

**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

**CHILD LABOUR AND ITS EFFECTS ON CHILD  
EDUCATION IN BONIA COMMUNITY IN THE KASSENA  
NANKANA MUNICIPALITY**



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EDUCATION IN BONIA COMMUNITY IN THE KASSENA  
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**A dissertation in the Department of Social Science Education,  
Faculty of Social Science Education, submitted to the School of  
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of the requirements for the award of the degree of  
Master of Education  
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**OCTOBER, 2022**

## DECLARATION

### Student's Declaration

I, Elijah Achazanga, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

Signature: .....

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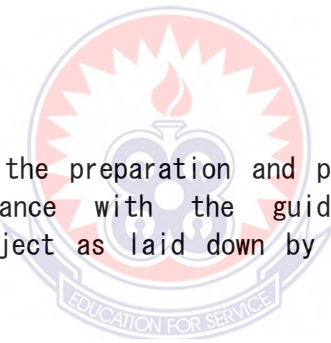
### Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis/dissertation/project as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

Dr. Seth Frimpong (Supervisor)

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to my lovely Mom, Ayi Valaria

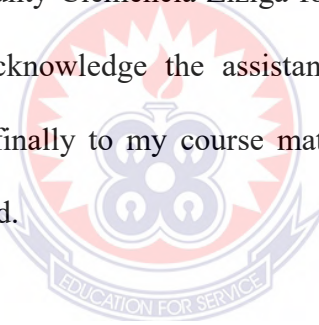


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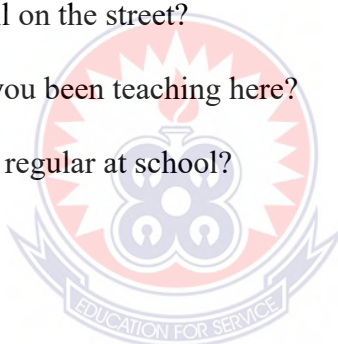
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## ACRONYMS

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

## 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 study examined child labour and its effects on child education in Bonia Community in the Kassena Nankana Municipality. The quantitative approach method was used in the study because of its relevance in contemporary developmental issues like the child labour. The study relied on data gathered from the 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, 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 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 municipal assemblies to fight the child labour problem though the officials admit child labour exist in their municipality. 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 these suggestions are factored into the plans for the area.

## CHAPTER ONE

### 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 industrialised, Chikomborero (2012). Child labour is a pervasive problem prevalent in the developing world. Notwithstanding international regulations restricting the type of permissible activities and participation age, progress towards its eradication has been slow. An estimated 215 million children aged 5-14 still participate in labour, just 3% lower than the 2004 level (ILO 2010). The question addressed in this study is important for several reasons. Besides being undesirable on moral grounds, the general presumption is that child labour is harmful to children's educational development. Education is considered fundamental in empowering children to escape poverty, so labour is objectionable to the extent that it impedes a child's human capital development, perpetuating poverty into the future. Empirically however, it is ambiguous whether this widespread notion is validated, while some even argue that child labour may be beneficial by providing invaluable skills and informal education, Panos (2011).

By now, many people are aware of an 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 industrialised 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 25 and 14 years old (Todaro, 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 unharmed 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 authorises the

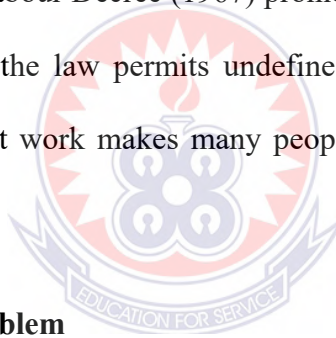
employment of children above 12 or 13 years in certain type of light work such as distributing News Papers under certain conditions (ILO, 1995).

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 armour bearers to their adult counterparts. A few examples can be found in the Bible (David serving 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 (Hitlerjunge or HJ) was an official organisation in the Nazi Army. During the Battle of Berlin, this youth force was a major part of the German Defences. 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 five 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 (Savanna, North East and Northern) and Upper West regions are 76.2 per cent and 73.4 per cent. The five 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 Region has one of the



worst educational records, falling behind the Upper East and Upper West in many literacies and enrolment criteria from primary to the tertiary levels. In *Ghana, in the year 2000* there was an argument 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 Statement of the Problem**

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 Upper East 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 4 offices in Ghana, in some Upper East districts fewer than 50 percent of teachers are qualified and fewer than 40 percent of primary school aged children attend class.

In Ghana the cooperative effort of the government, voluntary agencies and international nongovernmental organisations (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 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to investigate child labour and its effects on children's education in Kassena/Nankana municipality.

#### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of the study were to:

1. Determine the types of labour children are involved in the Kasena Nankana municipality.
2. Examine the causes of child labour in Kasena Nankana Municipality.
3. Ascertain the causes of child labour on students' academic performance.

#### **1.5 Research Questions**

1. Which types of labour are children involved in Kassena Nankana municipality?
2. What are the causes of child labour in the Kassena Nankana municipality?
3. How does child labour affect the performance of students in the Kassena Nankana municipality?

#### **1.6 Significance of the study**

Result of the study will offer the opportunity to ascertain how widespread the phenomenon of child labour is in the study area on children's education. Secondly, the research findings are intended to be beneficial to the responsible officials in the Ministry of Education, Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.), Head teachers, parents, pupils, School Boards and policy makers by communicating the impact of child labour on pupils' attitude to education and academic performance. The findings could provide the educators and administrators with empirical evidence about how child labour is affecting academic achievements. This could be useful to stakeholders as it could help the Ministry of Education to design and intensify education of parents on their roles in preventing child labour, building positive attitudes in their pupils towards education in promoting academic performance of their wards.

The results of this research could assist the G.E.S to see the need to reshape the curriculum of basic education to suit the economic activities of the area or locality and each season of the year to keep pupils in school.

These findings will also be of considerable relevance to the teachers whose techniques and methods of teaching should reflect the economic activities of the area, by developing strategies to reduce or eradicate child labour and influencing the pupils to learn more to be employed in more profitable jobs in future. The study could also encourage various educational authorities to step up guidance and counselling centres in the schools to help counsel pupils.

### **1.7 Delimitation**

The study was limited to the Kassena/Nankana Municipality, specifically, in the Bonia Community in the Upper East Region, the reason is that, this is where the problem was identified and therefore, I could have easy access to the participants who would contribute to the achievement of the goals of the study

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter reviews literature of the study. The concept and definition of child labour, operational definition of child labour the concept, history of child labour causes of child labour. Forms or types of 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 emphasises that the issue goes way beyond the concerns of investment or its relation to economic activity, and includes several aspects of domestic work which conflict 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:

1. Children at work
2. 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.
3. Children in hazardous work, that is, work that is likely to 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.
4. 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 deserve 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 emphasising the importance of domestic work by children, that is, in addition to economic work.

UNICEF defines child labour as follows:

Children of 5 -11 years engaged in any economic activity, or 28 hours or more domestic work per week;

Children of 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 noneconomic, 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 house-keeping/ 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 ages 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 minimising 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 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 Forms of Child Labour**

The overwhelming poor socioeconomic situation in a country forced a number of pupils entering the labour market have steadily increased. This is forcing pupils to work in order to fend for themselves or to supplement family income. Ole (2014) divided the profile of child labour in Nigeria into three categories

1. Pupils working in public places such as streets and markets: this includes streets vendors in mobile and stationary position, young beggars, who work alone or with parents/relatives, shoe repairers, car washers, young scavengers who worked alone or with their families, head loaders/feet washers in markets.
2. Pupils working in semi-public settings namely cottage industries and mechanical workshops, bus conductors, Iron and metal workers, carpentry, tailors, weavers and barbers
3. Domestic servants in private households: They constitute domestic workers in household of elite and sub-elite families who worked in the middle and upper echelons of bureaucracy or private areas.

The most common forms of child labour identified in developing countries include sexual exploitation of pupils, child domestic labour, pupils selling illicit brews, farm labour (subsistence and commercial agriculture e.g., on tea, maize, cassava, coffee, rice, and sugar plantations), herding, fishing, quarrying, mining, hawking, construction, transport, touting and pupils being exploited for entertainment among others (ILO, 2012; Ole, 2014). Thus, child labour by International Labour Organisation standard could be classified as hazardous work and worst form of child labour. According to Heady (2000) who conducted research on effects of child labour on learning achievement, he observed that almost all pupils in Ghana claim to do some housework, and so the analysis of participation in housework would not be revealing. The concept of child labour therefore originally differs among the concerned agencies such as International Labour Organisation (ILO), World Bank (WB) and UNICEF but upon consensus. Child labour refers to unacceptable forms of child work with the meaning and implications highly dependent on the social strategies and objectives of each working organisation (Ole, 2014). The current official descriptions of child labour among ILO, UNICEF, WB, and other organisations are as follows:

1. Child work or pupils' work is a general term covering the entire spectrum of work and related tasks performed by pupils.
2. Child labour refers to a subset of pupils' work that is injurious to pupils and that should be targeted for elimination.
3. Hazardous work refers to physical, psychological or sexual abuse; work that is underground, underwater, at dangerous heights in confined spaces; work with dangerous machinery, equipment and tools, or which involves the manual handling or transport heavy load; work in our unhealthy environment

which would expose pupils to hazardous substance, agents or processes to high temperatures, noise levels, or vibrations which might damage their health.

