UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

USING RECREATION TO CURB CHILD DELINQUENCY AMONG

STREET CHILDREN: CASE STUDY AT THE CAPE COAST FOOTBALL

FOR HOPE CENTRE.

GABRIEL ATSEKU

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BY

GABRIEL ATSEKU

Thesis submitted to the Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation of the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Physical Education

JULY 2014

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

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

Candidate' Signature:………………..…… Date……………………

Name: Gabriel Atseku

Supervisor's Declaration

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

Principal Supervisor's Signature: …………………… Date ……………

Name: Prof. Joseph K. Mintah

Co-supervisor's Signature: ………………………… Date …………….

Name: Dr. Silvanus L. Lamptey

ABSTRACT

The study was to assess the impact of recreational activities on child delinquency at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. Descriptive survey design and questionnaire was used to collect data from 140 respondents at the Football for Hope Centre. Data collected was analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequency and simple percentages based on research questions. Results revealed that neglect, poverty and abuse were the major causes of streetism in Cape Coast. Also, the major reasons for taking part in recreational activities to children at the Football for Hope Centre were for fun, to connect with other children in society and for enjoyment. Additionally, a statistical significant difference was found between males and females on loss of parent as a cause of streetism, however, no statistical significant difference was found between males and females on neglect, abuse, poverty, inadequate housing and parental divorce as causes of streetism.

Recommendations were made for parents and guardians to work hard in order to meet all the social, psychological, educational and financial needs of their wards. Also, schools, communities and NGO's were encouraged to provide enough playing facilities to enable children play for fun and enjoyment at all times.

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Last but not least, my dear wife for serving as a pillar of strength and accepting the decision to pursue my Master of Philosophy Degree.

DEDICATION

In memory of My Late Father, John Doetse Atseku.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Children form the foundation on which every nation's future is built, yet many countries in the world have millions of children living on the streets. Street children apply to children who by being handicapped, delinquent or victims of all forms of child abuse and neglect, find themselves roaming in search for food, shelter, clothing and emotional comfort (Hammond, 1993). According to UNICEF (2000), street children initially referred to all urban children who spend most of their time on the streets whether working or not. These children may have strong, weak or no families. A number of them have no fixed place of residence, no access to regular medical care, no adequate food, or are not in a context of emotional stability that would lead to proper socialization. Ennew (1994), defines street children as children for whom the street more than their family has become their real home. It includes children who might not necessarily be homeless or without families, but who live in situations where there is no protection, supervision, or direction from responsible adults.

The Street Children phenomenon is a major human development problem that is experienced all over the developing world (UNICEF, 2000). A major cause of this phenomenon in Kenya is the lack of access to basic education, and drop-out due to poverty and harsh effects of structural

adjustment programmes (UNICEF, 1993). To bridge the existing gap in Kenya, a variety of non-formal education programmes have been started.

Street children throughout the world are subjected to physical abuse by police or are even murdered outright, as governments treat them as a plight to be eradicated rather than as children to be nurtured or protected (UNICEF, 2000). As a result, street children are frequently detained arbitrarily simply because they are homeless, or criminally charged with vague offenses such as loitering, vagrancy, or petty theft. They are tortured or beaten by police and often held for long periods in poor conditions. Girls are sexually abused, coerced into sexual acts, or raped.

There are very few conditions in life that can be more adverse than to be young and live in the streets of major cities in the world. Estimates reported by the WHO on street Children and Substance Abuse puts the number of street children between ten and one hundred million worldwide (UNICEF, 2000). Street children also make up a large proportion of the children who enter criminal justice systems and are committed finally to correctional institutions (prisons) that are euphemistically called schools, often without due process. Few advocates speak up for these Children and few street children have family members or concerned individuals willing and able to intervene on their behalf (Ennew, 1994).

One of the most conspicuous symbols of poverty is the growing presence of children on the streets: children making a living by scavenging, hawking and soliciting while their peers are in school. Street children constitute that category of humanity which has become a feature of urban life all over the developing world (Munyako, 1992). Most street children are of

school going age, and once they start earning money, most of them rarely go back to the classroom. Eventually, these children leave the street with no education or training to join the urban unemployed (UNICEF, 2002). Being on the street further exposes these children to youth gangsterism, drug addiction, rape, and HIV/AIDS infection among others (UNICEF, 2005). The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) has three definitions for street children; Street-Living, street working and street family. Street-Living children refer to children who are away from their families and live along on the streets. Street-working children refers to children who spend most of their time on the streets, fending for themselves, but return home on a regular basis, whiles children from Street Families constitute children who live on the streets with their families.

The existence of street children is a social phenomenon that should be analyzed in terms of the underlying economic, social and educational factors that either trigger or exacerbate the problem (Agnelli, 1986). Although each child has his/her own experience that drove him/her to the streets, the reasons contributing to this phenomenon are similar in many countries. A 2002 World Bank report summarizes some of the main causes of the street children phenomenon as follows: Low family income, forcing the family to find jobs for their children in order to contribute to increasing their income, inadequate housing conditions, as the lack of adequate housing may push families and their children to the street, neglect and abuse, which are common problems with either one or both parents addicted to drugs and alcohol or families that do not provide enough time for interaction among their members, failure in school, loss of parents due to armed conflicts and natural disasters, as well as

due to epidemics and diseases, such as AIDS and others, in addition to refugee problems in various parts of the world (UNICEF, 2005).

Poor economic situations are a major factor contributing to the problem of street children. Poverty, unemployment, elevated prices, declining national income, poor distribution of wealth within society, and the increasing gap between the rich and the poor are all factors with a direct impact on the rise of the phenomenon of street children (UNICEF, 2000). In Mongolia, following the collapse of the socialist system, attention to social care stopped, and the situation became very difficult as prices have increased and families have been unable to manage. This has forced children into the streets. According to official statistics, there are currently 4,100 street children in Mongolia, as compared to 400 prior to the collapse of the communist system in 1990 (Weber, 1993). Dr. Abdullah Ben Abdel-Aziz's study about street children in the Arab Gulf states also explains the causal relationship between economic factors and street children. When a child feels that the family is unable to afford education fees, the child leaves her/his education and joins the labour force. In addition, a financial crisis of the family provider or a decline in the family income can create factors conducive to driving more children onto the street (Weber, 1993).

The family is the primary institution responsible for fulfilling the basic needs of children, including providing security, love, food, clothing, shelter, health care, education and entertainment (Volpi, 2003). Moreover, the family raises children in their own culture and passes this culture to them through the socialization process. The family is considered the reference point for the construction of children's norms, for the shaping of their personality and for

the direction they take in life (Volpi, 2003). The family situation and the type of relations within a family are, thus, important elements in shaping the features of the child's life. Often, the phenomenon of street children is reversely proportional to the prevalence of normal relations within the family. A study by UNICEF examined the reasons why children may leave the family and found that some have left the family because of ill-treatment by their fathers or stepfathers or after the death of a parent. Others decided to leave in order to avoid parental control or because of the dire economic situation of the family. Still others left simply because they wanted to enjoy more independence from their families (UNICEF, 1993).

In Egypt, studies have indicated that the problem of family disintegration is common among families of street children. Statistical data of children joining the Amal Association and Um Kulthoum Society for street children reveal that 24% come from broken families, either due to divorce or the death of a parent, and 32% could not find care and attention from their families or felt that they were subjected to cruel and violent treatment by family members (A Civil Society Forum Report, 2004). Accordingly, many street children leave their families, preferring to beg in the streets to earn a living, rather than go back to their families. Often these children are exposed to ill-treatment by one of their parents, or both, or by step-parents. Sometimes, the entire family may punish the child for a perceived undisciplined action. Some parents also display favouritism towards some of their children over others, especially when the child is from a second marriage where either the father or the mother has children from their previous marriage (Ennew & Jill, 2003). In such cases, a parent may mistreat the children of their spouse.

In spite of attempts to eliminate illiteracy, there remain high levels of illiteracy among the families of street children (UNICEF, 1993). As a result of their own lack of education, parents may be unaware of the importance and value of education and may not provide appropriate educational care for their children. This situation encourages children to drop-out of school and remain in the streets. Often the family does not resist this action. In some cases, the family is the main factor that drives children from school (UNICEF, 1993).

The size of the family has a strong impact on the family's economic situation. Families with more children incur more costs and require more efforts in terms of provision of care. Often poor families are unable to assume complete responsibility for raising and supporting their children if there are many. Large families provide less time, care, and money for each single child (Ennew & Jill, 2003). When the father is working all day to earn enough to cover the basic needs of his family, children become deprived of their father's attention and affection, and even from his mere physical presence. A study on street children in the Philippines indicated that most street children come from large families with an average size of six to 10 members (Ennew & Jill, 2003).

Education is a major incentive for social advancement that contributes to a better life. However, too often children drop-out of school for various reasons and find refuge in the street. Research in Brazil indicates that 57% of street children drop-out of school before they resort to staying in the streets, 25% drop-out of school while being out in the streets and 12% do so after finding final refuge in the street (Ennew & Jill, 2003). These findings emphasize the strong correlation between dropping out of school and becoming street children. The aforementioned Brazilian researchers stated that

the education system in Brazil is responsible for this situation. They cited factors such as overcrowded classrooms, very high failure rates, which reach up to 68%, poor school environments, poor teacher training, and inadequacies in the educational curricula. According to the researchers, these factors contribute to increased drop-out rates and, therefore, to increased numbers of children resorting to the street.

Urban areas hold considerable appeal for many poor rural residents, as they believe they will achieve their hopes and dreams there. Eventually, however, they encounter a harsh reality that destroys the dream that originally pushed them to the city. Immigrants to the city from rural areas are more willing to take a wide range of jobs in order to provide for their family. Since they are in a new environment, they feel less obligated to follow the strict social controls and constraints that they obeyed in their places of origin (Lemba, 2002). For example, a study on street children in Zimbabwe showed that between the 1920s and 1950s, indigenous farmers between 10-14 years of age used to go to urban centres where offices and imperial institutions were situated. There they worked as servants and guards in the houses of white and black citizens. In urban towns, children worked for the black supervisors in companies, for example, as cooks or cleaners. Sometimes, they offered sexual services to workers who lived in poor neighbourhoods (UNICEF, 2002).

Wars and natural disasters often lead to massive spikes in the street children population. Wars contribute to the deterioration of the national economy, the destruction of homes, the killing and displacement of thousands and the dispersion of families (Filho, Gisalo & Gizlene, 2000). This, in turn, leads to an increased number of orphans and homeless children. The same

applies to natural disasters, such as earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, floods and hurricanes. For example, the recent earth quake in Pakistan has resulted in the existence of thousands of street children due to the death of their family members, full demolition of their homes or dispersion of their families (Filho et al., 2000).

The image of street children in their communities is often negative and based on stereotypes. For example, a sweeping and negative commentary that treats all street children in Egypt as though they are the same noted that the children represent a severely complex problem. They bring the Egyptian society health, psychological, and social disasters. The problem according to the commentary was more dangerous than the problem of child labour because working children are practicing a positive role, even though it is a small role, while a homeless child has no job, and no familial supervision, so a street child is nothing other than a prospective criminal (Civil Society Report, 2004). The only matter that social care workers agree on is that it is imperative that society change its view towards street children as being nothing more than "criminal elements" who should be locked up in police stations, even if there is acknowledgement that the detention should be away from adults and without the children being exposed to rape or violence.

Living on the street, with no supervision, protection or guidance, often make street children vulnerable to a wide range of problems or hazards (Kurtz, 1991). In a study conducted in Cairo, most street children stressed that violence represents a major feature of their everyday life, and is a determining factor in developing their abilities to be able to cope with street life. The violence faced by street children normally takes place through three main

channels: firstly, violence within the small children groups, either by peers or by older street children, especially when they get drowsy and under the effect of the substances they consume, secondly, violence from the surrounding community, whether through other people on the street who tend to exploit them, or by the community itself as a reaction to their existence in particular settings and areas where their presence is not appreciated, thirdly, violence while working, either through the employers or through other peers working in the same place, such as when selling items on the street in areas where other people or children exercise control (Sedik, 1995). Violence normally ends in cuts and bruises to the children, since it often entails fights. Children normally carry razor blades to defend themselves in case others attack them (Sedik, 1995). Many children expressed that sexual abuse is a common problem to most street children, especially the young new children and females, which is often associated with violence (Sedik, 1995).

Community disapproval is another problem faced by street children. Street children are not totally welcomed in specific areas or communities, based on their general appearance and behavior (Koraim, 1998). In most cases, people tend to drive them away and sometimes have to use violence against them to get them to move to other areas. Accordingly, most street children tend to exist in small groups when walking on the streets in order not to draw the attention of people and get protection from one another. These findings are rather important especially when designing out-reach programmes to deal with street children through drop-in centers, or when deciding to use community mobilization for action to deal with the problem (Koraim, 1998). NGO's, especially those new to the field, have to pave the way through contacting

people and the community to gain their trust and acceptance before initiating such projects in their areas, otherwise the community dwellers might resist those programmes and activities (CRC Coalition, 2000).

Many street children fear they might be arrested by the police, and in the process be sent back to their families or institutional care. Of the latter, they have no idea about the services or care such institutions provide, but street lore among such children paints a negative image of government – sponsored residential institutions (WHO, 1993). On the other hand, street children know that when caught, they will be sent back to their families or to the non-supportive atmosphere they escaped from. Without prior effective efforts to change that negative family situation, in most cases street children will end up being on the street again to repeat the same vicious cycle (WHO, 1993). Raising awareness among police officers and social workers dealing directly with cases of exposure to delinquency is very important in changing the nature of service provision. In particular, enabling security officers to gain an appreciation of the culture of poverty and the need to address its symptoms at their care, that is within the family, will strengthen their understanding that in many cases, street children need to be understood as victims rather than criminals, and lead to promoting family-based treatment. Adopting new laws and procedures to guarantee that family-based treatment is the most proper social setting for the child is vital (WHO, 1993).

Another major problem many street children expressed is their inability to save money while living on the street due to the threat of being robbed (Kurtz, 1991). Such problem has its impact on various other aspects related to the life of children on the street, which as indicated by street

children, include the following: savings insecurity puts pressure on street children to immediately spend their daily earnings, whether on food, entertainment, or drugs, savings insecurity exposes street children to violence since many exploiters think that children save the money in their pockets or under their clothes, inability to save limits the children's abilities to think of initiating their own income-generating projects while living on the street (Kurtz, 1991). Many street children have tried to save money to start their own income generating projects and failed for this reason, inability to save limits the child's hopes and prospects for the future.

The inability to cope with life is another problem experienced by street children. Most street children explained that they normally suffer from various psychological problems while on the street, which are often associated with their inability to "cope with street life" (Hussein, 1998). These problems become clear when discussing the various unhealthy symptoms and psychological problems many of them share, and included urinating at night while sleeping, constant nightmares, crying for a long-time for no particular reason. Many street children, despite the amount of entertainment they encounter on the street and peer support, find themselves unable to cope with street life, especially during their early days of living on the street (WHO, 1998). These symptoms are believed to gradually disappear with the amount of time children spend on the street and become fully socialized and able to cope with street life through their own defense mechanisms and coping skills. El- Keteb (1998), found out in a study conducted in Egypt that almost 14% of street children sampled stressed that they suffer from lack of attachment and affection. This point is based on other determinants including age, time spent

on street children, period of detachment from their families, reaching puberty and other personal factors. Many street children normally feel estranged and mostly alienated due to the way they are treated by the community at large, even with peer support and encouragement (El- Keteb, 1998).

Lastly, street children suffer serious health problems. Many street children suffer from many health problems while residing on the street. When asked, most street children described their health status to be "fine and better than their peers" (WHO, 1998). Street children often view the types of illnesses or diseases they experience as "minor or normal" as long as they can move, work, and run. Sickness to them often means "inability to move or work" (WHO, 1998). However, discussions on health or nutritional issues indicate that street children do, in fact, suffer from various health problems. When queried in depth about their health conditions, they began to complain of respiratory problems due to glue sniffing, cigarette smoking, and skeletal problems due to violence. Most street children complained of the following health problems, which are often viewed by them as "minor health problems": headaches, heart pain, chest pain, abdominal colic, renal colic, back pain, blood in the urine, shortening breath on running, cough, wounds and bruises, diarrhoea, dental problems, fever and discharge from the ear (WHO, 1993). The most common types of complaints among street children were headache, giddiness, and palpitation, which can be considered as indicators of the presence of anemia among them (WHO, 1993).

Reviewing the health records of street children at different NGO's revealed a discrepancy between the recorded health problems and the complaints mentioned by street children themselves. The most common health

problems recorded by NGO's were: skin diseases, anemia, intestinal parasitic infections, abscesses and septic wounds, tonsillitis, otitis media, and hair lice (WHO, 1993). The reasons why street children are more susceptible to diseases than others are connected to their personal unhealthy habits while being on the street, which include the following: the pattern of health seeking behaviour among street children. There is a consensus among street children that the first place to seek medical help is the public hospital, despite the fact that in most cases children have to be accompanied by older adults or relatives when going to public hospitals. Self prescription of medicine is common among street children who often consult each other when medical help is needed (WHO, 1998). Street children often eat food very fast, almost swallowing food whole and in large quantities. This is a reflection of the type of life-style they experience which entails quick actions and movements. When food cannot be purchased, children eat what they can find in the trash (WHO, 1998).

Nutritional status, both past and present, is a key factor of children's health, physical and emotional well being, and in cognitive development. Street children are at exceptional risk to a wide range of health outcomes and malnutrition. The causes of malnutrition among street children are multiple and interrelated. Consumption of tainted food, inadequate dietary intake of essential nutrients, faulty dietary habits, and repeated illnesses are the immediate causes of malnutrition among them (WHO, 1998). Street children are always at high risk of chronic health problems such as respiratory diseases, parasitic infestations, skin infection, substance abuse and related health problems, as well as exposure to a wide range of other diseases. These

illnesses increase the nutritional needs of street children and in turn lower their immunity and create a vicious cycle (WHO, 1993).

The unhealthy environment in which street children live and the lack of availability and under-utilization of health services are also contributing factors in causing malnutrition among street children. Another contributing factor is the lack of positive attachments, which often leads to emotional and social deprivation, resulting in a failure to thrive. Street children often employ several strategies to acquire food. Most street children resort to begging, cleaning cars at the traffic light, selling white tissues, or having temporary jobs if available. Some steal food while others eat remains of food in garbage cans. Street girls show similar health problems, but they mostly referred to other health problems related to rape and reproduction, which include unplanned pregnancies, abortion, and violence (WHO, 1993).

