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UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, TAMALE

**THE PERCEIVED CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF CHILD LABOUR ON
CHILDREN'S EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF SHEA BUTTER INDUSTRY IN
SAGNERIGU DISTRICT OF NORTHERN, GHANA**

BY

ISSAH ADAM

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES



2017

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL AND
CONSUMER SCIENCES EDUCATION, FACULTY OF AGRICULTURE IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF A MASTER OF EDUCATION IN AGRICULTURE (M.ED).**



SEPTEMBER, 2017

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research work undertaken under the supervision of the undersigned and that all works consulted have been acknowledged.

Candidate's Name	Signature	Date
ISSAH ADAM

CERTIFICATION

I certify that this thesis has been supervised and assessed in accordance with laid down guidelines by University for Development Studies:

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



Head of Department:.....
Name:.....
Signature:.....
Date:.....

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to express my profound gratitude to my parents for supporting me this far. I equally want to thank my supervisor Dr. Hamza Adam for the valuable time he spent in supervising this work. I would never have made it to this level without his expert guidance. I wish to also acknowledge the immeasurable support of my head of department Agriculture and Consumer Science Education Madam Afishata Mohammed Abujaja and all lecturers in the department.

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ABSTRACT

Education is a right for all Ghanaian children of school going age but that is not exactly so in most parts of Ghana including children of the study area because of their involvement in child labour, especially in the Shea butter processing industry in the Sagnerigu district. The objective of the study was to examine the perceived causes and effects of Child labour on Children's education in the Shea butter processing industry in the Sagnerigu District of Northern Ghana. Case study research design was used in this study. The target groups for this study included children and adults working in the Shea butter industry, parents, teachers and opinion leaders in the communities. Eighty five (85) respondents working in the Shea butter industry were randomly selected for questionnaires administration while thirty (30) key informants were purposively selected for interviews. Two focus group discussions were also held at the Shea butter processing centre's. The data obtained were processed and analysed using mixed methods. Content analysis was applied to documents and reports already generated by Sagnerigu district assembly, the data obtained from the administration of structured questionnaires were subjected to quantitative analysis by the use of descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages, while the data taken from the key informants and the focus group discussions were analysed using the qualitative analyses approach such as themes and relationships. The study found that child labour was caused by factors such as poverty, single parenting, lack of formal education and low income. The study also found that lateness, absenteeism, low concentration, in ability to do homework and sleeping in class as well as poor academic performance were the effects of child labour on school attendance. Furthermore, among the strategies used to reduce child labour included sensitisation, enforcing child labour laws, poverty alleviation and free and compulsory education for children. Governments need to ensure that its poverty reduction strategies support the elimination of child labour, financial support need to target the Shea butter processors with low income levels to reduce the incidence of child labour in the Shea butter processing Industry. Government need to apply the minimum legal working age to jobs in Shea butter Industry as well as punishing people who do not follow the laws.



DEDICATION

I dedicate it to my family (my mother Mma Mariyama Fuseini, my wife Musah Barikisu Helena and my children), friends and other individuals whose prayers, inspirations and support have seen me through the years spent in pursuing my course of study.



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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

MEANING	ACRONYMS
Education for All	EFA
Millennium Development Goals	MDGs
Free and Compulsory Universal Basic Education	FCUBE
Ghana National Commission on children	GNCC
Ghana Statistical Service	GSS
International Labour Organisation	ILO
Ghana Education Service	GES
United Nations International	UNICEF
Non-Governmental Organizations	NGOs
Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs	MOWAC
International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour	IPEC
Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy	GPRS II
Livelihood Empowerment against Poverty	LEAP
Ghana Export Promotion Council	GEPC.
United Nations Development Programme	UNDP
America Shea Butter Institute	ASBI
Legislative instrument	Li



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Education is a human right and fulfilling experience that help girls and boys to reach their full potential in society yet millions of children in Africa are still out of school, a majority of them being girls, Hence Education for All (EFA) and the Education targets of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) that is Goal 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all were put in place specifically to address concerns linked to education and development. Despite these goals, inequalities in education persist in Sub Saharan Africa to the detriment of girls. This is evidenced by disparities in access to school as well as enrolment, retention, completion, and performance rates. These disparities point to structural and systemic gender inequality which is partly in education (The state of world's children 2007).

Government of Ghana's ultimate educational goal is to provide Free and Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) of good quality for all children in order to achieve her goal of Education For All (EFA) In addition, the Education Strategic Plan (ESP 2003-2015), contains a specific education goal related to the promotion of girls education (ESP goal 10). Education related Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) that is Goal 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all, Education For All (EFA) Global Monitoring Reports (2009) found that in many countries disparities' based on wealth, location, gender, immigration or minority status or disability deny millions of children a good quality education and Sub Saharan Africa accounts for 47percent of out of



school children worldwide, with 54 percent of these children being girls. In 2006, 35million children were not enrolled in school. This is almost one third of school age population.

Ghana's Demographic and health survey (2008), estimates that, three quarters of primary school aged children in Ghana attend school, with close gender parity. About 74 percent of boys within the ages of 6-11years attend school compared to 75 percent of girls. Again, the reports indicate that 80 percent of children of primary school age attend school compared to 70 percent in rural areas. Some regional differences were observed. Primary net attendances were highest in the Ashanti region (86 percent), with Northern region recording the lowest rates of (53 percent). Although school enrolment is high in Ghana, dropout rates are rapidly going-up. According to Ampiah and Aduyeboah (2009) more than 20 percent of school going age children in Ghana have either dropped out or have never enrolled in school. Apart from that, The Ghana Demographic and Health (2006) report estimated that drop-out rates across all grades in Ghana were similar (4 percent) with exception of grade three which was 5 percent.

According to Tengey and Oguaa (2002), about 60 percent of the total number of children of school going age attend school, but when children complete primary school, (primary class six), about 45 percent drop out. The rate for girls is higher than for boys. Educational opportunities therefore vary across the different sexes. Whereas boys are often enrolled in schools, girls are always at a disadvantage, because they are expected to take care of the home and do domestic chores such as washing of dishes and clothes, cooking, fetching water and taking care of younger siblings. This is so because it is widely believed among some communities that sending a girl child to school is a waste of resources, since she will eventually end up marrying out of the house.



Child labour is defined as economically active children (5-17years), that do not attend school or work in fishing, mining, quarrying, building, construction, or road transport work undertaken by children aged 5-17 years and which prevents them from attending school, is exploitative, hazardous or inappropriate for their age (Central Bureau of Statistics, Kenya 2003). Child labour is also defined by Statistics South Africa (2001), as children economically active for at least 1hour per week or in domestic chores for at least 7hours per week or in school labour for five hours per week.

The legal definition of a child in Ghana is anyone who has not reached the age of maturity, which is 18 years (GSS, 2003). It is accepted that children under 5 years are not physically capable of undertaking work of any significance, whether economic or non-economic.

For the purpose of this study, child labour is defined as any activity, economic or non-economic, performed by a child, that is either too dangerous or hazardous and/or for which the child is too small to perform and that has the potential to negatively affect his/her health, education, moral and normal development. The popular definitions stated earlier are not very comprehensive and well suited to the Ghanaian situation because of some cultural considerations.



Ghana being among the first countries in Africa to ratify the convention on the rights of the child, Ghanaian parliament passed the children's Act in 1998. Drafted by the Ghana National Commission on children [GNCC], it guarantees that every child has the right to life, dignity, respect, leisure, liberty, health, education and shelter from his parents. The Act prohibits exploitative labour, night work, and minimum age of child labour at 15 years.

The constitution of the Republic of Ghana frowns on child labour. Article 32 of the convention on the rights of the child says: states parties recognize the right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous, or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development. The minimum working age in Ghana is 15 years (ILO, 1973; Ghana Labour Law, 1967). Moreover, Ghana's labour law allows children from 12 to 13 years of age to be hired to do light work provided, the work is not hazardous to their health or mental and physical development and will not affect their regular school attendance.

According to the international labour organization (2002), there were 211 million children aged 5 to 14 at work in economic activity in the world in 2000. This accounted for nearly 20 percent of all children in this age group. Asia Pacific region had the largest number of child workers (127.3 million), followed by sub-Saharan Africa (48 million) then Latin America and the Caribbean (17.4 million). In relative terms, sub-Saharan Africa had the highest proportion of working children (29 percent) followed by Asia and the Pacific (19 percent) while Latin America and the Caribbean (16 percent).

