagu and Nasuan. The people in the urban settlement constitute about 18.1 % of the total population of the

District. Thus, the District is mainly rural of about 81.9 % of the total population. (Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo DMTDP, 2006-2009) There are one hundred and ninety one (191) communities in the District. The Average household size was 7.8 in 2000 (GSS, 2000).

Table 4.3: Population Structure of Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District

Year	Total pop	Pop. Under 15yrs	% of pop under 15 yrs	Pop. Aged 65 and above	Pop. urban	% of urban Pop	Labour force part.(15& above)		% of economically active Pop.	
							Male	Female	Male	Female
2005	153,329	76,051	49.6	4.5	27,753	18.1	76.9	67.9	50.7	49.3

Source: DMTDP (2006-2009)

The district has a dependent population of 54.1% and the implication is that more strain will be put on household incomes thereby deepening poverty levels. It also means more pressure will be put on the few infrastructural facilities available.

4.2.5. Cultural Characteristics

The district is a heterogeneous society consists of many ethnic groups and religions. The main ethnic groups are Bimoba, the Konkonbas, and the Mamprusis. They speak Moar, Komba and Mampruli respectively. Other groups found in the district include Moshi Talensi, Hausa, Fulani, Dagombas and Chokosi. Traditional and Christian religions are the main religious practices by the people. There is also Islamic religion that is usually practice by the settlers.

4.2.6. Education

The district has 44 day care centres, 101 primary schools, 24 junior secondary schools and 2 senior secondary schools at Nakpanduri and Bunkpurugu. Most of the schools are concentrated in the big towns. About 63.3% of the primary schools do not have permanent structures and 91.6% of the junior secondary schools.

Table 4.4: Gross Enrolment at the Basic Level in Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District (2004-5)

Year	Enrolment by Sex	Primary/Number	%	JHS/Number	%
2004	Girls	6957	44.3	1156	38.9
	Boys	8754	55.7	1814	61.1
	Total	15711	100	2970	100
2005	Girls	7270	41.5	1601	39
	Boys	10264	58.5	2503	61
	Total	17534	100	4104	100

Source: DMTDP 2006

From the Table 4.4 it is clear that the transition rate from primary to the JHS is not encouraging. In absolute numbers there is a decrease in numbers in both boys and girls from primary to JHS but in percentage wise there is increase in that of boys in 2004 and 2005.

Table 4.5 present statistics on teacher population at the basic level in the district from 2004 to 2005. It contains statistics on both trained and untrained teachers and male and female.

Table 4.5: Teacher Population at the basic level

Year	Kindergarten teachers		Primary teachers		JHS teachers		Trained teachers		Untrained teachers	
2004	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	2	17	243	23	100	5	192	8	160	30
Total	19		266		105		200		190	
2005	0	23	289	30	113	3	268	16	134	40
Total	23		319		116		284		174	

Source: DMTDP, 2006.

Majority of the teachers in the district are males only a few of them are females. In 2004 48.7 percent of the teachers in the district were untrained and this does not augur well for academic work at the basic level. The percentage of untrained teachers however

decreased from 48.7 in 2004 to 38 percent in 2005. The percentage of trained teachers is gradually improving in the district.

4.2.7. The Local Economy

Agriculture is the district's main economic activity and it provides employment for about 80% of the working force. Most of the farmers are peasants whose farm holdings vary from one acre to five acres. Some of the crops cultivated are maize, millet, sorghum, beans and groundnut. The farming activities are depended on rainfall since there are no dams for irrigation during the dry season. In almost every house, goats, sheep and chicken are reared for domestic use and as a source of income for the family. There is also a high potential in agro- business and processing such as pito brewing, processing of groundnuts, sheanut and tobacco. Crop farming is the highest source of income for the people in all the communities. Since the district share boundary with Togo there is cross border trade among the people especially in textiles.

The district has 14 market centres but the major ones are six, namely Jimbale, Bunkpurugu, Nasuan, Mambabga, Nakpanduri and Bimbagu. Only the Bunkpurugu and Nasuan markets have some few developed structures.

Small scale industrial activities mainly in the area of automobile motorcycle and bicycle repairs and vulcanizing also contribute significantly in employment generation in the district.

4.3. Profile of East Mamprusi District

4.3.1. Location and Size

The East Mamprusi district is located to the north- eastern part of the region. To the north it shares boundaries with the Talensi- Nabdam district, Bawku West and Garu Tempane districts and to the east Bunkpurugu- Yunyoo district. It is bordered to the west by West Mamprusi and the south by Gusheigu districts. The district has a land mass of 10,659sqkm, representing 2.4 percent of the total land mass of the region.

4.3.2. Relief and Drainage

The topography gently rolls with the Gambaga escarpment, which marks the northern limits of the Volta sandstone basin. The scarp stretches from east to west and at Nakpanduri, the peak of the escarpment and its waterfalls present nature at its most beauty.

The White Volta, which enters the region in the northeast is joined by the Red Volta near Gambaga are important drainage features in the district. The Nawonga and Moba rivers also drain the south-western part. The District lies in the interior woodland savannah belt and has common grass.

4.3.3. Climate and Vegetation

The district lies in the interior woodland savannah belt and its common grass vegetation with trees such as baobab, acacia and sheanuts trees. Grasses grow in tussocks and can reach heights of three metres or more. The vegetation changes markedly, depending on which of the two prevailing climate conditions is dominant at the time.

The district also lies in the tropic continental belt western margin and experiences a single rainfall regime. Much of the landscape is broad savannah woodland with a mountainous terrain. The mean annual rain fall is about 100mm to 115mm. The annual average temperature of the district is 27.4°C. At certain times of the year, when rains are heavy, access to outlying areas can be difficult. The highest peak is the Gambaga scarp which is 449 feet above sea level (DMTDP, 2006).

4.3.4. Population

The district has a population of 180,877 according to the 2000 Population and Housing Census: 92,332 being female and 88,545 male with a growth rate of 3% per annum. This was before the Bunkpurugu/ Yunyoo district was carved out in 2004. The population of the East Mamprusi district is now estimated at 117,355. The current

growth of the population is 3% per annum. The average density of population is 59 persons per square kilometre.