Globally, in 1989, UNICEF estimated one hundred million children were growing up on urban streets around the world. Fourteen years later (2003), UNICEF reported the number of these children went as high as one hundred million. Recently UNICEF reported that the exact number of street children is impossible to quantify but the figure almost certainly runs into tens of millions across the world and that the numbers are likely increasing (UNICEF, 2005). The hundred million figure is still commonly cited, but has no basis in fact. Similarly, it is debatable whether numbers of street children are growing globally or whether it is the awareness of street children within societies which has grown. While there are understandable pressures for policies to be informed by aggregate numbers, estimates of street child

populations, even at city levels, are often hotly disputed and can distract rather than inform policy makers.

In Africa, a study in Ethiopia found that street working children reported that they commonly worked for an average of two to three hours a day on the streets typically for an hour before school and for another hour in the evenings (UNICEF, 2006). Eight percent worked on the streets only at weekends. The average age at which children first become involved in street life in Ethiopia is 10.7 years (UNICEF, 2006). In a survey carried out on fifty-one children in Addis Ababa in 1994, the average age of initiation to the streets was 9.95 years with 9.96 for boys and 10.47 for girls (UNICEF, 2002). The government estimates that one hundred and fifty thousand children live on the streets of Ethiopia, around sixty thousand in Addis Ababa, many arriving from rural areas looking for work.

NGO's estimate that the problem is far worse, with nearly six hundred street children and one hundred thousand of these in Addis Ababa. Around one million children are believed to be on the streets of Egypt, mostly in Cairo and Alexandria (UNICEF, 2006). A 'headcount' of street children and young mothers in the different parts of Accra, the capital of Ghana, has categorized the numbers as follows; 21,140 street children, 6,000 street babies, 7,170 street 'mothers' under the age of 20,14,050 urban poor children (most likely at high risk of coming to the street) (UNICEF, 2006).

The situation is no different in Ghana though the issue of street children was little known until the 1980's. The United States Information Service puts the number of street children in Ghana at over fifty thousand. One major reason for the presence of the children in the streets is the economic

status of the average Ghanaian family and the need for younger members to find some resources to supplement that of the parents (UNICEF, 2009). Although a few leave home just for the adventure, some also end up in the streets because of the home environment; insecurity from an unhappy family life, such as a broken home or from child abuse. Those who throng the streets only to earn some income to supplement the family's income very often return to sleep at home. Others who leave due to the home environment usually make the alleys, bus stops and street corners their sleeping places (UNICEF, 2009). On the other hand, some, usually with some educational background but from poverty stricken homes, leave to seek job opportunities to enable them finish schooling. This situation compels children to move from one part of the country to another and eventually return having acquired undesirable conduct and lifestyles. These are the ones who are often picked up by the police and brought before the juvenile courts for various offences.

A study conducted by the Department of Social Works, University of Ghana and Sponsored by Save the Children Fund (SCF), U. K, established that the street children in Accra come from broken homes whilst others come from low income and large sized family background. On the whole, these children have had inadequate parental care and have lived with different people during their early formative years. Many are early dropouts or have never had any schooling and they are in the streets for economic gains as the only way to survive. Crops of out-of-school youth, who fall under this category, for instance, operate on the campus of the University of Ghana (UNICEF, 2008). Popularly called "any work" by the Legon community, these youth who come from Madina and the other villages around the University, fetch and carry

water, and run other errands for the students for small fees. Some fortunate ones have become favourites of the female students and occasionally receive generous tips and gifts from them. These youth are likely to end up on the streets when they reach the stage where they cannot operate on campus anymore.

A research conducted in 2000 by Professor Lewis Aptekar, Counsellor Education, San Jose State University, California, concluded that society could help eradicate streetism if we can follow certain basic principles. He advised that society should examine their cultural bound beliefs about the families of street children and see to the psychological functioning of the children. Society should embrace the alternative family structures as legitimate. It is true that a child in his early formative years undertakes certain tasks to prepare him for adulthood and this learning process normally goes on in the home and is not harmful to the child. However, when children are used in wage-earning activities to generate income either for the family or for a master, their task then can be described as "child labour".

A report of another survey on street children of Recife, Brazil, has suggested that for those who are on the streets to undertake economic activities (they are in the minority) to supplement the family's income, the main requirement is to ensure that the children do not drift away from their families; their need is for protected work opportunities, vocational training, continuation of education, recreational facilities and health as well as nutritional care (UNICEF, 2005). For those children who live on the streets and may only maintain causal family, the report says, the prime need is to redirect them and reintegrate into family, and community work needs to be

done as much with the family as directly with the child. In the case of abandoned children, fostering and adoption are the best options. Maybe it is time for a re-look at the country's law on adoption. It certainly does not favour simple parenthood which in some way is a hindrance rather than a protection. A single parent can easily decide to adopt or foster a child, but the married couple will have to take a collective decision. Thus, when one does not agree to fostering or adoption, the other partner, who yearns to do so, is forestalled.

Recreation is any activity pursued during leisure, either on individual or collective basis that is free, and pleasurable having its own immediate appeal which is impelled by a delayed reward beyond itself or by any immediate necessity (Neumeyer, 1961). The writer therefore defined recreation here to mean any activity done for enjoyment or fun when one is not working. Activity is the most common use of the term recreation while the particular activity is merely the vehicle for the experience. Recreation is most often considered to mean enjoyable activities and they are variously considered as being sports or games, crafts, arts and the performing arts, music, dramatics, nature study, travel, hobbies and social activities.

In Ghana, the huge number of rural workers and youth drifting to the city should raise a question of what to do with leisure time. The rural dwellers normally move to the cities in search of greener pastures. Some of them also have the notion that once you move to the city you can make a meaningful life. As a result, most of these rural dwellers move to the cities without knowing anybody and without a vocation in certain cases. The end result is that most of them end up on the streets because they find it difficult to fend for themselves left alone thinking of making any meaningful use of their leisure

time. Additionally, it stirs up the sense of human rights too. One of the articles of the United Nations Declaration Rights states that every man has a right to leisure, right to participation in the cultural life of the community, right to education directed towards the development of the human personality. Meaning, the children on the streets have a share in the above mentioned rights declared by the United Nations without any denial. For example, children on the street have the right to access and participation in any leisure or recreational activity of their choice, right to education etc. including for instance the freedom of association, which shall include the freedom to form or join any club eg. Boy's scouts, girl's guildes, redcross, keep fit clubs and other associations at community, district, regional, national and even international levels in order to enhance the full development of the human personality.

Moreso, the declaration of Human Rights of the Child, says "the child shall have the full opportunity for play and recreation which should be directed to the same purposes as education, society and public authorities shall endeavour to promote the enjoyment of this right"- UN Convention. A widening recognition of the meaning and place of recreation in a developing civilization marks the history of many countries today. Without exception, recreation has been theorized, defined and categorized as being a positive tool or force in lowering the incidence of delinquent behaviours (Nixon, Lance & Frederickson, 1964). The above statement means that, every nation should strive for more recreational centres for the youth which will serve as an avenue or place for especially school and other children to have fun on days or times when there is not much to be done at home or school thereby reducing

the number of times they tend to end up on the streets. Thus, the more recreational centres we have, the more children would want to play and the lesser the occurrence of their delinquent behaviours.

Delinquency on the other hand means the violation of the law by children. Delinquency can also mean any socially unacceptable behavior. The criminal acts or behavior does not conform to the official stated values and norms of society (Beck, 1997). The youth normally become delinquent when their psychological, physiological and sociological needs are not provided. Some of these needs are food, security (protection), love, recognition, affiliation, approval and competence. Children take to the streets when these needs are not met, especially, food. One of the most critical problems confronting Ghanaians is the growth of social deviation. Maladjustment and disorders are part of the changing society and these seem to affect the juvenile in unusual ways. Neumeyer, (1961) in appreciating the problems associated with industrialization said that the dynamics of modern society have produced a noticeable increase in juvenile delinquency and adult crime throughout the world, including Africa. Meaning, even though factories and industries are being built, provision is not made for recreational centers or facilities. In areas where attempts are made, the facilities are inadequate to meet the increasing number of people living in those areas.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of street children is alarming and threatens the very foundation nations. The rate at which children drop out of school to fend for themselves is a serious national and global issue. Child labour, abuse, neglect

etc. are deeply rooted into the fabrics of societies and contributes immensely to the problem of moral and cultural low standards (Lemba, 2002).

Juvenile delinquency has also been on the increase in the Ghanaian society inspite of efforts made by government and other religious groups to forstall it in order to ensure a sound and happy interaction among members of the society. Widespread of social problems such as drug addiction, teenage pregnancy, stealing and gambling, truancy and other delinquent acts are part of the traditional modern society. Delinquency among the youth poses a social problem which does not only threaten the socio-economic life of Ghanaians but also, retards human resources and development (Hommond, 1993).

UNICEF (2000) estimated there are 120 million children living on the world's cities. The Catholic Mission (2009) puts the number of street children in Ghana at 61,494. The Department of Social Welfare (Cape Coast) estimated there are about 1500 street children in Cape Coast. The Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre, a non-governmental organization based in Cape Coast organizes recreational activities coupled with other social programmes to help reintegrate truant and out-of-school children back into society.

It was against this background that the study was embarked on to assess the impact of recreational activities on child delinquency at the Coast Football for Hope Centre.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this investigation was to assess the impact of recreational activities on child delinquency at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre, Cape Coast.

Research Questions

1. What situations lead to children coming onto the streets?

2. How adequate do the interventional programmes of the Football for Hope Centre (NGO'S) rehabilitate and reintegrate street children back into society?

3. What are the reasons or benefits of taking part in recreational activities to children at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre?

4. What are the differences between males and females in terms of the causes of streetism?

Hypotheses

1. There will be no significant difference between males and females in terms of the causes of streetism.

Significance of the study

The study will help identify some of the major reasons why children in the Cape Coast Metropolis drop out of school. Also the study will guide other NGO's in the Cape Coast Metropolis and elsewhere and commit them to fulfill their specified obligations to enhance street children's rehabilitation and integration into society. Additionally, the study will give the public (Cape Coast Metropolis) and elsewhere some idea as to how supervised recreational activity can have a valuable contribution to make in a community programme. Moreso, the outcome of the study will immensely help future policy makers in the formulation of policies geared towards the eradication of the problems of streetism and to improve the general quality of life for the destitute child. Again, the research outcome will help policy makers (government) formulate policies regarding the building of recreational centres in the country.

Lastly, the study will contribute to a body of knowledge on street children.

Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimitated to children of the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre.

Limitations of the Study

The study could not be generalized to all NGO's providing support for street children except those in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

Completing structured interview was extremely difficult because some of the respondents could not read and write and so could not communicate their responses properly. As a result, some of the items were not completed and so could not be used. This reduced the number of items for some of the question.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study and to help readers understand some of the terms which have been used in this study, the operational definitions of terms are as follows:

Street children: truant and out- of- school children who have made the street their temporal or permanent abode.

Recreation: is any activity pursued during leisure either on individual or collective basis that is free and pleasurable having it own immediate appeal which is impelled by a delayed reward beyond itself or by any immediate necessity (Neumeyer, 1961).

Delinquency: any socially unacceptable behavior which is a violation of the law by children.

Organization of the Rest of the Study

Chapter two entails the meaning and nature of streetism, meaning and nature of recreation, delinquency and its causes, causes of street children menace and the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. Chapter three involves the methodology. Here, research design, population, sample and sampling procedures, instrumentation, data collection procedures and data analysis were discussed. Chapter four dealt with results and discussions whiles chapter five looked at summary, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of the study was to assess the role of recreation activities in curbing child delinquency among street children at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. Perplexed by the observation that children today as compared with the olden days have access to more schools and short distances to school find themselves in the street and in one way or the other fall prey to ban social habits, researchers gather date regarding information and habits relative to street children and how recreation can help curb the menace.

The review of related literature was carried out under the following sub-headings:

1. Meaning and nature of streetism

2. The meaning and nature of recreation.

3. Delinquency and its causes.

4. Causes of street children menace.

5. Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre.

Meaning and Nature of Streetism

Streetism is a term for children experiencing homelessness who live on the streets of a city (Benitez, 2007). Homeless youth are often called street kids and street youth. The definition of street children is contested, but many practitioners and policymakers use UNICEF's concept of bayot and tomboy, aged under eighteen years, for whom "the street" (including unoccupied

dwellings and wasteland) has become home or their source of livelihood, and who are inadequately protected or supervised. Some street children, notably in more developed nations, are part of a subcategory called thrownaway children who are children that have been forced to leave home (Flowers, 2010). Thrownaway children are more likely to come from working class and single parent homes. Street children are often subject to abuse, neglect, exploitation, or, in extreme cases, murder by "clean-up squads" that have been hired by local businesses or police. In Western societies, such children are sometimes treated as homeless children rather than criminals or beggars.

The streets were often the only refuge for youth who were orphaned or who had left their parents to move to the city. However, the streets were often unsafe and led youth to crime or other undesirable activities (Flowers, 2010). While many middle-class girls became teachers and tenders of shops, unmarried working-class girls, especially immigrants, were employed in the factories. Reformers expressed concern with increased out-of-wedlock births, divorce, venereal disease, illegitimacy, and prostitution. They attributed these increases to girls having their own money and their involvements in non-work discretionary time activities in the community. The reformers also felt that work environments subjected young women to the untoward advances of fellow workers and supervisors (what today we might call sexual harassment). Dance halls, movies, and other forms of free-time outlets were seen as contributing to girls' sexual awakening and misconduct (sometimes leading to pregnancy). Adolescent females migrating from rural areas were thought to be particularly at risk due to their sheltered upbringing and lack of exposure to city life (Flowers, 2010). These and other factors led to a reform movement

instigated and promoted by members of the middle and upper classes, the reformers worried about the activities and morals of their own children and were concerned about the impact of lower-class children's activities on middle-class children.

Article 27 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) asserts that "States Parties recognize the right of every child to a standard of living adequate for the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development." Homelessness denies each one of those rights. According to an Inter-NGO Program on street children and youth, a street child is considered as any girl or boy who has not reached adulthood, for whom the street (in the widest sense of the word, including unoccupied dwellings, wasteland, etc.) has become his or her habitual abode and/or source of livelihood, and who is inadequately protected, directed, and supervised by responsible adults (Beasley, 1999).

US AID has divided Street Children into Four Categories:

A 'Child of the Streets': Children who have no home but the streets, and no family support. They move from place to place, living in shelters and abandoned buildings.

A 'Child on the street': Children who visit their families regularly and might even return every night to sleep at home, but spends most days and some nights on the street because of poverty, overcrowding, sexual or physical abuse at home.

Part of a Street Family: These children live on sidewalks or city squares with the rest of their families. They may be displaced due to poverty, wars, or natural disasters. The families often live a nomadic

life, carrying their possessions with them. Children in this case often work on the streets with other members of their families.

In Institutionalized Care: Children in this situation come from a situation of homelessness and are at risk of returning to a life on the street (Beasley, 1999).

The hidden and isolated nature of street children makes accurate statistics difficult to gather; however, UNICEF estimates there are approximately 100 million street children worldwide with that number constantly growing. There are up to 40 million street children in Latin America, and at least 18 million in India. Many studies have determined that street children are most often boys aged 10 to 14, with increasingly younger children being affected (Beasley, 1999). Many girls live on the streets as well, although smaller numbers are reported due to their being more "useful" in the home, taking care of younger siblings and cooking. Girls also have a greater vulnerability to trafficking for commercial sexual exploitation or other forms of child labor.

Homelessness is largely an urban phenomenon, yet children are homeless and living on the streets in every region of the world from developing countries to the most affluent countries. Latin America and India, for example, are known for their large populations of street children, despite the significant efforts of some governments and non-governmental organizations (Alston, 1998). The AIDS epidemic and civil wars in Africa have caused a surge in the number of street children as a result of the abandonment of AIDS orphans or fatalities due to armed conflict. Failing economies and falling currencies in parts of Asia force the poorest families

onto the street, often leaving children abandoned and homeless. Unstable political transitions, such as the end of Communism in Eastern Europe, caused unprecedented numbers of street children due to inadequate social security for the poor and those formerly State supported. Children often experience the effects of political, economic, and social crises within their countries more severely than adults, and many lack the adequate institutional support to address their special needs. Eventually, they end up on the streets.

In 1996, the United States had 5.5 million children living in extreme poverty, approximately one million of whom were on the streets. A study conducted by the Luxembourg Income Study shows poor children in the United States are poorer than children in most Western industrialized countries, since the United States has less generous social programs, the widest gap between rich and poor, and high numbers of poor immigrant and unwed teen mothers. The poverty and social conditions many American children face lead to large numbers of homeless and street children (Alston, 1998).

Children who are vulnerable to street life include those who have been abandoned by their families or sent into cities because of a family's intense poverty, often with hopes that a child will be able to earn money for the family and send it home. Children who run away from home or children's institutions frequently end up on the street since they rarely return home due to dysfunctional families, or physical, mental, and/or sexual abuse. In several areas of the world, disabled children are commonly abandoned, particularly in developing countries. In addition, refugee children of armed conflict areas,

children separated from their families for long periods of time, and AIDS orphans, repeatedly find nowhere to go but the streets (Alston, 1998).

Homelessness and street life have extremely detrimental effects on children. Their unstable lifestyles, lack of medical care, and inadequate living conditions increase young people's susceptibility to chronic illnesses such as respiratory or ear infections, gastrointestinal disorders, and sexually-transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS. Children fending for themselves must find ways to eat; some scavenge or find exploitative physical work. Many homeless children are enticed by adults and older youth into selling drugs, stealing, and prostitution.

Drug use by children on the streets is common as they look for means to numb the pain and deal with the hardships associated with street life. Studies have found that up to 90 percent of street children use psychoactive substances, including medicines, alcohol, cigarettes, heroin, cannabis, and readily available industrial products such as shoe glue. The mental, social and emotional growth of children are affected by their nomadic lifestyles and the way in which they are chastised by authorities who constantly expel them from their temporary homes such as doorways, park benches, and railway platforms. Countries in Latin America like Colombia, Guatemala, Honduras, and Brazil are notorious for the torture and violence inflicted on street children, many times escalating to murder - by police officers or death squads. Street children lack security, protection, and hope, and continue to face a deep-rooted negative stigma about homelessness. And, more than anything else, they lack love (Beasley, 1999).