The minimal role of child labour in Ghana today is one of the most remarkable changes in the social and economic life of the nation over the last two centuries. In colonial America, child labour was not a subject of controversy. It was an integral part of the agricultural and handicraft economy. Children not only worked on the family farms but were often hired out to other farmers. Boys customarily began their apprenticeship in a trade between ages ten and fourteen. Both types of child labour declined in the early nineteenth century, but factory employment provided a new opportunity for children. Ultimately, young women and adult immigrants replaced these children in the textile industry, but child labour continued in other



businesses. Children employed could be paid lower wages and were more tractable and easily managed than adults, and were very difficult for unions to organize (Foner and Garraty, 1991)

World summit for children (1990) declaration: The children of the world are innocent vulnerable and dependent. They are also curious, active and full of hope. Their time should be one of joy and peace of playing, learning and growing. Their future should be shaped in harmony and co-operation. Their lives should mature, as they broaden their perspectives and gain new experiences.

The Shea butter trade have assumed global proportions over the last two decades, the food industry (for chocolate, margarine, confectioneries) uses approximately 96% of the international supply, while the rest is absorbed by the cosmetics industry (D'Auteuil, 2008). Traditional uses of Shea nuts and Shea butter processed products have declined in homes in Northern regions over the decades due to changes in consumer choices and availability of cheaper substitutes such as other cosmetics and vegetable oils, but there is growing demand for Shea nuts and Shea processed products outside Africa (Scholz, 2009). Like other industries child labour is gradually creeping into the Shea butter industry. A preliminary visit to some Shea butter industries observed children of school going age spending full time at the industries, and are being used to perform various activities. There is paucity of knowledge of how the industry is affecting school enrolment and attendance which this study focuses on.

1.2 Problem Statements

Shea trees are indigenous and exclusive asset in west and central Africa and are particularly abundant in the Northern savannah areas of Ghana. In this area Shea butter production is a way of life for most women and is traditionally acknowledged as women's work by the local



people as it is a key income source for them. Processing of Shea butter is the main source of income for many women in Northern Ghana and the Sagnerigu district is not an exception. The district is made up of 79 communities, comprising of 20 urban, 6 peri-urban, and 53 rural areas, where many of the women still use the traditional Shea- butter processing methods they learnt from their parents years ago. It involves arduous processes requiring large quantities of fuel wood and water which are all transported from long distances.

The large demand for labour, water and fuel wood by processors compounds the problem. This is because children who are supposed to be in school are often used as labour in the in the Shea butter industry.

The children are expected to carry fuel wood, water and sometimes sit closer to the fire source to roast the crashed nuts. It is not only hazardous to the child's health, but it may also lead to high school absenteeism, lateness and sometimes drop outs. Poor working conditions can also cause severe health problems to such children. A child in labour not just suffers physical and mental torture but also becomes mentally and emotionally mature too fast which is never a good stage of normal growth and development. NB.

As children are sensitive to dangers of toxics, chemicals, noise, pollution, heat and accidents, as a result of which many children develop lifelong health complications. In worst cases even lose their lives. Despite these negatives effects of child labour, there is paucity of knowledge that tries to look at how it affects children's school enrolment and attendance. This study therefore seeks to investigate this important subject matter (Basu, K. 1999).



1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study is to examine the causes and effects of child labour on children's education in the Shea butter processing industry in the Sagnerigu district.

The specific objectives of the study:

1. To examine the causes of child labour in the Shea butter processing industry in Sagnerigu District.
2. To determine the effects of child labour in the Shea butter Industry on the school enrolment, attendance, retention and performance of children in the Sagnerigu District.
3. To determine the strategies that can be put in place to reduce child labour among school children in the Sagnerigu District.

1.4 Research Questions

The research questions sought to address the following:

1. What are the causes of child labour in the Shea butter processing industry in Sagnerigu District?
2. What are the effects of child labour on the school enrolment, attendance, retention and performance of children in the Shea butter Industry in Sagnerigu District?
3. What strategies can be put in place to reduce child labour among school children in the Sagnerigu District?



1.5 Significance of the Study

This work seeks to highlight some critical perspectives on how child labour in the Shea butter processing industry affects the children education particularly in terms of enrolment, attendance, retention and performance and suggest ways of improving girl-child education through eradication of child labour in the Shea butter processing industry with particular emphasis on Sagnerigu district. This work is very significant on the backdrop of the numerous principal stakeholders who have immeasurable interest in the outcome for policy formulations and implementation, decisions on good business practices and labour ethical considerations. The principal stakeholders include, Ghana Education Service (GES), Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), Government, Shea butter processors and marketing agencies both local and international. It will also serve as reference resource to other researchers who intend to carry out similar research. Even though literature exists on effects of Shea butter processing on the environment, studies on child labour in Ghana. An in-depth study on the effects of child labour on children's education in the Shea butter processing industry is limited, hence the study will add to existing knowledge.

1.6 Delimitations of the Study

This study intends to assess the causes and effects of childlabour on children's education in the Shea butter processing Industry in Sagnerigu District.

The study will cover five major Shea butter processing communities located within the Sagnerigu district. Those communities are; Sagnerigu ,Gurugu, Katariga, Kasalgu and Malshegu.



1.7 Organisation of Chapters

The study is organised into five (5) chapters. Chapter one deals with the background of the study, problem statement, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, delimitations of the study and organisation of the study while chapter two presents literature review of the study. In addition, chapter three consists of Methodology which comprises of research design, target population and sample size determination, sample techniques, data collection instruments, and analytical procedures and chapter four will consist of data presentation and analysis and summary of findings, conclusion and recommendations are contained in chapter five.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Theoretical Issues on Child Labour

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

2.1 The ILO Concept and Definition of Child Labour

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



- Children at work
- Children engaged in child labour, including all economically active children 5 to 11 years of age; economically active children aged 12 to 14 years, except those doing light work only for less than 14 hours per week; and, children aged 15 to 17 years engaged in any type of hazardous work.
- Children in hazardous work, that is, work that will likely harm the health, safety, or moral development of a child. In addition to children working in mines, construction or other hazardous activities, this group includes all children below 18 years of age who work 43 hours or more per week.
- Children in unconditional worst forms of child labour, as defined by ILO Convention No. 182.

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

There are two points to note in this view of the ILO. Firstly, the first group covers activities that might be regarded as positive from an ILO perspective. The second and third groups cover child labour that deserves to be eliminated, and the fourth group requires an urgent action for elimination. Children under five years of age who are not included in these four groups are generally considered too young to be working.

Secondly, the ILO definition covers only economic activity, that is, work related to the production of goods and services. Domestic work – such as cooking, cleaning, or caring for children – is ignored. The major criticism of this definition is that it is narrow as it



underestimates the burden of work on children, especially for girls, who are more likely than boys to perform work in a household (Gibbons, Huebler, and Loaiza, 2005).

2.2 The UNICEF Concept and Definition of Child Labour

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

UNICEF defines child labour as follows:

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

The UNICEF definition has the advantage of theoretically capturing all work that children do. The definition of UNICEF provides a good indicator of child labour that is harmful to a child's physical or mental development. However, it is of limited value for an analysis of the trade-off between work and school attendance. (ILO Convention No 182 (Article 3)

2.3 Operational Definition of Child Labour

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

The legal definition of a child in Ghana is anyone who has not reached the age of maturity, which is 18 years (GSS, 2003). It is accepted that children under 5 years are not physically



capable of undertaking work of any significance, whether economic or non-economic. The target group for the survey, therefore, comprised all children aged 5-17 years, engaged in economic or non-economic activities (including housekeeping/household chores in their own parent'/guardians' household. (ILO 2000)

2.4 History of Child Labour

Child labour is not a new phenomenon. It has existed in every part of the world since ancient times. In more recent history, it emerged as an issue during the industrial revolution when children were forced to work in dangerous conditions for up to 12 hours a day.

In 1860, 50% of children in England between the age of 5 and 15 years were working. In England and Scotland in 1788, two-thirds of the workers in 143 water-powered cotton mills were described as children. In 1919, the world began to address the issue of child labour and the International Labour Organisation (ILO) adopted standards to eliminate it. Throughout the 20th Century, a number of legally binding agreements and international conventions were adopted but in spite of these, child labour continues to this day. The highest number of child labourers is in the Asia-Pacific region but the largest percentage of children working, as proportion of the child population, is found in sub-Saharan Africa.

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



repetitive jobs such as: assembling boxes, polishing shoes, stocking a store's products, or cleaning. (ILO 2000).

However, rather than in factories and sweatshops, most child labour occurs in the informal sector, "selling many things on the streets, at work in agriculture or hidden away in houses far from the reach of official labour inspectors and from media scrutiny." As long as there is family poverty there will be child labour (UNICEF, September 2007 56-63).