UNICEF (2008) explains that child labour hampers the normal physical, intellectual, emotional and moral development of pupils who are in the growing process. This can permanently distort or disable their bodies when they carry heavy load or forced to adopt unnatural position at work for long hours. UNICEF (2008) classified the hazards of child labour into three categories namely as Physical, Cognitive, and Emotional, Social and Moral. Most child labours are therefore hazardous work but some that are very hazardous and are classified by ILO (1999) as worst form of child labour (WFCL). The worst forms of child labour are tasks or activities that are very hazardous or by their nature detrimental to the development of pupils (Baah & Badu–Yeboah (2009).

The International Labour Organisation ILO adopted Convention No 182 and defines worst form of child labour as all forms of slavery or practice similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of pupils for the purposes of sexual or labour exploitation, forced labour or slavery, for fishing activities and narcotics. Pupils are engaged in commercial sexual exploitation and are reported to engage in prostitution within bars, discos, brothels, massage parlours, and on the streets. While the majority of pupils exploited in prostitution are between 13 and 17 years, pupils as young as 9 years are reported to be involved (Ole, 2014). Article 3 of the International Labour Organisation and International Programme on Elimination of Child Labour (ILO / IPEC, 2002) Convention 182 call for immediate prohibition of the WFCL through enactment of laws, regulations and standards. In a compilation by Otoo (2005) to Ghana News Agency, more than 246 million pupils were working under WFCL

worldwide and more than 100 million of these pupils have no access to education of any kind.

## **2.7 Child Labour and Education**

Effects of Child Labour on Education and Socioeconomic development, the key to the success or failure of the educational system as a whole is basic education on which the rest of the education systems are built upon. The concept of basic education is therefore the dominant idea behind the model of universal education. Despite constitutional introduction of FCUBE, school feeding programme and capitation grant to boost school enrolment, retention and academic performance in Ghana and other developing countries, child labour has been the major hindrance to achieving these goals. Ligeve, Poipoi & Maragia (2012) pointed out that because of abject poverty, pupils flock to the beaches of Lake Victoria in search of work at the expense of their education. In developing countries, pupils are making significant economic contributions to their families through their labour market activities (Isah, 2013). According to Khanam and Ross (2005) in rural Bangladesh, putting a child in productive activities may increase current income but will seriously undermine and impede his or her school attendance and the quality of learning achievements of pupils. Lower years of attained schooling and lower returns to schooling lead to greater incidence of poverty as an adult (Isah, 2013). Heady (2000) observed that a child engaged in child labour activities faces exhaustion or a diversion of interest away from academic concerns. Emerson and Portela, (2005) noted that child labour could be a way to financing education that an individual would not otherwise have access to, which, in turn, could lead to better outcomes for older child or adolescent workers. Ole (2014) however, argued that schooling and child labour are not mutually exclusive activities and could even be complementary activities. The assumption that

pupils either work or attend school is no longer valid. There exists a complex relationship between child labour and education. Working pupils have been found to pay their own school fees as well as those of siblings (Bass, 2004). Even when work does not prevent pupils from attending school, it may reduce study time or make them tired, reducing concentration and learning. Heady (2003) found that working pupils had substantially lower reading and mathematics test scores than non-working pupils in Ghana, even after controlling for innate ability measured by the Raven's Test. Many young people who drop off the formal education system lack alternatives with proper mechanisms and linkages to enable them acquire requisite skills that would allow them to actively and decently participate in the labour market (ILO, 2012).

The informal labour market structure gave pupils the opportunity to gain employment by taking part in fishing expeditions, 'hustling' at the beach, and working on farms; as well as to sell various items ranging from farm produce to provisions. It is thus likely that pupils were pulled out of school by the attraction and accessibility of such an informal labour market structure and this attraction was supported by covert 'collective communal support' for them to sell their labour. It seems that the community condoned dropping out of school and approved of finding a job. It is also likely that such collective communal support created an enabling environment that acted as a driving force, pulling pupils out of school to sell their labour in the informal labour market. It may be argued that such a collective communal support compromises pupils' school attendance and that this was the overt manifestation of a structural devaluation of schooling which otherwise is not visible. Thus, pupils engage in economic activities because of the existence of a market for child labour (Ananga, 2011) but the implications, including socio-economic development is far more deteriorating than the present gain. This view is corroborated by Ananga, (2011)



emphasising how communities can influence dropout rates by providing employment opportunities during school hours. Zaney, (2007) also observed that child labour is work that deprives pupils of opportunities of formal and informal education and which requires them to assume multiple burdens of school and work at home and elsewhere. The physical development of pupils whose rights are abused therefore become stunted and are thus prevented from realising their full potential and becoming responsible and productive citizens. A household-based survey in Ghana revealed that pupils who are child labourers had low body mass index than pupils who were studying without doing any economic activity (Kongnyuy, Kongnyuy & Richter, 2009) and this could have serious future socioeconomic implication.

## **2.8 Parental Socioeconomic backgrounds, Child Labour and Pupils Education**

Studies indicated that socioeconomic and demographic backgrounds of parents influence their roles, child labour and pupils school attendance and academic achievements. The common parental backgrounds acknowledged in literatures to be influencing their roles and eventually determining child labour and educational attainment are socio-economic status, educational level, occupation, marital status (which determines the level of parenting) and cultural practices. There is interrelationship among education, occupation and socio-economic backgrounds of parents which determine the role parents play in bringing up pupils.

It is undeniable fact that there is a strong correlation between socioeconomic status of parents and child labour (Macharia, 2014; Ole, 2014). Thus, child labour and poverty always move together. This is because once the poor parent or guardian cannot meet the basic human needs of the child, the child will have to resort to child labour to meet his/her basic needs.



Poverty is a global phenomenon threatening the survival of humanity. Parents of low socioeconomic backgrounds have a high tendency of engaging their wards in income generating ventures to help augment the family income. It is possible that pupils are somehow in a way encouraged by their parents to go and work when their parents demand part of the income they (the pupils) get from the work they have done (Todaro, 1982; Macharia, 2014). Theoretically, there were many reasons why there might be a negative connection between family income and child labour.

Several studies, including Isah (2013), Ole (2014) also indicated that pupils of poor parents were vulnerable to child labour and mostly they do not attend school and/or irregular in school. The parents do not see education as increasing employment prospects for their pupils and therefore keep some of them, especially girls out of school. They were taught to work and learn traditional skills that would enable them secure basic livelihood during adulthood and prepare them to be good housewives. Studies over the years have established that that poor school attendance is due to the requirements parents place on their pupils to be economically active, which resulted to the pupils going to school late or having interruptions in their schooling because of the child labour which significantly affect their academic performance (Macharia, 2014). Learning extends beyond the classroom and it includes home and community encouragement. The academic performance of any school is highly influenced by its parents. It is therefore the role of parents to ensure that the surrounding of their pupils at home promotes learning. Macharia, (2014) outlined a number ways that parents influence academic performance of their pupils. Parents need to have a positive attitude towards education which will in turn encourage a child to learn. Parents have authority over pupil's absenteeism, availability and variety of reading materials at home and excessive television watching. It is the role of parents to motivate pupils

from home in order to perform well at school. It is the role of parents to avoid divorce and other irresponsible behaviours which create stress to pupils. In addition, parents have other roles to play in order to promote academic achievements of their pupils. They have to provide educational and other basic needs of the pupils, ensure that pupils are not overworked with domestic work at the expense of school work and that pupils study at home. Parents must motivate their pupils to aim at high academic achievement, attend school regularly and at the right time when schools open. Parents must also participate in school activities such as attending parent-teacher association meetings, school anniversaries etc. When pupils are encouraged and supported in learning by parents, they do well in schools. It is the responsibility of parents to avoid local traditions and customs such as early marriage and Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) that hinder pupils from going to school. Parents need to discuss with their pupils the acceptable and unacceptable behaviours to avoid indiscipline cases in schools. Some parents do not provide a conducive home environment for their pupils due to frequent quarrels at home. Thus, parents have a great impact on a school and its operations and if parents do not support school programmes, learning will be adversely affected. Some working parents too do not have enough time for their pupils leading to low academic achievements by their pupils (Caroline & Clauss, 2006; Macharia, 2014).

These and many other roles of parents are, however, greatly influenced by socio-economic, education, occupation and cultural practices and beliefs of parents resulting in some parents not to be responsible (UNICEF, 2007). A number of direct and indirect costs of schooling were mentioned by Ananga (2011) in the determinants of school participation which affect enrolment, attendance and academic performance especially amongst the poor households. In Ghana now, payment of school tuition

fees may not be the main reason behind dropping out in public basic schools since basic education in public schools do not charge pupils any tuition fees since the introduction of FCUBE policy. However, other fees (example printing fees) that might be charged apart from tuition and other direct costs (e.g., uniforms, exercise books, reading materials, transport, food etc) might be the reasons why poor households sometimes withdraw their pupils from school in order to work as part of a coping strategy to meet costs and generate resources to support the costs of schooling (Ananga, 2011).

An empirical study conducted by Yusif, Yussof and Noor (2011) on the determinants of pupil's academic performance in senior high schools (SHS) in Ghana also suggested that there is a positive correlation between a parent's educational attainment and the type of school the child attends. The researchers discovered that highly educated fathers value the contribution of education to socio-economic development of their pupils and appear to send their pupils to well-endowed schools than less educated fathers. The empirical results also revealed that academic ability and type of school attended are the most important predictors of performance in the final SHS examination and that having a father who is a farmer reduces the probability of qualifying for post-secondary education by 29%.

