

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

**CHILD LABOUR AMONG PUBLIC JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS IN
THE TECHIMAN MUNICIPALITY IN THE BRONG AHAFO REGION
OF GHANA**

LILY ADDAI-ACHEAMPONG

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THE TECHIMAN MUNICIPALITY IN THE BRONG AHAFO REGION OF
GHANA

BY

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DEVELOPMENT

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is a result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Lily Addai- Acheampong

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Professor C.K. Brown

ABSTRACT

The study set out to examine child labour among public Junior High School pupils in the Techiman Municipality in the Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana. It covered 60 respondents selected through purposive and simple random sampling techniques. The main data collection techniques were questionnaire and interview. The data was processed, using the Statistical Product for Service Solutions (SPSS).

Majority of the pupils used for the study were engaged in hawking in the municipality. Poverty was mentioned as the major factor accounting for child labour in the Techiman Municipality. It was also revealed that the extent of child labour among public JHS pupils in the municipality was very high, and this has affected the academic performance of the pupils. Furthermore, majority of the respondents indicated that it was possible to address the problem of child labour in the municipality.

Parents recommended that government and civil society should support parents with finances in the form of loans, jobs and other employment opportunities. The pupils recommended that government should support pupils with books and uniforms; expand the school-feeding programme to all basic schools and to cover public JHS pupils; and enforce the laws on child labour. The teachers recommended that government and civil society should sensitise parents and guardians on the importance of education and the need to be more responsible for the upkeep of their wards and to stop child labour.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my dearest husband; Mr. Ernest Bempong, my parents; Mr. Anthony Felix Acheampong and Dr. Mrs. Lucy Acheampong and all loved ones.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Content	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
Background to the study	1
Statement of the problem	6
Objectives of the study	8
Research questions	8
Scope of the study	9
Significance of the study	9
Limitations of the study	10
Operational definition of concepts	10
Organisation of the study	10
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	
Introduction	12
The concept of a child	12

The concept of childhood	13
The definition and scope of child labour	14
Child labour versus child work controversy	16
Causes of child labour	18
Consequences of child labour	24
Child labour policies	25
The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child	25
International Labour Organisation Convention on Minimum Age	27
International Labour Organisation Convention on the Worst forms of Child Labour	28
Millennium Development Goals	30
Education and child labour	32
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	
Introduction	36
Research design	36
Study area	37
Study population	39
Sampling procedures	39
Sources of data	41
Instrumentation	41
Pretest	42
Fieldwork	42

Data processing and analysis	43
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	
Introduction	44
Characteristics of respondents	44
Kinds of work pupils engage in	51
Factors accounting for child labour	53
Extent of child labour among public Junior High School pupils in the Techiman Municipality	54
Effects of child labour on the development of public Junior High School pupils in the municipality	55
Measures in dealing with child labour among public Junior High School pupils in the Techiman Municipality	57
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
Introduction	61
Summary	61
Conclusions	63
Recommendations	65
REFERENCES	66
APPENDICES	
1. Questionnaire for teachers	71
2. Interview schedule for parents	75
3. Interview schedule for public Junior High School pupils	79

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1: Sampling distribution of respondents	40
2: Age - sex distribution of pupils	45
3: Age - sex distribution of parents	46
4: Distribution of teachers by sex and qualification	47
5: Distribution of parents by sex and educational status	48
6: Distribution of parents by occupation and sex	50
7: Views of pupils on the kinds of work they engage in	52
8: Factors accounting for child labour	54
9: Extent of child labour among public Junior High School pupils in the Techiman Municipality	55
10: Effects of child labour on the development of public Junior High School pupils	56
11: Suggestions by parents on how government and civil society should combat child labour	59
12: Suggestions by pupils on how government and civil society should combat child labour	60

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1: Map of Techiman municipality	38
2: Marital status of parents	49
3: Parents' views on the kinds of work pupils engage in	53
4: Suggestions by teachers on how government and civil society should combat child labour	58

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CRC	-	Convention on the Rights of the Child
GLSS	-	Ghana Living Standards Survey
GSS	-	Ghana Statistical Service
HND	-	Higher National Diploma
ILO	-	International Labour Organisation
JHS	-	Junior High School
MDGs	-	Millennium Development Goals
SPSS	-	Statistical Product for Service Solutions
SSA	-	Sub- Saharan Africa
UN	-	United Nations
UNDP	-	United Nations Development Programme

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

Child labour is an important aspect of social and economic reality that surrounds us, even though it is sometimes overlooked. Many people, organisations and economies all over the world are concerned about child labour. The main concern is basically the kind of work children are doing, some of which is dangerous, and may cause physical or psychological damage or may even threaten the child's life. Most affected are often the rural areas where there is little success in the enforcement of minimum age requirements for schooling and work. Children are engaged in child labour for a variety of reasons, among which are poverty, lack of education and cultural or traditional beliefs.

International conventions and recommendations upon which different definitions of child labour are based have long been put in place, and many countries have in fact ratified them. These standards on child labour provide a normative system, which will help us distinguish between child labour, which must be targeted for elimination, and acceptable work activities for children (ILO, 2004).

Children do a variety of work in widely divergent conditions, and this takes place along a continuum. The continuum is characterized by two opposing ends. At one end of the continuum, children are engaged in work that is beneficial

to their mental, physical, spiritual, moral and social development without interfering with their schooling, recreation and rest. At the other end of the continuum, children engage in work which is exploitative and life-threatening. While most definitions of child labour aim at distinguishing between beneficial and intolerable work, it is important to realise that much child labour falls into the grey area between these two extremes (UNICEF, 1997).

Education plays a very important role in the intellectual development of a child, and, under normal circumstances, a school and not a work place is exactly where a child should be. However, quite often, one might find children of school-going age engaged in work, and sometimes the type of work is dangerous or the circumstances under which they work could be dangerous. UNICEF (1998) reports that there was about 130 million primary school-age children in developing countries who did not attend school out of a total of about 625 million children of this age-group in these countries.

According to ILO (2004), international conventions on child labour include: the Minimum Age Convention (No. 138) of 1973, the Minimum Age Recommendation (No. 146) of 1973, the Worst Forms of Child Labour convention (No. 182) of 1999, the Worst Forms of Child Labour Recommendation (No. 190) of 1999, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child of 1990. Ideally all ratifying countries need to apply these conventions and recommendations as part of their respective national law, so as to define and deal with child labour. However, it is clear that not only do countries have different

minimum age restrictions, but also have varying regulations based on the type of labour. This, therefore, makes the limits of child labour very ambiguous.

Nkurlu (2000) states that the United Nations defines child labour as all forms of economic exploitation of a child or, any work that is likely to be hazardous or interfere with the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development. Countries of the world are at different stages of socio-economic development. The various international conventions and recommendations regarding child employment and children's rights make different provisions to enable countries define child labour according to their own domestic circumstances. This may well be one of the major impediments to international comparison of child labour statistics. However, in recent decades, the focus of the study and elimination of child labour has shifted towards hazardous and unconditional worst forms of child labour (O'Donnell, Van, & Rosati, 2002).

According to UNICEF (1998), the majority of out-of-school children are likely to be working. Work prevents many children from gaining or benefiting from education. Equally to blame is the state of the education system which fails to take into account the special circumstances of working children. In order to attract working children and out-of-school working children back to school, education must be structured to fit the specific needs of working children, their families and communities.

Education is a major tool used to fight child labour as it offers an alternative to the child. It is important to note that if children do not go to school it may be difficult to prevent them from participating in child labour as there are

very few alternatives. In the same vein, education affects the national life through several means. One of such means is the change in attitudes, values and perceptions. It is an undeniable fact that a better educated person absorbs new ideas and information faster and applies unfamiliar inputs and new processes more effectively. He or she is receptive to new ideas and processes and is able to apply these to specific circumstances and environments.

It is in the wake of this immense contribution of education to the overall development of Ghana that a chunk of her resources is channeled towards the expansion and maintenance of its school system. Over the past decade, about 40% of each year's entire government expenditure is earmarked for education. The rationale for this huge government expenditure comes from the backdrop that investment in formal education is an important way to develop human capital, reduce poverty and increase social mobility among the citizenry. While human beings are intrinsically different from material resources, such as timber, crops and factories, they are nonetheless a natural resource that needs to be properly and compassionately exploited. As with few other natural resources, human capacity grows and reaches perfection through enlightened employment.

In recent times, however, the more quantitative expansion of education is not enough guarantee for development. Instead, educational development which takes the qualitative and quantitative relationships into consideration produces better results than mere quantitative growth. Thus, both developing and developed nations have been very much concerned about the quality of their educational systems. In Ghana, it was observed that the period before 1987

registered a phenomenal decline in the quality of education, especially at the basic level. The reasons advanced for the decline included: insufficient supply of trained qualified teachers; inadequate funding of the educational sector; lack of adequate supply of furniture; and deterioration of school buildings (Heady, 2000). The ultimate effect of all these deficiencies was poor quality of teaching and learning and poor patronage of the school system by children of school-going age. Thus, the government of Ghana introduced the 1987 Educational Reform in order to improve the quality of education.

The implementation of the educational reforms in Ghana was seen as a mechanism for drastic improvement in the quality of education in terms of learning outcomes and pupils' mastery of the subject matter. Nonetheless, observers of the dynamics in basic education in the country express concern about the continuous decline in the quality of education, measured in terms of learning outcomes or academic performance.

Many factors could be assigned to the deteriorating academic performance of pupils over the years. One such factor that has gained notoriety in recent times, but which is sometimes ignored, is the re-emergence of children in the world of work, popularly known as child labour. In Ghana, although the problem of child labour is pervasive, it was not publicly acknowledged until recently. The reason is that traditionally and historically children in the Ghanaian society learn by helping their parents and the communities to perform social and economic functions, such as placing girls as domestic helps and boys as additional farm labour. The minimal domestic and farm works that they engage in are regarded as

being not hazardous to their health and education but rather contribute to their informal training activities (Ghana Statistical Service, 2005).

Since childhood is the time when critical investments in health and education are made, which have lasting and often irreversible effects on later life chances, any factor that will prevent children's access to their full education potential or schooling needs to be highlighted and addressed.