2.5. Causes of Child Labour on Children's Education

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

ILO (2006) observes that while poverty is almost always a context for the early entry of children into regular work and into child labour, poverty can also be a function of:



- a) Access to labour markets and income-raising activities;
- b) Family members of working age not having appropriate skills to match market needs in the area where they live;
- c) Family members low educational levels;
- d) Unemployment in the area where the family lives;
- e) Conflict, illness or natural disaster having taken away the breadwinner of the family leaving a dependent household with no-one to depend on. Apart from the incidence of parental poverty others think the causes of child labour goes beyond that.

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

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

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



The fact is that the opportunity or the proportion of work for kids is the one that makes child labour occur. It exists because it is treated as acceptable culturally or politically.

In many countries there exists a strong tradition of tolerance for child labour. The result is the child labour expansion among some poor ethnic groups. In a similar form discriminatory attitudes for women and girls can enforce their parents will to send their daughters to serve in homes or do other forms of work.

The results of four African countries surveyed by ILO on child labour indicate that working children were considered essential as contributors to the household economies in all four of the surveyed countries, either in the form of work for wages or in the form of help in household enterprises. In most of the businesses surveyed in Ghana, for example, the employed children were either those of the owner or were close relatives.

The two main reasons why enterprises employed child labour were the "willingness" of children to work as many hours as required, and the absence of labour disputes, (ILO,1996).

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

2.6 The Perceived Causes and Effects of Child Labour on School Attendance of Children

Child labour remains globally widespread, complex and a multi-faceted phenomenon. An estimate of the International Labour Organisation is that worldwide over 350 million children work (ILO, 2004). That means that over one fifth of the world's children aged 5-17 years are exploited in child labour of different forms. The Asian-Pacific region continues to have the



largest number of child workers, 122 million in total. It is followed by Sub-Saharan Africa (49.3 million) and Latin America and the Caribbean (5.7 million). Still large numbers of children toil in appalling conditions and are ruthlessly exploited to perform dangerous jobs with little or no pay, and as a result of these conditions, oftentimes suffer severe physical and emotional abuse (Weston, 2005).

A recent International Labour Organisation (ILO) child labour reports that, Africa ranks highest both in the percentage of children in child labour one-fifth and the absolute number of children in child labour-72million. Asia and the Pacific ranks second highest in both these measures-7 per cent of all children, 62 million in absolute terms, are in child labour in this region. The remaining child labour population is divided among the Americas (11million), Europe and central Asia (6million), and the Arab States-1million.(ILO Global estimates of child labour,2012-2016)

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

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



The vast majority of working children in developing countries are engaged in agricultural work. Yet, this work is severely understudied as compared with the more visible forms of work in Latin America and Asia, which involve children in labour-intensive manufacturing.

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

In Ghana, virtually all boys and almost half of the girls combine working on the household enterprise with going to school. Experimental statistical surveys carried out by the ILO in Ghana, India, Indonesia and Senegal have shown that the economic activities of more than 75 percent of children between the ages of 5 and 14 takes place in a family enterprise setting (ILO 2002).

According to the Ghana Child Labour Survey carried out in 2001, nearly 40 percent of the children had engaged in economic activities within the twelve months preceding the interviews; 31 percent within the last seven days. Half of the rural and about one fifth of the urban children was economically active. Nearly all of them (87 percent of the boys and 92 percent of the girls) had household duties in addition. 57 percent of the children were engaged



in agriculture, forestry and fishing; 21 percent worked as hawkers and street vendors, selling food, iced water and other items. Other occupations were washing cars, fetching fire wood and water, pushing trucks (large wheelbarrows) and carrying goods as porters. Most of the children worked in the family business. As many as 1.59 million children were working while attending school. Nearly 20 percent of children (about 1.27million) were engaged in activities classified as child labour (ILO 2002). The phenomenon is prevalent in all regions of the country (GSS, 2003; MMYE, 2006).

2.7 Effects and Ramifications of Child Labour

According to the ILO's (2002) global estimates on child labour, close to half of all working children are enrolled in school. Child labour interferes with education. Either school attendance is foregone in favour of work, or learning is inefficient, either because the children are not allowed to spend time doing their homework or because they are unable to pay proper attention in school because of fatigue (Canagarajah, & Nielsen, 1999). UNICEF's study in Ghana and a review of similar studies by the ILO have shown that work has a detrimental effect on learning achievements in the key areas of language and mathematics. Heady (2003) also found that working children in Ghana spent an average of one hour per week less in school.

According to Gibbons et al (2003) child labour is associated with higher repetition and dropout rates. Child labour competes with school attendance and proficiency, children sent to work do not accumulate (or under-accumulate) human capital, missing the opportunity to enhance their productivity and future earnings capacity. This lowers the wage of their future families, and increases the probability of their offspring being sent to work.



In this way poverty and child labour is passed on from generation to generation. Child labour not only prevents children from acquiring the skills and education they need for a better future, it also perpetuates poverty and affects national economies through losses in competitiveness, productivity and potential income.

(ILO, 2006) demonstrate that early entry into the labour force reduces lifetime earnings by 13-20 per cent, increasing significantly the probability of being poor later in life.

There is a general agreement that some trade-off between children in labour and human capital accumulation takes place. With respect to school attendance and progress, full-time jobs have the worst impact on children's future productivity. Part-time jobs, especially those that are physically very demanding, also disrupt education since children are too tired to participate adequately at school activities or to study at home.

The age of entry into the labour force is also important in this context: the younger the child enters the labour force, the less human capital he/she will be able to accumulate.

Child labour seriously undermines efforts to provide children with the necessary knowledge and skills to meet the challenges of the 21st Century.

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



2.8 Defense of Child Labour

Concerns have often been raised by civil society over the buying public's moral complicity in purchasing products assembled or otherwise manufactured in developing countries with child labour. The recent threat from the developed world of boycotting cocoa from Ghana and other African countries is a case in point. However, others have raised concerns that boycotting products produced through child labour may force these children to turn to more dangerous or strenuous professions. For example, a UNICEF study found that after the Child Labour Deterrence Act was introduced in the US, an estimated 50,000 children were dismissed from their garment industry jobs in Bangladesh, leaving many to resort to jobs such as "stone-crushing, street hustling, and prostitution", jobs that are "more hazardous and exploitative than garment production"(UNICEF,2008).

The study suggests that boycotts are "blunt instruments with long-term consequences that can actually harm rather than help the children involved."(UNICEF, 2008).

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

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





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

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

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

It is therefore considered normal for a child to play any role that his/her mental and physical abilities can support. Indeed, in Ghana, a child is considered a deviant, lazy or having poor upbringing if he/she cannot perform basic household chores like fetching water, washing plates, sweeping and running errands. In most cases, females are expected to assist their mothers in the kitchen, while males assist their fathers on the farms or in the family business. The situation becomes very challenging when parents, especially farmers, expect their children to take over from them (GSS, 2003). What is considered as child labour in the western countries may be considered a normal practice in Ghana. This practice becomes a problem only if the work that the child does is injurious to his/her health or affects his/her schooling.

2.9 Challenges of Child Labour on Children's Education

In principle, children who are withdrawn from the labour market should attend school, acquire human capital, become more productive adults, earn higher wages, increase the welfare of their own families and escape the need for their underage offspring to work.

Unfortunately, however, the transmission chain from lower child labour to reduced poverty and child labour in the long run is not smooth, and a number of hitches can occur. First of all, even assuming a successful reduction in child labour both in the formal and informal economy, this notion relies crucially on the fact that lower child labour means higher schooling, which is not at all automatic.

According to UNICEF (2006), to succeed in eliminating child labour, schools must be available, accessible and affordable for poor families. Schools must be of sufficiently good quality, and the curricula must be of practical help for the children living in a specific region and condition. Most importantly, school should be a safe and healthy place where to send children. Unfortunately this is not the case in developing countries especially in Ghana.



According to ILO (2002), the Ghana Child Labour Survey 2001, in all the regions and for all age groups, the most frequent (44.2 per cent) reason cited for non-attendance at school was non-affordability by parents to cater for children. The next most frequently cited reasons were long distance of place of residence from school (18.4 per cent) and children not being interested in school (17.1 per cent). Classrooms are often not available especially in the rural areas and where they exist they are not in good shape and therefore not conducive enough for academic work. The Participatory Poverty Assessment according to Norton et al, (1995) cited in Canagarajah and Coulombe (1997) found that parents did not want to send their children to school due to inferior quality of teaching and teacher absenteeism. It was also noted that some teachers wanted the children to work in their farms in return for classes for them. This practice has disgusted many parents with Ghana's schooling system and has pushed them into involving their children in their own farms instead of teachers' farms. The high opportunity cost of sending children to school has also been stated as a reason for not sending them to school by many rural households.