The district has 142 communities with five of the communities with population above 5000. These communities are Nalerigu, Gambagu, Langbinsi, Sakogu and Gbintiri. The Mamprusis are the major ethnic group in the district. Other ethnic groups in the district are the Bimobas, Konkonbas, Talensis, Moshis and Busansis.

4.3.5. Education

There are sixty-eight (68) primary schools, fifteen (15) Junior High Schools, one Youth Leadership Training Institute and two Senior High Schools in the district. The greatest problem facing education in the district is inadequate teachers. There are few trained teachers with a large proportion of untrained teachers. This situation adversely affects the performance of pupils and students in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) and the Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSSCE) respectively.

4.3.6. The Local Economy

The major economic activities in the district are farming, animal rearing and petty trading. There are no irrigation facilities in the district. There are dams located at Langbinsi, Wundua, and Nalerigu but these dams are mostly used as a source of water for animals and small-scale dry season gardening. Under the Social Investment Fund, groups were assisted to acquire water-pumping machines to irrigate lands for dry season gardening in places where large streams are found. Farmers therefore depend on rain fed agriculture. They are basically subsistent farmers with small land holdings. The major crops cultivated in the district are maize guinea corn, millet, groundnuts, water melons and yams. Most farmers still use hoe and cutlass for farming. There are few tractors, but the cost of ploughing is beyond the reach of many farmers, hence their reliance on the hoe and cutlass.

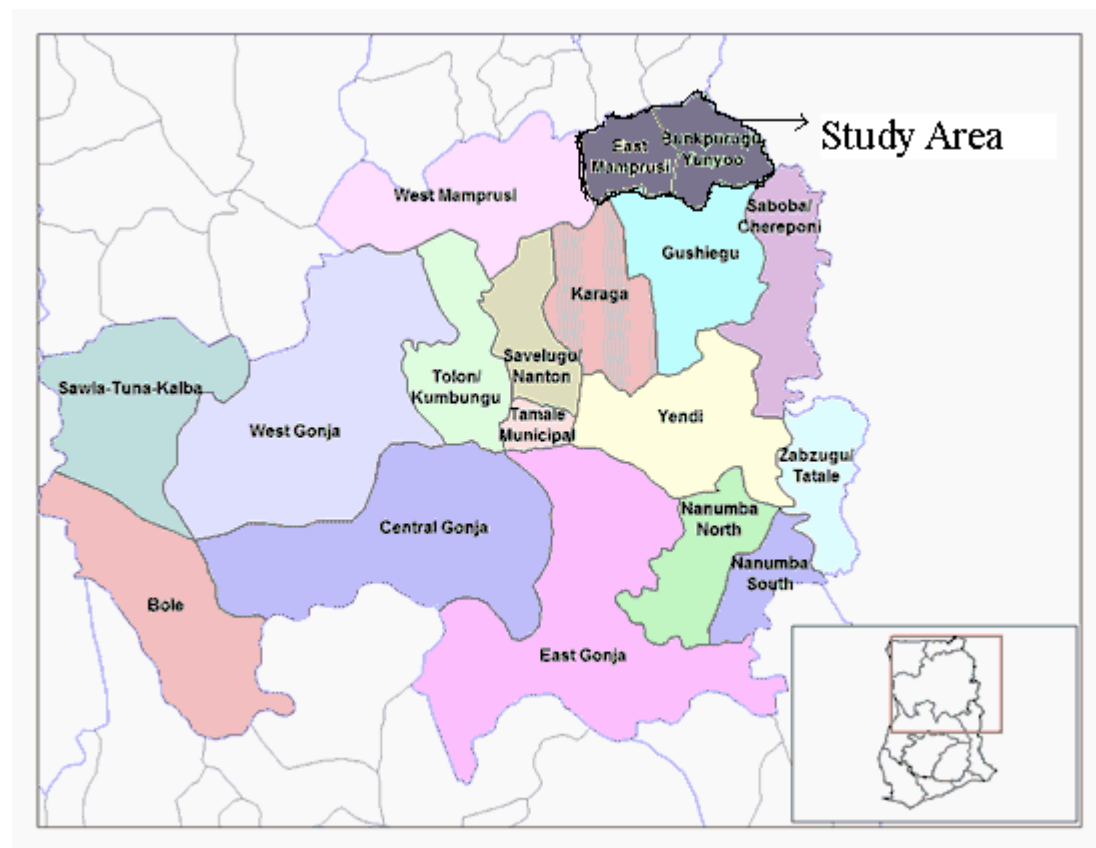
Few people also use animals for the tilling of land. However, there is high use of donkeys for haulage. Farmers also have difficulties in obtaining loans for farming

activities. Most parts of the district are mountainous and rocky. The available arable lands are extensively being put under cultivation every year so much that they have become exhausted. The lands can therefore no more produce any good yield without the use of fertilizer. Meanwhile many farmers in the district cannot afford to buy fertilizer because of the high cost. As a result of these challenges crop yields are generally low thereby making it difficult for farmers to increase their income through farming.

Animal rearing is also common in the district. Livestock reared include cattle, goats, sheep, pigs and poultry. There are, however, frequent outbreaks of animal diseases which often renders many livestock owners poor.

Some people also engage in trading activities. These trading activities are in the markets on market days and stores and kiosks in the urban centres (DMTDP, 2006).

Figure 4.3: The Study Area in Regional Context.



CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents results of the survey which was undertaken in Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts of the Northern region. The analysis involves first, a description of demographic characteristics of respondents, the extent and the causes of child labour in the study area, the effects of child labour on school attendance and performance, how government and non-governmental organizations are intervening and finding solution to the problem and also recommending measures to solve the problem.

5.1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

This section examines the demographic characteristics of heads of household studied in the sampled communities in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts. It gives the profile of the respondents that will help readers to appreciate the detail discussion that follows.

Table 5.1 presents information on the gender of the heads of household surveyed in the study area. About eighty-eight (87.7) percent of heads of household interviewed are males while 12.3 percent are females. In both districts the heads of the household interviewed were predominantly male. This is an indication of a male dominated society.

Table 5.1: Gender of Heads of Household

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	136	87.7
Female	19	12.3
Total	155	100

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010.