Statement of the problem

Myers (2001) argues that childhood should be reserved for study and play, with work consisting of light chores in the home. In Ghana, children work for a variety of reasons and the most obvious one is poverty. Children work to ensure the survival of their family and themselves. Though children are not well paid, they still serve as major contributors to family income in developing countries.

Schooling problems also contribute to child labour. Many times children seek employment simply because there is no access to schools (distance or no school at all). When there is access, the low quality of the education often makes attendance a waste of time for the pupils. Furthermore, rapid rural-urban migration is a major cause of the increasing rate of child labour in urban areas of developing countries. Families leave the severity of agricultural working conditions for cities in order to search for economic opportunities that often do not exist.

Innocent, immature and inexperienced as they are, child labourers may be completely unaware of the short and long term risks involved in their work. Child

labourers are often denied basic school education, normal social interaction, personal development and emotional support from their family. They also come in close contact with infectious cases of tuberculosis, severe malnutrition, anemia, HIV/AIDS and inadequate sleep which lower their normal immune system.

Efforts have been made by individual countries as well as international bodies such as the UNICEF and ILO to curb child labour. The Children's Act of 1998 (Act 560) of the Republic of Ghana stipulates that no person shall engage a child in exploitative labour. It says that labour is exploitative of a child if it deprives the child of its health, education or development. The Act pegged the minimum age for admission of a child in employment and engagement of a child in light work at 15 and 13 respectively.

The introduction of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE), the Capitation Grant and the School Feeding Programme is an attempt by government of Ghana to address some of the challenges in basic education. However, in the case of Techiman, which is a hub of commercial activities in West Africa, human resource development through schooling is on a shaky foundation. On market days, many Junior High School pupils could be seen all over the market selling one commodity or the other while others engage in other activities that could be harmful to their health. Therefore, this study sought to investigate child labour and educational attainment of public Junior High School pupils in the Techiman Municipality.

Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study was to assess child labour among Junior High School pupils in the Techiman Municipality in the Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana.

Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Identify the kinds of work public Junior High School pupils in Techiman Municipality engage in;
2. Determine the factors accounting for child labour in the Techiman Municipality;
3. Assess the extent of child labour among public Junior High School pupils in the municipality;
4. Assess the consequences of child labour on the development of public junior high school pupils; and
5. Identify measures that would combat child labour among public Junior High School pupils in the municipality.

Research questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What kinds of work are public school pupils in the municipality mostly engaged in?;
2. What are the factors accounting for child labour in the municipality?;
3. What is the extent of child labour among public Junior High School pupils in the municipality?; and

4. What are the consequences of child labour on the development of public Junior High School Pupils?

Scope of the study

The study was confined to only the public Junior High Schools in the Techiman Municipality. In addition, the study was restricted to child labour and educational attainment of public Junior School pupils within the Techiman Municipality.

Significance of the study

The study will be significant in the following ways.

First, it will help in understanding the reasons children engage in economic activities at the expense of schooling. This will be beneficial to parents, teachers and all who have a stake in education in the Municipality. Second, it will provide a better understanding of the policies and programmes to alleviate, if not completely eradicate, child work and plan towards a better design on educational attainment. Third, it will serve as a reliable source of data for relevant government agencies, researchers, students, institutions and organisations interested in the development and welfare of children in the Municipality.

Last, but not the least, it will provide an idea on the educational interventions that will be appropriate for the alleviation of the effects of child labour and the improvement in the educational attainment of public Junior High School pupils.

Limitations of the study

The study was undertaken in a particular geographical area. Hence, the findings of the study will be tentative and cannot be generalised. In addition, only parents whose children are engaged in child labour as well as children engaged in child labour and their teachers will constitute the participants of the study.

Operational definition of concepts

Child: A child refers to an individual whose age falls within the ages of eleven to fifteen.

Child labour: It refers to the kind of work that endangers the development of the child.

Educational attainment: It refers to the attitudes, values and skills that the child is able to attain after finishing a particular level of schooling.

Organisation of the study

The study is organised into five chapters. In the first chapter, an introduction to the study is presented on the following headings: the background to the study; statement of the problem; objectives of the study; research questions; scope of the study; significance of the study; limitations of the study; operational definition of concepts; and organisation of the study.

The second chapter reviews some of the related literature and concepts on the research topic. The areas covered under this review include: the concept of a child; the concept of childhood; the definition and scope of child labour; child

labour versus child work controversy; causes of child labour; consequences of child labour; child labour policies; the United Nations Convention on the Rights of a Child; ILO Convention on Minimum Age; ILO Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour; Millennium Development Goals; and education and child labour.

The third chapter deals with the methodology of the study. It includes: research design, study area, study population, sampling procedures, instrumentation, pretest, the fieldwork and data processing and analysis. Data from the field is analysed in Chapter Four. Chapter Five, the last chapter, deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The chapter is organized under the following headings: the concept of a child; the concept of childhood; the definition and scope of child labour; child labour versus child work controversy; causes of child labour; consequences of child labour; correlates of working children; child labour policies; the United Nations Convention on the Rights of a Child; ILO Convention on Minimum Age; ILO Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour; Millennium Development Goals; and education and child labour.

The concept of a child

The Children's Act of 1998 (Act 560) of the Republic of Ghana defines a child as "a person below the age of eighteen years". The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and ILO Convention concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour both hold a common view with regard to the definition of a child. Article 1 of the CRC says that "... a child means every human being below the age of eighteen (18) years unless under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier". ILO Convention 182

stipulates in Article 2 that: "... the term child shall apply to all persons under the age of eighteen (18)."

However, social scientists are of the view that children's abilities and maturity vary so much that defining a child's maturity by calendar age can be misleading. To them, therefore, a child is not necessarily delineated by a fixed age.

The concept of childhood

Childhood is a distinct period of life separate from adulthood. Development occurs very rapidly during this period. Human beings begin childhood almost completely dependent on an adult for every need. By the time childhood ends, most people have become mature and ready for independence. Childhood is usually the period between birth and 12 years of age. The teenage years represent a time during which young people have one foot in childhood and one foot in adulthood. It has been argued that childhood is not a natural phenomenon but a creation of society (Cunningham, 2006).

Saraga (1998) also viewed childhood as preparation for adulthood, and children in terms of their potential to become economically productive adults, which potential must be protected and nurtured. While it emphasises the need for literacy and other skills, it also values attitudes, such as initiative and entrepreneurship that help promote economic growth.

Many people have made a special study of this period. They have devoted time and efforts to finding out more about how children develop, what their

special needs are, and how those needs can be best met. Many important concepts have emerged from this kind of study. Perhaps, the most important is that childhood has a significant influence on later life. Those who study children and human development believe that every child has a right to a happy, healthy and loving childhood. To this effect, one of the first major thinkers in the area, Freud (1920) pointed to the early years of childhood as crucial for the formation of adult personality. Many psychologists have accepted this idea, and so it has become especially important to understand what happens during these formative years.

Another reason why developmentalists concentrate on the early years is that changes in childhood are highly visible and dramatic, as well as fairly uniform across individuals. Muller (1969) opines that childhood is a period of preparation which leads a being who is completely helpless at birth to a relatively integrated adulthood.

The definition and scope of child labour

Even though there is no one universally accepted definition of child labour and child work, there is consensus as to what constitutes harmful child labour. The Children's Act of 1998 (Act 560) of the Republic of Ghana stipulates that no person shall engage a child in exploitative labour. It says that labour is exploitative of a child if it deprives the child of its health, education or development. The Act pegged the minimum age for admission of a child in employment and engagement of a child in light work at 15 and 13 respectively. Light work is work that is not likely to be harmful to the health and development

of a child and does not affect the child's attendance at school or the capacity of the child to benefit from school. The Act also views hazardous work as work that poses a danger to the health, safety or morals of a person, and puts the minimum age for engagement into such activities at age 15. These activities include going to sea, mining and quarrying, portage of heavy loads, manufacturing industries where chemicals are produced and used, work in places where machines are used and work places, such as bars, hotels and places of entertainment where a person may be exposed to immoral behaviour.

In defining what constitutes the worst forms of child labour, UNICEF (1997) distinguishes between child labour and child work. Child labour constitutes all children below twelve years of age working in any economic activity, those aged twelve to fourteen years engaged in harmful work and all children engaged in the worst forms of child labour. Child work has to do with children's participation in economic activity that does not negatively affect their health and development or interfere with their education. The worst forms of child labour, however, involve children being enslaved, forcibly recruited, prostituted, trafficked, forced into illegal activities and exposed to hazardous work (UNICEF, 2004).

ILO (2004) states that extreme forms of child labour involve children being enslaved, separated from their families, exposed to serious hazards and illness and / or left to fend for themselves on the streets of large cities – often at a very early age. The ILO defines child labour as work that deprives children of

their childhood, their potential and their dignity, and that is harmful to physical and mental development. It refers to work that:

1. is mentally, physically, socially or morally dangerous and harmful to children;
2. interferes with their schooling;
 - by depriving them of the opportunity to attend school;
 - by obliging them to leave school prematurely; and
 - by requiring them to attempt to combine school attendance with excessively long and heavy work.

The ILO further adds that, whether or not particular forms of work can be called child labour depends on the age of the child, the type of work performed and the objectives pursued by individual countries. Under ILO Convention 138, work that does not interfere with education (light work) is permitted from age twelve.

Child labour versus child work controversy

The case of abandoning the term 'child labour' is strengthened by the fact that 'child labour' and 'child work', as distinct terms in English Language, are simply untranslatable into most of the world's languages. Attempts to draw a line between the two are too general, vague and circular to be of use, or if they try to be concrete and specific, are contradictory, illogical and out of line with the view of children. The term child labour itself has, over the years, become laden with

such emotional connotations and with such a long institutional history that it might be best to scrap it completely from future discussions (White, 1996)

Furthermore, any attempt to make a simple dichotomy between neutral 'work' and detrimental 'labour' – whether for children or adults – is likely to be too crude. More useful, perhaps, is to think of a continuum of child work situations, from 'worst' to 'best', from the least to the most tolerable forms of work. Such a continuum would begin at one end with 'intolerable' forms of child work- those that in any circumstances cannot be tolerated, which are not susceptible to efforts at 'humanisation' and improvement, and for which the only solution is the removal or 'rescue' of the children involved. Next are forms of child work, which in their present forms, are hazards and detrimental, but which can potentially be made safer and less harmful through efforts 'from above' (e.g. legislation) and 'from below' (e.g. popular pressure) and can potentially be combined with school. Then comes 'neutral' kinds of work which, in themselves, are neither particularly harmful, nor particularly beneficial to children. Finally, there is a category of 'positive' or 'beneficial' forms of children's work.