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



2.10 Efforts in Addressing the Problem of Child Labour

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

Today, the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138) is the ILO's main instrument on child labour. Unlike previous conventions, it applies to all sectors of economic activity. The ILO's ongoing offensive against child labour includes a technical cooperation programme designed to help countries build up a permanent capacity to address the problem. Launched in 1992, the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) fosters the development of an effective partnership between government services, employers' organizations, trade unions, non-governmental organizations and other interested parties including universities and members of the media.

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



protection through the entry into force of ILO Convention 182, which was ratified by 150 countries as of May 2004. Convention 182 prohibits the worst forms of child labour, defined as all forms of slavery and similar practices; child prostitution and pornography; illicit activities (in particular the production and trafficking of drugs); and work that is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children.

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

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

IPEC's work to eliminate child labour is an important facet of the ILO's Decent Work Agenda. Withdrawing children from child labour, providing them with education and assisting their families with training and employment opportunities contribute directly to creating decent work for adults. Ghana has a comparatively progressive child labour law. The constitution of the Republic of Ghana (1992) prohibits slavery and forced labour (section 16) and states that it is the right of any person "to work under satisfactory, safe and healthy conditions" (section



24). Section 28 guarantees children “the right to be protected from engaging in work that constitutes a threat to ... (their) health, education or development”. As in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child every person under the age of 18 is defined as a child (Zdunnek, et al 2008). The ILO in collaboration with the government of Ghana has signed an agreement to eliminate worse forms of child labour in Ghana by the year 2015.

In 2008, the Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment drafted a National Plan of Action for the Elimination of (the worst forms of) Child Labour 2008-2015 as an overall strategy and basis for cooperation between institutions and organisations.

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

According to UNICEF (2006), Poverty is considered a major determinant of child labour in Ghana. To lessen the effect of poverty on the Ghanaian child there was the need of policy interventions by the government. Since the mid 1990s, Ghana has developed several poverty reduction strategies and one of such strategies is the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy



for 2006 through 2009 (GPRS II) is to achieve “the status of a middle-income economy by the year 2015 within a decentralised democratic environment” characterised by an increase in per capita income and an improvement in living standards (Republic of Ghana 2005:5). The GPRS II indicated that priority will be given to special programmes to combat the worst forms of child labour under which the government is implementing the Livelihood Empowerment against Poverty (LEAP) programme to support families to fight against child labour. To qualify for the LEAP programme, all the household children of school age should be enrolled in schools and that no child should be trafficked or is engaged in any of the worst forms of labour. All these interventions by government and NGOs are geared towards finding solutions to the child labour problem.

A cost/benefit analysis carried out by the United Nations in 2003 convincingly demonstrated the value of eliminating child labour by reference to the long term economic benefit of a more skilled and healthy workforce. As further evidence of interdependence, there is correlation between those countries lagging behind the MDG for education and those in which child labour thrives. The integration of child labour concerns into national development strategies, backed by effective legislation, is therefore the preferred route to a lasting solution (UNICEF 2006).

2.11 Theoretical Framework

In recent years, many theoretical frameworks of child labour have been developed. Some of the more common models which try to explain child labour are the household bargaining models. Bargaining models may be of two distinct kinds, depending on who the agents involved in the bargaining are Intra-household bargaining models – whose main focus is often not child labour but general household behaviour - assume that the bargaining occurs within



the family between parents and the child (children). Solutions to these models usually specify that a child's labour supply depends on the adult wages and child's wage that prevail on the market. In the extra household approach, it is assumed that children have negligible bargaining power in households, and are basically an instrument for the parents' maximisation of utility. These models usually treat employers and parents of the children as the two main factors involved in the bargaining process.

These models- especially the extra-household bargaining model – sharply contrast with altruist models of child labour, in which the parents are altruistically concerned with the child's welfare. Furthermore, the altruistic class of models is differentiated from bargaining models, as they assume multiple equilibriums.

Foremost among the altruistic models is presented in Basu and Van (1998), which provides a framework for investigating how child labour and adult labour are interdependent in economic activity and under what conditions child labour emerges in the labour market. The main findings in their paper are essentially derived from two axioms referred to as the "Luxury" and "Substitution" axioms, respectively. These axioms are defined as follows:

Luxury Axiom: A family sends the children to the labour market only if the family's income from non-child labour sources drops below the subsistence level.

Substitution Axiom: Child labour and adult labour are substitutes from a firm's point of view.

Basu and Van (1998) show that there exist two multiple (stable) equilibriums in which

(1) Both adults and children work with low wages ("bad" equilibrium) and



(2) Only adults work with high wages (“good” equilibrium). At the “good” equilibrium in which adult wages are above the subsistence level, parents have no incentive to send children to work according to the Luxury Axiom. In contrast, when the economy stays at the bad equilibrium in which adult wages are below the subsistence level, adults have to send children to work to sustain the household.

In this model, a household resource is the important factor in the determination of child labour. Other models exploring multiple equilibriums have looked at the relationship between child labour and social norms, and also at the question of income redistribution. A big caveat in the literature has been the treatment of dynamics. The dynamic consequences of child labour are likely to be significant since an increase in child labour frequently causes a decline in the acquisition of human capital. However, the long-run consequences of child labour have been largely ignored in the modeling literature.

Baland and Robinson (2000) have looked at this issue to some extent. They demonstrate various channels through which inefficiently high levels of child labour may persist in equilibrium, even when parents are altruistic.

First, lack of access to credit markets may force parents to let their children engage in child labour to an extent that is Pareto inferior to what they would have chosen with sufficient access to credit.

Second, since children cannot write credible and enforceable contracts with their parents to transfer resources to them in the future, this too may generate an inefficient level of child labour in equilibrium. Parents are unable to capture the full returns from their investment in children’s education and therefore will under-invest, relative to what would otherwise be



(Pareto) optimal. The issue of child labour in Ghana and in the Sagnerigu districts in particular lends itself to the “bad economy” explanations that compel parents to send their children out to work to supplement family income. The theoretical underpinning of this study is on the Substitution Axiom where children work to supplement the inadequate income of the family.

2.12 The Shea Industry: Concept and Historical Perspective

Description of the Shea Industry

“The Shea is a golden tree: what cocoa can do the Shea can also do but cocoa cannot do what the Shea does, but little attention is given to the Shea” (Yeboah, Researcher of Shea biology, CRIG, 2008).

The Shea industry comprises the picking of Shea fruits and nuts; the processing of nuts into butter and the sale of both nuts and butter domestically and for export. Shea picking and processing on small-scale for household use as well as for sale is dominated by women and children. However the sale of Shea nuts has become big business, requiring huge financial investment, and hence gradually slipping into the domain of men with the financial wherewithal. The transportation and haulage of both Shea nuts and butter from Northern Ghana to the south, and for export to Europe and North America, has created job opportunities for haulage trucks as well as those who load the goods onto the trucks (Shea Dealers Association, 2008).

The Shea industry is defined by its value chain which is rooted from picking to processing of nuts for sale directly or into butter. Studies on the value chains have enabled understanding of the pricing, extraction and the stakeholders (women, children, buyers, sellers, NGOs,



international commercial agents etc) in the industry who ensure production and consumption of Shea products (ACDEP, 2005).

The Shea tree usually grows to an average height of about 15m with profuse branches and a thick waxy and deeply fissured bark that makes it fire resistant. The fruits are round and green in colour and maintain the same colour when ripe, except that most ripe fruits are soft to touch (CRIG, 2002). The Shea tree, formerly *Butryospermumparadoxum*, is now called *Vitellaria paradoxa*. The oldest Shea specimen for scientific examination was collected by Mungo Park on May 26, 1797, resulting in the eventual scientific name, *vitellaria paradoxa* given to Shea (CRIG, 2002).

Many vernacular names are used for *Vitellaria*, which is a reflection of its extensive range of occurrence –nearly 5,000km from Senegal (West) to Sudan, Ethiopia, Uganda (East) and across the African Continent. The Shea tree grows naturally in the wild, in the dry Savannah belt and semi-arid lands.

The 19 countries in which Shea is found (predominantly Sub-Saharan) across the continent of Africa are Benin, Ghana, Chad, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Guinea Bissau, Cote D’Ivoire, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Togo, Uganda, Zaire (now Democratic Republic of Congo) and Guinea (CRIG, Bole, 2002).