Analysis from many previous studies including Todaro (1982), Kibera and Kimokoti, (2007), Ananga, (2011), Ole (2014) and many others reviewed in Macharia (2014) showed that parents' socio-economic and demographic backgrounds dictate school attendance and academic performance of their pupils. This is usually with parents who have their occupation as farming and fishing where they turn to seek the assistance of their wards in their work and this normally means such pupils often

absent themselves from classes or go to classes very late and tired. Such pupils therefore, take the school as their resting place instead of place of learning. This goes a long way to affect their performance in school. On the other hand, if a child attends school in an area where there is a generally positive attitude to school and where it is thought that school serves as a useful function, he/she will be able to integrate his/her school and home life relatively well. Todaro (1982) observed that most often than not, people in rural areas prefer their pupils to take after their occupation. These parents do not have much interest in their pupils' education but send their pupils to school just because other do so. School attendance is poor because people living in those areas do not consider that school performs an essential function and the child may have some difficulty in integrating his perception of the school and home.

Todaro (1982) further stated that in any case, there is a real cost to a poor family of having an able bodied-child attending school when there is productive work to be done on the farm, beach, market or in the lagoon, a cost which is not reflected in school fees. This is to state that educated and socio-economically sound parents are more responsible and their pupils have advantage of attending school regularly to achieve better academic scores/grades than the pupils whose parents are of low socio-economic and demographic backgrounds. One school of thought pointed out that unskilled or disadvantaged workers compete with one another for minimum wage jobs. The resulting low income makes these unskilled workers less able to afford good education for their pupils to build them up socio-economically.

They do not have much interest because their occupation or their economic activities by nature may not require any skilled worker or labour. Therefore, parents who are engaged in such activities do not see the need to spend so much on their pupils'

education when what they are doing could equally be done by their pupils without “that education” (Todaro, 1982). Parents expect their pupils to complete their basic education and come to take up their occupation. So, whenever the child absents him or herself to do similar job for money to help supplement the finance for the family upkeep, parents do not object or reprimand their pupils from absenting themselves from school. On the contrary, should the parent’s occupation require a skilled and well-educated personnel, parents would see to the best of their pupils’ education in order to acquire a more profitable job after their school. Parents’ occupation has affected their income and as well as their socio-economic status and, in effect has affected their expenditure on their pupils’ education. Thus, parents with high educational attainment and profession and with good socio-economic backgrounds play their parental roles of guiding their pupils properly to develop high self-esteem and social competence, support and provide basic needs for their pupils and also monitor their pupils in all aspects including education. The end result is that most of these pupils do not involve in child labour but rather attend school regularly, performance very well academically and become great socio-economic contributors to the family, community and the nation at large. The opposite parental backgrounds and its impact on education and socio-economic development of pupils is common, especially in developing countries and most rural areas. This generally repeats the cycle of poverty and child labour in these settings.

## **2.9 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 take 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. Fifty-seven (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 1.27 million) were engaged in activities classified as child labour. The phenomenon is prevalent in all regions of the country (GSS, 2003; MMYE, 2006).



## 2.10 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) demonstrates 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, fulltime 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 21<sup>st</sup> 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.

### **2.11 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 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 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 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 penalise 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 programmes.

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-recognised 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.

## **2.12 Efforts in addressing the problem of child labour**

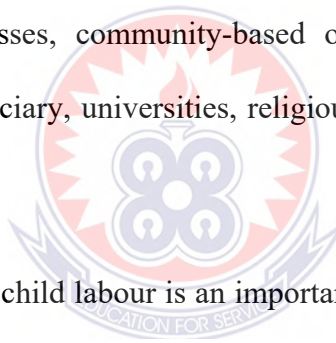
The ILO has been campaigning to end child labour since the organisation was founded in 1919. The ILO doctrine on child labour states that labour carried out by children of 15 years or younger under conditions which stifle their physical,

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' organisations, trade unions, non-governmental organisations 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, non-discriminatory 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 Organisation'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' organisations, other international and government agencies, private businesses, community-based organisations, 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 for 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-going age should be enrolled in school and that no child should be trafficked or 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 healthier 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.

### **2.13 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 to send children. Unfortunately, this is not the case in developing countries especially, 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 school 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 enrol. 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 socialisation 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.

#### **2.14 Summary**

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 which the study seeks to address. They include the causes, effects and solutions. 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 gap in the literature is that, it fails to effectively deal with the challenges in addressing the problems of child labour in the Bonia Community in the Kasena/Nankana Municipality. This research will therefore address such gap by looking at effective ways in addressing the challenges of child labour on child's education and make it effective to improve the children's performance in education in the Bonia community, the Kasena/Nankana municipality and the nation at large.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.0 Introduction

This section discusses the method that was employed in the gathering of data. These include the research design, setting of the study, population, sample and sampling procedure, intervention design, instrument for data collection and data analysis.

#### 3.1 Research Approach

The study adopted the quantitative approach. Quantitative approach has many explanations. Cohen (1980), explained quantitative research as social research that employs empirical methods and empirical statements. He states that an empirical statement is defined as a descriptive statement about what "is" the case in the "real world" rather than what "ought" to be the case. Typically, empirical statements are expressed in numerical terms; another factor in quantitative research is that empirical evaluations are applied. Empirical evaluations are defined as a form that seeks to determine the degree to which a specific programme or policy empirically fulfils or does not fulfil a particular standard or norm.

Moreover, Creswell (1994) has given a very concise definition of quantitative research as a type of research that is `explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods. In quantitative research, data is collected in the form of numbers rather than words. Quantitative data is used because the researcher is interested in the coverage of sizeable number of research participants.

### **3.2 Research Design**

A descriptive survey research design was employed for the study. The descriptive survey design involves the collection of data in order to test hypotheses or to answer questions concerning the current state of a phenomenon (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). According to them, descriptive survey produces a good number of responses from numerous people at a time, provides a meaningful picture of events and seeks to explain people's perception and behaviour on the basis of information obtained at a point in time. To them, descriptive survey designs could be used with greater confidence with regard to particular questions which are of special interest and value to researchers. The design aims at determining the nature of a situation as it exists at the time of study (Creswell, 1994).

### **3.3 Setting of the Study**

The research was undertaken in the Bonia Community in the Kassena/Nankana Municipality in the Upper East Region of Ghana. In terms of land area, it covers a total area of about 4600 square kilometres. This represents about 22 percent of the 20640 square kilometres land area of the Upper East Region (GSS 2010).

The illiteracy rate in the Municipality is very high. According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, 70.2 percent of the Municipal population aged 15 years and above were illiterate, compared to the regional figure of 41.7 percent and National figure of 42.1 percent. The illiteracy rate among women was put at 77.0 percent while that of men was 63.2 percent compared to the regional average of 63.8 percent for females and 46 percent for males and 59.9 percent respectively.

### **3.4 Population**

The target population for the study is 100 respondents which included pupils, teachers and parents who had their wards in the schools in the community. Data was collected from a sample of each of these categories of the population for the purpose of triangulation.

### **3.5 Sample and Sampling Technique**

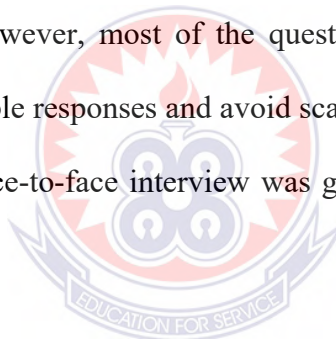
A sample of 100 respondents was selected to participate in the study. This comprised 50 pupils, 20 teachers and 30 parents. The probability sampling procedure was adopted to select the teachers, pupils and parents by the researcher. In the case of the parents the researcher selected those whose wards were observed to be engaged in child labour. Twenty (30) of such parents were selected. Also 20 teachers were selected from the Primary and the Junior High and the Senior High Schools respectively, using simple random selection procedure. Simple random sampling is a sampling technique that gives all units of target population an equal chance of being selected. This is because the teachers had similar experiences in the schools and are classified as homogenous.

With respect to the pupils, 26 were selected from primary five to six, 13 were selected from Junior High School one, two and three classes while 11 were selected from the Senior High School. In each case, the simple random sampling procedure was adopted to select the respondents. The criteria that were adopted to select each participant were pupils observed to have been engaged in activities perceived to border on child labour.

Also, the heads of the schools from which these pupils attended were selected based on the reason that they had enough information on such pupils to assist the researcher.

### **3.6 Data Collection Instruments**

The data was gathered mainly through primary sources. Responses were collected from participants through questionnaire instruments. In each school, where the questionnaire was given to pupils to fill, the researcher waited and collected the completed questionnaires in order to ensure high return rate. Some questionnaires were designed for teachers, pupils and parents. Apart from their suitability for wide coverage, the questionnaire produced reliable information from many respondents and reduced bias and influence of the researcher. Both close-ended and open-ended questions were used. However, most of the questions were close-ended. This was meant to obtain comparable responses and avoid scattering of ideas which could make analysis difficult. The face-to-face interview was guided by an interview guide (See appendix D).



### **3.7 Data Analysis**

The data collected through the questionnaire from the students were analysed using frequency, percentages and tables. Descriptively, the researcher organized the data across all respondents or interviewees (students, parents and teachers) and their answers, so as to identify consistencies and differences. During the analysis of the findings, the relationship among responses was explored. Also, the data which was collected from the pupils' report cards were analysed using simple percentages followed by word description in each case.