Many governments, non-governmental organizations, and members of civil society around the world have increased their attention on homeless and street children as the number of this disenfranchised population continues to grow dramatically. Nonetheless, more action is necessary. Most importantly, as a result of adverse economic conditions in many countries, an international plan to provide basic housing needs to be developed. In 1992, the United Nations issued a Resolution on the Plight of Street Children, expressing concern over the emergence and marginalization of street children, and the acts of violence against them. The Resolution called for international cooperation to address the needs of homeless children and for enforcement of international child rights laws (Alston, 1998).

European nations that have taken effective steps toward combating homelessness include Belgium, Finland, the Netherlands, Portugal, and Spain. In many countries, governments have included a right to housing in the national constitution. The Finnish devised a plan in 1987 including house-building, social welfare, health care service, and a duty to provide a decent home for every homeless person. The number of homeless people in Finland was cut in half after 10 years. However, the major problem with State programs is that children often reject the alternative assistance offered by the State (Beasley, 1999).

On a local and regional level, initiatives have been taken to assist street children, often through shelters. Many shelters have programs designed to provide safety, healthcare, counseling, education, vocational training, legal aid, and other social services. Some shelters also provide regular individual contact, offering much-needed love and care. Many NGOs have been founded

with mission to improve the plight of homeless adults and youth. Casa Alianza, active in Mexico and Central America; Child Hope UK working with local groups worldwide; Butterflies, based in New Delhi, India; and, Street Kids International, a Canadian-based organization, all focus specifically on street children. Prayas Juvenile Aid Centre (JAC) Society, based in Delhi, India, pioneered the first intensive study on Homeless children ever conducted; they have also set up numerous shelters providing basic security, food, and clothing for more than 50,000 homeless people in Greater Delhi (Alston, 1998).

Statistics and Distribution

Homeless children in the United States reached record highs in 2011, 2012, and 2013 at about three times their number in 1983 (Siegelbaum, 2012). Street children can be found in a large majority of the world's cities, with the phenomenon more prevalent in densely populated urban hubs of developing or economically unstable regions, such as countries in Africa, Eastern Europe, and Southeast Asia. According to a report from the Consortium for Street Children, a United Kingdom-based consortium of related non-governmental organizations (NGOs), UNICEF (2008) estimated that 100 million children were growing up on urban streets around the world. Fourteen years later, in 2002, UNICEF similarly reported that the latest estimates put the numbers of these children as high as 100 million. More recently the organization added that the exact number of street children is impossible to quantify, but the figure almost certainly runs into tens of millions across the world adding that it is likely that the numbers are increasing. The 100 million figure is still commonly cited for street children, but has no basis in fact. Similarly, it is

debatable whether numbers of street children are growing globally, or whether it is the awareness of street children within societies that has grown.

History of Street Children

The phenomenon of street children has been documented as far back as 1848. Alan Ball, in the introduction to his book on the history of abandoned children, And Now My Soul Is Hardened: Abandoned Children in Soviet Russia, 1918–1930, noted that orphaned and abandoned children have been a source of misery from earliest times (Ball, 1996). They apparently accounted for most of the boy prostitutes in Augustan Rome and, a few centuries later, moved a church council of 442 in southern Gaul to declare concerning abandoned children there is general complaint that they were nowadays exposed more to dogs than to kindness. In Tsarist Russia, seventeenth-century sources described destitute youths roaming the streets, and the phenomenon survived every attempt at eradication thereafter. In 1848, Lord Ashley referred to more than 30,000 naked, filthy, roaming lawless and deserted children in and around London, UK. By 1922 there were at least seven million homeless children in Russia due to the devastation from World War I and the Russian Civil War. Abandoned children formed gangs, created their own argot, and engaged in petty theft and prostitution (Fradkov, 2007).

Causes

The causes of this phenomenon are varied, but are often related to domestic, economic, or social disruption; including, but not limited to, poverty, breakdown of homes and/or families, political unrest, acculturation, sexual, physical or emotional abuse, domestic violence, lured away by pimps or internet predators, mental health problems, substance abuse, and sexual

orientation or gender identity issues (Ennew & Milne, 1990). Children may end up on the streets due to cultural factors. For example, some children in parts of Congo and Uganda are made to leave their family because they are suspected to be witches who bring bad luck upon their family. In Afghanistan, young girls who perform "honour crimes" that shame their family and/or cultural practices like adultery (which may include rape or sexual abuse) or who refuse an arranged marriage may be forced to leave their homes. Children may also end up on the streets due to religious factors. For example, some children in the far Northern parts of Nigeria (referred to as the almajiris) are forced to leave their homes by indenturing under a mallam (Islamic religious teacher) in order to understand the teachings of the Holy Quran (Abari & Audu, 2013). During the period of indenture, these children are forced to the streets in search for their daily livelihoods through alms begging. These children are also in most circumstances compelled to make returns from their daily proceeds to the mallam and failure to do so means severe punishment.

The street children in India choose to leave their families and homes for strategic reasons. Three hypotheses have been put forth in an attempt to explain their choices: urban poverty, aberrant families, and urbanization. Evidence can to some degree support all three of these hypotheses. In one study of 1,000 street children living in Bombay conducted in 1990, 39.1 percent of street children said they left home because of problems and fights with family, 20.9 percent said they left because of family poverty, and 3.6 percent said that they wanted to see the city (Bose, 1992). This study illustrates the trend found by most researchers: most children leave their families to live on the street because of family problems. Family problems

include such things as death of a parent, alcoholism of father, strained relationships with stepparents, parent separation, abuse, and family violence. Additionally, street children usually come from female-headed households.

Most children who leave home to live on the streets come from slums or low cost housing, both of which are areas of high illiteracy, drug use, and unemployment. Children usually transfer their lives to the streets through a gradual process; they may at first only stay on the street a night or two. Gradually they will spend more time away from home until they do not return (Bose, 1992). Once on the streets, children sometimes find that their living conditions and physical and mental health is better than at home; however, this fact speaks to the poor conditions of their homes rather than good conditions in the street. Street conditions are far from child-friendly. Once they leave home, many street children move around often because of the fear that their relatives will find them and force them to return home.

Statistics

There are an estimated 250,000 street children in Kenya and over 60,000 in the capital Nairobi. Rapid and unsustainable urbanization in the post-colonial period, which led to entrenched urban poverty in cities such as Nairobi, Kisumu and Mombasa is an underlying cause of child homelessness (Abari & Audu, 2013). Rural-urban migration broke up extended families which had previously acted as a support network, taking care of children in cases of abuse, neglect and abandonment.

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime has reported that glue sniffing is at the core of "street culture" in Nairobi, and that the majority of street children in the city are habitual solvent users. Research conducted by

Cottrell-Boyce for the African Journal of Drug and Alcohol Studies found that glue sniffing amongst Kenyan street children was primarily functional–dulling the senses against the hardship of life on the street – but it also provided a link to the support structure of the 'street family' as a potent symbol of shared experience (Naik, Seema, Ratnenedra & Abhay, 2011). Bangladesh is a poor country. Almost half of its population is poor. Following this there are many street children who have to suffer. They do not go to school instead they sell things in the streets as their parents earn less money or do not work. About four million children live as street children in Bangladesh. It is estimated that there is over 600,000 Street children living in Bangladesh, 75% of them live in the nation's capital, Dhaka (UNICEF, 2008). In a Country ranked 138th on the Human Development Index and where 50% of the population is living below the poverty line, these children represent the absolute lowest level in the social hierarchy in the world's most densely populated nation. Nowadays the population in this country increased and the number of street children is also increased to four million (UNICEF, 2008).

India has an estimated one million or more street children in each of the following cities: New Delhi, Kolkata, and Mumbai. It is more common for street children to be male and the average age is fourteen (UNICEF, 2008). The Republic of India is the seventh largest and second-most populated country in the world. Due to the acceleration in economic growth, an economic rift has appeared, with just over thirty-two per cent of the population living below the poverty line. Owing to unemployment, increasing rural-urban migration, the attraction of city life, and a lack of political will, India has developed one of the largest child labor forces in the world. According to a

2007 study, there were over 170,000 street children living in Indonesia. In 2000, about 1,600 children were living on the streets of Yogyakarta. Approximately 500 of these children were girls from the ages of 4–16 years of age. Many children began living on the streets after the 1997 financial crisis in Indonesia (UNICEF, 2008). Girls living on the street face more difficulties than boys living on the street in Indonesia. Girls on the street are often abused by the street boys because of the patriarchal nature of the culture. They abuse girls, refuse to acknowledge them as street children but liken them to prostitute. Many girls become dependent on boyfriends as they receive material support in exchange for sex (Berezina, 1997).

The street children in Indonesia are seen as a public nuisance as they are detained, subjected to verbal and physical abuse, their means of livelihood (guitars for busking, goods for sale) confiscated, and some have been shot attempting to flee the police. The number of street children in Pakistan is estimated to be between 1.2 million and 1.5 million (UNICEF, 2008). Meaning that, the country has one of the world's largest street children populations. Although, this number remains anecdotal since it was cited over 10 years ago. There has been no head-count or a mapping study of street children in Pakistan except in Karachi which were also limited to certain geographical areas. These studies show that the numbers may be much higher now after the increasing poverty, people's displacement after the natural disasters and war on terrorism in Pakistan. It is estimated that there are over 118,000 boys living and/or working on streets just in Karachi. Past efforts have been initiated by UNICEF and other NGOs to assist children in need through various programs and rehabilitation centers, however, the situation

remains as a prominent socio-economic issue in Pakistan in the 21st century (Berezina, 1997).

According to the 1998 Situation of the Youth in the Philippines report, there are about 1.5 million street children in the Philippines, 70% of which are boys. Street children as young as ten years old can be imprisoned alongside adults under the Vagrancy Act; in past cases, physical and sexual abuse have occurred as a result of this legislation (Department of Youth Policy, 2012). According to The Street Educators' Club, the number of street children in Vietnam has shrunk from 21,000 in 2003 to 8,000 in 2007. The number dropped from 1,507 to 113 in Hanoi and from 8,507 to 794 in Ho Chi Minh City. There are currently almost 400 humanitarian organizations and international non-governmental organizations providing help to about 15,000 Vietnamese children (UNICEF, 2008).

Greece's street child activity is heavily connected with human trafficking, especially with immigrants from Russia. In 2003, street children located in state-run facilities had disappeared. The disappearance is suspected to be linked to human trafficking (Patt, Abramov & Loselerich, 2010). The numbers have decreased in recent years and Greece has taken legislative action to criminalize human trafficking and related crimes, though Amnesty International reports that the problem still exists and there is a failure of government protection and justice of trafficked children. Begging and other street activities have been outlawed in Greece since 2003, but the recent unemployment hike has increased levels of these actions. There are few programs for displaced children in Greece, which created a street child problem in the early 2000s. Giving foster parents to special needs children is

not something the Greek government has done, leading to higher numbers of physically or mentally disabled street children (Berezina, 1997). There are also deterrents for working and poor parents in Greece making them more willing to force their children to the streets. For example, orphans are given financial benefits, but if they live in state-run facilities they cannot receive these benefits. For working parents to get government subsidies, they often have to have more than one child.

In an effort to increase Romania's work force, former communist leader Nicolae Ceauşescu outlawed contraception and abortion in 1966. Thousands of unwanted children were placed in state orphanages where they faced terrible conditions. With the fall of Communism, many children moved onto the streets. Some were from the orphanages, while others were runaways from impoverished families. Today there are 20,000 children living on the streets while the resources for sheltering these homeless youths are severely limited (Sousa, 2012). A 2000 report from the Council of Europe estimated that there were approximately 1,000 street children in the city of Bucharest (Boswell, 1998). The prevalence of street children has led to a burgeoning sex tourism business in Romania, although efforts have been made to decrease the number of street children in the country. The 2001 documentary film Children Underground documents the plight of Romanian street children, in particular their struggles with malnutrition, sexual exploitation, and substance abuse.

In Russia there were about 7500 homeless street children in 2003, decreased to 4270 in 2005. By the end of 2011, the number of street children made 5266 kids. The number of Russian children that once lost their parents' support by the end of 2011 was 654,355. This includes 522,802 kids being on

fostergage or adopted, and 105,688 kids in orphanages (Del, 1988)). In Turkey, 1,641 street children are estimated mainly in İstanbul. Street children are most present in the eastern part of the country (Boswell, 1998). Diyarbakır is one of the eastern cities where most of Turkey's remaining street children live.

According to some estimates made in 1982 by UNICEF, there were forty million street children in Latin America, most of whom work on the streets, but they do not necessarily live on the streets (Duncan, 1998). A majority of the street children in Latin America are males between the ages of 10 and 14. There are two categories of street children in Latin America: home-based and street-based. Home-based children have homes and families to return to, while street-based children do not. A majority of street children in Latin America are home-based. The Brazilian government estimates that the number of children and adolescents in 2012 who work or sleep on the streets were approximately 23,973, based on results from the national census mandated by the Human Rights Secretariat of the Presidency (SDH) and the Institute for Sustainable Development (Consortiun for Street Children, 2012).

An estimated two million youth run away from or are forced out of their homes each year in the United States. 1.6 million youths are currently homeless (Boswell, 1998). The difference in these numbers can be attributed to the temporary nature of street children in the United States, unlike the more permanent state in developing countries. Street children in the United States tend to stay in the state, 83% do not leave their state of origin. If they leave, street children are likely to end up in large cities, notably New York City, Los Angeles, Portland, Oregon, and San Francisco. Street children are

predominantly Caucasian and female in the United States, and 42% identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender (Flowers, 2010). The United States government has been making efforts since the late 1970s to accommodate this section of the population. The Runaway and Homeless Youth Act of 1978 made funding available for shelters and funded the National Runaway Switchboard (Flowers, 2010). Other efforts include the Child Abuse and Treatment Act of 1974, the National Child Abuse and Neglect Data System, and the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Detention Act. There has also been a decline of arrest rates in street youth, dropping in 30,000 arrests from 1998 to 2007 (Flowers, 2010). Instead, the authorities are referring homeless youth to state-run social service agencies.

Economic activity

As street children must provide for themselves, work is a very important aspect of their lives. Unfortunately, working conditions for street children are often very poor because they are confined to working in the informal sector, which is unregulated by the government. In Bombay, 50,000 children are illegally employed by 11,750 hotels, restaurants, canteens, tea shops, and eating places. Because of street children's lack of protection from a family and the law, employers often exploit them, making them virtual prisoners, sometimes withholding pay, and abusing them. Employers that would not mistreat the children often will not hire them because they are seen as too great of a risk (Kombarakaran, 2004).

Because of the low pay from employers, street children in India often choose to be self-employed or work multiple jobs. In fact, the majority of them are self-employed. One of the most common economic activities done by

the children is scavenging for recyclable materials, such as plastic, paper, and metal. Other jobs include cleaning cars; petty vending, selling small items such as balloons or sweets, newspapers or flowers, begging, shining shoes, working in small hotels, working on construction sites and working in roadside stalls or repair shops (Singh, 2011). Street children, especially the older children, are also sometimes engaged in activities such as stealing, pick-pocketing, drug-peddling, and prostitution, though this is a small proportion. Most of the street children work between eight to ten hours total each day in their various economic activities. Children were exposed to the dance halls, saloons, small theaters, and other forms of pleasure seeking during their non-work time, and many of these establishments encouraged gambling, prostitution, and drunkenness. In addition, ethnic gangs emerged. Many lower-class parents condoned life on the streets for their children as a means of supplementing family income. In New York, for example, boys might be involved in huckstering, scavenging, peddling, errand running, bootblacking, horseholding, and newspaper selling (The National Center on Family Homelessness, 2011).

The earnings of street children fluctuate greatly, but they usually only make enough for subsistence. Most street children in India earn between 200 ($4.00) and 830 rupees a month, with older children making more than younger children. Self-employed children also typically make more than children who are employed under an employer. The largest expense in a street child's budget is food, which often costs five to10 rupees a day (Bose, 1992). In order to cut down on food expenses, many children drink tea to dull hunger. The money street children earn that is not spent on food is usually quickly

spent on other things because older children and police frequently steal their money (Bose, 1992). This lack of ability to save causes severe financial insecurity. While children occasionally send some of their earnings home to their families, they spend most of their extra money on entertainment. Many street children spend 300 rupees a month on movies, though older children also use their money to buy cigarettes, chewing tobacco, alcohol, and drugs (Bose, 1992). Street children often spend very little on clothing because their employers often provide clothes for work or their families occasionally give them clothes if they know where they are living.

Education

The education of street children in India is very poor and often non-existent. A study of street children in Bombay in 1989 found that 54.5 percent had never been enrolled in school and 66 percent of the children were illiterate. A 2004 study of street children in Bombay revealed that circumstances were largely the same: 60 percent of the children had never attended school and approximately two-thirds were illiterate. Thirty percent had been to elementary school, while only 10 percent had been to middle or high school. In fact, many children in the 2004 study said that one of the reasons they ran away from home is because they did not want to be forced to work and unable to attend school (Chatterjee, 1992). Obviously, however, the demands of living alone make it very unlikely that they will be able to obtain education through leaving.

Relationships and coping

The street children in India are especially vulnerable among low-income children because they do not have the support structures that other

children normally have, namely families and the psychological and monetary support they offer (Chatterjee, 1992). Thus, street children adopt strategies to cope with the harsh realities of their lives. For many, these strategies include developing a tough exterior and strong independence to hide their vulnerability. Street children live in survival-mode, constantly having to be aware of their surroundings and fight for their safety. These circumstances lead children to engage in behaviors that children in families typically do not, such as creating a new identity, using aggression frequently, and valuing relationships based on what can be gained from them.

While the majority of street children in India have been found to use positive coping mechanisms to deal with the stress of their lives, some choose maladaptive strategies, such as drinking alcohol, using drugs, and visiting prostitutes. When questioned about their substance use, many street children in Bombay reported that the cause was frustration concerning living on the street or conflicts in their family which caused them to leave home (Bose, 1992). Fortunately, street children are not entirely on their own. Many form groups with other street children to protect themselves. These groups normally have a leader and specific territory; unfortunately, though these groups bring safety to most, younger children are sometimes used by the leader to steal or do other illegal activities (Bose, 1992). Street children in Bombay report relying on their friends for help when they are sick, money when they run out, and information about work when they need a job. Street children spend much of their free time with their friends, often going with them to the movies.