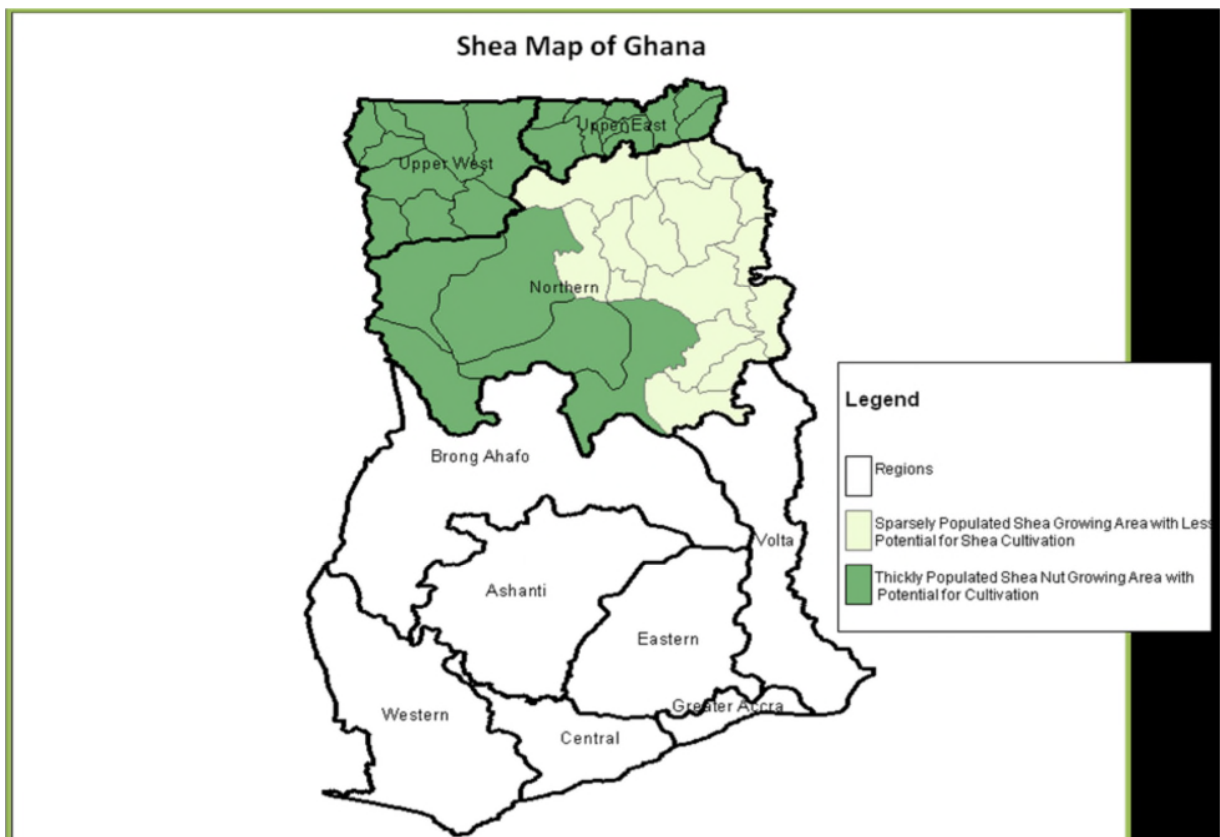
2.12.1 Evolution of the Shea Industry

“Shea is an indigenous tree of Ghana: the Shea industry is as old in Ghana as Ghana Shea (CRIG, 2002). The evolution of the Shea industry begins with the academic works on the Shea



plant by Mungo Park, on May 26, 1797 in his travels between the Gambian River and River Niger.

The earliest research work on the biology of the Shea tree in Ghana was conducted in 1928 on the flowering and propagation pattern of Shea. Subsequently, empirical applied scientific research comprising the biology (behaviour of the Shea plant in its growth processes), the etymology (the origins and historical development of the Shea tree), morphology, (genetic constitution and gestation of the Shea plant), agronomy (environmental factors that affect the growth and development of the tree) and the ecology (the relationship between Shea and other plants, animals, people and the environment in which the tree thrives) has been conducted on the Shea at the CRIG station at Bole since the late 1980s (CRIG, 2002).



2.12.2 Importance of the Shea nut industry

The Shea nut industry is quite a lucrative one especially among rural women and children who are the key players in the industry value chain process. The Shea nut business serves as a source of seasonal employment for young girls and women in the Tamale Metropolis. The industry generates income for large number of women as it is traditionally seen as women's business. The Shea nut industry employs many individuals who are involved in all of its value chain processes.

Most women either work individually near their homes or are organized into small business cooperatives. Moreover, Shea fruit is one of the few natural resources accessible to the landless poor. There is significant demand for Shea nut products both within Ghana as well as on the international market, which is important for the generation of foreign exchange to support the balance of payment position of the country. The Shea trees are truly multi-purpose and are of high impact value not only for the socio-economic and dietary value of the cooking oil, but also for the fruit pulp, bark, roots and leaves, which are used in traditional medicines and the wood and charcoal, used for building and cooking fuel respectively.

2.12.3 Benefits of the Shea Industry

“If you touch Shea, you touch every household in Northern Ghana; it brings income and food to everyone; that is why it is the only tree that has traditional penalty in Northern Ghana” (Jeremiah, Jaksally Shea Dealers Youth Group, Bole, June, 2008).

The interrelated issues of income levels, poverty and well-being are linked to livelihood opportunities. The rural population of Ghana has limited opportunities for employment besides engaging in subsistence agricultural activities and other peripheral commercial



activities of buying and selling. This situation is worse for the rural farming communities of Northern Ghana where the already erratic rainfall is limited to the months of May –September. Indeed the peak of the rainfall and farming season in Northern Ghana is June-August; a very brief period often associated with specific crop failure each year. This puts the people of the area in a perennially precarious situation, warranting very hazardous coping and survival mechanisms some of which are the recourse to charcoal burning, bush burning that accompany hunting, and cutting down trees for fuel wood Shea (CRIG, 2002).

Developing the Shea industry is as crucial as it is a strategy to contributing to the issues of livelihood options that Shea picking is usually pursued as a matter of “life and death”. Indeed, some other economic activities in the rural economy come to a standstill at the peak of Shea nut picking in Northern Ghana. There is usually a “big hunt” for Shea fruits in many rural communities mainly by children and women for direct consumption and for sale.

The men, who traditionally do not pick Shea nuts, harvest Shea fruits for lunch whilst on their farms (CRIG,2002).

In recent times however, Shea products have become indispensable in international trade. For instance, the butter is a substitute for cocoa butter in Europe but not in the USA and there is increasing demand for Shea butter and nuts in Europe.

There has been a documentation of best practices for the export of Shea butter products to the US, Europe and other Western markets (WATH, 2005)



2.12.4 Contribution of Shea Butter Industry to Development in Ghana

The Shea butter industry is a good source of socio-economic development for Northern Ghana and the entire nation as a whole.

The main benefits of Shea butter to Ghana include foreign exchange, food security, employment generation, poverty alleviation among others. This is discussed under sub headings below:

(a) Foreign Exchange Generation

Currently, Shea is classified as a non-traditional export commodity and is monitored by the Ghana Export Promotion Council (GEPC).



(b) Employment Generation

According to Techno Serve Ghana (2004) about 3,000 households in Northern Ghana are engaged in the Shea industry; it is estimated that the average household size is 13 persons and these households produce and market 4 Million USD worth of Shea butter annually.

On the other hand it is stated that about 39,000 rural poor processed and sold 34.2 billion Cedis (GH¢3,420,000.00) worth of Shea butter in 1999 (GLSS 4). In addition to this, there are an estimated 200,000 fragmented sellers of Shea products (TechnoServe, 2004).

(c) Provision of Food Security

Hall et al (1996) noted that the harvest season coincides with the early wet season, and the edible fruit pulp forms a substantial addition to diet. About 70,000mt of Shea is consumed in Ghana annually (Lovett, 2004). However, the most important role played by Shea in northern Ghana is the fact that Shea picked by farmers are mainly sold to raise funds for the purchase of food. As stated by Kletter (2002), picking of Shea coincides with the hunger period in northern Ghana, therefore, pickers sell the commodity immediately to purchase much needed food. This, however, gives buyers more bargaining power, leaving pickers as price-takers. Effective inventory financing of product could enable processors sell Shea commodities at a later date when prices are favorable. The thick pulp covering the fruit is also eaten as a delicious fresh fruit when other foods are very scarce (Hall et al., 1996).