White (1996) further argues that this does not, of course, solve any problems in itself, but does help us to think more carefully of what makes certain kinds of work more or less problematic for children and, in turn, whether there is a feasible possibility to address and overcome those problems. Is it, for example, the physical nature of the work itself which makes it unhealthy or dangerous? Or what is forgone as a result of work – for example because of long working hours which bar children from access to (or sufficient) education, recreation and social

life? Or the work relationship which makes it exploitative? Or, as often happens, a combination of more than one of these?

According to Bequele and Myers (1995), experience shows that questions of this sort have no purely technical solution. What is important is that concrete feasible decision be made out of which child work problems require the most urgent attention and that the decisions enjoy at least a modicum of social credibility and legitimacy. Fortunately, the task of designating children at high risk usually turns out to be easier in practice than in theory.

Causes of child labour

Children are pushed into work that is often damaging to their development by three key factors. They include: the exploitation of poverty; the absence of relevant education; and restrictions of tradition (UNICEF, 1997).

Poverty drives children into hazardous labour. Yet if employers were not prepared to exploit children there would be no child labour. The parents of child labourers are often unemployed or underemployed, desperate for secure employment and income. Yet it is their children - more powerless and paid less - who are offered the jobs. In other words, children are employed because they are easier to exploit (UNICEF, 1997).

Both national and international economic developments in recent decades have served to increase inequality and poverty. During the 1980s, in many developing countries, government indebtedness, unwise internal economic policies and recession resulted in economic crisis. Structural adjustment

programmes in many countries accentuated cuts in social spending that have hit the poor disproportionately. In Zimbabwe, reports of both the Government and the International Labour Organization (ILO) have linked the explosion of child labour directly to the impact of the country's structural adjustment programme. Gradually, structural adjustment programmes have been modified in order to mitigate their effects on the vulnerable. In new agreements between governments and the international financial institutions, public expenditure on primary education and other basic social services is increasingly being protected. National policies and priorities also contribute to the problem. Cuts in social spending have hit education - the alternative to child labour - particularly hard. In the countries experiencing economic hardship in the last decade, per capita spending on education has declined significantly. In all regions, spending per student for higher education fell during the 1980s, and in Africa and Latin America, spending per pupil also fell for primary education.

Education is under-funded and in decline. But the school system in most developing countries is blighted by more than just a lack of resources. It is too often rigid and uninspiring in approach, with a curriculum that is irrelevant to and remote from children's lives. As a result, keeping children in school is proving to be even more difficult than enrolling them in the first place: 30 percent of children in developing countries who enroll in primary school do not complete it, and this figure rises to 60 percent in some countries.

Tradition and entrenched social patterns also play a part in propelling children into hazardous labour. The harder and more hazardous jobs become, the more

likely they are to be considered the province of the poor and disadvantaged, the lower classes and ethnic minorities.

UNICEF (1997) further reports that the recent surge of interest in child labour has too often been based upon four key myths that it is vital to confront. The first is that child labour is uniquely a problem of the developing world. But in fact, children routinely work in all industrialized countries, and hazardous forms of child labour can be found in many countries. In the US, for example, children are employed in agriculture, a high proportion of them from immigrant or ethnic-minority families. A 1990 survey of Mexican-American children working in the farms of New York State showed that almost half had worked in fields still wet with pesticides and over a third had themselves been sprayed.

The second myth is that child labour will never be eliminated until poverty disappears. But UNICEF (1997) says that hazardous child labour can and must be eliminated independently of poverty reduction. The climate is already changing. At the highest level, governments have begun to move on the issue, realizing that they have to make good the commitments they assumed in ratifying the Convention on the Rights of the Child. At the local level, activists and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are exploring creative ways to remove children from dangerous work situations and provide alternatives for them.

The third myth is that most child labourers are at work in the sweatshops of industries exporting cheap goods to the stores of the rich world. Soccer balls made by children in Pakistan for use by children in industrialized countries may provide a compelling symbol, but in fact, only a very small proportion of all child workers

are employed in export industries - probably less than 5 percent. Most of the world's child labourers actually are to be found in the informal sector - selling on the street, at work in agriculture or hidden away in houses — far from the reach of official labour inspectors and from media scrutiny.

Myth four is that the only way to make headway against child labour is for consumers and governments to apply pressure through sanctions and boycotts. While international commitment and pressure are important, boycotts and other sweeping measures can only affect export sectors, which are relatively small exploiters of child labour. Such measures are also blunt instruments with long-term consequences that can actually harm rather than help the children involved. UNICEF (1997) advocates a comprehensive strategy against hazardous child labour that supports and develops local initiatives and provides alternatives - notably compulsory primary education of high quality - for liberated children.

Children work for a variety of reasons. The most important is poverty. Children work to ensure the survival of their family and themselves. Though children are not well paid, they still serve as major contributors to family income in developing countries. For example, minors in Paraguay contribute almost a quarter of the total family income. Children are often prompted to work by their parents. According to one study, parents represent 62 percent of the source of induction into employment. Children make their own decisions to work only 8 percent of the time (Syed, Mirza, Sultana, and Rana, 1991). In fact, a possible reason parents in developing countries have children is that they can be profitable. Children are seen to be much less of an economic burden in developing than in

developed countries. Children in developing countries also contribute more time to household resources than they deplete as compared to their counterparts in developed countries (Lindert, 1976). Therefore, parents in developing countries make use of children's ability to work.

Schooling problems also contribute to child labour. Many times children seek employment simply because there is no access to schools (distance or no school at all). When there is access, the low quality of the education often makes attendance a waste of time for the students. Schools in many developing areas suffer from problems, such as overcrowding, inadequate sanitation and apathetic teachers. As a result, parents may find no use in sending their children to school when they could be home learning a skill (for example, agriculture) and supplementing the family income. Because parents have so much control over their children, their perception of the value of school is a main determinant of school attendance. Parents who are educated understand the importance of schooling from personal experience. As a result, parental education plays a large role in determining school attendance, and is also highly correlated with family income (Ilon & Moock, 1991). Therefore, when children drop out of school, it is not necessarily because of irresponsible parenting; it may be due to the family's financial situation. When these children leave school, they become potential workers. A major reason India has the largest juvenile workforce is that 82 million children are not in school (Weiner, 1991). The result is that only a minority gets quality education. For example, only 41 percent of Indians over the age of 15 are literate. This decreases to 33 percent in Bangladesh and 26 percent

in Pakistan (Weiner, 1991). Poor families, however, are able to recognize good quality schooling and are frequently prepared to sacrifice child labour in order to invest in a good education for their children.

Often parents in developing countries assign different roles to their children. This has been called child specialization, and may increase the number of working children (Chernichovsky, 1985). This phenomenon involves certain siblings going to school, while others work. Many times this depends on the birth order where the oldest is the one who attends school. Patrinos and Psacharopoulos (1993) find that the number of siblings does not have much of an effect on school enrollment, although it does have a significant effect on child labour. This exclusive effect is not inconsistent with the idea of specialization.

Rapid rural-urban migration is a major cause of the increasing rate of child labour in urban areas of developing countries. Families leave the severity of agricultural working conditions for cities in order to search for economic opportunities that often do not exist. In the last 40 years, this movement has been drastic. In 1950, 17 percent of the population of the developing world lived in urban areas. This increased to 32 percent in 1988. In 2000, this proportion increased to 40 percent and it is estimated that it will increase to 57 percent by the year 2025 (United Nations, 1989a). Such increases, coupled with worsening economic trends, force children and their families into urban poverty. The result is that children are soon required to work (Barker & Knaul, 1991).

Consequences of child labour

Pitt et al. (1981) state that working children come in close contact with infectious cases of tuberculosis, severe malnutrition, anemia, hard labour and inadequate sleep which lower their normal immune system. They conclude that there are some occupations that, although not officially classified as hazardous, are, in fact, dangerous to the child worker. They add that every occupation, in some way, is hazardous, for it does not only retard the child's growth and development, but also complete the procession of condemning the child worker to a bleak and bereft future.

ILO (2004) found that, in India, the hours of work, as prescribed under the law, were not being strictly adhered to. Indeed, in 44 cases out of 50, daily working hours of children varied between six and eight hours as against four hours prescribed under the Factories Act of 1948. Similar variations were observed in other cities. For example, in 30 units there was practically not much difference between working hours of a child worker and those of adults. This leads to the conclusion that the number of hours a child is required to put in by the employer in various occupations gives a stark contrast between what practically happens and what is prescribed by law (ILO, 2004).

Dogramaci (1981) reports that labour at early ages can have dire consequences on the child's development, both mentally and physically. Children are not used to long hours of strenuous monotonous work. Their bodies suffer the effects of fatigue and exhaustion much more quickly than those of adults. ILO (2004) corroborates this by saying that a large number of children involved in

child labour are already suffering from malnutrition, which lowers their resistance to disease even further and makes them all the more vulnerable to untimely deaths.

Child labour policies

Basu (1999) classifies efforts to combat child labour into three major categories: intra-national, supra-national and extra-national categories. The intra-national efforts are those made by individual countries to curb child labour. The supra-national efforts are those formed by international bodies such as the UNICEF and ILO. The extra-national interventions are those adopted by individual countries to curb child labour in developing countries.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) is, perhaps, the most influential document in child labour policy. Adopted in 1989 into international law, the Convention spells out the rights of the child, reinforces fundamental human dignity, highlights and defends the family's role in children's lives and also seeks respect and protection for children (UNICEF, 2004). All countries, except the United States and Somalia, have ratified the CRC. This means that for these two countries, the CRC is not binding as part of international law. The Convention, being a right, has been elevated to a higher status of being respected and "obeyed".