Among the most important deprivations faced by street children is the lack of a protective and guiding adult, but some street children manage to find

individuals to fulfill this role. Though most live on their own or with friends, some street children form connections with families that live on the streets or in slums and see these families as their substitute families. Many of these children find a "mother-figure" that cares for them when they are ill and is interested in their well-being (Mathur, 2009).

Health and nutrition

Street children in India face additional vulnerability because of their lack of access to nutritious food, sanitation, and medical care. Street children lack access to nutritious food because many are dependent on leftovers from small restaurants or hotels, food stalls, or garbage bins (Singh, 2011). In a study of street children in Bombay in 1990, 62.5 percent of the children obtained food from hotels. Lack of sanitation in bathing, toilets, and water also contributes to poor health. In the same study of street children in Bombay, 29.6 percent of children reported bathing in the sea and 11.5 percent reported bathing in pipes, wells, or canals. Street children also lack restroom facilities, demonstrated by the fact that 26.4 percent of the children used the roadside or railway line for their toilet. For water, 69.1 percent of the children reported asking restaurants or hotels for water with 15.6 percent using pipes and water taps (Panter-Brick, 2002).

Most of the street children in India also lack access to medical care, which is especially detrimental during times of illness or injury. The study of street children in Bombay found that 34.9 percent had an injury and 18.9 percent had a fever in the past three months. Only about a third of the children received any help with their illness or injury, though some were able to receive help at a government clinic. Other studies have found that many illnesses are

very prevalent among street children (Panter-Brick, 2002). A study conducted in 2002 on the street children in Kolkata found that six in every 554 street children from ages five to 14 are HIV positive. In Bangor Basti, 98 percent of children are estimated to have dental caries. Additionally, most street children do not have winter clothing, leaving them more vulnerable to illness during the winter (Singh, 2011).

Government and Non-Government Responses

While some governments have implemented programs to deal with street children, the general solution involves placing the children into orphanages, juvenile homes, or correctional institutions. Efforts have been made by various governments to support or partner with non-government organizations. There are four categories of how societies deal with street children: Correctional model, Rehabilitative model, Outreach strategies, and Preventive approach (UNICEF, 2008). The Correctional model is primarily used by governments and the police. They view children as a public nuisance and risk to security of the general public. The objective of this model would be to protect the public and help keep the kids away from a life of crime. The methods this model uses to keep the children away from the life of crime are the juvenile justice system and specific institutions. The Rehabilitative model is supported by churches and NGOs. The view of this model is that street children are damaged and in need of help. The objective of this model is to rehabilitate children into mainstream society. The methods used to keep children from going back to the streets are education, drug detoxification programs, and providing children with a safe family-like environment. The Outreach strategy is supported by street teachers, NGOs, and church

organizations. This strategy views street children as oppressed individuals in need of support from their communities. The objective of the Outreach strategy is to empower the street children by providing outreach education and training to support children. The Preventive approach is supported by NGOs, the coalition of street children, and lobbying governments. They view street children's poor circumstances from negative social and economic forces. In order to help street children, this approach focuses on the problems that cause children to leave their homes for the street by targeting parents' unemployment, poor housing campaign for children's rights.

Non-government organizations employ a wide variety of strategies to address the needs and rights of street children. One example of NGO effort is "The Street Children's Day", launched by Jugend Eine Welt on January 31, 2009 to highlight the situation of street children. The "Street Children's Day" has been commemorated every year since its inception in 2009. Street children differ in age, gender, ethnicity, social class and these children have had different experiences throughout their lifetimes. UNICEF (2008) differentiates between the different types of children living on the street in three different categories: candidates for the street (street children who work and hang out on the streets), children on the streets (children who work on the street but have a home to go to at night), and children of the street (children who live on the street without family support).

Horatio Alger's book, Tattered Tom; or, The Story of a Street Arab is an early example of the appearance of street children in literature. The book follows the tale of a homeless girl who lives by her wits on the streets of New York, US. Other examples from popular fiction include Kim, from Kipling's

novel of the same name, who is a street child in colonial India. Gavroche, in Victor Hugo's Les Misérables, Fagin's crew of child pickpockets in Oliver Twist, a similar group of child thieves in Funke's The Thief Lord, and Sherlock Holmes' "Baker Street Irregulars" are other notable examples of the presence of street children in popular works of literature (UNICEF, 2005).

Meaning and Nature of Recreation

The term recreation is a difficult concept to define; however, it has been defined differently by many people in their attempt to do so. Recreation is any activity pursued during leisure, either on individual or collective basis that is free, and pleasurable having its own immediate appeal which is impelled by a delayed reward beyond itself or by any immediate necessity (Neumeyer, 1961). Activity is the most common use of the term recreation while the particular activity is merely the vehicle for the experience. Recreation is most often considered to mean enjoyable activities and they are variously considered as being sports or games, crafts, arts and the performing arts, music, dramatics, nature study, travel, hobbies and social activities.

Historically, the term recreation stems from the Latin word "recreatio" meaning "that which refreshes or restores". In its traditional sense, it has been regarded as a period of light restful activity voluntarily chosen, which restores one for heavy, obligatory activity or work (Kraus 1978). Kraus (1978) defines recreation in the modern sense as a worthwhile, socially accepted leisure experience that provides immediate and inherent satisfaction to the individual who voluntarily participates in an activity.

Recreation is an activity of leisure, leisure being discretionary time (McLean, Peterson & Martin, 2005). The need to do something for recreation

is an essential element of human biology and psychology. Recreational activities are often done for enjoyment, amusement, or pleasure and are considered to be fun (Bruce, 1995). The term recreation implies participation to be healthy, refreshing mind and body (Bruce, 2005). According to Bucher (1983), recreation is that field or endeavour concerned with those socially acceptable and worthwhile activities in which a person voluntarily participates during leisure hours which he may better develop physically, mentally, emotionally and socially. Miller and Robinson (1983), defined recreation as activities engaged in purposely with free, happy natural attitudes, full of fun and expression. Other definitions have included the following elements. Recreation is widely regarded as activity including physical, mental, social or emotional involvement as contrasted with other idleness or complete rest. Secondly, recreation may include an extremely wide range of activities such as sports, games, crafts, performing arts, fine arts, music, dramatics, travel, hobbies and social activities. They may be engaged in individually or in groups and may involve single or episodic participation or sustained and frequent involvement throughout one's life time (Miller & Robinson, 1983). The choice of activity or involvement is voluntary, free of compulsion or obligation. Recreation is promoted by internal motivation and the desire to achieve personal satisfaction rather than by extrinsic goal or rewards. Recreation is heavily dependent on a state of mind or attitude, it is not so much what one does as the reason for doing it and the way the individual feels about the activity that makes it recreation. Recreation has emerged as a significant social institution with its own values and traditions, structures and organization and professional groups and skilled practitioners.

Humans spend their time in activities of daily living, work, sleep, social duties, and leisure, the after time being free from prior commitments to physiologic or social needs, a prerequisite of recreation (Thomas, 1970). According to Thomas (1970), recreation has increased with increased longevity and, for many, with decreased hours spent for physical and economic survival, yet others argue that time pressure has increased for modern people, as they are committed to too many tasks. Other factors that account for an increased role of recreation are affluence, population trends, and increased commercialization of recreational offerings (McLean et al., 2005). While one perception is that leisure is just "spare time", time not consumed by the necessities of living, another holds that leisure is a force that allows individuals to consider to reflect on the values and realities that are missed in the activities of daily life, thus being an essential element of personal development and civilization (Bruce, 1995). This direction of thought has been extended to the view that leisure is the purpose of work, and a reward in itself and "leisure life" reflects the values and character of a nation (Bruce, 1995).

According to Bruce (1995), recreation is difficult to separate from the general concept of play, which is usually the term for children's recreational activity. Children may playfully imitate activities that reflect the realities of adult life. It has been proposed that play or recreational activities are outlets of or expression of excess energy, channeling it into socially acceptable activities that fulfill individuals as well as societal needs, without need for compulsion, and providing satisfaction and pleasure for the participant. A traditional view holds that work is supported by recreation, recreation being useful to

"recharge the battery" so that work performance is improved (Thomas, 1970). Thomas (1970) is of the view that, work, an activity generally performed out of economic necessity and useful for society and organized within the economic framework, however can also be pleasurable and may be self-imposed thus, blurring the distinction to recreation. Many activities may be work for one person and recreation for another, or, at an individual level, over time recreational activity may become work, and vice-versa. Thus, for a musician, playing an instrument may be at one time a profession, and at another a recreation, there is a lot more to do.

Recreation is an important part of human life and finds many different forms which are shaped naturally by individual interests, but also by the surrounding social construction (McLean et al., 2005). Recreational activities can be communal, or solitary, active or passive, outdoors or indoors, healthy or harmful, and useful for society or detrimental (McLean et al., 2005). A list of typical activities could be almost endless including most human activities, a few examples being reaching, playing or listening to music, watching movies or TV, gardening, hunting, hobbies, sports, studies, and travel. McLean et al. (2005), are of the view that not all recreational activities can be considered wise, healthy, or socially acceptable or useful – examples are gambling, drinking or delinquent activities.

Bruce (1995) is of the view that recreational drugs are being used to enhance the recreational experience, a wide-ranging and controversial subject as some drugs are accepted or tolerated by society within limits, others not, and declared illegal. Public space as parks and beaches are essential venues for many recreational activities. Tourism has recognized that many visitors are

specifically attracted by recreational offerings. In support of recreational activities, government has taken an important role in their creation, maintenance, and organization, and whole industries have developed merchandise or services (McLean et al., 2005). Recreation-related business in an important factor in the economy, it has been estimated that the outdoor recreation sector alone contributes $ 730 million annually to the U.S economy and generates 6.5 million jobs (Bruce, 1995). Many recreational activities are organized, typically by public institutions, voluntary group-work agencies, private groups supported by membership fees, and commercial enterprises. Examples of each of these are the National Park Service, the YMCA, the Kiwanis, and Disney World.

According to Smith and Raab (1986), recreation has many healthy benefits, and, accordingly recreational therapy has been developed to take advantage of this effect. Such therapy is applied in rehabilitation, and in the care of the elderly, the disabled or people with economic diseases. Recreational physical activity is important to reduce obesity, and the risk of osteoporosis and of cancer, most significantly in men that of colon and prostate and in women that of the breast, however, not all malignancies are reduced as outdoors recreation has been linked to a higher risk of melanoma. Extreme adventure recreation naturally carries its own hazards (Smith & Raab, 1986).

According to Bruce (1995), a recreation specialist would be expected to meet the recreational needs of a community or assigned interest group. Educational institutions offer courses that lead to a degree as a bachelor of arts in recreation management. People with such degrees often work in parks and

recreation centers in towns, on community projects and activities. Networking with instructors, budgeting and education of continuing programs are common job duties. In the United States, most States have a professional organization for continuing education and certification in recreation management. The National Recreation and Park Association, administers a certification program called Certified Park and Recreation Professional (CPRP) that is considered a national standard for professional recreation specialist practices.

According to Beck (1979) recreation refers to particular activities performed during free time. Beck (1979) is of the view that definitions of recreation vary, but generally they include concepts surrounding any activity viewed or participated in for the purpose of exercise, learning, skill-building, socialization, or simple enjoyment. Both youth with and without disabilities who do not have sufficient opportunity for healthy recreational involvement are at risk for delinquency and involvement in juvenile courts. These children miss out on more than the opportunity to recreate or play sports. They have fewer chances to gain important interpersonal skills, foster their own self-esteem, and learn concepts of team work and problem-solving. Educators and professionals in the field of recreation observe that youth with disabilities drop out of school at higher rates than do their non-disabled peers, and drop out of parks and recreation programs at higher rates (U.S. Department of Justice, 1998).

Cognitive and emotional problems also can impede a youth's ability to successfully participation in recreation programs. Because of their inadequate social skills, poor perceptual-motor coordination, slow mental processing, and high frustration levels, members of this population are not well suited to be on

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a team with "regular" kids. Comments such as, "kids with attention deficit disorders can't play in this 3 league" or "instead of playing with your neighbours, you should look for a team with people like you" (referring to a child with mild mental retardation), are more common than most people think. Comments like these have been and are still being made by coaches, teachers, recreation personnel, and business people who sponsor and coach sports leagues. They result in youth experiencing "exclusion" from recreation activities, especially youth who feel stigmatized because of their disability.

Exclusion may be viewed as any physical, emotional, or cultural barrier, real or perceived, that prevents full participation in an activity (Smith & Raab, 1986). Exclusion also may occur when staff members' ignorance regarding the needs of youth with disabilities prevent them provision of recreation experiences in ways that allow these youth to comprehend, internalize, and fully benefit from participation in the activity. For example, an older child with a learning disability may tend to stay away from reading because he or she has been teased at school. Subsequently that youth may shy away from posted notices or mailings that advertise events or activities. Thus, this youth may miss the opportunity to participate in healthy, constructive outlets for his or her leisure time. Another example would be a pre-adolescent female diagnosed with attention deficit disorder who finds it difficult to successfully complete tasks that require lengthy directions or simple (which is often viewed as "boring") mental effort. These difficulties may negatively impact her relationships with other children engaged in the tasks and in turn reduce the quality or quantity of her positive peer relationships, leading to isolation and loneliness. If she lacks adequate coping skills, has a negative

belief about her ability to "fit in" or is not accepted by her peers this will certainly put her at risk for illicit substance abuse and or criminal activity (Miller & Robinson, 1983). This will be exacerbated if she receives positive reinforcement from peers when conducting socially unacceptable activities or behaviors. Kraus (1978), found that positive affection and emotion, such as that which might result from successful recreational involvement, leads to enhanced performance in new learning tasks in areas such as maths and obtaining vocabulary.

McLean et al., (2005), found that children with learning disabilities turn to their families less for problem-solving support and to their peers less for all types of other support than do their non-disabled peers. For the young people, free-time activity represents an opportunity to make decisions for themselves, to develop new or strengthen existing peer relationships, to measure their confidence and self-esteem, and to test the organization and resourcefulness of the community in which they live. Adolescents define themselves through their freely chosen recreation activities, which allow them to try new roles, explore feelings and friendships, and test their beliefs and capabilities in a relatively safe environment. The degree to which an individual exercises freedom of choice and perceives that he or she is competent to perform the selected activity will impact the outcome of their participation and whether it is intrinsically satisfying. People profit from recreation physically, psychologically, emotionally, intellectually, and in some cases, spiritually (Kraus, 1978).

When the recreation experience captivates the participant, this individual brings his or her particular style of learning, motivation, and

expectation about the experience to the setting. Researchers in the field of learning and educational psychology have discovered a variety of cognitive and behavioral outcomes for participating in recreation activities. These outcomes include: behaviour change, skills learning, increased visual memory, information (factual) learning, concept learning, schemata learning, meta cognitive learning and attitude change, and "value" learning (Lovell, 1979). According to Lovell (1979), moderate physical recreation activities are known to reduce the symptoms of mild or moderate depression and anxiety through improved self-image, social skills, and mental health. The noted psychological benefits of recreation activity are: enhanced sense of freedom, independence and autonomy, enhanced self-competence through improved sense of self-worth, self-reliance and self-confidence, ability to socialize with others, that includes greater tolerance and understanding, enriched capability for team membership, heightened creative ability, improved expressions of and reflection on personal and spiritual ideals, greater adaptability and resiliency, better sense of humor, enhanced quality of life and more balanced view of competition and a more positive outlook on life (Clark & Shields, 1997).

McLean, Peterson & Martin (2005), in a study focusing on outdoor recreation, reported social benefits that are important for youth, such as increased compassion and respect for others. Outdoor adventure experience, a wilderness-based recreation adventure, has produced a small number of studies citing positive effects on a variety of participants (e.g., juvenile delinquents, substance abusers, groups with mixed abilities, adolescents with emotional disturbances, psychiatric patients, and persons with physical disabilities) when they are integrated with their non-disabled peers. Positive

changes have occurred in self-concept, self-esteem, trust, group cooperation, skill development, and improved health among others (Clark & Shields, 1997). It is now widely accepted that integration in recreation settings benefits people with and without disabilities. According to Lovell, (1979), participants with disabilities, social activity and interpersonal relationships were most impacted. For participants without disabilities, employment, recreation and tolerance of stress were most impacted.

For youth, recreation represents a prime opportunity for exercising self-discovery, trial and error, and personal responsibility. Lack of exposure to these opportunities can result in inappropriate social behaviours that preclude satisfying leisure experiences. In order to take advantage of the benefits of recreation, one must become involved in it. One way to enhance one's recreation knowledge is to be exposed to as many different types of activities as possible. Adolescence is a time of exploration. Unfortunately, without proper intervention, these young people generally find it much easier to steer away from organized recreation and team sports activities, and instead involve themselves in destructive or socially unacceptable acts either individually or with a group. The opportunities provided the activities participated in, and the impact (both positive and negative) of this participation will greatly influence a youth's opportunity to build self-esteem, foster self-determination, and promote confidence in his or her own ability to have positive relationships with others. A variety of leisure services exist primarily to provide opportunities for people, individually and collectively, to engage in leisure pursuits that satisfy their personal goals and to provide leisure opportunities that contribute to social, physical, educational, cultural, and general well-being

of the community and its people. These services can be provided by Private Non-Profit Sub-system organizations such as youth-serving agencies (YMCA, Girls/Boys Clubs, church-sponsored recreation, and social and fraternal organizations such as country clubs, Kiwanis). Each sub-division promotes its own philosophies and purposes for providing recreation opportunities to the general public (Lovell, 1979). Depending upon how one wishes to spend his or her leisure time, the philosophy and purpose behind a particular type of organization can help steer him or her toward meeting his or her needs. Agencies located within each of the sub-divisions, as stated in the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990 must serve persons with disabilities. Some States maintain their own parks. However, some programs administered by the above-stated leisure services may have stipulations for participation, which under the ADA are called eligibility criteria. Eligibility criteria can be based on health and safety requirements, cost of service, knowledge of or experience in the program's activity, equipment and material usage, transportation and training guidelines (Lovell, 1979). Unfortunately, some of those eligibility criteria might prevent youth that are at risk from being given the opportunity to take part in leisure services.