(d) Poverty Alleviation

Literature on the Shea industry stresses that the industry is dominated by women. Moreover, women are among the most vulnerable and the poorest in society. NGOs that engage in the Shea industry, for instance, do so because of the potential of the industry to reduce poverty levels among women in particular. It is argued that all artisanal Shea butter



producers are women who spend their incomes to provide food, health care, and shelter for their families. (Techno Serve, 2004). Most of the 3,000 households engaged in the Shea industry are among the poor and are therefore relying on the Shea industry for their livelihood. Financing the production and marketing of the Shea industry is therefore an important course for development.

(e) Women Empowerment

Closely related to the poverty alleviation is the contribution of the Shea industry in women empowerment. The Shea processing is dominated by women and therefore contributes to significant proportion of their income. Women are therefore empowered economically through their engagement in the industry, to make meaningful decisions and investments in their lives, family and communities

2. 12.5 Role of the Shea Industry in National Development

One of the principal reasons for linking the Shea industry to the development of Northern Ghana is to justify the view that development is spatial reorganization.

According to Songsore (2003 p20-24) Regional Development is “seen as a process by which the productive capacities of all regions are mobilized by linking them in both a structural and an organizational sense to the mainstream of the national economy”. Investing resources in the Shea industry would be a two-pronged approach to achieving sustainable development in the sense of providing tree cover to the semi-arid land of Northern Ghana, and at the same time securing livelihoods for poor rural people, particularly women.



Developing the Shea industry is seen largely, as part of the solution to the regional imbalances between Northern and Southern Ghana. Space plays a significant role in national socio-economic development and that is why worldwide, regional planning is used as a tool for spatial organization to promote national development. However the way regional development has been pursued in Ghana since independence takes no much departure from the colonial legacy of a centre periphery approach where the coastal and forest “resource regions” have been developed to comprehensively exploit the resources available at the expense of the “bare” regions of Northern Ghana, resulting in the existing yawning disparities between the South and North of Ghana.

The concentration of development in the south and middle belts of Ghana follow a rather logical sequence of the complex relationships which exist between decision-making or human actions or inactions and the consequent benefits which are meant to be derived by individuals, the firm, society and government. This human tendency in the use of space of Ghana has obscured the need to explore and develop the true potential of every part of it in a holistic and all-encompassing manner.

Meanwhile when deprivation is prolonged throughout the lifespan of individuals or groups, it can result in intergenerational transfer of poverty which in turn creates and perpetuates social exclusion. This is typical of the situations of chronic poverty in most parts of the three regions of the North of Ghana which have the highest incidence of poverty (GHDR, UNDP, 2007). The result is that existing generations are unable to provide better opportunities for the next generation. Ghana is worth over 250,000 tons of Shea nut worth 200 pounds per ton and the industry currently employs over 3000 people in the picking, processing and sale of Shea nuts and butter within three region of the North alone (Shea workshop, 2008). Since Shea trees



already cover a land area of over 77, 670 square kilometers beyond the three regions of the North, a conscious effort of Shea plantations would ensure better tree cover to safe the fast depleting strands of trees in Northern Ghana.

Research by the America Shea Butter Institute has shown that Shea butter has an exceptionally high healing fraction. It contains important nutrients, vitamins and other valuable phytonutrients required for healing. The healing fraction can be as high as 17 percent, and the larger the healing fraction, the better the chances are for a good quality Shea butter. Other oils have a healing fraction of 1percentor less.

The unique healing properties of the Shea tree have earned it the name, “karate” in Francophone countries, which means the “tree of life” (SNV and America Shea Butter Institute ASBI, 2007).

2.12.6 Challenges of Ghana’s Shea Butter Industry

As much as about half of Shea harvest is left uncollected in the wild annually. Production finance and machinery is also not adequate in the Shea industry. Lovett (2004) stated that trade networks for Shea in West Africa are dominated by lack of information and standards in terms of market demand and quality price structure. This typically leaves the women as price takers and prevents Shea butter and kernel being traded as a profitable commodity. There is currently no incentive, let alone opportunity to improve quality.

Organization of the Shea industry at the local, national and international level is generally weak with few, if any, fully functional associations. The provision of focal points for information flow and options for bargaining on the international trading arena are therefore



lacking. Other challenges are high costs of transport, limited reliability, poor roads and cumbersome custom procedures for anyone wanting to move Shea butter and kernel between countries or out of the continent. There is also significant quality variation resulting from traditional extraction (Lovett, 2004). Lack of access to affordable capital and business skills in Africa is well known and options to improve Shea butter production are possible without links to support from international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) operating in the Shea zone (Lovett, 2004). These constraints must therefore be addressed if the full potential of the industry is to be realized in Ghana and West Africa as a whole.

2.12.7 Challenges in the Shea Nut Industry

The constraints of the Shea nut industry cut across all the different actors operating along the value chain of the commodity. They span over a wide range including production, processing and marketing. Shea trees are wild trees that naturally grow in producing areas. As a result the life of these trees is exposed to destruction by human activities such as cutting down of the trees and bush fires. Planting of Shea trees takes several years (minimum of 15 years) which discourages people in its production under controlled farms. As a result yield of Shea nut is dependent on factors not controlled by man (Ferris et al., 2001; Carrette et al., 2009).

Uncontrollable factors such as weather make yield uncertain. Supply of Shea nut is therefore seasonal (Kent & Bakaweri, 2010), thus, affecting plant capacity utilization of processing firms.

Deforestation becomes a bigger problem in Ghana which directly impacts the availability of Shea nuts and butter. Bushfires, cutting of trees for firewood and destructive farming methods are all factors that affect the availability of Shea nuts (McNally, 2008). Currently, local people



and NGOs are more interested in protecting and cultivating Shea trees. This requires understanding of the life cycle of Shea to the survival of the Shea butter business.

Al-hassan (2012) explained that, processors of Shea nut are over dependent on the traditional method of Shea nut processing which affects quality and hence faces a challenge of market access. Earlier studies such as Swetman et al. (1997) are of the view that the traditional method of Shea nut processing is arduous and require a lot of human effort. This causes pain among processors and hence limit the quality of output. Poor quality of Shea butter from the traditional process has been associated to material handling among processors (Olaoye, 2001).

Consistent with this observation, Masters et al. (2004) maintain that the traditional method as an alternative way of processing Shea butter yields low quantity. In the view of Kante et al.(2008), it is a process that is physically demanding, inefficient and lacks quality. Meanwhile, Issahaku et al. (2011) reported that majority of rural women especially in northern Ghana are not using improved methods despite their allocated efficiency.

Shea butter remains indigenous as it is being consumed greatly locally. Kent & Bakaweri(2010) posit that the problem of market access among participants along the Shea value chain is peculiar to Shea butter processors. This is associated with weak current demand and lack of pre-financing of nuts (Rammohan, 2010). Within this framework, Al-hassan (2012) undertakes a study on market access capacity of Shea nut processors in Ghana. His empirical results show that actors' limitation in accessing market is associated with poor entrepreneurial skills, over dependence on Traditional methods and lack of formal training.

This is not different from the view of Planet Finance (2010), when he argues that key challenges in upgrading the Shea value chain includes processors' lack of business orientation,



skills and equipment to produce the needs of the market. Addaquay (2004) attributes limited market access by processors to lack of information and ready capital. Still on this aspect, Elias et al. (2006) articulate their view from an empirical study on constraints of the Shea industry resulting from communication. They maintain that, processors have little opportunity to communicate with donors and other stake holders hence such people lack holistic view of the Shea commodity value chain.

2.13 Lessons Learnt from the Literature

From the available literature it is evidently clear that the issue of child labour is real but the problem with it in Africa is the availability of reliable data spelling out the magnitude of the problem. Several factors account for child labour in our society and they include the following; poverty, single parenting, sheer ignorance on the part of some parents and socio-cultural beliefs. From the data reviewed, poverty has been a major determinant of child labour in Ghana and in most developing countries. The vast majority of the children are engaged in agricultural related activities. The problem in the developing world and Ghana in particular is more rural than urban. Some rural dwellers regard child labour as part of a training programme for children. Working children are also considered essential contributors to household incomes. The solution to the problem does not lie only in the enactment of laws but also in empowering individuals economically to be able to provide education to their children (Basu, 1998).

Human capital is one of the keys to reducing poverty. Education opens up opportunities for better health and better nutrition. This is because education normally leads to higher income and greater access to social benefits, as well as greater productivity. Indeed education is central to all aspects of the impact of population and poverty. Therefore, in trying to find a



solution to the problem, there is the need for a multifaceted approach taking into consideration the religious and cultural backgrounds of the people.