### **3.8 Validity and Reliability**

Validity of research instrument is its ability and extent it measures the concepts it is intended to measure (Awanta & Asiedu-Addo, 2008). To establish validity, before the pilot study, the instruments were given to the researcher's supervisor to assess the relevance of each item in the instrument to the objectives and rate each item on the scale as very relevant (4), quite relevant (3), somewhat relevant (2) and not relevant. His suggestions were used to improve the validity of the final instrument.

Adjustments on the questions were made until validity was achieved. Validity was established using Content Validity Index (C.V.I) given by the formula below Nabaseruka (2010).

CVI= Number of items declared

Total number of items

Ole (2014) stated that the research items/research instruments are/is acceptable if the coefficient validity value is equal to or greater than zero point seven (0.7). For the CVI for pupils and teachers, the co-efficient was 0.86 and that of parents was 0.71, signifying that the instruments were reliable.

### **3.9 Reliability of the Instruments**

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument (in this case questionnaire) consistently reflects the construct that it is measuring on repeated trials. One way to think of this is that, other things being equal, a person should get the same score on a questionnaire if they complete it at two different points in time (Andy, 2009).

In this study, the Cronbach's alpha,  $\alpha$ , which is the most common measure of internal consistency in literature was used to calculate the reliability co-efficient of the questionnaire items. A reliability coefficient of at least 0.7 is accepted as reliable in research. The data collected from the pilot study were statistically analysed for reliability coefficient using the alpha coefficient of reliability. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were 0.76, 0.86 and 0.88 for pupils, teachers and parents respectively. These reliability coefficients were considered adequate for the consistencies of the instrument.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### PRESENTATION OF DATA AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

#### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents information on data collected from the respondents on seeking to understand child labour and its effects on child education within the study area. It further presents the findings based on the objectives set for the study. The chapter discusses background information of the respondents and the effects of child labour on child's education. The data is presented in tables, charts and other statistical means. The demographic profile of respondents was first analysed to help understand the reaction of the respondents on child labour and effects on child education within the study area. The study was conducted on 100 respondents and the findings were subjected to detailed analysis using descriptive statistical method.

#### SECTION A

#### 4.1 Personal Data for Children of Child Labour

##### 4.1.1 Gender

**Table 1: Gender**

Gender	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Male	36	72
Female	14	28
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>

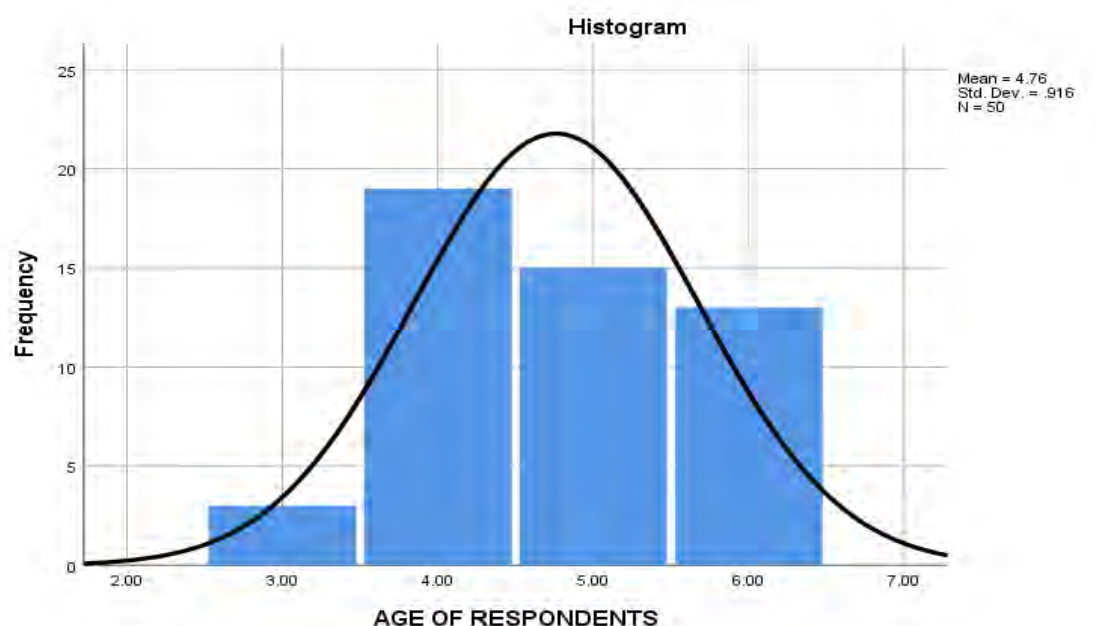
*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study found that out of the 50 respondents used for the survey, 36 representing 72% of the respondents were males and 14 representing 28% of the respondents were females. This fact is due to the observation that most males in the study area are involved in child labour than females.



### 4.1.2 Age group

The details are presented in the figure below



**Figure 1: Age group distribution of respondent**

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The survey was conducted on a total of 50 respondents (students), out of which 19 representing 38% the respondents are within the age group of 11-15 year, 15 representing 30% of the respondents are within the age group of 16-20 years, 13 representing 26% of the respondents are above 20 years and 3 representing 6% of the respondents are within the age group of 5-10 years.

### 4.1.3 Nationality of Respondents

**Table 2: Nationality of Respondents**

Nationality of Respondents	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Ghanaian	50	50
Non-Ghanaian	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January, (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out the nationality of respondents, in other to know whether they are Ghanaians or not and also give accurate responses. The study revealed that out of 50 respondents used for the study 50 representing 100% of the respondents are Ghanaians.

The details are presented under table 2

#### 4.1.4 Levels of Respondents

**Table 3: Levels of Respondents**

<b>Class of Respondents</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Primary	12	24
Basic	14	28
JHS	13	26
SHS	11	22
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out the levels of respondents, in order to find out the kind of responses participants from each level will provide to bring out accuracy. Out of 50 respondents who participated in the study, it was revealed that 12 representing 24% of the respondents are in primary, 14 representing 28% of the respondents are in basic, 13 representing 26% of the respondents are in JHS whiles 11 representing 22% of the respondents are in SHS. This is presented in Table 3.

#### 4.1.5 School of Respondents

**Table 4: School of Respondents**

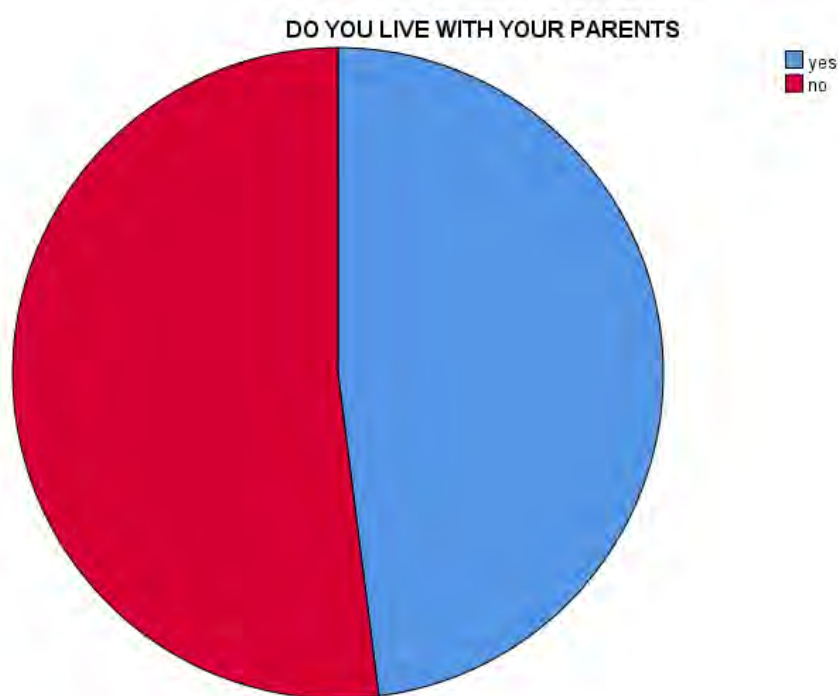
<b>Name of School</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
ST John Integrated SHS	11	22
Tono JHS	13	26
Bonia Basic School	14	28
Wuru primary	12	24
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study revealed that 11 representing 22% of the respondents attend ST John Integrated Senior High School, 13 representing 26% of the respondents attend Tono Junior High School, 14 representing 28% of the respondents attend Bonia Basic School and 12 representing 24% of the respondents attend Wuru primary School. The details are presented in Table 4.

#### 4.1.6 Do you live with your parents?

The study was conducted to find out whether respondents still live with their parents. The study revealed that out of 50 respondents, 24 representing 48% of the respondents live with their parents whiles 26 representing 52% of the respondents said they do not live with their parents. They either live with their relatives or different people. This is illustrated under figure 2.