In Ghana, the huge number of rural workers and youth drifting to the city should raise a question of what to do with leisure time. The rural dwellers normally move to the cities in search of greener pastures. Some of them also have the notion that once you move to the city you can make a meaningful life. As a result, most of these rural dwellers move to the cities without knowing anybody and without a vocation in certain cases. The end result is that most of them end up on the streets because they find it difficult to fend for

themselves left alone thinking of making any meaningful use of their leisure time. Additionally, it stirs up the sense of human rights too. One of the articles of the United Nations Declaration Rights according to Nixon, Lance and Frederickson (1984), states "every man has a right to leisure, right to participation in the cultural life of the community, right to education directed towards the development of the human personality''. Meaning, the children on the streets have a share in the above mentioned rights declared by the United Nations without any denial. For example, children on the street have the right to access and participation in any leisure or recreational activity of their choice, right to education etc. including for instance the freedom of association, which shall include the freedom to form or join any club eg. Boy's scouts, girl's guildes, redcross, keep fit clubs and other associations at community, district, regional, national and even international levels in order to enhance the full development of the human personality.

Moreso, the declaration of Human Rights of the Child, says "the child shall have the full opportunity for play and recreation which should be directed to the same purposes as education, society and public authorities shall endeavour to promote the enjoyment of this right"- UN Convention. A widening recognition of the meaning and place of recreation in a developing civilization marks the history of many countries today. Without exception, recreation has been theorized, defined and categorized as being a positive tool or force in lowering the incidence of delinquent behaviours (Nixon, Lance & Frederickson, 1984). The above statement means that, every nation should strive for more recreational centres for the youth which will serve as an avenue or place for especially school and other children to have fun on days or

times when there is not much to be done at home or school thereby reducing the number of times they tend to end up on the streets. Thus, the more recreational centres we have, the more children would want to play and the lesser the occurrence of their delinquent behaviours.

Delinquency and its causes

Delinquency is a term used to describe any act punishable by law. A juvenile delinquent is a person under eighteen (18) years of age who commits offences (Annoh, 1992). Burt, (1965) considered delinquency to be an outstanding sample – dangerous perhaps and extreme, but nonetheless typical of common childish naughtiners. Delinquency continues to confound a broad range of behavioral specialists the world over. Some point to child abuse as the key factor while others suggest that child abuse alone is not a predicator of delinquency. Some theorists indicate that socio-economic conditions combined with peer influences can be an enormous factor in the development of delinquent behaviour.

Annoh (1992), listed three types of delinquency. The first one is "familial delinquency" in which significant determinants of antisocial behaviour is thought to be home conditions such as bad supervision from home poverty and broken homes in which children's essential needs are not met, absence of proper parental guidance and delinquency homes where parents or other relatives are criminals. The second is "personality delinquency" where people develop character disorders through excessive emotional stress, worries, frustration and unhappiness. Thirdly, "sociological or situational delinquency" is caused by hard peer group influence and high delinquent areas in towns and cities. According to sociology perspective the

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family is an appropriate focus of attempt to understand juvenile delinquency. Because it is the major socializing agency of the child, it may be effective in building social controls that inhibit delinquent behaviour (Reiss, 1992).

The youth normally become delinquent when their psychological, physiological and sociological needs are not provided. Some of these needs are food, security (protection), love, recognition, affiliation, approval and competence. Children take to the streets when these needs are not met, especially, food. One of the most critical problems confronting Ghanaians is the growth of social deviation. Maladjustment and disorders are part of the changing society and these seem to affect the juvenile in unusual ways. Neumeyer, (1961), in appreciating the problems associated with industrialization said that the dynamics of modern society have produced a noticeable increase in juvenile delinquency and adult crime throughout the world, including Africa. Meaning, even though factories and industries are being built, provision is not made for recreational centers or facilities. In areas where attempts are made, the facilities are inadequate to meet the increasing number of people living in those areas. Some causes of delinquency are discussed below:

Peer influence

Matherne and Thomas (2001), conducted a research which focuses on the notion of bonds as a means of encouraging delinquent behaviour. Wong pointed out that young people who associate with groups or individuals pursing positive goals and commitments have a far less chance of engaging in delinquent behaviour. Matherne and Thomas (2001), found in contrast that, there are activities that lack long term objectives, lack a sense of commitment

and responsibility, and involve casual or volatile relationships. For example, Wong found that activities such as smoking and drinking do not serve long-term objectives. According to Matherne and Thomas (2001), the more time spent involved in behaviour that has no sense of direction or long-term commitment to it (such as watching television), the greater the likelihood that one will begin to engage in delinquent behaviors. This is especially true when people around you are encouraging the lack of long-term goals or commitments.

Vitaro, Brandgen and Tremblay (2000), support Matherne and Thomas's theory by saying that spending time with deviant friends exerts a great deal of pressure on a young person to adopt the same behaviours. The peer influence socialization model proclaims that weak bonding to conventional peers lead to association with deviant friends, which in turn is responsible for initiation or aggravation of delinquent behaviors (Elliot, Hazinga & Mesard, 1998). The presence of even one non-deviant friend may be able to mitigate some of the influence from friends who engage in deviant behaviour. Each individual brings their own norms and values and the friendship is unique in that respect. However, deviant peers also amplified the link between disruptive behaviours and later delinquency for early starters (Vitaro et al., 2002). Vitaro, et al., also realized that if a person's best friend engages in delinquent behaviors, the person will have the tendency towards delinquent behaviors too even if they have friends who engage in positive behaviours. The bond between best friends is often so strong it can resist other influence (Vitaro et al., 2002). In their study, they found that while parental influence can also be effective, sometimes once the bond with a friend is

established, it is difficult even for those youth with a strong parental attachment to break the cycle of delinquency.

Family influence

According to Elliot (1994), those who believe in the peer influence model also tend to support the belief that the family has a strong influence on the development of positive or delinquent behaviour. They state: some researchers used measures such as parental control, discipline, or supervision (that is monitoring), whereas other researchers focused on the affective nature of the parent-child relationship (that is attachment, closeness, acceptance and rejection). A number of studies examined separately with conflicting results (Vitaro et al, 2002). Matherne and Thomas, (2001), noted that delinquency is most definitely on the rise in America today. The number of youths who run away from home and the number of drop-outs are increasing every year. Matherne and Thomas (2001), agree that family influence is one of the predictors in the development of delinquent behaviour. The family influence can be much more powerful than the influence of one's peers (Matherne & Thomas, 2001). This, according to Matherne and Thomas, suggests that a positive family influence with strong emotional bonding and positive communication strategies can mitigate the influence of deviant peers in a young person's life. They clarify this by stating that the family type is also extremely important and children or youth from non-traditional families (single, reconstituted) have a far greater chance of engaging in delinquent behaviour than children or youth from traditional families. For non-traditional families, there was a significant relationship between delinquency and cohesion (Burt, East, Shrubsall & Stoddart, 1993).

With respect to traditional versus non – traditional families, Matherne and Thomas (2001), went on to say that one of the reasons why children or youth from traditional families may be less likely to engage in delinquency is the presence of family resources. With more resources, traditional families may provide a more balanced home environment and devote more time and energy to their children. For example, traditional families may allocate more time for family interaction, such as communication (Matherne & Thomas, 2001). They also state that good parenting skills can also serve as a means to prevent juvenile delinquency. In terms of family influence, there may be some validity to the notion that non-tradition families have a more difficult time raising children. There is often the problem of being a single parent which means economic resources are stretched to the limit and the parent likely has far less time to spend with their children. A single parent also has the added pressure of trying to provide emotional support for all the children in addition to being the economic support.

Reconstituted families can experience difficulties in the area of communications and emotional support. Children may not relate well to a step-parent and vice versa. There may also be hard feelings around the issues of divorces and lack of, or limited access to a parent who is deeply missed. These factors must surely be considered in terms of understanding the ways in which non-traditional families function. Some researchers suggest that just as effective parenting can have a positive influence on young people, so the opposite is true. Parents who are poor communicators, unable to establish strong emotional ties and or provide little to no support for children risk seeing

them engage in delinquent behavior. There is also the more extreme form of dysfunctional parenting with those who engage in illegal or criminal behavior.

In studies comparing the demographically matched controls, children of substance abusers exhibit more behavior, higher rates of psychiatric disorder, and greater use of illicit drugs (Keller, 2002). The same researchers suggest that there may be some similarities between children whose parents are substance abusers and children of divorced parents. While the parents themselves do not exhibit the same characteristics, the children do. The largest factor is the disruption of their lives. Children of divorced parents often face emotional conflicts regarding their allegiance to either one or both of their parents. The children also face a difficulty in scheduling time with their parents and the adjustment of new influences when their biological parents remarry. Children and adolescents who experience family disturbances due to divorce and remarriage typically demonstrate higher levels of aggressive, deviant, and delinquent behavior. One explanation is that marital breakup produces conditions and consequences that have an adverse effect on children (Keller, 2002).

In addition to disruptions due to a restructuring of their family, children or youth may also have to cope with different parenting styles. The step-parent may be far more strict than they are accustomed to which could cause an emotional backlash on the part of the child. The opposite could also be true. In order to compensate for disrupting their lives, a step-parent can be another adult in the home. Their parenting style may be too loose and the child will start to experience a lack of structure, or an easing of the rules. Either way could prove confusing and manifest itself in stress-related behavior. If one

adds the component of substance abuse by either or both parents, the result could be disastrous for the children. Effects from an unresolved initial divorce may be amplified by each succeeding disruption. Chronic family instability would presumably be harder to overcome for children of substance abusers who also confront multiple other risks (Keller, 2002). While it is not surprising that research demonstrates the vulnerability of delinquent behaviour by children and youth of parents who are substance abusers, it is interesting that this same vulnerability exists for children and youth in other disruptive situations.

According to Keller (2002), parental disruption is one of the key predictors of delinquent behaviour. These disruptions can be varied in nature from divorce, to parental depression (other serious illness), inconsistent parenting constantly moving from one place to another, and at least one parent committing a crime. The consistency in the lives of children leaves them at great risk of delinquent behavior. Children can handle adversity as long as they have at least one stable and consistent parent (Keller, 2002). Meaning, a loving, supportive, stable and consistent parent can serve as a mitigating factor in terms of their child developing delinquent behaviour. According to Clark and Shields (1997), effective communication can have a positive influence on children and adults. When parents are able to communicate with their children in compassionate, supportive and non-judgmental tones, it does seem more likely that the children will feel understood and accepted. This pattern of communication is more likely to lead to a positive self-image and a higher sense of self-esteem and serve as a buffer against any negative, external factors. Some would suggest that it is not only the communication itself that is

of high importance but the focus of the communication (Clark & Shields, 1997).

Trauma

Traumatic incidents in the life of young people correlate with delinquent behavior. The National Child Traumatic Stress Network has conducted research on the relationship between traumatic events in a young person's life and delinquent behavior. A sad and unfortunate reality of life in our modern world is that far too many children and young people are abused and traumatized every day. Some of these abuses are infrequent, whereas others occur on regular basis. The abuse may vary in nature as physical, sexual, or psychological, or as a combination. There is no doubt that whatever the nature of the abuse it can have long lasting and profound effects on a young person's life.

Another truly sad effect of childhood trauma is that it often involves someone the child has come to know and trust such as parent, sibling, babysitter, relative, caregiver, or teacher. This violation of trust only multiplies the effect of the trauma or abuse. Numerous studies over the past ten years have shown a clear relationship between youth victimization and a variety of problems in later life, including mental health problems, substance abuse, impaired social relationship, suicide and delinquency (Siegfried & Kelly, 2004). The correlation between the abuse of young people and the development of serious problems in life is not a surprising one and may turn out to be one of the most significant factors in the development of delinquent behavior. The violence or trauma does not only take place in a person's home. Even if a person lives in a violent neighborhood (sometimes referred to as a

war zone), it is possible to be affected by the violence or trauma. Adolescents are capable of understanding concept and so adolescents are affected differently by traumatic and abusive incidents (Siegfried & Kelly, 2004).

According to Siegfried and Kelly (2004), data is available on the correlation between delinquent behaviour and traumatic or abusive incidents through the National Survey of Adolescents. The survey reveals that over 47% of boys who are sexually assaulted will go on to commit delinquent acts, almost 20% of girls who are sexually assaulted go on to commit delinquent acts, 46% of boys who have been physically assaulted commit delinquent acts and almost 30% of girls who are physically assaulted will commit on act of delinquency. This does not indicate that boys and girls who have been either physically or sexually assaulted also commit delinquent acts but at a significantly lower rate than their peers who have been assaulted in some manner (Siegfried & Kelley, 2004).

According to Siegfried and Kelly (2004), the World Youth Report in 2004 cites interesting evidence and research into the connection between trauma and violence in a child or young person's life and committing acts of delinquency. The report notes that an interesting fact of delinquent behavior is that it is more commonly committed in groups rather than as individuals. While this does not prove the theory around peer influence, it does seem to support it to some degree. Individuals who seek acceptance among their peers and find it with delinquent peers tend to feel as if they belong and committing acts of delinquency is easier to do so within the frame work of the group.

The United States Department of Justice has been monitoring issues relating to delinquency for many years now. A report by the department in

2001 indicates that rates of juvenile delinquency in the United States have gone down but there is still a significant amount of concern over this issue in society. According to the report, maltreatment of children and youth can have a direct relationship with the development of delinquent behavior. The report states the prevalence of childhood abuse or neglect among delinquent and criminal populations is substantially greater than that in the general population (Weibush, Freitag & Blair, 2001). The report further states that one of the key factors in the difference between those children who go on to engage in delinquent behaviour are less likely to have received appropriate intervention in a timely manner.

The problem of child abuse and neglect is a serious one and it is unlikely that agencies spread out over such a large country as the United States provide the same services. Each State has it's own criteria for training, certification and employment. It is possible to suggest that one of the problems might be the availability of prevention and support services in the area where the child lives. The report states clearly that many agencies providing these kinds of services are overwhelmed by heavy workloads (Weibush et al., 2001). Given the fact that agencies can only do much within their mandate, it is also possible to assume that decisions have to be made about which cases to intervene with and when it is possible for them to provide support (Weibush et al., 2001).

Annoh (1992), lists three (3) types of delinquency. The first one is "familial delinquency" in which significant determinants of anti-social behavior is thought to be home conditions such as bad supervision from home poverty and broken homes in which children's essential needs are not net,

absence of proper parental guidance and delinquency homes where parents or others relatives are criminals. The second one is "personality delinquency" where people develop character disorders through excessive emotional stress, worries, frustrations and unhappiness. Thirdly, "sociological or situational delinquency" which is caused by hard peer group influence and high delinquent areas in the towns and cities. According to sociology perspective the family is an appropriate focus of attempt to understand juvenile delinquency. Because it is the major socializing agency of the child, it may be effective in building social controls that inhibit delinquent behavior (Reiss, 1992).

Death, divorce, separation, and dissertations, which break and disrupt family ties have been cited as important contributors to juvenile delinquency. Glueck and Glueck (1969), investigated the divorce relationship between broken homes and juvenile delinquency. They revealed that over half of delinquencies in their sample were raised in single parent families which only 10% non-delinquents had such a background.

The United Nations Children and Emergency Fund (UNICEF) magazine (1983), lists some causes of delinquency of which child labour is characterized as follows: family break up, ill treatment, housing difficulties, under feeding, defective parental control, broken home and failure of the extended family system. Sterns (1984), agreed that it is the breaking apart from the home that creates delinquency. He claims that divorce and separation are preceded by tension and intense family battles. Negative influences exist in the life of the child prior to the home and these are the major causes of juvenile delinquency.

According to Glueck and Glueck (1963), there is a relationship between hostile rejecting fathers and delinquent behaviour in their offspring. They also reported that the absence of the father or the father's unwillingness or inability to spend time with children also contribute to delinquent behaviors. The type of discipline used may contribute to delinquency. The consistency of the application of discipline seems to be the relevant factor. When parents are not consistent in their approach, the child adequate behavioral controls are not established and the child may reject efforts to impose effective controls on his behaviour. Lovell (1979), listed some delinquent behaviors as lying, breaking faith, gross selfishness, fighting, stealing, bullying and cheating. He is of view that if the home and the school do not give the child affection and security or accept him as a person in his own right, then delinquency will offer one of the common ways to escape from an emotionally intolerable situation.

Causes of Streetism

The existence of street children is a social phenomenon that should be analyzed in terms of the underlying economic, social and educational factors that either trigger or exacerbate the problem (Agnelli, 1986). Although each child has his/her own experience that drove him/her to the streets, the reasons contributing to this phenomenon are similar in many countries. A 2002 World Bank report summarizes some of the main causes of the street children phenomenon as follows: Low family income, forcing the family to find jobs for their children in order to contribute to increasing their income, inadequate housing conditions, as the lack of adequate housing may push families and their children to the street, neglect and abuse, which are common problems

with either one or both parents addicted to drugs and alcohol or families that do not provide enough time for interaction among their members, failure in school, loss of parents due to armed conflicts and natural disasters, as well as due to epidemics and diseases, such as AIDS and others, in addition to refugee problems in various parts of the world (UNICEF, 2005).

Other causes of streetism are discussed below:

Poverty

Poor economic situations are a major factor contributing to the problem of street children. Poverty, unemployment, elevated prices, declining national income, poor distribution of wealth within society, and the increasing gap between the rich and the poor are all factors with a direct impact on the rise of the phenomenon of street children (UNICEF, 2000). In Mongolia, following the collapse of the socialist system, attention to social care stopped, and the situation became very difficult as prices have increased and families have been unable to manage. This has forced children into `the streets. According to official statistics, there are currently 4,100 street children in Mongolia, as compared to 400 prior to the collapse of the communist system in 1990 (Weber, 1993). Dr. Abdullah Ben Abdel-Aziz's study about street children in the Arab Gulf States also explains the causal relationship between economic factors and street children. When a child feels that the family is unable to afford education fees, the child leaves his or her education and joins the labour force. In addition, a financial crisis of the family provider or a decline in the family income can create factors conducive to driving more children onto the street (Weber, 1993).