The survey among others sought to find information about the number of children per household in the study area. This information is presented in Table 5.2. All the household heads interviewed had children and the number of children per household ranges from one (1) to twenty-eight (28). The average household size in the area according to the 2000 Population and Housing Census report is 7. On average each household according to the survey report has five children as indicated in table 4.7.

Table 5.2: Number of children per Household

Number of Children (x)	Frequency(y)	xy	Percent
1	9	9	5.8
2	23	46	14.8
3	17	51	11.0
4	19	76	12.3
5	22	110	14.2
6	20	120	12.9
7	18	126	11.6
8	10	80	6.5
9	3	27	1.9
10	6	60	3.9
11	1	11	.6
12	2	24	1.3
15	1	15	.6
16	1	16	.6
17	2	34	1.3
28	1	28	.6
Total	155	$\sum xy 833 / 155 = 5.4$	100.0

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010.

Information on the age of heads of household in the study area is presented in Table 5.3. About 59 percent of respondents were between 40 and 59 years while about 28 percent were between 20 and 39 years of age. Relatively, the elderly were not many and

represented about 12 percent of the total number of respondents. This seems to suggest that the age of heads of household is relatively younger. Majority (87.8%) of the heads of the households are less than 60 years old.

Table 5.3: Age categories of heads of household

AGE	Frequency	Percent
20-39	44	28.4
40-59	92	59.4
60+	19	12.3
Total	155	100.0

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010

The religious background of the sampled heads of household in the study area is presented in Table 5.4. Majority (54.8) percent of heads of household are Christians followed by Traditional religion with 23.9 percent, 20.0 percent being Moslems and the other religious groups constituting only 1.3 percent as indicated in the Table.

Table 5.4: Religion of heads of Household

Religion	Frequency	Percent
Christian	85	54.8
Moslem	31	20.0
Traditional	37	23.9
Other	2	1.3
Total	155	100.0

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010

The level of education of respondents is very necessary in a survey like this and this information is presented in Table 5.5. In absolute numbers, 46 out of the total of the 155 heads of household interviewed have never been to school. This number constitutes 29.7 percent of the respondents. Twenty (20) percent of the respondents had middle school/ Junior Secondary School education. Only 18.1 percent of the respondents had post secondary and tertiary education. Eighteen (18.1) percent of the respondents ended their education at the primary level while 14.2 percent obtained senior secondary education. In all 52.3 percent of the respondents had between primary and secondary education.

Table 5.5: Level of Education of Heads of Household

Level of Education	Frequency	Percent
Primary	28	18.1
Middle/JHS	31	20.0
SHS/Technical	22	14.2
Post-Secondary/Nursing	24	15.5
Polytechnic	2	1.3
University	2	1.3
Never been to School	46	29.7
Total	155	100.0

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010

Table 5.6 contains information about the status of employment of the heads of household in the study area. From the table, about twenty-three (22.6) percent of the respondents are employed full time in the formal sector. About fifteen (14.8) percent of the respondents are unemployed, 2.6 percent are house wives and 2.6 percent being pensioners. Twenty-three (23) percent are casual workers while 31 percent are self employed.

The main economic activities of the people are farming, animal rearing and petty trading. The women apart from farming are also engaged in pito brewing. Only a few are into full time brewing, while many are seasonal brewers. Some of the people are

local masons but construction is mainly done during the dry season because of the nature of houses built in the area. Most of the houses are built with mud bricks and can only be built in the dry season.

Table 5.6: Status of Employment of Heads of Household

Status of Employment	Frequency	Percent
Working Full Time	35	22.6
Working Part Time	5	3.2
Casual/Piece Jobs	36	23.2
Self Employed	46	31.0
Unemployed	23	14.8
Pensioner	4	2.6
House Wife	4	2.6
Total	155	100.0

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010

Information regarding the source of income of the heads of household is presented in Table 5.7. As indicated in the table about forty-two (41.9) percent of the heads of household sampled source of income is through farming; only 27.7% earn their income through salary/wages. Twelve (12.3) percent of them are traders, while 5.2 percent of the respondents combine their main occupation with temporary jobs to supplement their main source of income.

Table 5.7: Sources of Household Income

Source of Income	Frequency	Percent
Salary/Wages	43	27.7
Pension	4	2.6
Farming	65	41.9
Trading	19	12.3
Other	16	10.3
Farming & Others	2	1.3
Farming & Petty Trading	4	2.6
Salary/Wages & Farming	2	1.3
Total	155	100.0

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010.

The survey among other things sought to establish the level of monthly incomes of heads of household and the information is presented in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Monthly Income of Heads of Household

Monthly income of Households	Frequency	Percent
GH¢ 10- GH¢ 50	55	35.5
GH ¢ 51- GH 100	37	23.9
GH¢ 101- GH150	13	8.4
GH¢ 151- GH 200	13	8.4
GH¢ 201- GH 250	7	4.5
GH¢ 251- GH 300	1	.6
GH¢ 301& Above	29	18.7
Total	155	100.0

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010.

The local economy is predominantly agrarian and it is rain fed and the farmers cultivate once a year. As a result of the nature of the economy the incomes of the households are low as indicated in Table 5.8.

About thirty-six (35.5) percent of the households interviewed in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts monthly income are between GH¢10- GH¢50. About twenty-four (23.9) percent of heads of household in the two districts earn between GH¢51-GH¢100 per month. About eight (8.4) percent of household heads earn between GH¢101-GH¢150 and GH¢151- GH¢200. Only about five (4.5) percent earn between GH¢ 201- GH¢250 per month. About nineteen (18.7) of heads of household earn above GH¢300 per month.

The poverty threshold, or poverty line, is the minimum level of income deemed necessary to achieve an adequate standard of living in a given country. The World Bank current international poverty line has been adjusted from \$1.08 to \$1.25 a day. The international poverty line is the yard stick used for measuring the level of poverty. People with incomes too low to obtain the necessities of life, according to Booth cited in World Bank (2005), are classified as living below the minimum income standard or below the poverty line. According to a UN declaration that resulted from the World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen in 1995, absolute poverty is "a condition characterised by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income but also on access to services.