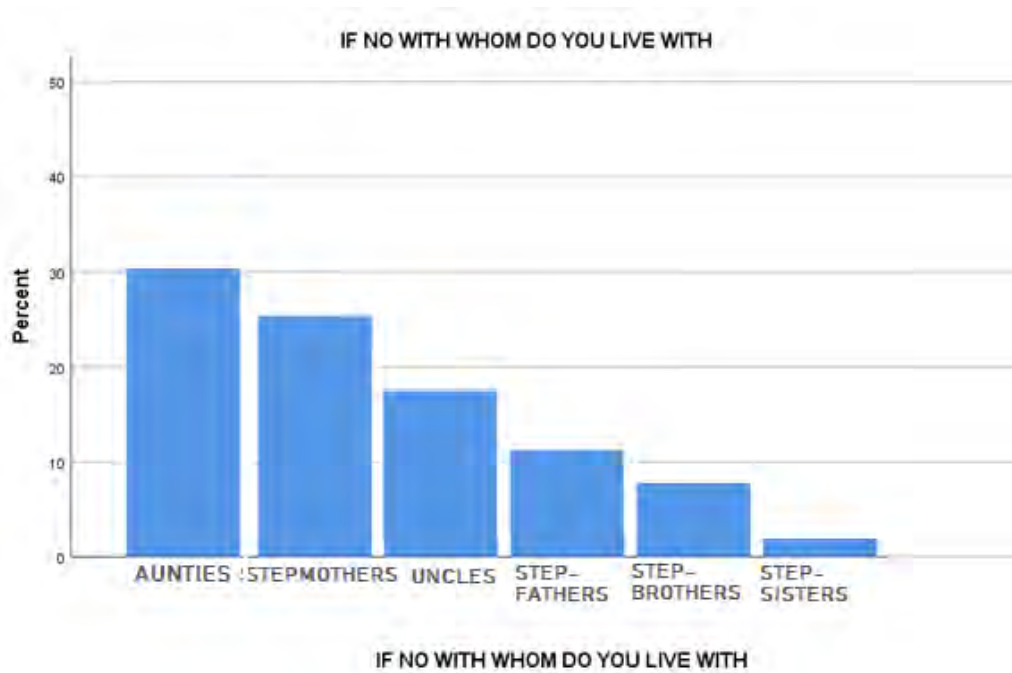


**Figure 2: Do you live with your parents**

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

#### **4.1.7 If no, with whom do you live with**

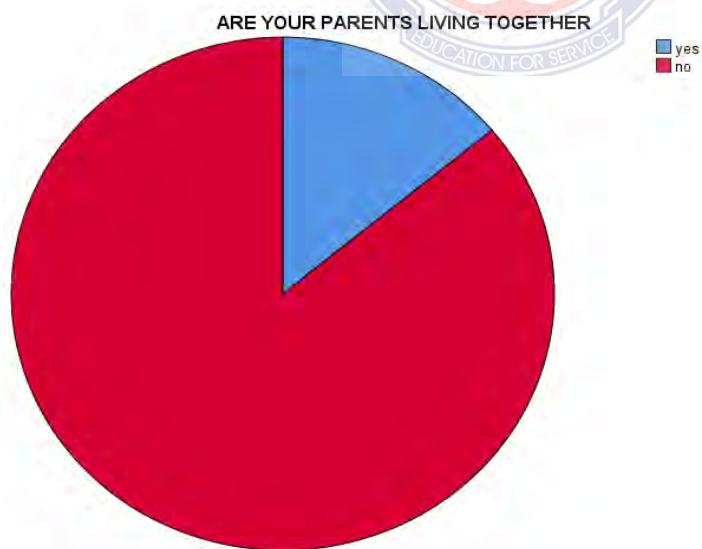
The study was conducted to find out from respondents if no, with whom they live with. It was revealed that out of 26 respondents, 8 representing 30.8% of the respondents who are in majority said they live with their aunties, 7 representing 26.9% of the respondents said they live with their step mothers, 5 representing 19.2% of the respondents live with their uncles, 3 representing 11.5% of the respondents said they live with their stepfathers, 2 representing 7.7% of the respondents live with step brothers and 1 representing 3.8% of the respondents live with her stepsister.



**Figure 3: If no, with whom do you live with**

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

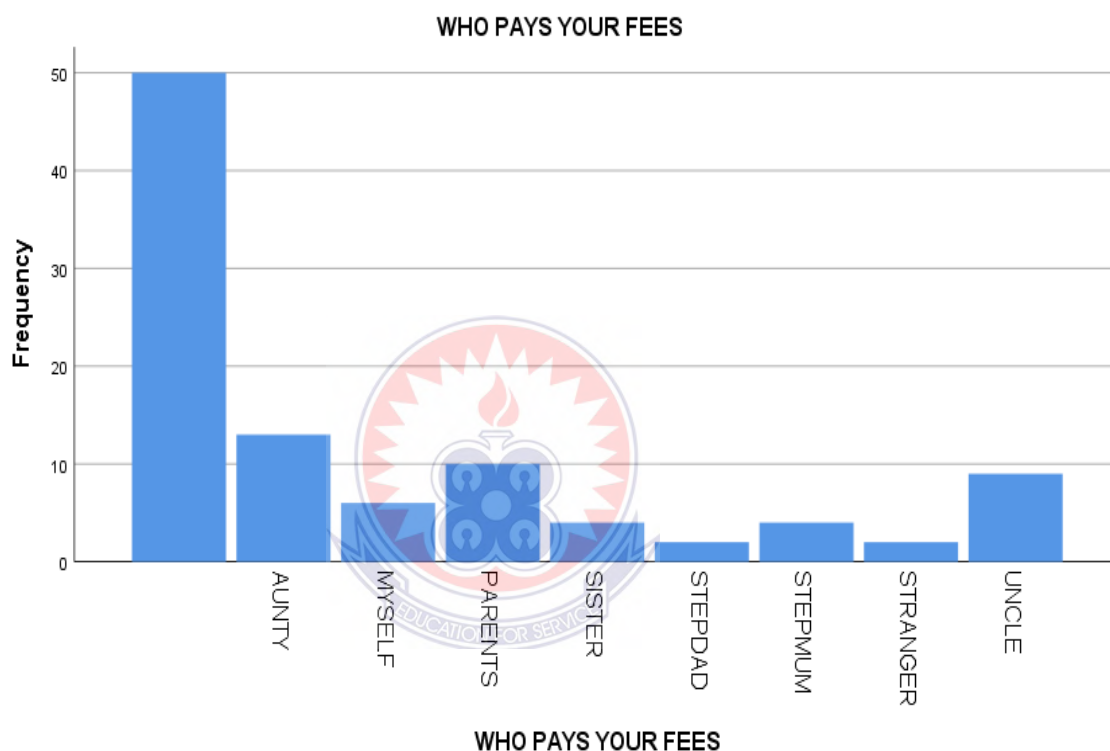
#### 4.1.7.1 Are your parents living together?



**Figure 4: Are your parents living together**

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out from respondents whether their parents are living together. It was revealed that 43 representing 86% of the respondents said their parents are not living together, due to divorce, residential arrangement in marriage, issue of work of partners and so on, while 7 representing 14% of the respondent's family are living together. Parents not living together has resulted in increase in child labour and its effects on children academic life. This is illustrated in figure 4 below.



**Figure 5: Who pays your fees**

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out from respondents who pay their fees. Out of 50 respondents used in this study, 13 representing 26% of the respondents said their aunt pays their fees, 10 representing 20% of the respondents said their parents pay their fees, 9 representing 18% of the respondents said their fees are paid by their uncles 6 representing 12% of the respondents pay the fees by themselves, 4 representing 8% of the respondents fees are paid by their sisters, 4 representing 8% of

the respondents fees are paid by their stepmothers, 2 representing 4% of the respondents fees are paid by their stepfathers and 2 representing 4% of the respondents said their fees are paid by brothers.

The details can be found in figure 5 below:

#### 4.2.1 What do your parents do for living

**Table 5: What do your parents do for living**

<b>What do your parents do for living</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Farming	34	68
Teaching	3	6
Trading	13	26
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out from respondents what their parents do for a living. It was revealed that 34 representing 68% of the respondents' parents are into farming, 13 representing 26% are into trading while 3 representing 6% of the respondent's parents are into teaching. The details are presented in figure 5 above.

#### 4.2.2 Why are you selling along the streets/farming for money

The study was conducted to find out from respondents on why they are selling along the streets or farming. Out of 50 respondents used for the study, all the respondents 50 representing 100% said they sell along the street and do farming activities for money. They are into selling along the streets and farming because that is the only means to fend for themselves.

### 4.2.3 Who asks you to sell or do farming activities

**Table 6: Who asks you to sell**

<b>Who asks you to sell or farm</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Aunties	15	30
Parents	5	10
Sister	4	8
Stepfathers	3	6
Stepmothers	10	20
Uncles	13	26
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study revealed that 15 representing 30% of the respondents are into selling because their aunties told them to sell, 13 representing 26% of the respondents are into farming activities because of their uncles asked them to do so, 10 representing 20% of the respondents said their stepmothers engaged them in selling, 5 representing 10% of the respondents said their parents told them to sell, 4 representing 8% of the respondents said their sister made them to sell or farm and 3 representing 6% of the respondents said their stepfathers made them to farm. This information is presented in table 6 above.

### 4.2.4 Do you enjoy working for money

The study was conducted to find out from respondents whether they enjoy working for money or was is because they were asked to do so. The findings revealed that 7 representing 14% of the respondents said they enjoy working for money. To them, they think everyone needs money so working legally to get money is very important because they are able to buy their basic needs. While 43 representing 86% of the



respondents said they do not enjoy working for money. To them, they think they are too young to engage in work. This is illustrated under figure 6 below.