The Convention is important for its definition of the child for the purpose of determining the age of children working in the worst forms of child labour as “every human being below the age of eighteen years”. Articles 28 and 32 are highlighted for their direct bearing on children’s work and schooling. Whilst Article 28 provides children with the right to education and urges states to make primary schooling compulsory, Article 32 recognises the need to protect children from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child’s education or to be harmful to the child’s health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development. It further states that in order to achieve this, states / parties should do the following:

- (i) provide for a minimum age or minimum ages for admission to work;
- (ii) provide for appropriate regulation of the hours and conditions of employment; and
- (iii) provide for appropriate penalties or other sanctions to ensure the effective enforcement of the present article (UN, 1989b).

Owing to the clause that targets only the hazardous forms of child labour, the Convention on the rights of the child has been hailed for taking into consideration children living with economic hardships by giving them a chance to work at least within family farms and at the same time protecting them from exploitation (Myers, 1999). The Convention has also enjoyed a status that many other conventions have not. It is gradually expanding beyond its original status as primarily an international legal instrument for re-orienting

national child welfare and protection code to become a cultural force rooted, perhaps, more solidly in civil society than in government (Myers, 2001).

International Labour Organisation convention on minimum age

The International Labour Organisation Convention on Minimum Age of 1973 (C138) states in its Article 1 that members shall “raise progressively the minimum age for admission to employment or work to a level consistent with the fullest physical and mental development of young persons”. Article 2 states that members who ratify the convention shall specify, in a declaration appended to its ratification, a minimum age for admission to employment or work within its territory and that no one under that age shall be admitted to employment or work in any occupation. Article 2 further states that the minimum age specified shall not be less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling and, in any case, shall not be less than 15 years. It, however, recognises that some member countries, whose economy and educational facilities are insufficiently developed, may, after consultation with the organizations of employers and workers concerned where such exist, initially specify a minimum age of 14 years.

This Convention, however, allows for children twelve years and above to engage in ‘light work’, that is, work that is not detrimental to children. The concept of ‘light work’ is very fluid. What may constitute light work in one country or culture may not be so in another. Also, there are many countries where children younger than twelve years have to work.

ILO minimum age convention is concerned about the removal of children from any economic activity. However, this is ambiguous because child care and house keeping are not considered economic. Family farms where children work for household consumption are also excluded. This gives license to parents and relatives who may want to exploit children in these domains.

In Ghana, the minimum legal age of entering the labour market is 16 years. Sections 58 to 61 of the Labour Act prohibit the employment of young persons in hazardous work, which is defined to include work likely to expose the person to physical or moral hazard. Section 58(3) specifies that an employer must not employ a young person in underground mine work.

International Labour Organisation Convention on the worst forms of child labour

The United Nations and other international organisations, in realising that child labour cannot be dealt with as a blanket concern without proper categorization, came out with the Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour in 1999 (C182). Even with the Convention on the Right of the Child, and the Minimum Age Convention, child labour still had its mainstay in the world. The ILO figured out that there was the need to move faster by focusing on the “worst forms of child labour” that adversely harm children, and save the children who were being held in slavery, sold as prostitutes and being forced to engage in illicit activities.

The ILO Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour is clear on what constitutes worst forms of child labour. However, countries are left to decide what constitutes the “health, morals and safety” of children. Article 3 states that the term, the worst forms of child labour, comprises:

- a. all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict;
- b. the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances;
- c. the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties; and
- d. work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children; (ILO, 2004).

The Convention further states that the type of work referred to under Article 3(d) shall be determined by national laws or regulations.

While ratification of the Convention has been one of the fastest of any international convention in history, evidence has shown that legal ratification of conventions does not ensure that relevant action is taken, although the convention was found to be very urgent and necessary. Critics still claim that the ban on the

worst forms of child labour would still be problematic in poor countries (Bookman, 2004).

Millennium Development Goals

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have a great bearing on child labour internationally. They were adopted in 2000 so that nations around the world could give themselves an “ultimatum” in solving the problems that are perceived to mostly affect the development of nations and their people. Of the eight goals in the MDGs, the first two are most crucial for this study. The first MDG goal is to “eradicate extreme poverty and hunger” and the second goal is to “achieve universal primary education”. The year 2015 is the deadline that the United Nations gave for achieving all the eight millennium goals. As the United Nations Development Programme stated, the hope was that all actors “would work together and do their part”. The UNDP summarises as follows:

The MDGs represent a global partnership that has grown from the commitments and targets established at the world summits of the 1990s. Responding to the world’s main development challenges and to the calls of civil society, the MDGs promote poverty reduction, education, maternal health, gender equality and aim at combating child mortality, AIDS and other diseases. Set for the year 2015, the MDGs are an agreed set of goals that can be achieved if all actors work together and do their part. Poor countries have pledged to govern better and invest in their people through

health care and education. Rich countries have pledged to support them, through aid, debt relief, and fairer trade (UNDP, 2005 .3).

With the pledges, it is hard to believe that, with the ultimatum that has been provided, poor countries will be anywhere near achieving the MDG goals. Pledging to do things right without the ability and the will power to do them does not serve the MDGs right. Five years after the MDGs were declared the poorest countries have made very little progress towards achieving the goals of eradicating poverty and hunger, and also achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE).

The Millennium Development Goals 2005 Report shows that, five years after the declaration of the goals, poor countries are excruciatingly struggling towards halving their hungry and their poor, and also making sure that all children attend elementary school. The report indicates that countries are battling with their meager resources to meet these goals by the “prescribed” time. Sub-Saharan Africa, for example, has barely moved towards halving the number of its hungry and poor, as stipulated by the MDGs between 1990 and 2001. While there were 46.4% people living with less than a dollar a day in 1990, more than a decade later, in 2001, this number has reduced only to a mere 44.6%. The report added that the number of poor people in Africa was rising, and the very poor were getting poorer. By 2002, only 62% of Sub-Saharan Africa achieved Universal Primary Education (United Nations, 2005).

While the challenges of implementing the MDGs are still staring at the world, the international community is still entertaining the strong belief in the

possibility of achieving these goals by the year 2015. Perhaps, the only people who know the truth of what will be happening by that year are the many poor who have lived in the same condition for generations and are still wallowing in extreme poverty and hunger. These are the working children in rural Ghana who struggle every day, with their families, to keep up with school work, while waiting for a chance to earn some money through working and feeding their siblings and children. They are the populace that does not know what MDGs are, or even understand the language of MDGs. To them, the MDGs do not even exist, yet their numbers are part of the statistics of the unrealistic nature of these goals. MDGs would truly be welcome in their lives in order to solve their problems, but they still remain a dream in the horizon, yet to be fulfilled, if ever.

Education and child labour

The ILO (2004) points out that, while education in and of itself is clearly significant for the development of an individual and for the well being of society , it may be less obvious why education is in the context of child labour.

According to the ILO (2004), education policy deals with important issues such as whether or not child education is free and / or compulsory, whether it is accessible, of good quality. Education policies on curriculum development ensure that education is relevant by changing approaches to teaching, improving learning materials, redesigning educational programmes, and better still, making sure that education is affordable.

It has been argued that compulsory and universal education for all children would effectively eliminate child labour. ILO (2004) says that proponents of this view claim that the link between child labour and education was established in the 19th Century when child labour laws in industrialised countries made it compulsory for children to complete basic education up to a specified age and established it as a requirement for employment.

Weiner (1991) opines that universal extension of state funded education in Europe, North America and Japan has been the most powerful instrument for the abolition of child labour. Weiner says that no country has successfully ended child labour without first making education compulsory. As long as children need not attend school, they will enter the labour force. Policy makers in most countries believe that mandatory education is a prerequisite for the eventual abolition of child labour (Weiner, 1991). Those who hold this view reason that, where compulsory education is effectively implemented, children will be less available for full-time work, at least during school hours, parents will be encouraged to keep their children in school and employers will be dissuaded from hiring children. However many experts argue that compulsory education is a necessary but not sufficient condition for the elimination of child labour. Compulsory schooling alone cannot overcome all the social and economic obstacles that combine to keep children out of school and in the labour force ILO (2004).

UNESCO (2002) argues that achieving universal primary education alone will require a greater concentration on Sub-Saharan Africa. Additional external

funding for education and particularly for universal primary education was announced in 2002. However it is unclear whether this will lead to very significant increases required.

In a comparative study of child labour and schooling in Africa, Canagarajah and Nielsen (1999) found out that one way to reduce child labour and increase incentives to keep the children in educational system is to improve access to credit, which the family can pay back later. Alternatively, the government can put in place income transfer programmes in order to stimulate demand. Through such programmes, money is given to poor families to compensate for cost of sending their children to school rather than work. ILO (2004) affirms that this is actually happening in Brazil, Mexico and Bangladesh.

According to the ILO (2004), when children work full-time and study at the same time, school drop-out and grade repetition rates tend to increase with the result that older children find themselves in the same classrooms with younger ones. Such children are less motivated to do good school work, and so school failure is often the result.

Heady (2000) carried out a study in Ghana, where he attached a module on child work to Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS2). In half of the sample clusters of the GLSS2, individuals between the age of 9 and 55 were asked to take educational tests. The study included administering 2 tests of varying difficulty, both in Reading and Mathematics. Only children who had achieved an above average score of 4 out of 8 in the easy test were allowed to write the corresponding advanced test in either subject. The research was basically for the

sole purpose of analyzing the effects of child labour on school achievement. From his analysis, Heady (2000) concluded that work has a substantial effect on learning achievement in the key areas of reading and mathematics.

Heady (2000) further argues that the direct link between work and learning achievement, holding education constant, could be because of exhaustion or because of diversion of interest away from academic concerns. However, it could also be caused by those children who work being innately less interested in academic achievement.