Going by the World Bank Poverty Line, the survey results indicate that 37 percent of the household heads are living below the poverty line. The dollar equivalent of the earning of households quoted in Cedis was used to arrive at the number of people below the poverty line. With this poverty line indicator, reference is made to the individual but in the case of the study, the head of the household is supposed to take care of himself and other dependents in the household. On average, every household in the study area has five children who depend on the income of the head. Assuming that no other member of the household is an income earner, then the head of the household is supposed to take care of all the dependents. For the head of a household to take care of

himself and his five children, he should earn not less than GH¢315 a month using the \$1.25 a day measure. By this calculation, 81.29 percent of households will be living below the poverty line.

Table 5.9 presents the cross tabulation between level of education and monthly income of heads of household. There is a cross tabulation between educational attainment and monthly income of heads of household. The higher the head of household climb on the academic ladder the more likely they get well paid job. With the exception of one person, all those whose monthly income is above GH¢ 300.00 have at least attained Post secondary education.

Table 5.9: Level of Education and Monthly Income of Households

Level of Education	Monthly Income of Household							Total
	GH¢10- GH¢ 50	GH¢51- GH¢100	GH¢101- GH¢150	GH¢151- GH¢200	GH¢201- GH¢250	GH¢251- GH¢300	GH¢301& Above	
Primary	12	8	1	4	2	0	1	28
Middle/JHS	10	9	2	4	2	0	4	31
SHS/Tech	4	8	6	3	1	0	0	22
Post- Sec/Nursing	1	1	1	0	0	1	20	24
Polytechnic	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
University	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Never Been To School	28	11	3	2	2	0	0	46
Total	55	37	13	13	7	1	29	155

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010.

Majority of the respondents have either not been to school or ended at the basic level on the academic ladder. This has reflected in their monthly income as shown in Table 5.9. Most of them are peasant farmers who rely on the rain to cultivate their crops which in most of the time is not reliable. As a result of the mode of farming, their incomes are meager and cannot provide the educational needs of their children.

5.2. The Magnitude of Child Labour

There is no reasonable estimate of the size of child labour in the study area, however, Ghana Statistical Service study in 2001 report of increase in child labour cases involving children between the ages of 5 and 17. The results of the survey in the study area indicate that all the children of the 155 households interviewed within the ages of 5 and 17 at least do household chores. Some of them are also engaged in farming, fetching of water with donkey carts for commercial purposes, selling and carrying of load as head potters especially on market days. Some of the children admitted during focus group discussion that they were involved in some work and sometimes at the expense of school.

The study collected information about the number of children of school going age by the sampled households and the result is presented in Table 5.10. Column X is the number of children of school going age and column Y is the number of households with children of school going age. This will help to determine the number of children of school going age who are not in school if compared with the actual number in school. The result indicates that all the respondents had children of school going age and they range from one (1) to twenty-seven (27) per household. In all, there were six hundred and seventy-five (675) children of school going age by the 155 households interviewed. The average number of children of school going age per household is 4. About 15 percent of the respondents have one child of school going age, 14 percent have two children, 12 percent have three children and 14 percent had four and five children each. About 2 percent of the respondents have between 10 and 27 children of school going age. The incomes of the heads are not sufficient enough to give quality education to the children especially in the case of the households with more than ten children of school going age.

Table 5.10: Number of Children of School going age

Number of Children of school going age (x)	Frequency (y)	xy	Percent
1	24	24	15.4
2	22	44	14.2
3	19	57	12.3
4	21	84	13.5
5	21	105	13.5
6	23	138	14.8
7	14	98	9.0
8	4	32	2.6
9	3	27	1.9
10	1	10	.6
14	1	14	.6
15	1	15	.6
27	1	27	.6
Total	155	$\sum xy = 675/155 = 4.4$	100.0

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010.

Table 5.11 presents information on the number of children in school. Column X represents the number of children in school and column Y is the number of households with children in school. Five hundred and sixty-five (565) children out of the total of six hundred and seventy-five (675) children of school going age of the 155 households interviewed are actually in school. About eight four (83.7) percent of the children are in school and this constitute the school participation rate. One hundred and ten (110) out of the total of six hundred and seventy-five (675) children of school going age are not in school. The 16.3 percent who are not in school are likely to be involved in child labour. Out of the 16.3 percent who are not in school, fifty-four (54) percent are girls while forty-six (46) percent are boys.

The children not in school are most likely to be working especially in the situation where the incomes of the heads of household are meagre. These children work under

different circumstances and are categorized as such. The categories of child labour in the study area include the following; first, children who are not enrolled in school at all and work as and when there was work. The second category of child labourers are those who are enrolled in school but not regular in school because they have to share contact hours with work especially on market days to earn a living. The third category of child labourers is the seasonal labourers who during farming season absent themselves from school because of farm work.

Table 5.11: Number of Children in School

Number of children in school (x)	Frequency (y)	xy
1	30	30
2	31	62
3	21	63
4	25	100
5	13	65
6	16	96
7	13	91
8	3	24
9	1	9
10	1	10
15	1	15
Total	155	$\sum xy = 565$

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010.

The opinions of respondents about when children are usually not in school are presented in Table 5.12. When asked the particular period children usually absent themselves from school the following were the responses given. About 34 percent of the respondents said children absent themselves from school during farming season, 32.90 percent said after completing JHS they are not able to continue, 23.23 percent said on market days while 10.32 percent gave other periods. These responses are in line with the concerns expressed by the opinion leaders that children are not regular in school. The children during the focus group discussions admitted that they were not regular in school but sometimes against their will.

Table 5.12: Opinions of Respondents on period Children are usually out of School

Period out of school	Frequency	Percent
Market Days	36	23.23
Farming Season	52	33.55
After JHS	51	32.90
Other	16	10.32
Total	155	100.0

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010.

5.3. Causes of Child Labour

Basu and Van (1998) argue that the primary cause of child labour is parental poverty. This assertion was collaborated by the results of the survey conducted in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts of the northern region of Ghana. The survey report indicates that 37 percent of the heads of household are living below the poverty line using the World Bank indicator of \$1.25 a day. About 81 percent of heads of household in the study area cannot take care of their children's educational and other needs by their current earnings if they are the sole income earners. The reasons assigned for poverty in the area are wide and varied and include low educational background of parents which prevent them from getting jobs that will give them regular income. The main economic activity engaged by many people in the area is farming which is depended on rain and cultivated once in a year between May and October. The remaining months of the year is dry and the farmers idle due to lack of nonfarm job opportunities to earn income to supplement their farm income.