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Child Labour

There is no general accepted definition for the term "child labour". But it simply refers to the ill-treatment of a child by his parents or any other adult (Edu & Edu, 1999). The term child labour applies to children under 15 years of age engaged in income generating activities other than the usual light domestic and agricultural work within the household of their parents (ILO, 2002). The work performed by the child is deemed to be excessive and exploitative. It is perceived to be detrimental to the development of the child and hinders proper preparation for adult roles and responsibilities. Edu and Edu (1999), further described child abuse as a willful maltreatment of a child. Such maltreatment according to them can include acts of commission (abuse) and omission (neglect). Thus, a broader view of child labour lays emphasis on any treatment other than the most favourable care, and includes neglect, sexual or emotional abuse and exploitation. Whichever way, child abuse is the

flagrant abuse of children's God–given and constitution–guaranteed freedom, comfort and peace, by adults in the society.

In Nigeria, for example, the right of citizens in chapters 4, section 30 and 40 of the 1997 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria guarantees every citizen's basic and fundamental human rights. Here, the constitution does not make any distinction between the rights of adults and children (UNICEF, 2000). Thus, children are expected to enjoy these rights. One of the basic principles of the International Convention on the Rights of the Child is that every child must be protected against all forms of exploitation, indecent or degrading treatment, including child labour, abduction and sale (UNICEF, 2000). According to UNICEF (2000), exploiting the labour of a child means employing a person below the age of 15 years and paying him or her less than minimum standard wage.

The International Labour Organization estimates there are 246 million working children aged between five and 17 worldwide. At least 179 millions are estimated to work in the worst forms of child labour – one out of the world's five to 17 years old. According to the ILO (2006), 111 million children under 15 are in hazardous work and should be immediately withdrawn from this work. ILO (1996), states that approximately 130,000 children work in India's hand-knotted carpet industry, 80% of whom are located in Uttar Pradesh, the country's most populous state (over 140 million people) and the centre of the rug industry. ILO (1996), described the working conditions as often poor, involving long hours sitting in one position, breathing cotton and wool fibres, eye strain from doing very fine work and poor lightening. Shocking doesn't go half the way to describing it. Children,

from toddlers to teenagers, are sitting in the dust, in over powering heat, working.

Wheat (2002), expressed shock at the hard work children do in some parts of Ghana. She visited a quarry worked by children and their mothers. According to her, there, she witnessed children and adults working in some of the hardest conditions imaginable. Thus, Wheat (2002), observes that children stand a great risk of workplace violence. The ILO (2006), states that in a world where workplace violence is on the rise, children are the most vulnerable. According to the ILO, little hard data is available but evidence points towards an increase in the phenomenon, both in industrialized and developing countries. Thus, according to the United Nations study, while many of the world's more than 200 million child labourers experience systematic violence, some 100 million legally employed adolescents are also affected. The study identified the most forms of violence against children in the workplace as physical, psychological, verbal or sexual (ILO, 2006).

It has been suggested that child labour should be replaced with education. Worldwide, the link between improving access to education and ending child labour are increasingly recognized (ILO, 2006). The ILO (2006), made reference to a circus school on the coast of Morroco, an innovative effort among many to get children out of work and into school. Child labour exists in both rural and urban areas but more so in the latter when children dropout of school mainly for financial reasons. At home, in both rural and urban areas, children assist their parents in domestic tasks such as farming and fishing. These activities are part of the process which prepares children to occupy adult roles and responsibilities. In comparison to children in an urban setting, the

rural child is more involved in domestic tasks and agricultural pursuits. Apart from women, children are the collectors of water from the stream, rivers and boreholes (Young, 2004). The increasing number of children of school going age who roam the streets, market places, lorry parks, beaches, video centres and recreational grounds during school hours has generated a lot of concern on the part of government and all who care about child welfare and development. The children most at risk are children from broken homes, orphans and migrant children whose parents are unemployed or are poor.

Although such children are compelled to work by the combination of desperate poverty and community tradition, other factors including armed conflict, disasters, and rural urban migration contribute to the number of working and street children. One consequence of the economic crisis in third world countries is the ongoing deterioration of deficient educational systems (UNICEF, 1993). Neither children nor parents see any benefit in giving up even a child's low wages for outmoded or irrelevant schooling that, when accessible, is frequently based on low-quality instruction. Yet ironically, one of the main reasons why children work is to be able to afford school. Many third world educational systems expect students' families to pay some fees, many that the protest families raise by putting their children to work before and after class. Many other children do not attend school because they cannot raise the necessary funds. Thus, for many third world families, the grinding burden of poverty has made reliance on their children's economic contribution an essential part of survival.

In itself, that work may be physically harmful, but today's definition of work-place hazards to children must be broadened to recognize the long-term

harm stemming from inattention to a child's mental and social development, which can pose just as great a threat to his or her future as the permanent physical injuries. On a national scale, the damage to children in the work place undermines a country's social and economic progress far into the future (ILO, 1996). With economic survival becoming more dependent on brains than brown, reducing child labour abuse is an essential element of national economic development planning as well as a social welfare concern. Wheat (2002), expressed shock at the hard work children do in some parts of Ghana. She visited a quarry worked by children and their mothers. According to her, there, she witnessed children and adults working in some of the hardest conditions imaginable. Thus, Wheat (2002), observes that children stand a great risk of workplace violence.

The complex nature of the child labour problem calls for a multifaceted approach worldwide. To begin with, governments could launch low-cost national child labour reviews as part of their preparations for the symposium on child labour, which will aim at renewing global commitments to fighting child labour abuse. Current public law, regulations and programmes designed to protect children from child abuse should be evaluated and strengthened to ensure more effective protection from work place abuse. Also to the above, governments could also promote the establishment of national local committees to monitor and publicize the situation of working children, while augmenting the efforts of labour inspectors, child welfare officers, and others responsible for protecting children against maltreatment in the work place.

Above all, governments, the media and NGO's could take steps to inform children, parents, employers, and others about the dangers of child labour abuse, the rights of working children, and the laws and regulations in the country (ILO, 2002). This means that, children can be thought what working conditions to expect and when to get in touch when their employers break the rules. These measures entail minimal financial outlay. All that a national situation review requires is government leadership.

Child Abuse

According to World Health Organization (2006), the term child abuse is any behaviour directed toward a child by a parent, guardian, care giver, other family member, or other adult, that endangers or impairs a child's physical or emotional health and development. WHO (2006), identified different forms of child abuse. These are: sexual abuse, neglect, emotional abuse and physical abuse. Sexual Child Abuse is any form of sexual exploitation for the fulfillment of sexual needs such as, sexual intercourse, touching up and any behaviour that is sexual towards children is deemed sexual child abuse. Sexual child abuse like other forms of violence against children is not something new. However, due to its increasing transparency throughout all societies, there are positive moves that are taken in support of children. It seems that most sexual child abuse cases take place within the home and by their relatives although it does not go without saying that it does not take place outside of the family either. Just like physical violence, identifying sexual abuse against children is followed by identifying sexual abuse against women, and in the majority of cases, those that commit sexual

abuse are men (WHO, 2006). Today, in most societies, assault or sex without consent regardless of age is prohibited.

The definition of sexual exploitation of children in most societies include any sexual activity that either is done without consent or even the child's consent is not legally standing (Ross, 1996). According to the definition, any form of sexual activity with the adult in the family is a crime. Studies indicate that incest is committed by men of the family, the father, brother or uncle. Young girls are more threatened with the dangers of sexual exploitation (Ross, 1996). The number of girl children who are sexually exploited are higher than any other group. On top of this pornography which is a deviation of sexual exploitation of children and especially organized sexual exploitation, is the publication of this fundamental shameful act against children. In this form of child abuse, not only photos and films of children are published but other children can be in danger of exposure and viewing of these obscene images. Unfortunately, despite all attempts, child pornography has increased on the internet and other new technologies.

Child Neglect

Child neglect is the continued failure to provide a child with necessary care and protection including adequate shelter, food, clothing, medical care etc (UNICEF, 2006). Lack of appropriate supervision, especially for young children, for extended periods of time is also considered child neglect. Signs of possible neglect include: poorly nourished or inadequately clothed, consistently tire, inconsistent attendance at school, lack of hygiene or an obsession with cleanliness, regularly left alone in dangerous situation or over

long periods of time, evidence that medical needs are not met, unable to relate well to adults or has trouble forming close relationship.

Emotional and Mental Abuse

Children, and especially dependent children, are particularly vulnerable to mental abuse committed by their parents and others. Different forms of this type of violence can be from cursing and reproach, to humiliation and insults, all of which result in the alienation and harassment of the child. Article 19 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child uses the term "emotional violence" and points out to the necessity to pay attention to the direct and indirect effects of domestic violence against children (UNICEF, 2006). Studies on domestic violence have shown that acts of mental or physical violence committed by parents to each other leave deep emotional scars on the child. Children that are subjected to emotional violence and humiliation by their parents or teachers, lack in-self confidence and suffer from emotional problems during adulthood. These individuals caught in the cycle of violence could possibly become violent in adulthood.

Physical Abuse

Physical child abuse comes in numerous degrees. One of the most extreme forms is the murder of infants (infanticide) which is committed in most parts of the world. In a study that was carried out on 285 murders in the United Kingdom between 1989 and 1991, where the victims were under eighteen, only 13% had been murdered by strangers and 60% of the murders were committed by the parents (UNICEF, 2006). Similarly, statistics have also been reported in the United States and Australia. There are four times as many children under one-year-old murdered than those above. Studies show that

emotional pressures and running away from responsibilities towards their children are the main reasons for these murders. Of other forms of physical abuse against children is corporal punishment on the excuse of discipline (UNICEF, 2006). Almost everywhere around the world, disciplining children and smacking them or hitting them with a belt or stick is very common in families and the law supports it. In other words, disciplining children is the only form of violence which is seen legal. This is why even a minor assault against an adult is considered as a criminal offence.

In the cycle of violence, physical violence against children will cause this to happen again in the future from the same victim who will be a violent adult in the future. Such a person becomes a threat to the health of society.

Domestic Violence

Every year, as many as 275 million children worldwide become caught in the crossfire of domestic violence and suffer full consequences of a turbulent home life (UNICEF, 2006). Violence against children involves physical and psychological abuse and injury, neglect or negligent treatment, exploitation and sexual abuse. The perpetrators may include parents and other close family members. Children who survive abuse often suffer long-term physical and psychological damage that impairs their ability to learn and socialize, and make it difficult for them to perform well in school and develop close and positive friendships. Children who grow up in a violent home are more likely to suffer abuse compared to children who have a peaceful home life (Benitez, 2007). Studies from some of the largest countries in the developing world, including China, Columbia, Egypt, India, Mexico, the

Philippines and South Africa, indicate a strong correlation between violence against women and violence against children.

The behavioural and psychological consequences of growing up in a violent home can be just as devastating for children who are not directly abused themselves. Children who are exposed to violence often suffer symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder, such as bed-wetting or nightmares, and are at greater risk than their peers of suffering from allergies, asthma, gastrointestinal problems, depression and anxiety (Graham-Berman & Seug, 2005). Thus, primary-school-age children who are exposed to domestic violence may have more trouble with school work and show poor concentration and focus. They are also more likely to attempt suicide and abuse drugs and alcohol.

The incidence of sexual violence in domestic setting is well known. Recent studies indicate high levels of sexual violence in childhood – up to 21 percent according to a multi-country study conducted by the World Health Organization – with girls far more likely to be abused than boys. Sexual and gender-based violence is prevalent in schools and colleges, with much of the violence directed towards girls (WHO, 1999). Working in someone's home can also entail the risk of violence. Child domestic workers, often girls under 16 – have indicated severe abuse at the hands of their employers, including physical punishment, sexual harassment and humiliation (US Department of Justice, 1998).

Unlike other forms of domestic violence, much of the humiliation and physical punishment is perpetrated by women, although girls in particular are also vulnerable to sexual violence from men living in the household. The

consequences of domestic violence can span generations. The effects of violent behavior tend to stay with children long after they leave the childhood home. Boys who are exposed to their parents' domestic violence are twice as likely to become abusing men as are the sons of non-violence parents. Furthermore, girls who witness their mothers being abused are more likely to accept violence in a marriage than girls who come from non-violent homes.

Although they often lack the means to protect themselves, abused women often provide protection for children who are exposed to domestic violence. But without the legal or economic resources to prosecute abusive spouses, countless women and children remain trapped in harmful situations (UNICEF, 2006). Government–led efforts to create protective policies for victims of domestic violence require a parallel effort to change social attitudes that condone with violence. Shattering the silence that surrounds domestic violence is key to ending violent behavior in the home. The Report of the Independent Expert for the United Nations Study on violence against children represents a crucial step towards unmasking the issues of violence against children, including abuses perpetrated in the household (UNICEF, 2006).

In a single day in 2007, 13,485 children were living in a domestic violence shelter or transitional housing facility. Another 3,526 sought series at a non-residential program. The UN Secretary-General's study on Violence Against Children conservatively estimates that 275 million children worldwide are exposed to violence in the home. A Michigan study of low-income pre-schoolers, find that children who have been exposed to family violence suffer symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder, such as bed-wetting or nightmares, and are at greater risk than their peers of having allergies, asthma,

gastrointestinal problems, headaches and flu (US Department of Justice, 2006). This presupposes that children of mothers who experience prenatal physical domestic violence are at an increased risk of exhibiting aggressive anxious, depressed or hyperactive behaviour. Females who are exposed to their parents' domestic violence as adolescents are significantly more likely to become victims of dating violence than daughters of non-violent parents.

Additionally, children who experience childhood trauma, including witnessing incidents of domestic violence, are at a greater risk of having serious adult health problems including tobacco use, substance abuse, obesity, cancer, heart disease, depression and a higher risk for unintended pregnancy. Thus, physical abuse during childhood increases the risk of future victimization among women and the risk of future perpetration of abuse by men more than two fold. The World Health Organization (2006), reports that 150 million girls experience forced sexual intercourse or other forms of sexual violence in 2002. Each year, more than two million children are exploited in the global commercial sex trade, many of them trapped in prostitution. According to the International Labour Organisation (2002), eight million children are trapped in the worst forms of child labour, which include slavery, trafficking, debt bondage, forced recruitment for use in armed conflict, prostitution, pornography and illicit activities

Among the many Ghanaian Street Children is a fraction that fled their parents' home to live the street life which, to them, is preferable to the good shelter and meals at home. Such children need nothing other than peace and love. Their parents provide them with everything except the two items and they have no alternative than to return to the streets where they hope to forget

the undesirable conditions at home. Unfortunately, the streets have nothing good for them. These children fall into bad company in which hard drugs are their only consolation. The girls are sexually exploited no matter what their ages and as a final resort turn to prostitution to make a living. These children cannot go back to the parental home because the feeling of nostalgia that accompanies memories of the home and childhood are not known to them. Home, to them, has no sweet recollections but a vivid collection of cruel memories. Mum and dad always at each other's throat. Mum's face is often wet with tears as she struggles to meet her family's needs all by herself while dad comes home drunk.

Domestic violence is denied in Ghana but there is enough evidence that it exists on a large scale and goes as far as murder by jealous husbands on grounds of suspicion. Research has shown that slaps, "booting", and the use of things like canes, belt and footwear are accepted among Ghanaians as disciplinary measures a man can resort to in order to secure the obedience and fidelity of a wife (Wheat, 2002). It is only when the beating becomes too much that people react by asking the woman what she did to deserve such a treatment. And the consolation is to take heart and give it to God. Onlookers sometimes ask "why don't you leave him". Response gathered for this last resort as shown by a study result include the fear of being branded a bad woman who cannot stay in marriage and secondly, of a retaliation (more violence).

Again, there is fear of one's relative's refusal to support a "bad" woman. In relations where there are children, however, the desire to endure stems from concern for the children. "I would not be able to keep the children

in the comfort to which they are accustomed." "I do not want my children to have different fathers." And "the children need me" (Wheat, 2002). What seems to elude these women and perhaps society is that, the same children they seem to protect suffer most in such abusive relationships. Sensitive as they are, children endure these conditions and the necessary beatings and other abuses to which they are exposed, up to a point. Since these children cannot effect any change, the best option is to go away from home and forget. They, thus, end up in the streets. The majority of children, however, do not leave home, instead they continue to live with their abusive parents and suffer in silence. Such children often live in melancholy, hardly smile or join their friends to play. These go a long way to negatively affect their academic performance if given the chance to school.

As if this is not enough to keep them in such low spirits, some parents often visit their frustration on the children and blame them for being the cause of financial and other problems. Some fathers go as far as to sexually abuse their daughters as a means of bullying the woman or having the satisfaction they fail to get from the mother (Wheat, 2002). Many of these fathers go scot free because either their crimes are not reported or they are withdrawn from the courts because they are regarded as domestic violence and private. The children, however, suffer the effect of parental misbehavior permanently. These children grow up with deep scars of such abuses and since they have no courage to express their emotions, they perpetuate the cycle of violence. Some may suffer health hazards like depression, alcohol abuse, drug dependence, anxiety, obsessive compulsive disorder and post traumatic stress disorder.

Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre

In December 2005, FIFA and street football world – a non-governmental organization that supports a global network of actors in the field of development through football – formed a strategic alliance resulting in the Football for Hope (FFH) movement. Using the enormous appeal of football and other recreational and social activities on the continent, the movement promotes social development through football and other recreational activities and encourages dialogue and cooperation between member organizations. This objective will be accomplished primarily by building 20 Football for Hope Centres across Africa as part of the official campaign of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa "20 Centres for 2010" project.

The Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre, with an emphasis on addressing community health and education needs, benefits socio-economically disadvantaged and underserved communities by providing infrastructure and technical support to expand their development through football work. Importantly, the Football for Hope Centre aims to build relationships with local public health and education service providers to link truant and out- of- school children youth with existing opportunities and strengthen networks within their communities.

According to the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre, poverty and a lack of education and employment opportunities were unanimously viewed by stakeholders as the most pressing challenges of children and the youth. This is substantiated by the fact that the unemployment rate of Cape Coast is significantly higher than the national average. Many children come from poverty stricken households with single parents or caretakers who cannot

afford costs associated with attending school. Instead, these children and youth are encouraged to find jobs to support the household income, thus limiting opportunities for them to improve their skills and employment options. Many parents, children and youth have a low opinion of school attendance. This might be explained by the view that few skilled jobs exist in Cape Coast or that the education and training offered is not linked to the needs of the local economy. Low levels of computer access for children and youth and few after school programmes such as homework assistance, mentoring, organized sports, music, drama, or vocational training were reported.