Policies designed to encourage and promote women's education have a direct impact on child labour. Bhalotra (2003) says that the direct effect of mother's education on child labour and schooling is typically positive even after controlling for father's education, which also takes a positive coefficient. The actual welfare impact is likely to be even larger in the long run, once the fertility-reducing effects of education are taken into account.

The link between child labour and education will always be determined by the kind of education policies that are adopted by any country. It will depend on the legislation governing years for compulsory schooling, the quality and quantity of education supplied, accessibility, affordability and relevance of the education system.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the methodology, which is made up of the research design, the study area, study population, sampling procedures, sources of data, instrumentation, pretest, fieldwork and data processing and analysis.

Research design

The study used a descriptive research design in a sample survey. According to Cohen and Manion (1991), descriptive surveys gather data relating to the current status of a phenomenon. In this study, the phenomena in question are child labour and educational attainment of public junior high school pupils in Techiman Municipality. The descriptive design is chosen because of the advantage of producing good responses from a wide range of people. At the same time, it provides a meaningful picture of events and seeks to explain people's opinion and change in behaviour on the basis of data gathered at a point in time. Furthermore, it can be used with greater confidence with regard to particular questions of special interest of value to the researcher.

Study area

Techiman is one of the 170 District, Municipal and Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. There are two constituencies in the municipality, namely: Techiman North and Techiman South. Techiman Municipality was established in 1978 as a distinct district. It covers an area of approximately 66.9 sq. km. and forms part of the 13 districts of the Brong Ahafo Region. It has a population of about 177,324 (GoG, 2003). It comprises 501 settlements, including Techiman (the Municipal capital), Tanoso, Tuobodom and New Techiman, among others (Figure 1).

It is not surprising that today Techiman is at the centre of major crossroads with an important marketing centre. Techiman is host to a major central market, which is the largest food market in Ghana and an important market in the whole of West Africa, attracting merchants from countries such as Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Burkina Faso, Togo and La Cote d'Ivoire. Internally, traders from all over the country, especially Tamale, Kumasi, Bolgatanga, Hamile, Bole, Winneba, Cape Coast, Takoradi, Accra, Axim and Tema, converge in Techiman, especially on main market days. The central market is a big commercial centre, especially in agricultural goods. The market days are from Wednesdays to Fridays. Price haggling and bargaining is a particularly delightful pastime by many Ghanaian merchants or sellers, which you must become accustomed to if you are to "survive", especially when you are buying in the streets or in the market.

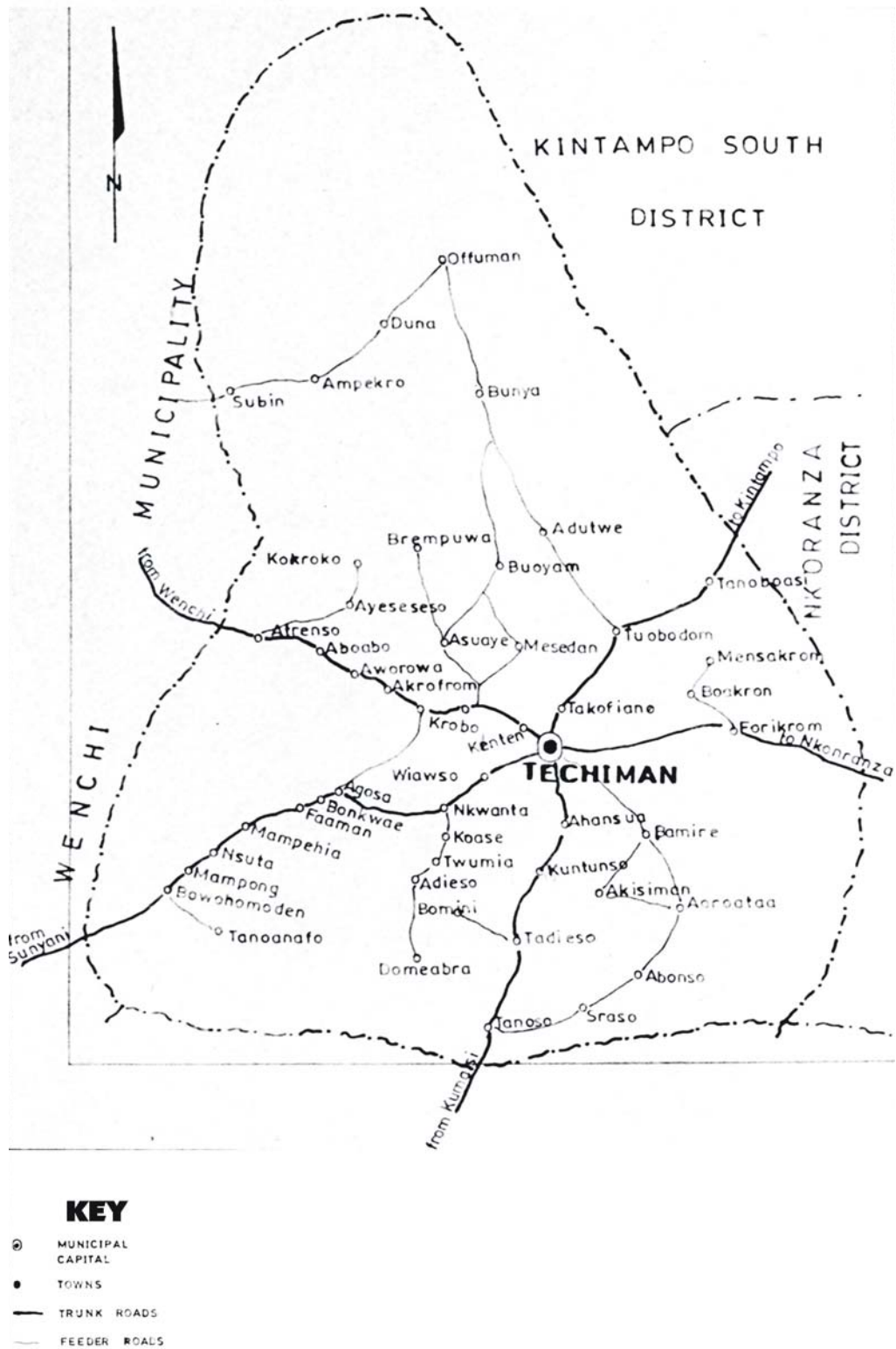


Figure 1: Map of Techiman Municipality
 Source: Town and Country Planning Department, Brong Ahafo Region

Study population

The study population included all 10,935 pupils in public Junior High Schools, their parents as well as all 581 public Junior High School teachers in the Techiman Municipality.

Sampling procedures

Purposive and simple random sampling techniques were used for the study. Purposive sampling was used because according to Merriam (2001), it reflects the average person, situation or instance of the phenomenon of interest. That is to say that you are likely to get the opinions of your target population. The simple random sampling technique and precisely the lottery method were used for the selection of pupils. This technique was used because each pupil had an equal chance of being selected.

Out of 10 circuits in the Techiman Municipality, five were purposively selected, while a school each was selected to represent the five circuits. The selected schools were: Techiman Methodist Junior High School; Takyia Ameyaw L/A JHS; Tuobodom Nuriya JHS; Techiman Al-Khariya Islamic JHS; and Techiman Islamic JHS. The researcher was initially briefed by education officials to select these schools because the respondents would be able to provide rich information with respect to the purpose of this particular study.

Twenty pupils were selected from the five schools of the study. Pupils from Forms One and Two classes formed part of the study. All the schools had two classes for each form namely: Form One 'A' and 'B' as well as Form Two

‘A’ and ‘B’. A Pupil each was randomly sampled from each of the classes of the Junior High Schools. Based on the enrollment list of each class, ballot papers were put in a box with one marked ‘yes’ and the rest marked ‘no’. The pupil who picked ‘yes’ in each of the class was selected as a respondent for the study. In all, twenty pupils were selected for the study.

Twenty parents of the 20 pupils were purposively selected for the study. The purposive sampling technique was also used to select twenty teachers from the five schools of the study. Four class teachers of the selected pupils were selected from each of the five selected schools in order to ensure an equal representation of teachers from the various schools. In all, sixty respondents were sampled for the study (Table 1).

Table 1: Sampling distribution of respondents

J.H.S	Pupils		Teachers		Parents		Total	
	Number	Per.	Number	Per.	Number	Per.	Number	Per.
Techiman								
Methodist	4	20.0	4	20.0	4	20.0	12	20.0
Takyia Ameyaw								
L/A	4	20.0	4	20.0	4	20.0	12	20.0
Tuobodom								
Nuriya	4	20.0	4	20.0	4	20.0	12	20.0
Al – Khariya								
Islamic	4	20.0	4	20.0	4	20.0	12	20.0
Techiman								
Islamic	4	20.0	4	20.0	4	20.0	12	20.0
Total	20	100.0	20	100.0	20	100.0	60	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

Sources of data

The study used both primary and secondary sources. Primary data were obtained from respondents through the field survey. Secondary data, on the other hand, were collected from journals, reports, articles, books, documents, relevant theses and the internet.

Instrumentation

Two main instruments were employed in the data collection. These instruments were the interview schedule and the questionnaire (see appendices 1, 2 and 3). The interview schedule was used for the both parents and pupils because most of them could not read properly and understand questions posed in the English Language. Also, because the interview process was a naturally occurring one it allowed for the free flow of information from respondents for optimal results. The teachers responded to questionnaires because they could read, write and understand questions posed in the questionnaire without any difficulty. A well-structured questionnaire was administered to teachers. They included open-ended and close-ended questions which allowed some degree of flexibility and free flow of information. Two sets of structured interview schedule were employed to elicit practical and factual information from parents and Junior High School pupils.

The instruments were grouped into seven sections. Section A sought to find out about the socio-demographic background of the respondents. Section B dealt with the kind of work pupils engage in, while Section C contained

questions on the factors accounting for child labour among JHS pupils in the municipality. Sections D, E and F dealt with: the extent of child labour among JHS pupils; consequences of child labour on the development of JHS pupils in the Techiman Municipality; and the measures required to deal with child labour in the Techiman Municipality respectively.