#### 4.2.5 What do you use the money for?



**Figure 6: Do you enjoy working for money?**

**Researcher's field survey January 2022**

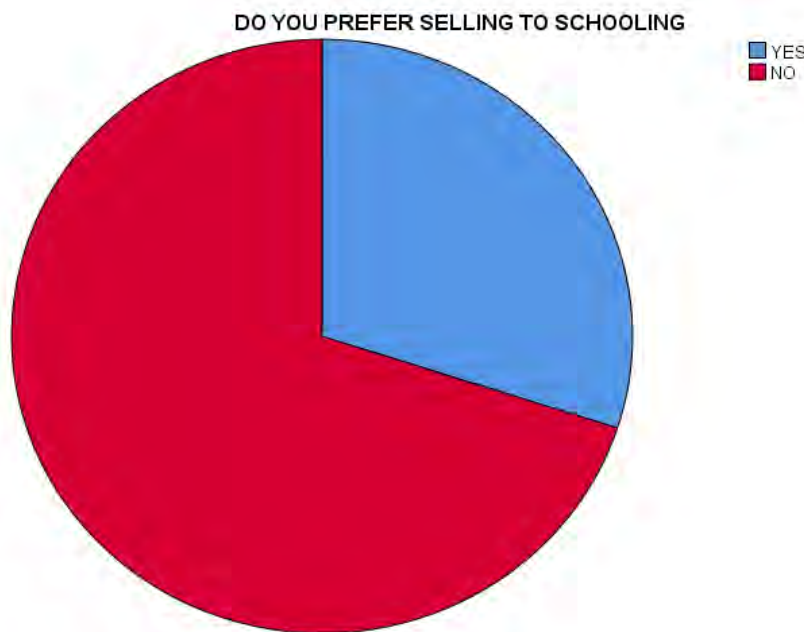
The study was conducted to find out from respondents what they use the money for. It was revealed that 30 representing 60% of the respondents use the money for their upkeep while 20 representing 40% of the respondents use the money to pay fees. This information is presented in table 7 below:

**Table 7: What do you use the money for?**

What do you use the money for	Frequency	Percentage
Upkeep	30	60
Fees	20	40
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

#### 4.2.6 Do you prefer selling or farming to schooling



**Figure 7: Do you prefer selling to schooling**

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out from respondents whether they prefer selling or farming to schooling. Out of 50 respondents used for the study, 15 representing 30% of the respondents said they prefer selling or farming to schooling because they are able to make money out of that. While 35 representing 70% of the respondents said they do not prefer selling or farming to schooling because education is the key to success. This is presented in the figure 6 above.

#### 4.2.7 If yes why?

The study was conducted to find out from respondents why they prefer selling or farming to school and the reason why they engage in selling or farming. All the 15 respondents, representing 100% said they prefer selling to schooling because of money. To them, they have no money to pay fees and their upkeep and the only means to get money is to sell or farming activities.

#### 4.2.8 Do you sell or farm during school hours?

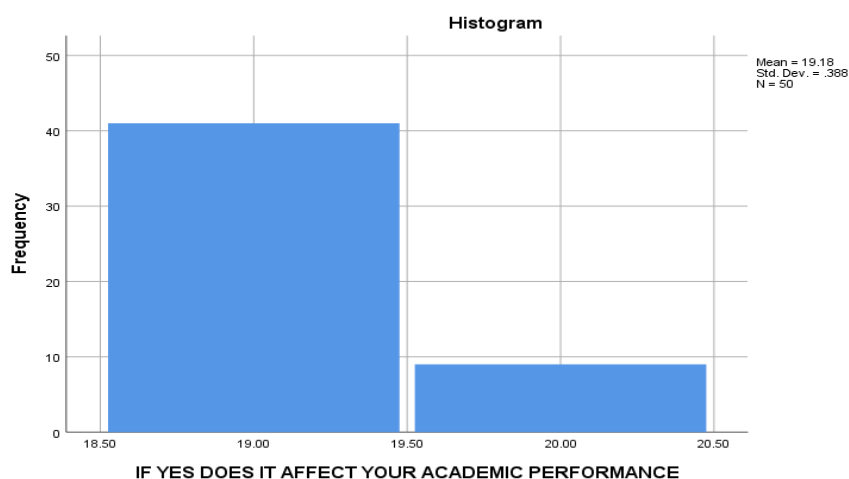
**Table 8: Do you sell/farm during school hours?**

Do you sell/farm during school hours	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	27	54
No	23	46
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted on a total of 50 children to find out from them whether they sell or farm during school hours. It was revealed that 27 representing 54% of the respondents said they sell or farm during school hours for about five hours. Some said they are forced to sell or farm during school hours. Others believe that the only means to earn money for upkeep is to engage in farming or selling during school hours. While 23 representing 46% of the respondents said they do not sell or farm during school hours. This information is presented in table 8 below

#### 4.3 If yes, how does it affect your academic performance?



**Figure 8: If yes, does it affect your academic performance**

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out from respondents whether selling or farming during school hours affect their academic performance. The study revealed that out of 50 respondents used for the study 41 representing 82% of the respondents said it affects their academic performance because they have been performing poorly in school. Whiles 9 representing 18% of the respondents said it has not affected their academic performance despite selling or farming during school hours, they still perform well base on their report cards. This is illustrated in diagram 7 below

#### 4.3 What do you want to do in future or after school?

**Table 9: What do you want to do in future or after school?**

What do you want to do in future	Frequency	Percentage
Engineer	5	10
Doctor	10	20
Nurse	20	40
Teacher	2	4
Accountant	13	26
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study revealed that 10 representing 20% of the respondents said they wanted to become doctors in future or after school, 5 representing 10% of the respondents said they wanted to become engineers in future, 20 representing 40% of the respondents said they wanted to become nurses in future or after school, 13 representing 26% of the respondents said they wanted to become accountants in future or after school and 2 representing 4% of the respondents said they wanted to become teachers. This is illustrated under table 9.

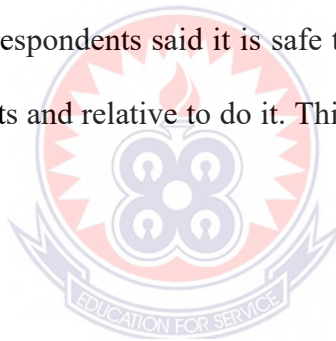
#### 4.3.1 Is it safe for you to do this work?

**Table 10: Is it safe for you to do this work?**

<b>Is it safe for you to do this work?</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Yes	10	20
No	40	80
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out from the respondents whether it is safe for them to do this work. Out of 50 respondents used for the study, 40 representing 80% of the respondents said it is not safe to do this work because it does not help them to perform well in terms of academics and sometimes their lives are also in danger. While 10 representing 20% of the respondents said it is safe to do this work because they have been asked by their parents and relative to do it. This information is presented in table 10.



## SECTION B

### Responses of Parents

These are the parents of the children who answered the questionnaires.

#### 4.3.2 How many children do you have

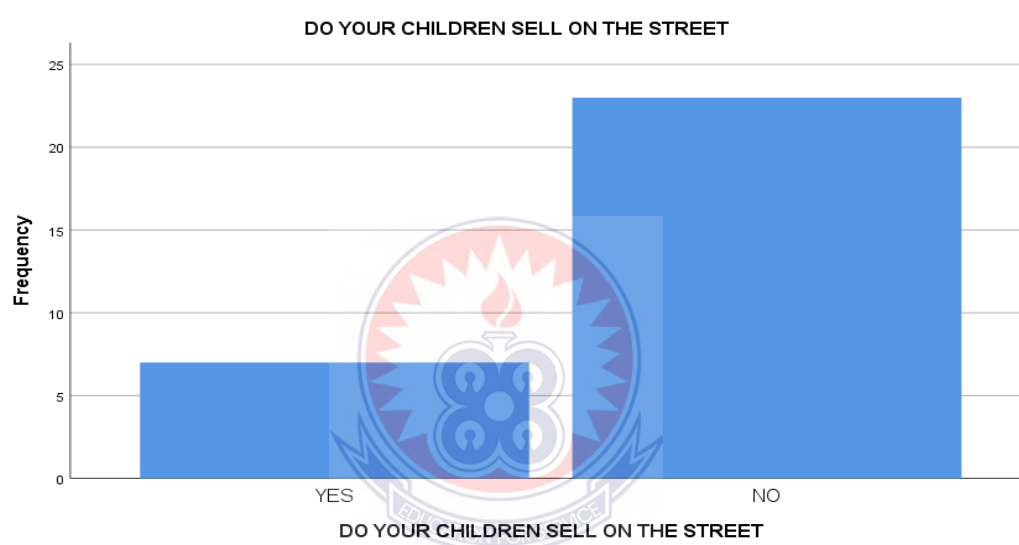
**Table 11: How many children do you have?**

<b>How many children do you have</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
1	5	17
2-3	10	33
4-5	8	27
6-8	5	17
8 and above	2	6
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out from 30 parents the number of children they have. It was revealed that majority of the respondents 10 representing 33% of the respondents have (2-3) children, 5 representing 17% of the respondents have (1) child, 5 representing 17% of the respondents have (4-5) children, 8 representing 27% of the respondents have (6-8) children and 2 representing 6% of the respondents have (8) children and above. The information is illustrated in Table 12 below

#### 4.4 Do your children sell on the street?



**Figure 9: Do your children sell on the street?**

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out from respondents whether their children sell on the streets. It was revealed that 23 representing 77% of the respondents said their children do not sell on the streets while 7 representing 23% of the respondents said their children sell on the streets. This is because they do not have money so their children sell to support them. This is illustrated in figure 8 below

#### 4.4.1 Do your children farm for people?

**Table 12: Do your children farm for people**

<b>Do your children farm for people</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
No	3	10
Yes	27	90
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out from respondents whether their children farm for people. Out of 30 respondents used for the study 27 representing 90% of the respondents said their children farm for people while 3 representing 10% of the respondents said their children do not farm for people. This is illustrated in table 13

#### 4.4.2 Why do you engage them in selling and farming?

The study was conducted to find out from respondents why they engage their children in selling and farming, it was revealed that 27 of the respondents representing 90% of the respondents said they engage their children in selling and farming because of money or poverty. To them, they do not have the money to cater for all their children so they engage the children in selling and farming to help support the family, while the remaining 3 representing 10% said they do not.