It has also been realised that formal education is key in the fight of the child labour problem in Ghana, but access to education for all is faced with numerous challenges especially in the rural areas. There are lack of infrastructural facilities and teachers in some of these areas and as a result some parents do not see the need of sending their children to school if at the end of the day the school does not make any difference in their lives.

To deal with the problem of child labour, governments need to devote resources to education so that: Schooling is compulsory, of good quality and relevant, and is of little or no cost to poor families. It is also observed that laws are necessary in fighting child labour but legal protection for child labourers does not extend beyond the formal sector to the kinds of work children are most involved in, such as agriculture and domestic service especially in the study area.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of the methodology which is a collective term for the structured process of conducting research (Bernard, 1995). The chapter consists of the following sections: profile of Sagnerigu District Assembly, research design, target population, sample and sampling techniques, data collections procedures, analytical procedures and ethical consideration.

3.2 Profile of Sagnerigu District

The Sagnerigu District with its capital at Sagnerigu is one of the six newly created districts in the Northern Region in the first half of 2012. It was carved out of the Tamale Metropolis by Legislative instrument (Li) 2066. The district was inaugurated on 24th June 2012 one of the reasons for the creation of the district was to redirect developmental projects to the communities, north and west of the urban areas in the Tamale Metropolis. The Sagnerigu district has 79 communities, comprising of 20 urban areas, 6 Peri-urban areas and 53 rural areas. The district covers a total land size of 200.4km² and shares boundaries with the Savelugu/Nonton Municipality to the North, Tamale Metropolis to the south and east, Tolon District to the west and Kumbungu District to the North-West. Geographically, the District lies between Latitudes 916 and 934 North and latitudes 0 36' and 0 57' west (Map of the Sagnerigu District). The Sagnerigu District, like many others, in the Northern region has a single rainy season usually stretching from May to October and this period naturally coincides with the farming activities in the district. Annual rainfall average ranges from 600mm to 1100mm, the peak begin usually between July and August. Daily temperatures vary from season to season. The dry season (November–March) is characterized by the dry Harm tan



winds: The harm tan season presents two extreme weather conditions, the extreme dry cold temperature of the early dawns and morning and the very warm afternoon (Sagnerigu District Profile 2013)

The district Chief executive is the political head of the district. The district is divided into three (3) area councils; namely Choggu, Sagnerigu, Kalipohini and Kanvilli. It is further sub – divided into twenty-three (23) electoral areas. The district has two Constituencies, the Sagnerigu Constituency and the Tamale North Constituency with each represented by one (1) elected Member of Parliament (Sagnerigu District Profile 2013).

The chieftaincy institution as well as the traditional authority is well revered and structured. The Sagneri-Naa who is usually installed by the Yaa Naa (Dagban Overlord) is the Chief with the highest authority in the District. There are twelve (12) other sub-Chiefs under the Sagneri-Naa. Ethnicity is mainly Dagombas, but there are other ethnic groups like Mampurisi, Gonja, Dagaati etc.

According to Population and Housing Census 2010, the population of Sagnerigu district is 148,099 representing 6 percent of the regions total population. Males constitute 50.6 percent and females represent 49.4 percent. The main economic activity is farming; Agriculture is the major economic activity of the citizens in the rural and peri-urban communities in the district largely engaged in both crops and animal farming. Main crops are yam, millet, maize, cassava, groundnut, cowpea; main animals reared include goat's sheep poultry and cattle. The women main source of income is Shea butter processing, apart from individual processors the district has more than six well-structured processing centers.



3.3 Research Design

Research design is a detailed outline of how an investigation will take place (Bernard, 1995). A research design will typically include how data is to be collected, what instruments will be employed, how the instruments will be used and intended means for analysing data collected (Bernard, 1995). Purposive Sampling approach was used, often is a feature of a qualitative research, researchers handpick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgment of their typicality or possession of a particular characteristics being sought. In this way they build up sample that is satisfactory to their specific needs. As its name suggests, the sample has been chosen for a specific purpose. The advantages of this technique are as follows,

- It produces quick remit.
- It is easier researching on sampling than whole population.
- There is a relatively high degree of accuracy since the research deals with small numbers.

In many cases purposive sampling is used in order to access knowledgeable people: that is those who have in-depth knowledge about particular issues, maybe by virtue of their professional role, power, and access to networks, expertise or experience (ball 1990) and those are the reasons for the choice of this research design.

3.4 Target Population

Targeted population is the total set of cases within the research problem boundaries, about which the researcher hopes to draw conclusion (Baker, 1999). The target groups for this study include children both in school and out of school, parents, teachers and opinion leaders in the communities. Also, institutions that were studied included the Ghana Education Service and the Sagnerigu district Assembly in the Northern Region. These institutions were selected for



the interview because information about child labour and children's education at that level can be gotten there. The District Assembly is the planning authority in the district and is therefore in charge of developmental projects. By this they have the authority to speak about developmental problems in their district including child labour in the five different Shea butter Processing Centers in the District which are Gurugu, Sagnerigu, Katariga, Malshegu and Kasalgu centres. The researcher chose this population because of easy accessibility of data and proximity to the researcher.

3.5 Sampling Techniques

A sample is a selected part of a population from which characteristics of the whole are estimated (Baker, 1999). The target groups for this study included children both in school and out of school, parents, teachers and opinion leaders in the communities. Eighty five (85) respondents were purposively selected for the survey. Thirty (30) key informants and two focus group discussions were held. However, a study based on a representative study is usually better than one on the whole population (Bernard, 1995) and that is why the researcher considered a sample size of eighty five (85) which comprises of children and parents from the selected Shea butter processing centers instead of the whole population.

3.5.1 Simple Random Sampling

Simple random sampling techniques was used to select respondents working in the Shea butter processing, the selection of respondents was done by proportion. After obtaining the population, Yammine formular was applied to obtain the sample size of 85 respondents.

Sample size determination formula:



Equation 1.0 below is the calculation of the sample size for the study using the Yammine formula?

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

Where: n = Sample size

N = Population

(e) = Margin of error which is 10%, where the confident level is equal to 90%

1 = Constant

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} = \frac{569}{1 + 569(0.1)^2} = \frac{569}{1 + 569(0.01)} = \frac{569}{6.69} = 85$$

3.1 Details breakdown of respondents by areas/Community

Community	Population	Sample
Sagnerigu	180	27
Katariga	120	18
Malshegu	130	19
Kasaligu	80	12
Gurugu	59	9
Total	569	85

Source: Field survey data, 2017

3.5.2 Purposive Sampling

Often is a feature of a qualitative research, researcher hand picks the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgment of their typicality or possession of a particular



characteristics being sought (Yin, 2003). In this way they build up sample that is satisfactory to their specific needs. As its name suggests, the sample has been chosen for a specific purpose, for example; a group of Shea butter processors were chosen in studying the incidence of the occurrence of child labour in the Shea butter Processing Industry because they were to state distinctively the factors which contribute to children's involvement in the Industry. The purposive sampling was used to select leaders of the shea butter processors, school administrators and members of staff of Ghana Education Service of the Sagnarigu district. These categories of people were selected because their in-depth understanding of the subject being investigated.

In many cases purposive sampling is used in order to access knowledgeable people: that is those who have in-depth knowledge about particular issues, maybe by virtue of their professional role, power, and access to networks, expertise or experience (Ball, 1990).

There is no need in seeking a random sample when most of the random sample may be largely ignorant of particular issues and unable to comment on matters of interest to the researcher, in which case a purposive sample is vital. Purposive sampling was employed which involves approaching and seeking data from Shea processors, households, children /students and teachers who can provide relevant data for the purpose.

3.6 Data collection Procedure

Data for this study was obtained from two different sources: primary and secondary sources.



3.6.1 Primary data:

Primary data is a data researcher gather for themselves, directly from individuals or through observations (Bernard, 1995). This technique of data collection was employed through the use of open-ended and semi-structured questionnaires. Key informant interviews, participant observations and focused group discussions were also used. Questionnaires are specific questions purposefully designed to solicit information from another person (Summerhill, 1992). Open ended questionnaires are without any response categories provided. However, close ended questionnaires were provided with response categories. The questionnaires were distributed by the researcher personally to respondents. The information gotten might not have come up if the researchers had used only close ended questionnaire alone.

An Interview is a verbal discussion by one person with another person to obtain information (Timothy, 2010). Questions were asked in a polite and encouraging manner with some level of patience waiting for respondents' response without any bias. It involves getting close to people and making them feel comfortable in order to observe and get information from them.