Pretest

Pretesting of instruments was conducted in Boahenkorkor Junior High School in the Sunyani Municipality. The pretest was conducted in the Sunyani Municipality because the schools have similar characteristics as the study area in terms of the subject matter being studied. The final instruments were then revised, based on the outcome of the pretest.

Fieldwork

The instruments were administered personally by the researcher with the help of two research assistants whose activities were supervised from time to time. The researcher, together with the research assistants, first introduced themselves and explained the rationale for the study. The main study was conducted for a period of two weeks, beginning from the 8th July, 2009 to 22nd July, 2009. Hundred percent of the respondents responded to the instruments.

Questionnaires were given to the sampled teachers for completion. All questionnaires were, however, retrieved in the second week. Pupils were also interviewed in the first week using the one on one approach. Respondents were all

interviewed in a serene atmosphere where they could freely express their opinions on the questions posed to them. Since most of the parents and guardians were illiterates all questions were posed in the local dialect (Asante Twi).

Data processing and analysis

The data obtained from the field, were analysed, using frequencies and percentages. Sorting, editing and coding of the instruments were done in order to identify, eliminate or reduce errors, omissions and incomplete information. As Kumar (1999) contends, the cleaning of data can revolve around issues such as: forgotten questions; unrecorded responses; half -written answers, and illegible writings. A computer software package, Statistical Product for Social Solutions version (11.0), was employed to aid data description, processing and analysis. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies was adopted to help summarise and present the quantitative information in the form of tables and charts in order to facilitate interpretation and analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The chapter deals with the presentation and discussion of the findings. It specifically deals with the characteristics of respondents, kinds of work pupils engage in, factors accounting for child labour, the extent of child labour in the Techiman Municipality, consequences of child labour on the development of public Junior High School pupils, and the measures required to deal with child labour.

Characteristics of respondents

This section presents the characteristics of the respondents. This was done by analysing their sex, age, educational background, marital status and occupation. The purpose of this information was to put the study into context.

Age - sex distribution of pupils

The research sought to find out the age-sex distribution of pupils who were engaged in the study. The age-sex distribution of the pupils in this study were necessary because there are both male and female pupils in all the public Junior High Schools in the Techiman Municipality so there was the need to give

them equal chances to respond to the interview schedules. The age of respondents was important in this study because it was to make sure that children who suffer the menace of child labour were included in the study. As depicted in Table 2, 25.0% of the pupils were aged 18 years, while 20.0% were 16 years and 15.0% were aged 15 years. Table 2 indicates that 22.2% of males were aged 13, 15 and 18 years and above respectively. For the females, 36.4% were 14 years of age and 27.3% were 16 and 18 years and above respectively. The mean age for both boys and girls was 16 years, while the mean ages for boys and girls were 15 and 18 years respectively.

Table 2: Age – sex distribution of pupils

Age	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
13	2	22.2	-	-	2	10.0
14	1	11.1	4	36.4	5	25.0
15	2	22.2	1	9.1	3	15.0
16	1	11.1	3	27.3	4	20.0
17	1	11.1	-	-	1	5.0
18 and above	2	22.2	3	27.3	5	25.0
Total	9	100.0	11	100.0	20	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

Age - sex distribution of parents

As part of the characteristics of respondents, the age-sex distribution of parents was obtained. Table 3 shows that 40.0% of the parents were in the 30-39 age group, while 35.0% were in the age group of 40-49. For the males, 42.9% were in the 30-39 age group, while 28.6% were in the 40-49 age group respectively. For the females, 38.5% had their ages ranging from 30-39 and 40-49 respectively. The mean age for both males and females was 46 years, while the mean ages for males and females were 46 and 52 years respectively. As part of the characteristics of respondents, the age-sex distribution of parents was obtained because not only one sex and age group live in the Techiman Municipality. Both sexes have a role to play in the upbringing of a child and so there was the need to give them equal chances to respond to the interview schedules.

Table 3: Age – sex distribution of parents

Age group	Sex					
	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
30 – 39	3	42.9	5	38.5	8	40.0
40 – 49	2	28.6	5	38.5	7	35.0
50 – 59	1	14.2	1	7.7	2	10.0
60 and above	1	14.2	2	15.4	3	15.0
Total	7	100.0	13	100.0	20	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

Distribution of teachers by sex and qualification

The study tried to find out the distribution of teachers by sex and qualification. As depicted in Table 4, 40.0% and 30.0% of teachers had diploma and Cert 'A' respectively, while 20% and 10% had a bachelor's degree and Higher National Diploma respectively. For the female teachers, 62.5% had diploma, 25.0% had Cert 'A' and 12.5% had a bachelor's degree. On the other hand, 33.3% of male teachers had Cert 'A', 25.0% had diploma and 25% had a bachelor's degree. This indicates that the majority of the male teachers who were engaged in this study had higher education than the female teachers.

Table 4: Distribution of teachers by sex and qualification

Qualification	Sex					
	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Diploma	3	25.0	5	62.5	8	40.0
Cert 'A'	4	33.3	2	25.0	6	30.0
Bachelors degree	3	25.0	1	12.5	4	20.0
HND	2	16.7	-	-	2	10.0
Total	12	100 .0	8	100.0	20	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

Educational status of parents

Education could be viewed as a powerful tool to determine knowledge levels, skills, and attitudes. The study revealed that 40.0% of the parents had no formal education, while 30.0% and 20.0% had primary and middle/JHS education respectively. Only 10.0% had an education beyond the middle and JHS level. The results show that the majority of the parents engaged in the study had a low level of education. The educational levels of parents were also taken into consideration because Bhalotra (2003) says that the direct effect of mother's education on child labour and schooling is typically positive even after controlling for father's education, which also takes a positive coefficient.

Table 5: Distribution of parents by sex and educational status

Educational Status	Sex					
	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
No Formal education	1	14.3	7	53.8	8	40.0
Primary	3	42.9	3	23.1	6	30.0
Middle/JHS	2	28.6	2	15.4	4	20.0
Secondary	1	14.3	-	-	1	5.0
Tertiary	-	-	1	7.7	1	5.0
Total	7	100.0	13	100.0	20	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

Marital status of parents

The marital status of parents influences their income. Food, shelter, education, clothing and medical care are mainly the responsibilities of parents and these cannot be provided without money. The study revealed that 70.0% of parents were married, while 10.0% each were single, widowed and divorced respectively. This shows that they had a lot of responsibilities on themselves, which could force them to engage their school-going children to support their families.

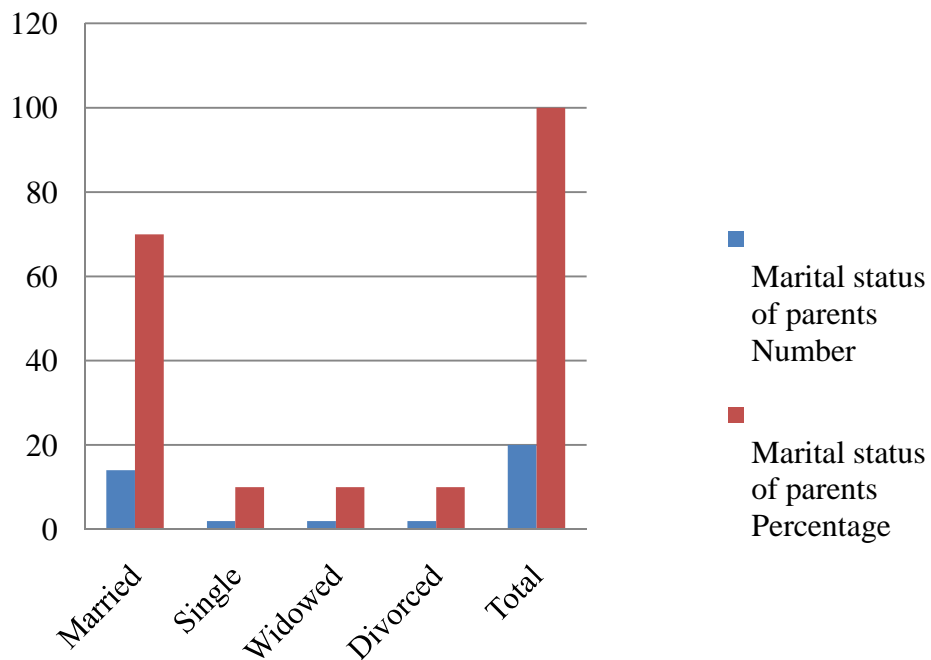


Figure 2: Marital status of parents

Source: Field survey, 2009

Occupation of parents

The occupations of parents engaged in the study were looked at. Table 7 shows that 55.0% of the parents were engaged in petty trading, while 15.0% and 10.0% were farmers and artisans respectively. This indicates that the majority of the respondents were petty traders. For the females, the main occupation was petty trading (69.2%), while, for the males, farming (28.6%) and petty trading (28.6%) were the main occupations.

Table 6: Distribution of parents by occupation and sex

Occupation	Sex					
	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Petty trading	2	28.6	9	69.2	11	55.0
Farming	2	28.6	1	7.7	3	15.0
Artisan	1	14.3	1	7.7	2	10.0
Mechanic	1	14.3	-	-	1	5.0
Unemployed	-	-	1	7.7	1	5.0
Pensioners	1	14.3	-	-	1	5.0
Teaching	-	-	1	7.7	1	5.0
Total	7	100.0	13	100.0	20	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

Kinds of work pupils engage in

Views of pupils on the kinds of work they engage in

Many factors could be assigned to the deteriorating academic performance of pupils over the years. One such factor that has gained notoriety in recent times, but which is sometimes ignored, is the re-emergence of children in the world of work, popularly known as child labour. The study, therefore, sought to find out the views of pupils regarding the kind of work they engaged in.

The results of the study indicated that the kinds of work the pupils engaged in were: hawking (55.0%); carrying of goods (15.0%); domestic work (10.0%); working as restaurant assistant (10.0%); barbering (5.0%), and stone cracking (5.0%) (Table 8). This indicates that majority of the pupils were engaged in hawking. The findings of the study confirm the literature which states that children in developing countries contribute more time to household resources than they deplete as compared to their counterparts in developed countries (Lindert, 1976; White, 1996).