According to the community leaders, to some extent, the perennial conflict in the area is one of the causes of the poverty situation in the area. During such conflicts houses and food stuffs are normally burnt down. It also causes temporary closure of schools and in some cases both teachers and pupils do not return to school even after the conflict.

As a result of high poverty levels children are used during farming season for farm work to support their parents. Parents' inability to pay for the children's continued

education has been identified as among the reasons why most children share their school time with work or stop school entirely especially after the BECE. From the discussion, the main cause of poverty in the study area is economic and to some extent ethnic conflict.

Table 5.13 presents information on the reasons why some children of school going age are not in school. In all, 45 households said some of their children were not in school and some reasons were assigned for that. About 15 percent of the respondents said they could not afford school fees that is why the children are not in school while 10.3 percent said the children stopped schooling without any specific reason. About 3 percent gave other reasons why the children were not in school.

Table 5.13: Reasons of Children not in School

Reason of not in school	Frequency	Percent
Can't Afford School Fees	23	14.8
Stopped	16	10.3
Other	5	3.2
Not Applicable	111	71.6
Total	155	100.0

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010.

Table 5.14 contains the opinions expressed by respondents on why children are engaged in any form of work. Traditionally, children working on the family farm were seen as a means of training for adulthood, deteriorating economic conditions have led to an increase in the number of children working on a regular basis to earn a living for themselves or supplement family income. These children either forgo an education or combine work and school. The results of the survey conducted in the study area were not different. The majority of working children in the two districts are not paid because they were engaged in family farms and family enterprises. The response to the question on why parents would engage children in any form of work is as follows: thirty-eight (38) percent of the respondents said they would engage children in work in order to supplement family income, about forty-one (41.3) percent of them said they would do

so because work at that level is seen as a form of training, 7.7 percent of the respondents said they would engage children in order to support their own education, while 12.9 percent said they would engage them to support household enterprise. The respondents were of the view that when children such activities it helps prepare them for adulthood. They were of the opinion that parents cannot do without involving children in some work but when the involvement interferes with their school contact hours it affects their academic performance.

Table 5.14: Opinions of respondents on engaging children in any form of work

Reason	Frequency	Percent
Supplement Family Income	59	38.06
Helping to Operate Household Enterprise	20	12.90
Is a Form of Training or Education	64	41.29
Support Child's Education	12	7.74
TOTAL	155	100

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010.

5.4. Effects of Child Labour

Child labour in the developing world according to researchers is mostly a rural problem. Heady (2003) found that working children in Ghana spent an average of one hour per week less in school. Teachers, opinion leaders and children who participated in the discussion about the problem of child labour were unanimous that child labour affects school attendance and performance. The attendance of children in the study area was examined in some selected basic schools. This is to determine whether child labour has effect on school attendance in the study area. The schools in the area selected for the study are Bunbuna L/A Primary School, Zongo JHS and Naa-Bongo JHS.

Table 5.15 presents information on the attendance at Bunbuna Primary School. The number of school days for each of the two terms was 65 and that figure was used to calculate the expected attendance for the term by multiplying 65 by the number of pupils in a class. The average percentage of attendance of Bunbuna L/A Primary School ranges from 42.6 to 58.2. Average percentage of attendance for primary six (6) was 55.2 for the first term while that of second term was 53 percent. The average percentage of attendance for primary five for first term was 50.1 while that of second term dropped to 42.6. The average attendance for primary four for first term was 58.2 percent while that of second term also dropped to 55.8 percent.

Table 5.15: Attendance of Bunbuna L/A Primary School 2009/2010

Class		1 st Term	Expected Attendance	Rate	2 nd Term	Expected Attendance	Rate
Six	Boys=3	124	195	63.6	143	195	73.3
	Girls=5	152	325	46.8	106	325	32.6
	Total	276	520	55.2	249	520	53
Five	Boys=19	609	1235	49.3	556	1235	45.0
	Girls=24	794	1560	50.9	627	1560	40.2
	Total	1403	2795	50.1	983	2795	42.6
Four	Boys=19	643	1235	52.1	675	1235	43.3
	Girls=25	1045	1625	64.3	1109	1625	68.2
	Total	1688	2860	58.2	1784	2860	55.8

Source: Field Survey, May, 2010.

It was also realized that as the pupils move to the upper classes enrolment drops and the reason given for this was that some of the pupil drop out of school and others especially the boys move to schools in the nearest urban centres. That the boys are capable of riding bicycles for long distances on daily basis. Some parents also feel the teachers in the villages are not performing well as compared to those in the urban areas. This was evident in the class registers as girls out number boys in the upper primary as indicated

in Table 5.15. The figures for the third term could not be recorded because at the time of the survey the schools had just completed the second term. The average attendance as indicated in the table is too low and is an indication of the level of absenteeism of children from school. When this persists it will eventually affect the academic performance of the children considering the existence of other challenges like unqualified teachers and poor educational infrastructure.

The attendance of children at Naa-Bongu JHS and Zongo JHS in Nalerigu and Bunkpurugu respectively are presented in Table 5.16. The number of school days for each of the two terms is 65 and it is used in the calculation of the expected attendance for the terms. The average attendance of Naa-Bongu JHS is 85 percent and that of Zongo JHS is 68.47 percent. In terms of population Naa- Bongu JHS has more students than Zongo JHS and their school attendance records are equally better than that of Zongo JHS. According to the teachers, the worst attendance is normally recorded during the third term which coincides with the farming season.

Table 5.16: Attendance of selected JHS in the two districts

Naa-Bongu JHS,Nalerigu						Zongo JHS, Bunkpurugu				
Form		1 st term	Expected attendance	2 nd term	Expected attendance		1 st term	Expected attendance	2 nd term	Expected attendance
1	Boys=109	5929	7085	5382	7085	Boys=59	2510	3835	2740	3835
	Girls=96	5510	6240	5119	6240	Girls=35	2021	2275	1866	2275
	Total=205	11439	13325	10501	13325	Total=94	5231	6110	4606	6110
2	Boys=120	6372	7800	7280	7800	Boys=145	3497	9425	3385	9425
	Girls=73	3846	4745	4031	4745	Girls=62	3029	4030	3051	4030
	Total=193	10218	12545	11311	12545	Total=207	6526	13455	6436	13455
3	Boys=138	8093	8970	7515	8970	Boys=60	2534	3900	2684	3900
	Girls=57	3561	3705	2766	3705	Girls=28	1768	1820	1793	1820
	Total=195	11654	12675	10281	12675	Total=88	4302	5720	4477	5720

Source: Field survey, May, 2010.