#### 4.4.3 How many are engaged in labour for money?

**Table 13: How many are engaged in labour for money?**

<b>How many are engaged in labour</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
1	6	20
2 or more	24	80
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out from respondents how many people are engaged in labour for money. From the study, it was revealed that 6 representing 20% of the respondents said they have engaged one child in labour for money and 24 representing 80% of the respondents said they have engaged 2 or more children in labour for money. This is presented in table 14 above

#### 4.4.4 What effect does it bring to the child after engaging in work?

The study revealed that out of 30 respondents used for the study 20 representing 67% said it disrupts their academic performance and make them fail in life, 6 representing 20% of the respondents said it reduces their health conditions making them prone to sickness and 4 representing 13% of the respondents said it does not bring them any effect but rather strengthens them to make it in life.

#### 4.5 What do you think can be done to stop children who engage in work during school hours?

**Table 14: What do you think can be done to stop children who engage in work during school hours?**

<b>What do you think can be done to stop children? Who engage in work during school hours?</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Education	10	33
Advise	8	27
Punished	6	20
Arrested	6	20
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

This question was asked to find out from respondents what can be done to stop children who engage in work during school hours. 10 representing 33% of the

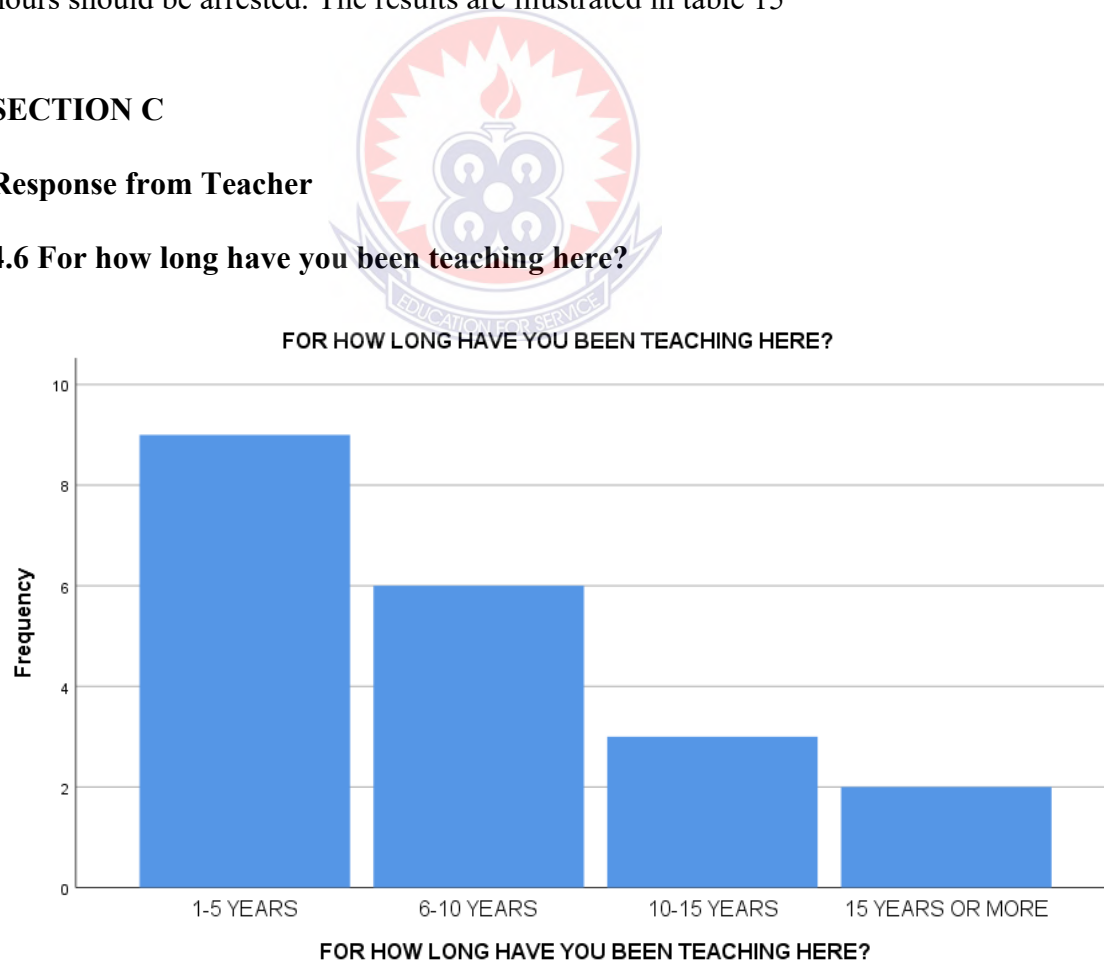


respondents said children parents who engage them in too much work, should be supported with soft loans by the government for their various activities and with this it will go a long way to reduce the rate at which children work to the detriment of go to school, 8 representing 27% of the respondents' said children who engage in work during school hours should be advised to desist from it by authorities of Social Welfare, National Commission for Civic Education the likes, 6 representing 20% of the respondents' said children who engage in work during school hours should be punished by Ghana Education Service and that of the Courts of the land. To them their relatives or people they stay together with should also be punished and 6 representing 20% of the respondents' said children who engage in work during school hours should be arrested. The results are illustrated in table 15

## SECTION C

### Response from Teacher

#### 4.6 For how long have you been teaching here?



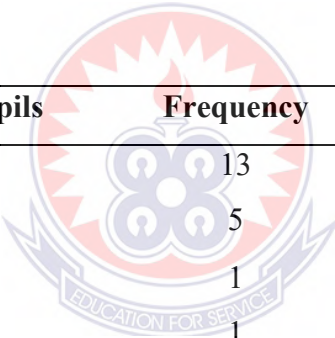
**Figure 10: For how long have you been teaching here?**

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was conducted to find out from respondents how long they have been teaching. Out of 20 respondents (teachers) who were involved in the study, 9 representing 45% of the respondents who are in majority said they have been teaching for 1-5 years, 6 representing 30% of the respondents said they have been teaching for 6-10 years, 3 representing 15% of the respondents said they have been teaching for 10-15 years and 2 representing 10% of the respondents have been teaching for 15 years or more. This information is shown in figure 9 below.

#### 4.5.1 What was the minimum number of pupils in your class at the beginning of the semester?

**Table 15: What is the minimum number of pupils in your class at the end of the semester?**



Minimum number of Pupils	Frequency	Percentage
10-21	13	65
21-30	5	25
31-40	1	1
41-50	1	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was carried out to determine the minimum number of pupils in a class at the beginning of the semester. The finding revealed that 13 representing 65% of the respondents said (10-21) pupils are present in the beginning of the semester, 5 representing 25% of the respondents said (21-30) students are present at the beginning of the semester, 1 representing 5% of the respondents said (31-40) students are present at the beginning of the semester and 1 representing 5% of the respondents said (41-50) students are the minimum number of students that are present in their class at the beginning of the semester. This information is shown in Table 17 below.

**4.5.1: What is the maximum number of pupils in your class at the beginning of the semester?**

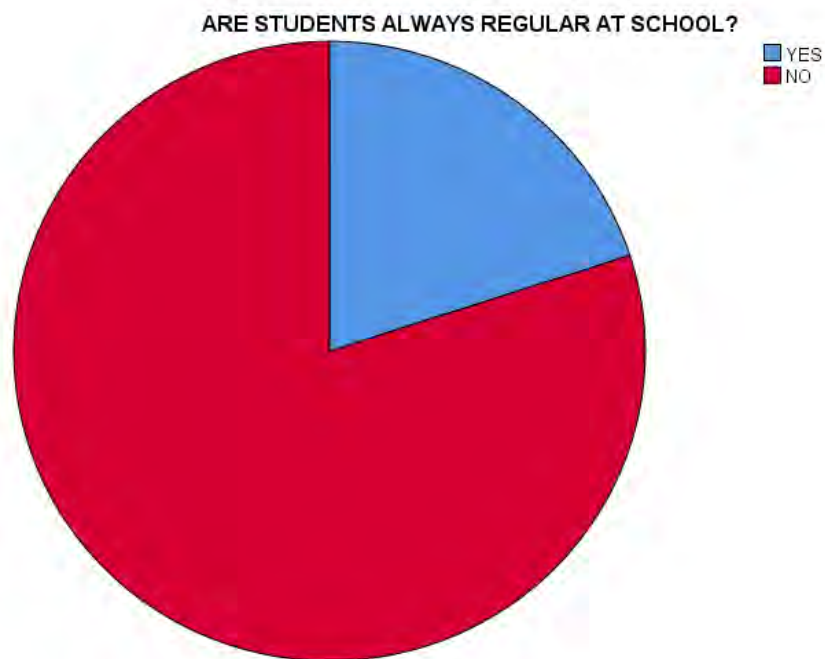
**Table 16: What is the maximum number of pupils in your class at the end of the semester?**

<b>Maximum number of Pupils</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
10-21	2	10
21-30	3	15
31-40	10	50
41-50	5	25
<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The study was carried out to determine the maximum number of pupils in a class at the end of the semester. The findings revealed that 2 representing 10% of the respondents said (10-21) pupils are the maximum number of students that are present at the end of the semester, 3 representing 15% of the respondents said (21-30) students are present at the end of the semester, 10 representing 50% of the respondents said (31-40) students is the maximum number of students that are present at the end of the semester and 5 representing 25% of the respondents said (41-50) students are the maximum number of students present at the end of the semester. This information is best shown under Table 18.