Table 7: Views of pupils on the kinds of work they engage in

Work	Frequency	Percentage
Hawking	11	55.0
Porters	3	15.0
Domestic work	2	10.0
Restaurant attendant	2	10.0
Barbering	1	5.0
Stone cracking	1	5.0
Total	20	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

Parents' views on the kinds of work pupils engage in

Parents' views on the kind of work pupils engage were also sought by the study. Figure 3 revealed that out of a total of 20 parents, 70.0% were of the view that pupils were mostly engaged in hawking, while 15.0% indicated that pupils were engaged as restaurant attendants. The parents agreed that the physical nature of hawking itself made it unhealthy or dangerous for the children who engaged in it. They also indicated that because these children were engaged in hawking for long hours, it denied them access to education, recreation and social life.

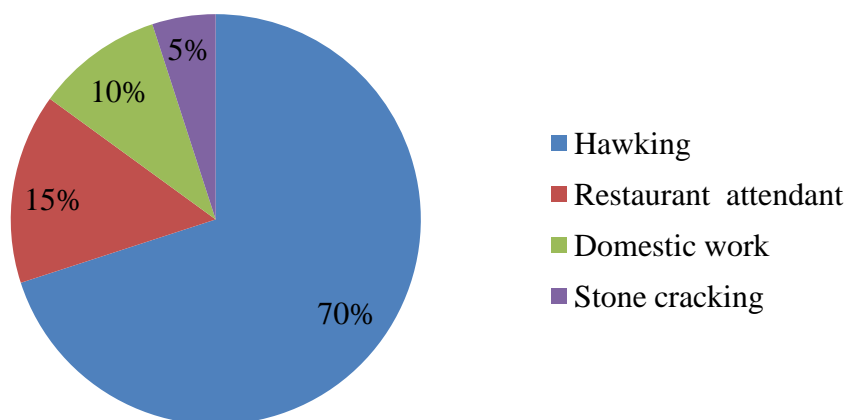


Figure 3: Parents' views on the kind of work pupils engage in

Source: Field survey, 2009

Factors accounting for child labour in the municipality

The study tried to find out the factors accounting for child labour in the Techiman Municipality. As indicated in Table 8, the major factor accounting for child labour in the municipality was poverty (75.0%). This was mentioned by teachers (65.0%), parents (80.0%) and pupils (80.0%). Other factors mentioned were: parental irresponsibility (8.3%); economic exploitation (6.8%); broken homes (3.3%); cultural values (3.3) and social values (3.3%). This goes a long way to justify why UNICEF (1997) reports that children are pushed into work that is often damaging to their development by three key factors. They include: the exploitation of poverty; the absence of relevant education; and restrictions of tradition.

Table 8: Factors accounting for child labour

Factors	Teachers		Parents		Pupils		Total	
	Number	Per.	Number	Per.	Number	Per.	Number	Per.
Poverty	13	65.0	16	80.0	16	80.0	45	75.0
Economic								
Exploitation	3	15.0	-	-	1	5.0	4	6.8
Social values	2	10.0	-	-	-	-	2	3.3
Cultural values	2	10.0	-	-	-	-	2	3.3
Parental								
Irresponsibility	-	-	3	15.0	2	10.0	5	8.3
Broken homes	-	-	1	5.0	1	5.0	2	3.3
Total	20	100.0	20	100.0	20	100.0	60	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

Extent of child labour among public Junior High School pupils in the Techiman Municipality

The extent of child labour among Junior High School pupils in the Techiman Municipality was examined by this study. Table 11 revealed that 87.0% of respondents indicated that the extent of child labour among JHS pupils in the municipality was high. Also, 90.0% of teachers, 85.0% of parents and 85.0% of pupils stated that the extent of child labour among JHS pupils was high. This implies that the majority of the respondents were of the view that child labour was

a serious problem in the municipality and that something has to be done to remedy the situation.

Table 9: Extent of child labour among public Junior High School Pupils in the municipality

Extent of child labour	Teachers		Parents		Pupils		Total	
	Number	Per.	Number	Per.	Number	Per.	Number	Per.
High	18	90.0	17	85.0	17	85.0	52	87.0
Low	2	10.0	3	15.0	3	15.0	8	13.0
Total	20	100.0	20	100.0	20	100.0	60	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

Effects of child labour on the development of public Junior High School pupils in the municipality

Dogramaci (1981) reports that labour at early ages can have dire effects on the child’s development, both mentally and physically. As indicated in Table 12, the effects of child labour on the development of public JHS pupils in the municipality were: poor academic performance (50.0%); child delinquency (25.0%); child truancy (13.0%); and school drop-out (8.0%). For the teachers, the major effects of child labour on the pupils were: poor academic performance (50.0%); child truancy (20.0%); and child delinquency (15.0%). For parents, the main effects were: poor academic performance (45.0%); child delinquency (25.0%) and high school drop-out rate (15.0%). The pupils, on the other hand,

indicated poor academic performance (55.0%); child delinquency (35.0%) and child truancy (10.0%) as the main effects of child labour. This indicates that the majority of the respondents in the study were of the view that poor academic performance was the main outcome of child labour.

Table 10: Effects of child labour on the development of public Junior High School pupils in the municipality

Effects	Teachers		Parents		Pupils		Total	
	Number	Per.	Number	Per.	Number	Per.	Number	Per.
Poor academic performance	10	50.0	9	45.0	11	55	30	50.0
Child truancy	4	20.0	2	10.0	2	10	8	13.0
Child delinquency	3	15.0	5	25.0	7	35	15	25.0
School drop-out	2	10.0	3	15.0	-	-	5	8.0
Poor health	1	5.0	-	-	-	-	1	2.0
No effect	-	-	1	5.0	-	-	1	2.0
Total	20	100.0	20	100.0	20	100.0	60	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

In the Techiman Municipality, although parents acknowledged the negative effects of child labour among public JHS pupils, they still engaged their children in it. The reason, in part, is that traditionally and historically children in the Ghanaian society learnt their trade by helping their parents and the communities to perform social and economic functions, such as placing girls as

domestic helps and boys as additional farm labour (Ghana Statistical Service, 2003). Furthermore, hawking, which is prevalent in the Techiman Municipality, is considered by some parents as informal training and an income-generating venture, without seriously thinking of the negative implications it may have on the development of their children.

Measures in dealing with child labour among Public Junior High School pupils in the Techiman Municipality

The study asked teachers, parents and pupils whether it was possible to find a solution to the problem of child labour in the Techiman Municipality. The great majority (90.0%) were of the view that this was possible. This was made up of 95.0% of the teachers; 85.0% of the parents; and 90.0% of the pupils. The study then sought some suggestions from teachers, parents and pupils on how the problem of child labour could be addressed in the municipality. For the teachers, the main suggestions were: government and civil society should sensitise parents and guardians to stop child labour (40.0%); laws on child labour should be enforced (35.0%); parents should be sensitised on the importance of education (15.0%) and parents should be more responsible towards their children and wards (10.0%) (Figure 4).

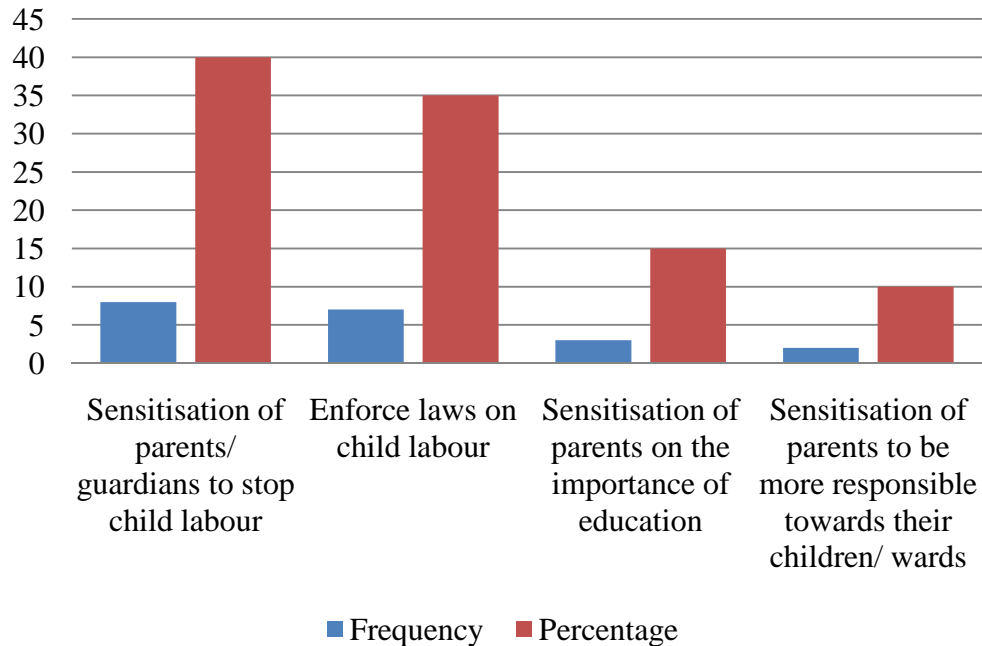


Figure 4: Suggestions by teachers on how government and civil society should combat child labour

Source: Field survey, 2009

Suggestions from parents on how the government and civil society could address the problem of child labour in the Techiman Municipality are indicated in Table 11. The table shows that 40.0% of the parents were of the view that government and civil society should support parents with finances in the form of loans; 30.0% responded that parents should be supported with jobs and other employment opportunities; 20.0% indicated that the school-feeding programme should be expanded to include all basic schools and JHS pupils; and 10.0% suggested that parents and guardians should be sensitised to stop child labour.

The suggestions from parents were very much in line with those by Canagarajah and Nielsen (1999) who have suggested that one way to reduce child

labour and increase incentives to keep children in the educational system is to improve access to credit, which the family can pay back later. They also suggest that, alternatively, the government can put in place income transfer programmes in order to stimulate demand. Through such programmes, money is given to poor families to compensate for the cost of sending their children to school rather than work. Indeed, ILO (2004) affirms that this is actually happening in Brazil, Mexico and Bangladesh.