Although public education is free at the basic level in Ghana, parents and caretakers must purchase items such as school uniforms, books, pens and pencils. Many cannot cover these costs, and therefore have to withdraw the children in their care from school. Youth from poor homes who are encouraged to pursue manual labour tend to remain in such positions and do not have opportunities to improve their skills. Consequently, these economic factors result in low grades or complete drop-out from school, thus preventing the enrolment of Cape Coast children and youth into higher education institutions and limiting their employment opportunities in the long term.

According to the Centre, a number of education workers stated that many youth and their parents do not value education and/or are from "broken" and poverty stricken households which are unable to meet the financial requirements for education. Pregnancy also causes some girls to leave school as well as marriages to secure their financial future. Though poverty and high unemployment are pervasive challenges in Cape Coast, the importance of pursuing an education and gaining practical skills and leadership qualities can

be emphasized. The Centre aims at innovating ways to involve children and youth in income-generating activities and strengthen networks that assist children and youth in securing more skilled employment in the long run. The Centre also aims at monitoring the rates of community participation in sport and other activities that will give some indication of who the sport and recreation programs are reaching and who is being missed. In turn this will give some indication as to the Centre's positive impact and success stories, which can be publicized for gathering more community support and for fund raising purposes. The objectives of the Centre are to provide a soccer and recreational inspired program that empowers the children to lead change in their communities, build the skills of children and young adults, foster leadership, engage healthy lifestyles and living habits, provide access and opportunity to ICT, create relevant and modern skills within participants that will help them excel in school and eventually find work, promote inter-cultural exchange through the use of technology, provide soccer opportunity for young adults and finally link young children and adults to vocational, health and social skills.

Summary

In general, the study reviewed literature on the following themes: meaning and nature of recreation, delinquency and it's causes, causes of streetism and the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. These themes brought to light that poor economic situations are a factor contributing to the problem of streetism. Poverty, unemployment, elevated prices, declining national income, poor distribution of wealth within society, and the increasing gab

between the rich and the poor are all factors with direct impact on the rise of the phenomenon of street children.

The literature review revealed that there political, social, economic and family factors responsible for numerous children roaming the streets for lots of reasons especially economic ones. It is therefore essential that governments and parents recognize these factors and put resources together in order to help reduce if not eradicate this problem entirely.

Parental neglect, abuse, divorce etc. are factors with direct negative effects on children forcing them into delinquency. The National Commission for Civic Education, the media, P.T.A's etc. must take up the challenge of educating parents on their primary responsibilities to ensure that their children are always in school

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The study was to assess the impact of recreational activities on child delinquency at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. This chapter was devoted to the methodology of the study which is the theory of how research should be undertaken (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2005). The chapter discussed among other things the research design, the population of the study, the sample and sampling procedure, instrument, data collection procedure and data analysis.

Research Design

A research design describes the plan of study providing the overall framework for collecting data or as a plan of action that a researcher has to take in order to tackle a problem (Babbie, 2005; Denscombe, 2003). The research was a descriptive survey as it assessed the impact of recreational activities on child delinquency at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. The choice of this design was in support of Babbie (2005); Frankael and Wallen (2000) who alluded to the fact that in today's world, descriptive survey design helps to obtain information on current issues.

Population

The population was 350 truant and drop-out school children at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

One hundred and forty respondents were drawn from the population using convenience sampling technique. was used to draw 140. This was made up of 123 (87.9%) males and 17 (12.1%) females. Forty eight (34.3%) were between classes one to three, 68 (45.7%) were between classes four to six and 28 (20.0%) were in JHS one to three. Fifty four (38.6%) of the respondents were between the ages of eight to ten years, 42 (30.0%) were between the ages of 11 to 12 years, 34 (24.3%) were in the ages of 13 to 14 years and eight (5.7%) were between the ages of 15 to 16 years. Two respondents did not answer the age question. The participants ages ranged from eight to sixteen years.

The convenience sampling technique was used because that was the only accessible and convenient group for the study. This choice of design is in support of Ogah (2013) who said that convenience sampling involves the use of members of the population who are most easily contacted and readily available to take part in the study in order to get an inexpensive approximation of the truth.

Instrument

A structured interview was designed to collect data from the respondents. Respondents were required to tick appropriate items closest to their opinions or provide brief responses where required. In all, 17 questions divided into five sections was used to collect data. The five sections were; family background, educational background, causes of streetism or reasons for being out- of- school, activities or programmes engaged in at the centre and reasons or benefits of taking part in recreational activities.

Apart from the demographic information (age, and sex), research questions one to four gathered information on family background, questions five to eight gathered information on educational background, question nine collected information on the causes of streetism or reasons for the children being out- of- school, questions 10 to 16 collected information on what the respondents did with their time at the Centre and the potential benefits there, question 17 collected information on the benefits of recreational activities to the children at the Centre.

A trained research assistant was employed to help administer questionnaire to children at the Centre. The research assistant was taken through the questionnaire items a week to the start of administration of the questionnaire. The training enabled the research assistant get familiarized with the mechanism of filling the questionnaire items so as to administer it without any difficulty. Also, the research assistant was introduced to the principles of dealing with children responding to a survey. Lastly, it was to avoid inter-rater variability (variations among the raters).

Pre-testing of Questionnaire

Pre-testing can help one determine the strengths and weaknesses of a survey instrument concerning question format, wording and order (Babbie, 2005). After content validity by supervisor, the structured interview was administered to a comparable sample in order to ensure that items worded were correct and understandable to respondents and the instrument possessed acceptable internal consistency by means of formatting ambiguities that could characterize the items. Thirty children of the Street Children Academy in Accra were sampled using the convenience method for the exercise. Space

was allowed under each questionnaire for respondents to comment on any perplexing questions but there was none.

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

To establish validity, the items formatted for the structured interview was given to two research assistants at the HPER Department to go through. This reduced the number of items from 25 to 22. My supervisor then scrutinized the structured interview for face and content validity. Face and content validity was to make sure the structured interview measures what it was supposed to measure. The number of items was then refined from 22 to 17. The study yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.87. This coefficient, a measure of internal consistency was used in the determination of the reliability of the instrument. The value obtained was considered to be acceptable since according to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000), the reliability coefficient should be at least 0.70 and above.

Data Collection Procedure

Approval to collect data was obtained from the Head of the department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, University of Cape Coast, Director of the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. Also, children of the Academy's consent was obtained. A consent form was signed for the parents and guardians of the participants. The structured interview was self-administered to the participants with the help of a research assistant. The respondents were taken through the items one after the other and the options were ticked on their behalf particularly those who could not read. It took three weeks to collect data.

Data Analysis

The entire questionnaire that was completed and retrieved was used for the data analysis. Descriptive statistics was used to analyze research questions one to three where tables were used to present frequency counts and percentage analysis whiles chi-square was used to analyze research question four. The information gathered was used to examine opinions of respondents on using recreation to curb child delinquency among street children. That was further described and interpreted in order to bring out the meaning and explain the experiences of the children as to how supervised recreational activities could help curb child delinquency among street children.

Research question one looked at situations that lead to children coming onto the street. Research question one was analyzed using descriptive statistics (simple frequency and percentage analysis). Research question two focused on the interventional programmes at the Football for Hope Centre to rehabilitate and reintegrate street children back into society. Descriptive statistics was used to analyze this research question. Research question three was on the benefits of taking part in recreational activities to children at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. This was analyzed using descriptive statistics. What are the differences between males and females in terms of the causes of streetism was research question four. Chi-square was used to analyze this research question.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of the study was to assess the impact of recreational activities on child delinquency at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. This chapter deals with the presentation of data analysis and discussion of the research findings. The results are discussed by research questions in reference to literature review or theory and logic.

Research Question One: What factors lead children into streetism?

This question was asked to seek from respondents which factors were responsible for them moving onto the street. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics. The total participants was 140. Results indicated that 107 (76.4%) selected neglect as the cause for being on the street. This means that neglect is one of the major causes of streetism in the Cape Coast Metropolis. This information could mean that lots of parents and guardians do not pay enough attention to their children or their needs. When this happens, the children will not be properly looked after and will tend to do things on their own as no one cares about them. This supports the work by UNICEF (2006), that child neglect is the continued failure to provide a child with the necessary care and protection including adequate shelter, food, clothing, medical care etc. Secondly, child neglect is the lack of appropriate supervision, especially for young children, for extended period of time. Signs of neglect according to UNICEF (2006) include: inconsistent attendance at school, poorly nourished,

inadequately clothed, consistently lack of hygiene, regularly left alone etc. Meaning, children when given the necessary care and love will be willing to leave the street, stay in school and live productive lives. This calls for intensified public education through the media, the Information Service Department and the National Commission for Civic Education. Also, 83 (59.3%) attributed poverty as the cause for being on the street. From the result it is evident that poverty is the second highest cause of streetism in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Poverty as a cause of streetism comes into play when parents and guardians are unable to fully meet the financial cost and daily needs of their wards such as food, clothing, shelter etc. It happens when the parents or guardians are either not working or not earning enough to meet the needs of their families. As a result, children will be forced to leave school and work in order to meet their needs and in certain cases that of the family as well. The work by UNICEF (2000), supports this finding. It revealed that poor economic situations are a major factor contributing to the problem of street children. UNICEF identified poverty, unemployment, elevated prices, declining national income, poor distribution of wealth within society and the increasing gap between the rich and the poor as factors with direct impact on the rise of the phenomenon of street children. UNICEF (2000), cited an example in Mongolia where families have been unable to manage as a result of the collapse of the Socialist System which caused prices to increase as well as stoppage of the social care. To this, parents and guardians must be encouraged to take full responsibility for the upkeep of their children and meet the educational needs of their wards so as they can always be in school. Government and the Ghana Education Service must enforce their laws and

make adequate provisions to ensure that every child not only goes to school but remains in school as well.

Again, 81 (57.9%) said that abuse, whether at home or school, was a factor that contributed to their being on the street. Here also, abuse is seen as another major cause of streetism in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Abuse as another major cause of streetism can arise when children are treated cruelly or violently by peers, parents, family members, neighbours etc. and used in ways in which they should not be used. This can happen at home, school or anywhere. Forms of abuse include caning, slapping, sexually abuse etc. This finding supports the work by WHO (2006), that child abuse is any behaviour directed towards a child by a parent, guardian, care giver, or other family member, or other adult, that endangers or impairs a child's physical or emotional health and development. Forms of child abuse according to WHO (2006), are sexual abuse, neglect, emotional and physical abuse. To this, teachers, parents and family members must be encouraged to treat children with affection and respect as one of their own through Parent-Teacher Association Meetings, the media and the National Commission for Civic Education. Laws must be enforced to punish persons who abuse children.

Moreso, 37 (26.4%) selected loss of parents as a contributing factor for being into streetism. Loss of parent(s) as a cause of streetism can occur when a child loses one or both parents through death and has to live with a relative, guardian, friend or by him or herself. In such a situation, the child may stop schooling and resort to the street to work for survival. This outcome is a reaffirmation of a 2002 World Bank Report on loss of parents. The report explained that the loss of parents through armed conflicts and natural disasters,

as well as due to epidemics and diseases such as AIDs and others, are responsible for lots of children turning to the streets for their livelihood as these children do not have parents and family members to look after them. To this, guardians, relatives, churches, district assemblies, NGO's and the government must support the upbringing and education of such children through adoption or by providing scholarships for them.

Additionally, eight (5.7%) agreed that divorce by parents was the cause of their streetism. This, as compared to the earlier results testifies that divorce by parents is not one of the major causes of streetism in Cape Coast. Divorce as a cause of streetism can happen when parents decide to end their marriage through legal or illegal means. This happens when one party is no longer happy or interested in the marriage. In most cases, parents are unable to make decisions together concerning the upbringing of their wards especially when one parent is not gainfully employed. As a result, the future of their children becomes uncertain. The finding affirms A Civil Society Report in Egypt. In 2004, A Civil Society Report in Egypt indicated that the problem of family disintegration is common among families of street children. Statistics from the report showed that 24% of the children came from broken families or houses either due to divorce or the death of a parent. Therefore, churches, families and the media are encouraged to strengthen their education on how couples and prospective couples should live together and manage their conflicts in order to avoid the incidence of divorce in marriages thereby reducing the incidence of streetism.

Lastly, one (0.7%) said inadequate housing facility was the cause for being on the street. Meaning, inadequate housing facility is the least factor

responsible for streetism in the Cape Coast Metropolis as compared to neglect, abuse and poverty. Inadequate housing as a cause of streetism happens when parents and guardians are unable to provide enough rooms to accommodate their children thereby compelling too many children to share the only available room. This creates a lot of inconvenience. When this occurs, children who are not comfortable or who want their independence would want to leave home and stay on their own. This is in agreement with a 2002 World Bank Report that identified inadequate housing conditions as one of the causes of streetism as a lack of housing may push families and their children to the street. To this, parents and guardians must endeavour to work hard and save enough money in order to be able to provide decent accommodation for their wards.

Table 1: Causes of Streetism

Cause	Yes		No		Total
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	%
Neglect	107	76.4	33	23.6	100
Poverty	83	59.3	57	40.7	100
Abuse	81	57.9	59	42.1	100
Loss of Parents	37	26.4	103	73.6	100
Divorce by Parents	8	5.8	132	94.3	100
Inadequate Housing	1	0.7	139	9.3	100

Research Question Two: What Interventional Programmes are used by the Centre to Rehabilitate and Reintegrate Street Children back into Society?

This question sought to find out from respondents the sort of activities and programmes they are taken through in order to rehabilitate and reintegrate them back into society. Descriptive statistics was used to analyze this research question. The total participants was 140. Results showed that 135 (96.4%) took part in football. This is because the Centre runs a soccer inspired programme and therefore one expects that almost all the children will take part in football because lots of equipment and facility have been made available. This is in support of the work by Miller and Robinson (1983), that the choice of activity or involvement is voluntary, free of compulsion or obligation. Recreation is promoted by internal motivation and the desire to achieve personal satisfaction rather than by extrinsic goal or rewards. Eighty (57.1%) participated in ICT education. This result is so because lots of the respondents want to know how to access the internet (possibly for information) because ICT education forms an integral part of the education and development programme in our educational system. This revelation is supported by the work of Ennew and Jill (2003), that education is a major incentive for social advancement that contributes to a better life. However, too often children dropout of school for various reasons and find refuge in the street.

Also, seventy nine (56.4%) had tuition on how to read and write simple English. Possible reason being that, most of the respondents have either not been to school at all or stopped at an early stage thereby not knowing much about written and spoken English. This intervention is to enable them write and speak simple English. This agrees with the work of Ennew and Jill (2003),

that education is a major incentive for social advancement that contributes to a better life. However, too often children dropout of school for various reasons and find refuge in the street. Research in Brazil indicates that 57% of street children in Brazil dropout of school before they resort to staying in the street, 25% drop out of school while being out in the streets and 12% do so after finding final refuge in the street. This is also supported by the work of UNICEF (2005), that in spite of attempts to eliminate illiteracy, there remains high levels of illiteracy among the families of street children. As a result of their own lack of education, parents may be unaware of the importance and value of education and may not provide appropriate educational care for their children. This situation encourages children to drop out of school and remain in the streets. Often the family does not resist this action. In some cases, the family is the main factor that drives children from school.

Again, 76 (54.2%) had tuition on peaceful co-existence. This finding is due to the fact that most street children experience violence either within themselves or from other people (family members, friends and neighbours). This agrees with the work of Sadik (1995), that most street children stressed that violence represents a major feature of their everyday life, and is a determining factor in developing their abilities to be able to cope with street life. The violence faced by street children normally takes place through three main channels: firstly, violence within the small children groups, either by peers or by older street children, especially when they get drowsy and under the effect of the substances they consume, secondly, violence from the surrounding community, whether through other people on the street who tend to exploit them, or by the community itself as a reaction to their existence in

particular settings and areas where their presence is not appreciated, thirdly, violence while working, either through the employers or through other peers working in the same place, such as when selling items on the street in areas where other people or children exercise control.

Moreso, 72 (51.4%) undertook tuition on how to keep their environment (home and community) clean. This could be as a result of the insanitary conditions in most homes, cities and especially the dwelling places of most street children. This supports the work of WHO (1993), that the reasons why street children are more susceptible to diseases than others are connected to their personal unhealthy habits while being on the street. Most street children complained of the following health problems, which are often viewed by them as "minor health problems": headaches, diarrhoea, cholera heart pain, chest pain, abdominal colic, renal colic, back pain, blood in the urine, shortening breath on running, cough, wounds and bruises, diarrhoea, dental problems, fever and discharge from the ear (WHO, 1993), 63 (45%) learnt how to improve upon their confidence level. The reason for this being that most street children have lived in fear for several years due to abuse, threats and neglect. This results in low self-esteem and lack of confidence in themselves. This is in support of the work by Clark and Shields (1997), that effective communication can have a positive influence on children and adults. According to them, when parents are able to communicate with their children in compassionate, supportive and non-judgmental tones, it does seem more likely that the children will feel understood and accepted. This pattern of communication is more likely to lead to a positive self-image and a higher

sense of self-esteem and confidence, and serve as a buffer against any negative, external factors.

Additionally, three (2.1%) watched cartoons while two (1.4%) took part in playing television games. This result can be attributed to the fact that not all the children took delight in playing soccer. Some prefer to engage in other activities aside soccer. This confirms the work of Miller and Robinson (1983), that the choice of activity or involvement is voluntary, free of compulsion or obligation. Recreation is promoted by internal motivation and the desire to achieve personal satisfaction rather than by extrinsic goal or rewards. Recreation is heavily dependent on a state of mind or attitude, it is not so much what one does as the reason for doing it and the way the individual feels about the activity that makes it recreation.

Table 2: Interventional Programmes Offered by the Centre

Programme/ Activity	Yes		No		Total
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	%
Football	135	96.5	5	3.5	100
ICT Education	80	57.1	60	42.9	100
How to read to write	79	56.4	61	43.6	100
Peaceful co-existence	76	54.2	64	45.8	100
How to keep environment clean	72	51.4	68	48.6	100
How to be confident	63	45	77	55	100
Watch cartons	3	2.1	137	97.9	100
Television games	2	1.4	138	98.6	100

Research Question Three: What are the Benefits of Recreational Activities to the Children at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre?