The school attendance of the sampled schools indicates that some children do not attend school regularly and there is every reason to believe that these children work. The children during focus group discussion also admitted that they work, and that work

interferes with their school attendance. Irregular attendance to school is more likely to affect the academic performance of children in the end.

The performance of children at the BECE level in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo district is presented in Table 5.17. The best percentage pass within the period 2007 to 2009 is 39.7 percent and the average for the period is 27.7 percent. Looking at the trend within the period there is improvement but comparing with expected standards the district is performing abysmally. The factors that contribute to poor performance are many and some of them include absenteeism on the part of students and teachers, lack of qualified teachers and lack of basic infrastructure among others. Opinions expressed by community leaders attributed the poor performance of children at the BECE in the area to child labour and lack of commitment by teachers.

Table 5.17: Students performance in BECE at Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District (2007-2009)

Year	Boys			Girls			Total
	Number	Number passed	%	Number	Number passed	%	
2007	550	62	11	430	25	5.8	16.8
2008	630	116	18.4	480	40	8.3	26.7
2009	968	254	26.2	510	69	13.5	39.7

Source: GES, May, 2010.

As a result of the poor results and inability of parents to pay fees, children resort to pushing trucks, fetching water with donkey carts and carrying goods as head potters which are some of the types of child labour in the area. If this trend is not arrested human resource development of the area and the nation as a whole will be affected.

5.5. Interventions by Government and NGOs

A number of interventions by government and nongovernmental organizations are put in place to protect children's rights and increase enrolment and retention of children in schools.

The Children's Act (Act 560, 1998) is a comprehensive law that ensures children's rights and protection. The problem with this law is its implementation especially at the rural areas. The department of Social Welfare is doing its bit at the districts but they are constrained in terms of logistics.

Government Policies that directly impact on child labour include the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS II) which prioritizes child labour as an issue for elimination, the Sector-Wide Education Policy to ensure Education for all by 2015, and the Capitation Grant (2005) which makes education free at Primary and Junior Secondary School levels.

The GPRS II indicated that priority was given to special programmes to combat the worst forms of child labour under which the government is implementing the Livelihood Empowerment against Poverty (LEAP) programme to support families to fight against child labour. To qualify for the LEAP programme, all the household children of school age should be enrolled in schools and that no child should be trafficked or engaged in any of the worst forms of labour. The problem with the LEAP programme is that it has limited scope in the study area and there is subjectivity in the selection of the beneficiaries.

The Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) is one of the main policies of government to get all children of school going age to school but its implementation has not yielded the desired results. The government has not been able to provide the basic infrastructure needed for effective teaching and learning to take place. Some schools are still held under trees in the study area.

Some other interventions though not directly aimed at fighting the child labour problem but to get children into schools. Such interventions include; the school feeding

programme, free school uniforms and exercise books which encourage children to stay in school.

Before the introduction of the school feeding programme on pilot basis by the government, some selected schools in the two districts were benefiting from the Catholic Relief Service (CRS) school feeding programme. Though these programmes had limited coverage they still made some impact on the lives of the children according to teachers and the opinion leaders. CAMFED and FAWE Nongovernmental Organisations (NGOs) are present in the study area helping the girl child in terms of their education by providing them with school uniforms and learning materials from basic level through to the tertiary level or professional training. They select the needy ones from the communities through the help of teachers and the community's opinion leaders. Apart from the provision of material things they are also sensitizing them on their rights including the right to education. They work with authorities to do away with some of the cultural beliefs that work against female education. According to the district assemblies there are no direct policies or programmes in the area against child labour.

In conclusion, a lot has been said about child labour both locally and internationally but little has been done to lessen the effect of child labour on children's education especially in the study area. The country has laws dealing with child labour issues such as the ratification of the convention on child labour in the year 2000 and Section 28(1) of the 1992 Constitution guarantees the child in Ghana to be protected from engaging in any work that is considered injurious to his or her health, education and/or development. The difficulty is the implementation of these laws in the country and most especially in the study area. The District Assembly is the body responsible for enacting and implementing by-laws at the local levels. They, however, did not have any policy or activities dealing with the child labour problem in the study area. The next chapter provides a summary of research findings and recommendations that seek to minimize the problem of child labour in the study area.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The primary objective of this study is to provide empirical evidence about child labour in Bunkpurugu- Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts in the Northern Region of Ghana. The specific objectives of the study included (a) to examine how widespread the phenomena of child labour and the causes in the districts. (b) to examine the effects of child labour on school attendance, academic performance and the retention rate of children in school. (c) to assess the interventions of governmental and non governmental agencies in the education sector in the area and propose measures to improve their activities in contributing to solving the problem. (d) to give recommendations to inform policy to minimize the activities of child labour. The summary of the main findings of the study is outlined in this section.

6.1. Summary of Findings

This section examines the key findings of the study with regards to child labour and children's education in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts.

- The main economic activity of the people of the study area is farming and it is dependent on rain fall which is erratic.
- Unemployment and especially underemployment are major problems in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts largely due to the single maxima rainfall pattern that determine the period of time they engage in farming. The people idle most of the time in the year since there is little to do during the dry season.
- Infrastructural facilities are inadequate as some schools are still held under trees and a lot more sit on the floor due to shortage of furniture in places where classroom blocks are provided.
- There is shortage of qualified teachers in the study area and as a result teaching assistances are being recruited through the National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP) to fill the vacancies. In the East Mamprusi district for instance the pupil teachers are more than the trained teachers. Out of the total of 633 teachers in the district the pupil teachers constitute 67 percent.