Table 11: Suggestions by parents on how government and civil society combat child labour

Suggestions	Frequency	Percentage
Support parents with finances in the form of loans	8	40.0
Support parents with jobs/ other employment opportunities	6	30.0
Expansion of the school-feeding programme to cover all basic schools and J.H.S	4	20.0
Sensitisation of parents/guardians to stop child labour	2	10.0
Total	20	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

The views of pupils on how to deal with the problem of child labour in the municipality were also sought by the study. As indicated in Table 15, 35.0% of

pupils responded that government and civil society should support pupils with books and uniforms; 30.0% responded that the school-feeding programme should be expanded to all basic schools and to cover JHS pupils; 20.0% stated that laws on child labour should be enforced; and 15.0% stated that parents should be sensitised to stop child labour.

Table 12: Suggestions by pupils on how government and civil society should combat child labour

Suggestions	Frequency	Percentage
Support pupils with books and uniforms	7	35.0
Expansion of the school-feeding programme to all basic schools & to cover JHS pupils	6	30.0
Enforce laws on child labour	4	20.0
Sensitisation of parents to stop child labour	3	15.0
Total	20	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter contains the summary of the study and draws conclusions from the findings. It also gives recommendations on how to combat child labour among public Junior High School pupils in the Techiman Municipality in the Brong Ahafo Region.

Summary

The study set out to achieve the following objectives:

- Identify the kinds of work public Junior High School pupils in Techiman Municipality engage in;
- Determine the factors accounting for child labour among public JHS pupils in the Techiman municipality;
- Assess the extent of child labour among Public Junior High School pupils in the municipality;
- Assess the effects of child labour on the development of public Junior High School pupils in the municipality; and
- Identify the measures that could be taken to combat child labour among public Junior High School pupils in the municipality;

The study used a combination of purposive and simple random sampling techniques to select the 60 respondents. The interview schedule and the questionnaire were the two main instruments employed in the data collection. The questionnaire was administered to teachers, while two sets of interview schedule were employed to elicit practical and factual information from parents and Junior High School pupils respectively. The Statistical Product for Social Solutions (11.0) computer software package was employed to aid data description, processing and analysis.

The main findings of the study were:

1. The majority (55.0%) of the pupils used for the study were engaged in hawking.
2. The majority (70.0%) of parents were of the view that hawking was the main kind of work public JHS pupils in the municipality were engaged in.
3. Poverty was the major factor (75.0%) accounting for child labour in the Techiman Municipality.
4. Child labour among public JHS pupils in the municipality was considered by 87.0% of the respondents as high.
5. Poor academic performance (50%) was considered as one of the consequences of child labour.
6. Majority (90.0%) of the respondents were of the opinion that it was possible to address the problem of child labour in the Techiman Municipality.

7. Teachers were generally of the view that government and civil society should sensitise parents and guardians to stop child labour (40.0%); laws on child labour should be enforced (35.0%); government and civil society should sensitise parents on the importance of education (15.0%); and the need for parents to be more responsible towards their children and wards (10.0%).
8. Parents were of the opinion that government and civil society should support them with finances in the form of loans (40.0%); they should be supported with jobs and other employment opportunities (30.0%); the school-feeding programme should be expanded to all basic schools and to cover JHS pupils (20.0%); and parents and guardians should be sensitised to stop child labour (10.0%).
9. In order to combat the scourge of child labour, the pupils indicated that government and civil society should support them with books and uniforms (35.0%); the school-feeding programme should be expanded to all basic schools and to cover public JHS pupils (30.0%); laws on child labour should be enforced (20.0%); and parents should be sensitised to stop child labour (15.0%).

Conclusions

The study established that:

1. Majority of the pupils used for the study were engaged in hawking in the municipality;

2. Parents were of the view that hawking was the main kind of work pupils in the municipality were engaged in;
3. Poverty was a major factor accounting for child labour in the Techiman Municipality;
4. Child labour among public JHS pupils in the municipality was high;
5. Poor academic performance was one of the consequences of child labour;
6. Majority of the respondents were of the opinion that it was possible to address the problem of child labour in the Techiman Municipality;
7. In order to address the problem of child labour the respondents made the following suggestions to government and civil society: Parents and guardians should be sensitised to stop child labour; laws on child labour should be enforced; parents should be sensitised on the importance of education and be made more responsible for the upkeep of their children and wards.
8. Parents suggested that government and civil society should support them with finances in the form of loans and with jobs and other employment opportunities. They also indicated that the school-feeding programme should be expanded to all basic schools and to cover JHS pupils.
9. The pupils requested that government and civil society should support them with books and uniforms; the school-feeding programme should be expanded to all basic schools and to cover public JHS pupils; the

laws on child labour should be enforced; and parents should be sensitised to stop child labour.

Recommendations

Based on the above conclusions, the following recommendations were made by the researcher;

1. government and civil society should sensitise parents and guardians to stop child labour.
2. government should enforce the existing laws on child labour in the country.
3. government and civil society should sensitise parents on the importance of educating their children and wards.
4. government should support parents with finances in the form of loans, and with jobs and other employment opportunities.
5. government should expand the school-feeding programme to cover all basic schools.
6. government should support pupils with books and uniforms.
7. parents are to be more responsible for the upkeep of their children and wards.

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APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

This is a study being carried out by an M.A Sandwich student of the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast on child labour and educational attainment of public Junior High School pupils in the Techiman Municipality. This questionnaire is basically for academic purpose and confidentiality is assured.

INSTRUCTIONS:

Please answer each question by ticking in the boxes where appropriate and fill in the blank spaces provided to the best of your knowledge.

Thank you.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

(1) Name of school:.....

(2) Sex: (a) Male [] (b) Female []

(3) Qualification:.....

SECTION B: KINDS OF WORK PUPILS ENGAGE IN.

(4) Do some your pupils engage in any kinds of work to support their family's income.

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.....

(5) What kind of work do these pupils mostly engaged in?

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SECTION C: FACTORS ACCOUNTING FOR CHILD LABOUR.

(6) Use Likert scale 1-4 to rank the factors that lead to child labour where 1 is the highest followed by 2 in that order.

- (a) Poverty..... 1 2 3 4
- (b) Economic exploitation..... 1 2 3 4
- (c) Cultural circumstances..... 1 2 3 4
- (d) Social values..... 1 2 3 4

SECTION D: EXTENT OF CHILD LABOUR IN THE TECHIMAN MUNICIPALITY.

(7) Is child labour a serious problem in the Techiman Municipality?

- (a) Yes [] (b) No []

(8) Explain your answer to the above question

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.....

SECTION E: EFFECTS OF CHILD LABOUR.

(9) In your opinion, what are the effects of child labour?

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SECTION F: MEASURES REQUIRED TO DEAL WITH CHILD LABOUR.

(10) Is it possible to address the problem of child labour in the Techiman Municipality? (a) Yes (b) No

(11) If 'No', state reason(s) for the difficulty in addressing the problem.

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(12) If 'Yes', what can be done to remedy the situation?

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.....

(13) If you were to make suggestions to the government or civil society to reduce child labour, what would that be?

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(14) As a teacher, what can you do to reduce child labour of school-going pupils in your school?

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(15) What can you do to improve your pupils' educational attainments?

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APPENDIX 2

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PARENTS

LOCALITY/TOWN:.....

SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS

1. Sex: (a) Male [] (b) Female []
2. Age: [] years
3. Highest Educational Level Attained: (a) None [] (b) Primary []
(c) Middle/J.H.S. [] (d) SHS-Secondary /Technical/Commercial []
(e) Tertiary []
4. Marital Status: (a) Single [] (b) Married []
(c) Separated [] (d) Divorced [] (e) Widowed []
5. Occupation:.....

OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS FOR PARENTS

SECTION B: KIND(S) OF WORK PUPILS ENGAGE IN.

(6) Do you engage your school-going child in any kind of work to support the family's income.

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.....

(7) What kinds of work do your child engaged in?

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SECTION C: FACTORS ACCOUNTING FOR CHILD LABOUR.

(8) Give reasons why you engage your school-going child in child labour.

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SECTION D: EXTENT OF CHILD LABOUR

(9) Why do you think child labour is a serious problem, if at all?

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.....

SECTION E: EFFECTS OF CHILD LABOUR.

(10) In your opinion, what are the effects of child labour on your child's/ ward's educational attainment?

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(11) Is it possible for your child/ward to succeed in school while he/she is engaged in child labour? Explain your stance.

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SECTION F: MEASURES REQUIRED TO DEAL WITH CHILD LABOUR

(12) If you were to make suggestions to the government or civil society to reduce child labour, what would that be?

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(13) What can you do to reduce the extent of work of your school-going child?

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(14) What can you do to improve your children's educational attainment?

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APPENDIX 3

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PUBLIC JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

PUPILS

SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS

1. Sex: (a) Male [] (b) Female []

2. Age: [] years

3. Name of school:.....

4. Form:.....

OPEN-ENDED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR PUPILS

SECTION B: KINDS OF WORK PUPILS ENGAGE IN.

(5) Do you engage in any kinds of work to support your parents' income even though you are a school girl/boy?

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(6) What kinds of work do you engage in?

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SECTION C: FACTORS ACCOUNTING FOR CHILD LABOUR.

(7) Why do you engage in child labour while still going to school?

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(8) Do you like working and going to school at the same time? Give reasons for your answer.

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SECTION D: EXTENT OF CHILD LABOUR

(9) Is child labour a serious problem in the Techiman Municipality?

(a) Yes [] (b) No []

SECTION E: EFFECTS OF CHILD LABOUR.

(10) Do you attend school regularly?

(a) Yes [] (b) No []

(11) Explain your answer

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.....

.....
.....

(12) In your opinion, what are the effects of working while attending school at the same time?

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.....
.....

SECTION F: MEASURES REQUIRED TO DEAL WITH CHILD LABOUR

(13) What recommendations do you have for the government and the civil society to address child labour issue in the Techiman Municipality?

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.....

(14) What advice will you give to your parents/guardians to address the problem of child labour?

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.....
.....

(15) What can you do to improve your own educational attainment?

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