This research question was analyzed using descriptive statistics. The total number of participants was 140. Results indicated that 122 (87%) took part in recreational activities for the fun of it. From the results, it is clear that playing for fun is one of the major reasons why children at the Centre take part in recreational activities. Possible reason is that children love fun and want to engage in activities that will enable them have lots of fun in order to feel happy. This affirms the work of Bruce (1995), that recreational activities are often done for enjoyment, amusement, pleasure and fun and are considered to be full of humour. Again, 108 (77.7%) took part in recreational activities in order to learn how to play a sport, which in this case is soccer, since the Centre runs a soccer inspired programme. This is another major reason why children at the Centre take part in recreational activity. This is due to the fact that children want to gain knowledge and skills through learning either by being taught or from experience. Clearly, this reveals that there are numerous children who want similar opportunities to be able to learn how to play a sport through recreational activities. The work by Bruce (1995), affirms this that, recreational activities are difficult to separate from the general concept of play, which is usually the term for children's recreational activities and that children may playfully imitate activities that reflect the realities of life.

Also, 88 (62.9%) admitted to taking part in recreational activities in order to connect with other children in their society or neighbourhood whom they can play and interact with. From the result, this is another major reason for taking part in recreational activities at the Centre. Possible reason being

that it serves as a means through which children get to know other children in their neighbourhood thereby forming good relationships with them so that they can like and appreciate each other. This supports the work of McLean et al., (2005), that recreational activities can be communal, or solitary, active or passive, outdoors or indoors, healthy or harmful, and useful for society or detrimental. Also, that the choice and purpose of recreational involvement is voluntary, free of compulsion or obligation. It is promoted by the internal motivation and the desire to achieve personal satisfaction rather than by extrinsic goal or rewards.

Additionally 69 (49.3%) took part in recreational activities at the Centre for enjoyment. Judging from the results, it is clear that playing for enjoyment is one of the main reasons why children at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre take part in recreational activities. This could be due to the fact that children want to engage in activities that are interesting. This enables them to enjoy playing with their friends and through that refresh their mind and body. This agrees with the work of Bruce (1995), that recreational activities are often done for enjoyment, amusement, pleasure and fun and are considered to be full of humour. Again, 50 (35.7%) agreed to taking part in recreational activities to improve their self-esteem. Possible reason is that recreational activities help to give children the feeling of being happy with their own character and abilities thereby improving their confidence level. This confirms the work of McLean et al., (2005), that recreational activities are an important part of human life and finds many different forms which are shaped naturally by individual interests, but also by the surrounding social construction.

In addition, 48 (34.3%) agreed to taking part in recreational activities to desist from negative behaviours. This can be attributed to the fact that it occupies children to enable them desist from bad or negative habits by making use of time which would have been spent on life-threatening and socially unacceptable behaviours. This affirms the work of Bruce (2005), that recreational activities are outlets or expression of excess energy, channeling it into socially accepted activities that fulfill individual as well as societal needs without need for compulsion, and providing satisfaction and pleasure for the participant. Thirty seven (26.4%) took part in recreational activities at the Centre for pleasure. This is owed to the fact that recreational activities enable children to take part in activities from which they will derive the feeling of happiness and satisfaction. It is clear from the results that playing for pleasure is not one of the main reasons why children at the Centre take part in recreational activities. This agrees with the work of Neumeyer (1961), that recreation is any activity pursued during leisure either on individual or collective basis that is free and pleasurable having it's own immediate appeal which is impelled by a delayed reward beyond itself or by any immediate necessity.

Moreso, 26 (18.3%) admitted to taking part in recreational activities to fill unsupervised after school hours. Possible reason being that children want to make good use of the time they have at their disposal after school. Hours, for which usage will bring them no gain except loitering about in vain. Thus, according to Bruce (2005), recreational activities are outlets or expression of excess energy, channeling it into socially accepted activities that fulfill individual as well as societal needs without need for compulsion, and

providing satisfaction and pleasure for the participant. Lastly, 19 (13.6%) took part in recreational activities in order to release stress. This can be attributed to the fact that it enables children to release some amount of pressure and worry as a result of some social and psychological problems they encounter in life. This agrees with Bruce's work in (2005), that recreational activities are outlets or expression of excess energy, channeling it into socially accepted activities that fulfill individual as well as societal needs without need for compulsion, and providing satisfaction and pleasure for the participant.

Table 3: Reasons for Taken Part in Recreational Activities

	Yes		No		No Res.
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Fun	122	87.1	17	12.1	1
Learn how to play a sport	108	77.1	31	22.1	1
Connect with other children	88	62.9	44	31.4	8
Enjoyment	69	49.3	58	41.4	13
Improve self-esteem	50	35.7	81	57.9	9
Desist from negative behaviour	48	34.3	81	57.9	11
Pleasure	37	26.4	91	72.1	12
Fill unsupervised after school hours	26	18.6	101	72.1	12
Release stress	19	13.6	108	77.4	8

Research Question Four: What are the differences between Males and Female in terms of the causes of Streetism?

This question was asked to find out whether any differences exist between males and females in terms of the causes of streetism. The causes of streetism as measured were: neglect, abuse, poverty, inadequate housing, loss of parent(s) and parental divorce. Chi-square was used to analyze this research question using gender as independent variable against all the dependent variables and calculated separately.

To investigate gender difference on neglect as a cause of streetism, a chi-square test was calculated. The results of the chi-square analysis showed that there was no statistical significant difference between males and females participants at the Football for Hope Centre as shown $\chi^2 (1) = 123, 17, \ p > 0.05$. The non significant difference between males and females on neglect as a cause of streetism could be attributed to the fact that both male and female children are equally led to the street by neglect. This agrees with the work of UNICEF (2006), that lack of appropriate supervision for young children, for extended periods of time can lead them to the street.

Again, a chi-square test was calculated to determine difference between males and females on abuse as a cause of streetism. The results of the chi square analysis showed that there was no statistical significant difference between males and females as shown $\chi^2 (1) = 123, 17, p > 0.05$. The non significant difference between males and females on abuse as a cause of streetism could be attributed to the possibility that both male and female children were equally led to the street by abuse. This revelation is in agreement of a 2002 World Bank Report that abuse is a common problem of

street children especially when one or both parents are addicted to drugs and alcohol. This also supports the work by UNICEF (1993), that children leave the home and family because of ill-treatment by their fathers or stepfathers.

Additionally, to investigate gender difference on poverty as a cause of streetism, a chi-square test was calculated. The results of the chi square analysis showed that there was no statistical significant difference between males and females as shown χ^2 (1) =123, 17, p>0.05. The non significant difference between males and females on poverty as a cause of streetism could be attributed to the possibility that both male and female children are equally led to the street by poverty. This is in support of the work by UNICEF (2000), that following the collapse of the socialist system in Mongolia, attention to social care stopped, and the situation became very difficult as prices have increased and families have been unable to manage. This has forced children into the streets. It is also supported by the work of Ennew and Jill (2003), that poor families are unable to assume complete responsibility for raising and supporting their children if there are many. Large families provide less time, care and money for each single child.

Moreso, a chi-square test was calculated to determine gender difference on inadequate housing as a cause of streetism. The results of the chi-square analysis showed that there was no statistical significant difference between males and females as shown χ^2 (1) = 123, 17), p>0.05. The non significant difference between males and females on inadequate housing as a cause of streetism could be attributed the possibility that both male and female children are equally led to the street by inadequate housing facility. In support

of this is a 2002 World Bank Report that lack of appropriate housing may push families and their children to the street.

Nevertheless, on investigate gender difference on loss of parent(s) as a cause of streetism, a chi-square test was calculated. The results of the chi square analysis showed a statistical significant difference on the issue of loss of parent(s) as a cause of streetism as shown χ^2 (1) = 123, 17, p<0.05. The statistical difference between males and females on loss of parent(s) as a cause of streetism could be attributed to the possibility that more girls were led to the street than boys as a result of loss of parent. However, there is no research to support this revelation. In Egypt, studies have indicated that the problem of family disintegration is common among families of street children. Statistical data of children joining the Amal Association and Um Kulthoum Society for street children reveal that 24% come from broken families, either due to divorce or the death of a parent (Civil Society Report, 2004). This research has not indicated whether more girls were led to the street than boys as a result of loss of parent(s).

Lastly, a chi-square test was calculated to investigate gender difference on divorce by parents as a cause of streetism. The results of the chi-square analysis showed that there was no statistical significant difference between males and females as shown χ^2 (1) = 123, 17, p>0.05. The non statistical difference between males and females on divorce by parent(s) as a cause of streetism could be attributed to the possibility that both male and female children are equally led to the street as a result of divorce by parents. This agrees with a Civil Society Report in Egypt. In 2004, a Civil Society Report in Egypt indicated that the problem of family disintegration is common among

families of street children. Statistics from the report showed that 24% of the children came from broken families or houses due to divorce of a parent.

Table 4: Chi-Square Representation of Causes of Streetism

Cause	Male		Female				
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	df	chi.	Sig. Value
Neglect	94	76.4	13	77	1	.000	.997
Abuse	70	57	11	65	1	.372	.542
Poverty	70	57	13	77	1	.376	.124
Inadequate Housing	1	8	0	0	1	.139	.709
Loss of Parents	29	24	8	47	1	4.235	.040
Parental Divorce	7	6	1	6	1	.001	.975

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of the study was to assess the impact of recreational activities on child delinquency at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. This chapter discusses the summary, major findings, conclusions, recommendation and suggestions for further research.

Overview of the Study

The study aimed at assessing the impact of recreational activities on child delinquency at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. The study made use of descriptive research survey to describe the opinions of respondents as to how supervised recreational activities could help curb child delinquency among street children. A self-developed questionnaire was used to collect data from the respondents. Convenience sampling was used to draw 123 males and 17 females who willingly gave their consent and responded to the questionnaire. The instrument was pre-tested at the Street Children Academy, Accra to determine the reliability of the instrument. Data collected was analyzed using percentages and chi-square.

Key findings

In assessing the impact of recreational activities on child delinquency at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre, the findings showed that neglect, poverty and abuse were the major causes of streetism in the Cape Coast

Metropolis. The findings also showed that among the interventional programmes offered by the Football for Hope Centre, majority of the respondents took part in football, learnt how to use the computer (ICT education) and how to improve their confidence level. Furthermore, on the issue of the benefits of recreational activities to children at the Football for Hope Centre, the results showed that playing for fun, learning how to play a sport, connecting with other children in society and playing for enjoyment were the major benefits of taking part in recreational activities to the respondents. Furthermore, a statistical significant difference was shown on the issue of loss of parents as a cause of streetism. Neglect, abuse, poverty, inadequate housing and parental divorce as causes of streetism did not show any statistical significant difference.

Conclusion

Certain conclusions were drawn based on the findings from the study.

1. The major causes of streetism among children in the Cape Coast Metropolis were; neglect, poverty, and abuse.

2. The Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre offered interventional programmes to help rehabilitate and reintegrate street children back into society.

3. The major reasons or benefits of taking part in recreational activities to children at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre were for fun, learning how to play a sport, connecting with other children in society and enjoyment.

4. There was evidence of recreation as a means of helping curb child delinquency among street children. This was evident in the responses

given for the reasons or benefits for taking part in recreational activities.

Recommendations

Based on the findings from the study, the following recommendations have been given;

1. The Cape Coast football for Hope Centre must embark on public education through the media, the Information Service Department and the National Commission for Civic Education to educate and alert parents and guardians on the negative effects of streetism on their children.

2. Schools and communities in which these children are located should take up the challenge of providing enough facilities for recreation in order to provide children the opportunity to play for fun and enjoyment.

3. The Football for Hope Centre should organize regular meetings with the parents or guardians of these children and interact with them so as to find ways of meeting the educational needs of their wards so that the children will always be in school.

4. Further research is needed to show evidence of whether recreation does curb child delinquency.

Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the findings, it is recommended that further study is conducted in the following areas:

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1. Interventions by other NGO's and responsible bodies towards the eradication of the street children menace in the Cape Coast Municipality.

2. The Effectiveness of Interventional Programmes by NGO's aimed at improving the life's of street children.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

CAPE COAST, GHANA
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
Department of Health, Physical Education & Recreation

TELEPHONE: 233 - 0332130634M, 32480-9 Ext.253
TELEX: 2552, UCC, GH.

Our Ref: **HPER/MD/40/V.5/19**

Cables & Telegrams:
UNIVERSITY, CAPE COAST

19th May, 2014

The Programme Coordinator
Oguaa Football for Hope Centre
Cape Coast

Dear Sir/Madam,

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

The bearer of this letter, **Mr Gabriel Atseku (ED/MPE/11/0003)** is an MPhil student in the Department of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. He is working on a thesis titled **"Using Recreation to Curb Delinquency among Street Children: A Case Study at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre"** that may require data collection from your Centre.

We would therefore be very grateful if he is given the assistance he may need from your outfit.

If you require any further information you may contact the Department on phone at 033-21-30634.

We count on your usual co-operation.

Thank you.

Dr. Charles Domfeh
For: Head

Informed Consent Form for Parents

I am an M.Phil student conducting a survey as part of my thesis on the topic: Using Recreation to Curb Delinquency among Street Children: Case Study at the Cape Coast Football for Hope Centre. Your ward is a part of this study. Since he / she is a minor, I would be grateful if you could give your consent by signing the consent form to enable your ward respond to my questionnaire. This is purely an academic exercise and your wards response will be absolutely confidential.

Thank you for your cooperation in conducting this research.

Name: Gabriel Atseku

Contact: 0243138433

Supervisor's name: Prof. J. K. Mintah

Contact: 0202464739

APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION

STRUCTURED INTERVIEW FOR CHILDREN OF THE CAPE COAST FOOTBALL FOR HOPE CENTRE

Sex: Male [   ]   Female [   ]

Age: A. 8-10yrs[   ]   B. 11-12yrs[   ]   C. 13-14yrs[   ] D. 15-16yrs [   ]

1. Do you live with your parents?   Yes   [   ]   No [   ]

2. If no, whom do you live with?

   A. Guardian   [   ]   B. Neighbour [   ]   C. Friends [   ].

3. What work is your father engaged in? A. Farming [   ] B. Fishing [   ]

   C. Trading [   ]   D. Others [   ]   E. Not working [   ].

4. What work is your guardian engaged in? A. Farming [   ] B. Fishing [   ]

   C. Trading [   ]   D. Others [   ]. E. Not working [   ].

5. Have you ever attended school?   Yes [   ]   No   [   ]

6. If YES to question 4, what level did you reach? A. Class 1-3 [ ] B. Class4-6 [ ] C. JHS 1-3

7. If No to question 4, why didn't you go to school? A. Parents did not send me to school [   ]   B. Financial problems [   ] C. Parents wanted me to learn a trade [   ] D. Others [   ]

8. What do you do when you are not in school? A. Go to play with friends [   ] B. Roam the streets with friend [   ] C. Work or sell for money [ ] D. Help parents at work [ ]

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9. Which of the following causes led you out-of-school? Choose as many as applied to you.

   a. Neglect

   b. Abuse

   c. Poverty

   d. Inadequate housing facility

   e. Loss of parents

   f. Divorce by parents

10. What games/activities do you take part in at the Academy? A. Football [ ] B. Volleyball [ ] C. Television games [ ] D. Watch cartoons [ ]

11. Do you enjoy taking part in the games?   YES [ ]   NO [ ]

12. Aside the games, what other thing do you learn at the Centre? A. ICT education [ ] B. How to keep environment clean [ ] C. Peaceful co-existence [ ] D. How to read and write [ ]

13. Do the things you learn affect your life

    A. Positively [ ] B. Negatively [ ].

14. If positively, what change do they bring to your life?

    A. How to be confident [ ]   B. How to live with others [ ]

    C. How to read and write [ ]   D. Others [ ]

15. Do you intend to go back to school in the near future?

    YES   [ ]   NO [ ]

16. If yes to question 15, why? A. Want to live the streets [ ] B. Want to live like other children [ ] C. Want to be educated [ ] D. Want to get good job in future [ ] E. Others …………………

17. Which of the following to you are the reasons for taking part in recreational activities at the Centre? Choose as many as apply to you.

A. Enjoyment [   ]   B. Pleasure [   ]   C. Fun [   ]

D. Release stress   E. Learn how to play a sport   F. Improve self esteem (confidence) [ ]   G. Desist from negative behaviours [   ]

H. Fill unsupervised after school hours [ ]

I. Connect with other children in society   [   ]

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Causes of Streetism

Cause	Yes		No		Total
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	%
Neglect	107	76.4	33	23.6	100
Poverty	83	59.3	57	40.7	100
Abuse	81	57.9	59	42.1	100
Loss of Parents	37	26.4	103	73.6	100
Divorce by Parents	8	5.8	132	94.3	100
Inadequate Housing	1	0.7	139	9.3	100

Table 2: Interventional Programmes Offered by the Centre

Programme/ Activity	Yes		No		Total
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	%
Football	135	96.5	5	3.5	100
ICT Education	80	57.1	60	42.9	100
How to read to write	79	56.4	61	43.6	100
Peaceful co-existence	76	54.2	64	45.8	100
How to keep environment clean	72	51.4	68	48.6	100
How to be confident	63	45	77	55	100
Watch cartons	3	2.1	137	97.9	100
Television games	2	1.4	138	98.6	100

Table 3: Reasons for Taken Part in Recreational Activities

	Yes		No		No Res.
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Fun	122	87.1	17	12.1	1
Learn how to play a sport	108	77.1	31	22.1	1
Connect with other children	88	62.9	44	31.4	8
Enjoyment	69	49.3	58	41.4	13
Improve self-esteem	50	35.7	81	57.9	9
Desist from negative behaviour	48	34.3	81	57.9	11
Pleasure	37	26.4	91	72.1	12
Fill unsupervised after school hours	26	18.6	101	72.1	12
Release stress	19	13.6	108	77.4	8

Table 4: Chi-Square Representation of Causes of Streetism

Cause	Male		Female		df	chi.	Sig. Value
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	df	chi.	Sig. Value
Neglect	94	76.4	13	77	1	.000	.997
Abuse	70	57	11	65	1	.372	.542
Poverty	70	57	13	77	1	.376	.124
Inadequate							
Housing	1	8	0	0	1	.139	.709
Loss of							
Parents	29	24	8	47	1	4.235	.040
Parental							
Divorce	7	6	1	6	1	.001	.975