- According to the 2000 Population and Housing Census report the average household size in the study area is seven (7). The results of the survey also indicate that on average each household has five (5) children.
- Absenteeism is common in schools in the study area especially during farming season among rural schools and on market days and some of the children admitted during the focus group discussion that work interferes with their school attendance.
- According to the education authorities there has been an improvement in the enrolment rate in the urban schools in the study area over the last few years but the enrolment in the rural areas is not encouraging.
- The pass rate at the BECE level in the area is too low. The pass rate in the Bunkpurugu –Yunyoo district in 2007 was 16.8 percent, 26.7 percent in 2008 and 39.7 percent in 2009. This is an indication that basic education in the study area has a lot of challenges.
- Child labour is considered as a normal practice and indeed healthy to the proper upbringing of the child. Children working on family farms and with family enterprises are seen as part of the process by which they are trained towards adulthood.
- The reasons given by the heads of households surveyed for allowing their children to work were categorized into four and they are as follows; to support family income (38.1%), as a form of child training (41.3%), to support child education 7.7%) and to help in household enterprises (12.9%).
- The results of the survey show that all children in ages 5- 17 years of households surveyed in the study area at least do household chores. In all there are six hundred and seventy-five (675) children in this age bracket of the households surveyed. Most of them apart from household chores also work to assist their parents in their enterprises and on the farms especially during rainy season.
- International NGOs such as CAMFED and FAWE are in the study area sensitizing girls and women on their rights including their right to education. The activities of these NGOs according to some of the beneficiaries have

impacted positively on their education since they no longer depend on their parents for school fees and uniforms.

- The school feeding programme according to the authorities is one of the programmes that can increase enrolment and retention of children in school. The programme, however, has limited coverage in the study area.
- Parents Teachers Associations (PTAs) and School Management Committees (SMCs) which are suppose to be helping in the running of the schools are not functioning well in most schools in the area.
- There are no specific programmes by the district assemblies to fight the child labour problem though the officials admit child labour exists in their districts.

6.2. Recommendations

Recommendations of this study are made in response to the findings. The findings indicate the need for some policy interventions to address the challenges identified. The critical issues that must be addressed include first the local economy to address the poverty situation, then the socio-cultural perceptions, limited educational opportunities, lack of public surveillance and lack of social amenities. In this regard the following recommendations are made to address the inadequacies identified in the findings.

6.2.1 Improving the local Economy

Given the state of poverty in the study area, the people should be empowered economically to be able to educate their children since formal education has been identified as a liberator. Farming is the main economic activity of the people in the area and due to the nature of the rain fall pattern they cultivate crops once in a year. One way of increasing their production is for government and nongovernmental organisations to provide them with dams with irrigation facilities to enable the people do all year round farming which will lead to improvement in their incomes. Also, micro finance should be extended to both farmers and traders through rural banks and other cooperative societies to expand their enterprises and improve on their businesses. When their incomes are improved it will impact positively on their children's education.

6.2.2. Tackling the Broader Socio-cultural and Economic Situation of Farmers

Participation of children in farming is culturally rooted in the communities with children entering farms in very early stage of their lives on their mothers back. Thus children working on farms with their parents, adults and other children are seen as a socially acceptable practice. This way, children socialize, learn parents' trade and are being taught to be responsible. However there is a thin line between social orientation and turning the child into a worker and this distinction may be difficult to understand by the communities. Any alteration in this culture will be difficult to achieve. Fortunately, the willingness of parents to educate their children is high especially at a time that free basic education is introduced. But the socio-economic situation of the farmers implies they really do not have any choice but use these children in farming sometimes even to the detriment to their education. To break this cycle, there is the need also for both NGOs and the district assemblies to embark on sensitization to change attitude of the people.

6.2.3. Increasing access, quality and relevance of education

Education is the key to ending the exploitation of children. If an education system is to attract and retain children, its quality and relevance must be improved. Children who attend school are less likely to be involved in child labour work. They are also more likely to break out of cycles of poverty. To achieve this in Ghana and in the study area in particular, universal basic education is the key. For it to be meaningful the authorities should provide infrastructural facilities and equip them with furniture and qualified teachers. If these things are provided, poor families will be willing to make sacrifices to send their children to school.

6.2.4. Dedication on the part of teachers

Dedication on the part of teachers in the study was found to be lacking and to improve upon this, it is necessary for circuit supervisors to step up their monitoring activities. To do effective monitoring, they need to be provided with means of transport and allowances to motivate them discharge their duties effectively.

6.2.5. Develop Vocational and Technical Education

The Ministry of Education should develop vocational and technical education to equip the youth with employable skills to prepare them adequately for adulthood. It should not be limited only to those in school but those who dropped out should be given the chance to learn a trade. Vocational education and training for older child labourers plays an important role in combating child labour because they would be well equipped to take better decisions.

6.2.6. Extension of Social Amenities to the Area

There are a large number of untrained teachers in the study area especially in the East Mamprusi district where the untrained teachers constitute 67 percent of the entire teaching staff in the district. Trained teachers refuse postings to the rural areas because it lacks basic amenities. To turn this trend there is the need for the district assemblies to embark on developmental projects in the area to open it up to the rest of the country. When basic amenities such as electricity, water and accommodation are provided qualified teachers would accept postings to the area.

6.2.7. Making and enforcing laws on child labour

The district assemblies in conjunction with community leaders need to make by-laws to ensure that children go to school and at least complete the basic level which is free now. Committees comprising of PTAs, SMCs and school authorities should be formed to monitor the attendance of children in school. Through their activities they can identify children who are genuinely in need to the district assemblies for sponsorship.

6.3. Conclusion

This study looks at child labour and children's education in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo and East Mamprusi districts. The development of any nation depends on its human resource and the youth are the future of the nation but child labour affects human

resource development. Various authorities came up with different definitions of child labour but the UNICEF definition is broad and touched on a number of issues crucial for the study. According to UNICEF child labour is defined as follows:

- Children 5 -11 years engaged in any economic activity, or 28 hours or more domestic work per week;
- Children 12-14 years engaged in any economic activity (except light work for less than 14 hours per week), or 28 hours or more domestic work per week;
- Children 15-17 years engaged in any hazardous work.

The research reviewed existing literature and identified causes of child labour, efforts by international and local bodies that seek to fight the phenomenon. The literature also talked about the effects of child labour on school attendance.

A case study method was adopted to carry out the research because; the phenomenon under investigation is a real life contemporary developmental issue. The study relied on both primary and secondary sources for the analysis. Purposive sampling method was used in the selection of the institutions that were studied.