#### 4.5.3 Are students always regular at school



**Figure 11: Are students always regular at school?**

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The survey was carried out to find out from respondents whether students are always regular at school. The survey revealed that 4, representing 20% of the respondents said their students are always regular in school while 16 representing 80% of the respondents said their students are not always regular at school. This is because these students either engage in selling or farming. They are always absent from school. Their reason is that, they make money to support their families and also buy some basic needs. The details are presented in figure 10 below.

#### 4.5.4 What is the general performance of students who are punctual at school

**Table 17: What is the general performance of students who are punctual at school?**

General performance of students who are punctual	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent	3	15
Very Good	10	50
Good	6	30
Bad	1	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The survey was conducted to find out the general performance of students who are punctual at school. The survey revealed that, 3 representing 15% of the respondents are excellent, 10 representing 50% of the respondents are very good, 6 representing 30% of the respondents' said students who are always punctual at school are good and 1 representing 5% of the respondents chose bad. The details are presented in the table above.

#### 4.6 What is the general performance of students who are not punctual at school?

**Table 20: What is the general performance of students who are not punctual at school?**

General performance of students who are punctual	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent	0	0
Very Good	1	5
Good	2	10
Bad	17	85
<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>

*Researcher's field survey January (2022)*

The survey was conducted to find out the general performance of students who are not punctual at school. The survey revealed that, 1 teacher representing 5% of the respondents said the students are very good, 2 representing 10% of the respondents' said students who are always punctual at school are good and 17 representing 85% of the respondents chose bad. The details are presented in the table above.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY OF FINDING, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.0 Introduction

This study sought to examine Child labour and its effects on child education in Bonia community in the Kassena Nankana Municipality. The target population of the study is 100 participants which included school pupils, parents and teachers. Simple random sampling technique was used to select respondents. Also, the study involved primary sources of data. For primary data, questionnaires were employed. Data from questionnaires were coded into specific categories, and thus statistical analysis of events and simple statistics such as frequencies and percentages were employed to summarize the data.

#### 5.2 Summary of the Findings

##### 5.2.1 Causes of child labour in Bonia community

The study was carried out to find the causes of child labour in Bonia community in the Kasena/ Nankana Municipality. The study revealed that parents who come from poor family background involve their children in child labour as the means to make a living. It was also revealed that children whose parents are no longer staying together or children who are living with people other than their relatives are mostly engaged in child labour. During the study most of the respondents said they engage in either selling or farming to pay for their school fees and also buy basic needs. Some respondents (children) said they are being forced to sell or farm during school hours as it has always been against their wish to do so.

### **5.2.2 Effect of child labour on students' educational performance**

The study also revealed that child labour impacts negatively on students' academic performance because it was revealed that students who are always punctual at school perform better than students who are not punctual at school. Majority of the respondents (85%) said students who are not punctual in school generally put up poor academic performance whilst students who are punctual in school have excellent or very good academic performance. Most of the respondents said they aspire to become engineers, doctors, teachers, accountants and nurses in future.

### **5.2.3 Governmental and non-governmental interventions to minimise the incidence of child labour in the Kasena/Nankana municipality?**

The study revealed that, some parents, teachers and student suggested that, the remedies to minimise the incidence of child labour was to educate parents and students on the negative impact of child labour on students' academic performance. Also, parents who engage their children into child labour should be arrested and punished. Government and non-governmental institutions should support the needy children and parents. Free compulsory basic and senior high school education should be established in all sectors of the economy. Rewards should be given to children who are always punctual in school.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

The study concludes that the practice of child labour has negative effects on students' academic performance and future. Parents and relatives of these children should be advised to desist from engaging children in child labour.



## **5.4 Recommendations**

### **i. Establishment of free Compulsory Basic and Senior High School Education**

Government and non-governmental institutions should enforce the already established Compulsory Basic and Senior High School Education to help admit the needy and poor students since most of the respondents said they are either selling or farming during school hours to pay their school fees and also buy basic needs. This will help reduce the rampant incidence of child labour and its effects on students' academic performance.

### **ii. Effective education against child labour**

There should be effective education by National Commission on Civic Education on the negative impact of child labour on students' academic performance. Advertisement campaigns should be launched against child labour by National Commission on Civic Education and that of Ghana Education Service. This will help reduce or prevent child labour.

### **iii. Punishment should be for parents and relatives that engage children into child labour**

Parents or relatives who engage children in child labour should be arrested and punished to serve as a deterrent to others by Social Welfare, Commission on Human Right and Administrative Justice and that of the court.

### **iv. Creation of jobs**

Government should create or establish jobs for the poor and needy people to help make money to cater for their children. If parents or relatives are gainfully employed, they will be able to cater for their children.

### **5.5 Limitations of the Research**

As it has always been with most academic activities, this research is not without limitations. Some of the limitations encountered during the entire research period are outlined below.

The study was limited to Bonia community in the Kasena/Nankana Municipality in the Upper East Region only and this could affect the generalizations of the findings.

Also, respondents in these communities felt reluctant to give out data since filling of questionnaire was considered to be time wasting in the study area. The researcher could not even cover more respondents in the study area hence sample sizes were considered for the study.



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## APPENDIX

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

Dear Respondents,

This research is an academic exercise and it intends to assess the child labour and its effect on child education in partial fulfilment of an M.Ed. Social Studies Education at university of education, Winneba. Your responses are valuable to the success of this study and are based on your experience. Kindly be reminded that your responses will be guarded with outmost confidentiality and will be used only for the purposes of this study. This study relies on your response. In most case tick [ $\checkmark$ ] where applicable. Thank you for anticipated interest to partake in this research.

#### Section A

I am a student of Social Studies Education from the above university, researching into child labour and its effects on child education in Bonia Community in the Kasena/Nankana

Municipality. You are assured that all responses will be treated as confidential as possible. It will therefore be appreciated if you give sincere and honest responses.

#### A. Personal Data

Please tick ( $\checkmark$ ) where appropriate

1. Please indicate your sex

Male ( )

Female ( )

2. Age:

05 – 10 ( )

11 – 15 ( )

16 – 20 ( )

- Above 20 ( )
3. Nationality
- Ghanaian ( )
- Non-Ghanaian ( )
4. Class of student.....
5. Name of school you attend.....
6. Do you live with your parents? Yes [ ] No [ ]
7. If NO with whom do you live with.....
9. Are your parents living together? Yes [ ] No [ ]
10. Who pays your school fees/ school bills?.....
11. What do your parents do for a living?.....
12. Why are you selling along the street/ farming for money?.....
13. Who ask you to sell?.....
14. Do you prefer selling to schooling? Yes [ ] No [ ]
15. If Yes why?.....
16. Do you sell/ farm during school hours? Yes [ ] No [ ]
17. If yes does it affect your performance in class?.....
18. What do you want to do in the future or after school?.....

## APPENDIX B

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARENTS

I am a student of Social Studies Education from the above university, researching into child labour and its effects on child education in Bonia Community in the Kasena/Nankana

Municipality. You are assured that all responses will be treated as confidential as possible. It will therefore be appreciated if you give sincere and honest responses.

#### **B. Personal Data**

Please tick (✓) where appropriate. Where you have to write please do so legibly.

1. Please indicate your sex

Male ( )

Female ( )

2. How many children do you have?.....

3. Do your children sell on the street?.....

4. Do they farm for people, as helping hand or do any other work?.....

Please specify.....

5. Why do you engage them in selling and farming?.....

6. How many are engaged in labour for money?.....

7. What do you think can be done to stop children who engage in work during school

hours?.....

.

## APPENDIX C

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

I am a student of Social Studies Education from the above university, researching into child labour and its effects on child education in Bonia Community in the Kasena/Nankana

Municipality. You are assured that all responses will be treated as confidential as possible. It will therefore be appreciated if you give sincere and honest responses.

#### C. Personal Data

Please tick (✓) where appropriate. Where you have to write please do so legibly.

1. Please indicate your sex

Male ( )

Female ( )

2. For how long have you been teaching here?.....

3. What is the minimum number of pupils in your class at the beginning of the semester?.....

4. What is the maximum number of pupils in your class at the end of the semester?.....

5. Are students always regular at school? Yes [ ] No [ ]

6. What is the general performance of regular students? .....

7. What is the general performance of non-regular students?.....