The results of the survey revealed that child labour is primarily caused by poverty in the study area. Parents in their bid to supplement their family income coupled with the socio-cultural acceptance of child labour practice engage children in farming and other enterprises at the expense of their education. Children attending school were found to be working but the work was more of unpaid family work than external employment and the children said during focus group discussion that the work affect their school attendance. There is also shortage of qualified teachers in the study area and this is affecting the academic work in the area.

Several policy recommendations were suggested to deal with child labour and improve school enrolment. These sets of policy options include the following: improving the local economy, tackling the broader socio-cultural and economic situation of farmers, increasing access, quality and relevance of education, motivating teachers to give the best. This calls for significant stepping up of advocacy and awareness building among the people.

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APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRES

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HOUSEHOLD

1 Gender of household head

Male	1
Female	2

2 Could you please tell me how old you are? (Last birth day)-----

3 Your religious denomination

Christian	1
Moslem	2
Traditional religion	3
Other(specify)	4

4 Your marital status

Married	1
Widowed	2
Divorced	3
Separated	4
Other, specify	5

5 What is the highest level of education that you have completed?

Primary	1
Middle/JHS	2
SHS/Technical	3
Post secondary/Nursing	4
Polytechnic	5
University	6
Never been to school	7

6 What is your current employment status?

Working full time	1
Working part time	2
Casual/piece jobs	3
Self-employed	4
Unemployed	5
Pensioner	6

Housewife	7
Other(specify)	8

7 Do you have children?

Yes	1
No	2

8 If yes how many?

------(number)

9 How many people in this household are of school going age?

10 How many are actually in school?-----

11 If there are some not in schools, what are the reasons?

Cannot afford school fees	1
No schools available	2
Other, specify	3

12 How long have they been out of school?

One term	1
Two terms	2
One year	3
Other, specify	4

13 How many are boys and how many are girls?

(a) Boys-----

(b) Girls-----

14 Is there any particular period they stay out of school? If yes what period and why?

15 How many of your household members including you usually receive or earn an income?

----- (number)

16 What is the source(s) of your household income?

Salary/wages	1
Pension	2
Farming	3
Other(specify)	4

17 What is your monthly income?-----

18 Please tell me approximately how much money your household spends on average each month on education? GHC-----

19 Do your children do any form of work?

Yes	1
No	2

20 If yes what kind of work do they do?

Household chores	1
Farming	2
Selling	3
Cattle rearing	4
Other (specify)	5

21 Are they paid for the work they do?

Yes	1
No	2

22 If yes approximately how much do they earn in a day? GHC-----

23 Why will you engage or allow your children to be engaged in any form of work?

**INSTITUTIONAL SURVEY: BUNKPURUGU-YUNYOO DISTRICT
ASSEMBLY**

1. Date of interview

2. Status of respondent

3 What is the state of classrooms in the schools in your district?

4 What is the state of furniture in the basic schools in your district?

5 To what extent in your view is child labour in your district?

6 What are the causes?

7 What can be done to address it?

8 What policies or actions have you put in place to fight child labour in your district?

9 What punitive measures or incentives to motivate people to limit these activities?

INSTITUTIONAL SURVEY: EAST MAMPRUSI DISTRICT ASSEMBLY

1. Date of interview

2. Status of respondent

3 What is the state of classrooms in the schools in your district?

4 What is the state of furniture in the basic schools in your district?

5 To what extent in your view is child labour in your district?

6 What are the causes?

7 What can be done to address it?

8 What policies or actions have you put in place to fight child labour in your district?

9 What punitive measures or incentives to motivate people to limit these activities?

INSTITUTIONAL SURVEY: EAST MAMPRUSI DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICE

1. Date of interview

2. Status of respondent

3 What is the state of classrooms in the schools in your district?

4 What is the state of furniture in the basic schools in your district?

5 What is the state of teachers (trained and untrained) in your district?

6 To what extent in your view is child labour in your district?

7 What are the causes?

8 What can be done to address it?

9 What policies or actions have you put in place to fight child labour in your district?

10 What punitive measures are put in place to minimize it?

**INSTITUTIONAL SURVEY: BUNKPURUGU-YUNYOO DISTRICT
EDUCATION OFFICE**

1. Date of interview

2. Status of respondent

3 What is the state of classrooms in the schools in your district?

4 What is the state of furniture in the basic schools in your district?

5 What is the state of teachers (trained and untrained) in your district?

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7 What are the causes?

8 What can be done to address it?

9 What policies or actions have you put in place to fight child labour in your district?

10 What punitive measures are put in place to minimize it?

OPINION LEADERS IN THE COMMUNITY

1 What is the extent of child labour in the town?

2 What do you consider to be the causes of this problem?

Death of bread winner	1
Lack of employment of parents	2
Low educational background of parents	3
Other, specify	4

3 What can be done to solve this problem?

(a) By parents-----

(b) By community leaders-----

(c) By District Assembly-----

(d) By teachers-----

4 When children are out of school, what do they normally do?

Farming	1
Doing of household chores	2
Cattle rearing	3
Selling	4
Doing nothing	5
Other, specify	6

5 What is the community's attitude to child labour?

Receptive of it	1
See it as unacceptable	2
Is a form of training	3
Other, specify	4

6 What is the effect of child labour on:

(a) Children-----

(b) The family-----

(c) Community/school-----

7 What benefits do people gain from child labour?

Source of cheap farm labour	1
Supplement family income	2
Other, specify	3

8 Are children forced or they are just willing to work or stay out of school?

GUIDE FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

- What is your understanding of child labour?
- Does it exist in your area?
- If yes how widespread is it in this area?
- What are the causes of it?
- What kind of work do you normally engage in?
- What are the affects of child labour on your academic work?
- How can we minimize these effects on your academic work?
- What interventions are needed to solve the problem?

APPENDIX II

Calculation of sample sizes

$$\text{Bunkpurugu (1,010)} = \frac{155}{3,111} \times 1,010 = 50.3$$

$$\text{Namasim (80)} = \frac{155}{3,111} \times 80 = 4.0$$

$$\text{Nalerigu (1,315)} = \frac{155}{3,111} \times 1,315 = 65.5$$

$$\text{Nakpanduri (706)} = \frac{155}{3,111} \times 706 = 35.2$$