30 key informants (community leaders, teachers, education directors, group leaders) were interviewed for in-depth information regarding child labour and education. 2 focused group discussions were also held with 2 Shea butter processing centers. In addition 20 children working in the Shea butter processing industry were also interviewed.

3.6.2 Secondary Data:

Secondary data was sought from documentaries such as journals, newspapers, internets, reports, articles and other researches related to effects of child labour on children's education. The secondary data also supplemented the information gathered during the fieldwork.



3.7 Analytical Procedure

The data obtained were prepared and analysed using mixed methods. Content analysis was applied to documents and reports already generated by Sagnerigu district assembly. The quantitative data was put into SPSS for analysis and analysed using descriptive statistics such as percentages as well as frequencies. The qualitative analysis were analysed based on themes and relationships.

3.8 Ethical Consideration

The research sought to consider the following ethical practices; First of all, I ensured that the anonymity of the respondents was maintained by preserving their identity from other respondents. Moreover, I also ensured that all the information gathered were duly acknowledged and served as a reference to the study. I also disclosed all our identities to the respondents as student of University for Development Studies carrying out my master's thesis to allay the fears of respondents on the purpose of the research.



CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

This chapter deals with data presentation, interpretation and critical analysis of data gathered from the field. It specifically presents information on background information of respondents of Shea butter processing in the Sagnerigu District, the causes of child labour on children education on the Shea butter processing industry in Sagnerigu District, the effects of that child labour on school attendance of children's in the Sagnerigu District, the challenges of children education in the Sagnerigu District, recommend appropriate means of improving children's education through reduction in child labour menace in the Shea butter processing industry in the Sagnerigu District.

4.1 Background Information of Respondents

As part of the study, the researcher sought to find out the background information of respondents. This was done in order to understand the characteristics of the respondents and also to gain a better insight to the responses provided. Data sought included Age, Gender, Marital Status, religious denomination and highest educational level attainment. An analysis of these variables is presented in the sections that follow.

4.1.1 Gender Distribution of Respondents

Under gender distribution of the respondents both male and female respondent views were solicited on perceived causes and effects of child labour on children's education in the Shea butter processing industry in Sagnerigu district.

Table 4.1: Gender Distribution of Respondents



Gender	Frequency	Percentage %
Male	10	11
Female	75	89
Total	85	100

Source: Field work, 2017.

Table 4.1 above shows the number of male(s) and female(s) interviewed and those who answered the questionnaires. Of all respondents consulted, 11% were males and 89% were females. It can therefore be concluded that there are more females' directly involved in the Shea butter processing industry in the research area than males which implies the Shea butter industry is mainly a female dominated income generating venture in the study area, it confirms Abujaja et al (2015) which reported that women dominated the Shea butter industry.

4.1.2 Age Distribution of Respondents

Age is a considerable variable when carrying out a research on the perceived causes and effects of child labour on children's education in the Shea butter processing Industry in Sagnerigu District and the age range that was in majority from this study were the 46 to 60 years as presented in (Table 4.2).

Table4.2: Ages of Respondents

Age Range	Frequency	Percentages (%)
------------------	------------------	------------------------



10-19	15	18
20-29	10	12
30-45	25	29
46-60	30	35
60 and Above	5	6
Total	85	100

Source: Field Work, 2017.

Table 4.2 indicates the age range of respondents interviewed and consulted with questionnaire. Of all the respondents consulted, 18% of the respondents fell within the age range of 10-20, 12% of the respondents fell within the age range of 20- 29, 29% of the respondents fell within the age range of 30 – 45, 35% of the respondents fell within the age range of 46-60 while 6% of the respondents fell within the age range of 60 and Above. It can be observed from the Table that, respondents ranging from the ages of 46-60 were majority. It implies the highest number of women involved

4.1.3 Educational Attainment of Respondents

For the respondent to have an understanding of the perceived causes and effects of child labour on children education in the Shea butter processing Industry in Sagnerigu District, there is the need for the researcher to enquire information of the respondents educational background, Table 4.3 indicates educational qualification of respondents.



Table4. 3: Educational Attainment of Respondents

Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Primary	24	27
Middle/Junior High School	15	18
Senior High School/Technical	10	12
Post-Secondary/Nursing	3	4
Tertiary	3	4
Never been to School	30	35
TOTAL	85	100

Source: Field survey, 2017

From the Table 4.3, it shows that 27% of the respondents had attained primary certificate and senior high technical respectively, followed by 18% who attained Junior High School certificates. Furthermore 4% of respondents attained post-secondary/nursing certificates followed by 4% of the respondents who attained tertiary certificates, while 35% of the respondents had no certificates. It can be seen from the Table that those who had never been to school are the highest who implies the researcher has to explain in local language to enable the respondent understand before providing responses. It also implies that illiteracy is very high among the respondents which may be the reason for the child labour in the Shea butter processing industry in Sagnerigu District. Literature indicated that, child labour is the main obstacle of human resource development which is a necessary ingredient of national development. Understanding the interplay between education and child labour will help to eliminate it and improve on school enrolment. Abujaja et al (2015) also found that majority



of women engaged in the Shea processing enterprises in West Gonja district of the northern region lack formal education.

4.1.4 Marital Status of Respondents

Marital status of respondents is a considerable variable when carrying out a research and the marital status of respondents of this study has been presented in Table 4.4

Table 4.4: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital status	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Married	50	59
Single	15	18
Divorced	11	13
Widowed	9	10
TOTAL	85	100

Source: Field Survey Data 2017.

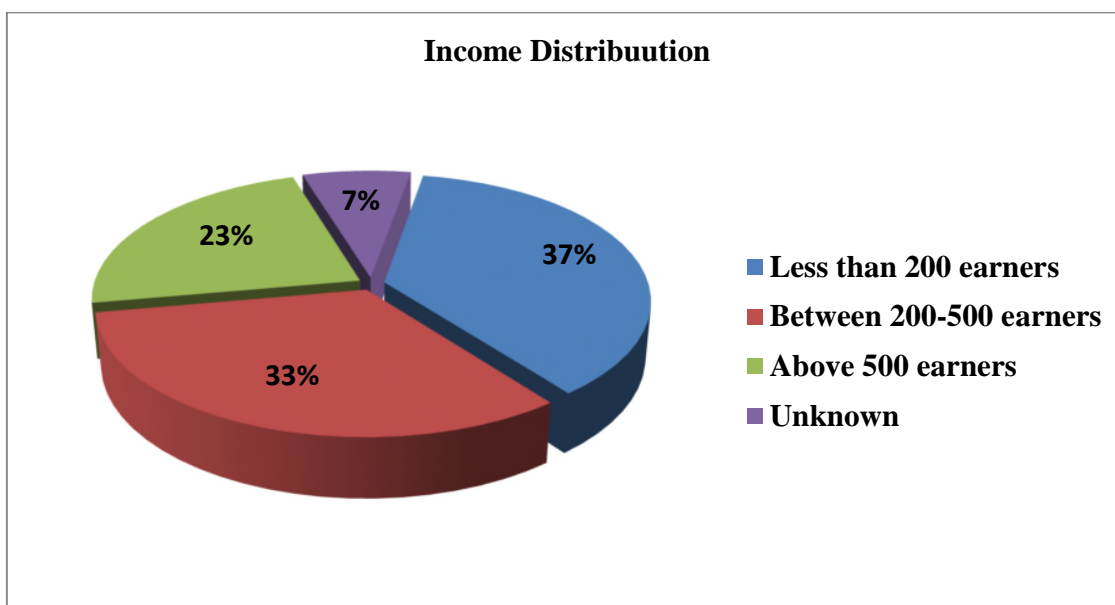
Respondents were of different marital backgrounds, 59% of the respondents were married, 18% of the respondents were single, 13% of the respondents were divorced, while 10% of the respondents said there were widowed. It can be inferred from the research conducted that majority of the respondents who responded were married.



4.1.5 Income Distribution

Income levels of respondents were generally low and can be seen in figure 4.1 below.

Figure 4.1: Income Level of the Respondents per Month



Source: Field work, 2017.

The Figure 4.1 represents the income level of 85 respondents in the District. 19 respondents representing 37% earned income below ₵200, 16 respondents representing 33% earned income between 200-500, 12 respondents representing 23% earned income more than 500, while 4 respondents representing 7% respondents could not tell how much they earn per month. The solution to the problem does not lie only in the enactment of laws but also in empowering individuals economically to be able to provide education to their children (Basu, 1998).



4.1.6 Distribution of respondents by formal work

Table 4.5: Formal work

Respondents	Frequency	Percentage %
Yes	25	71
No	60	29
Total	85	100

Source: Field work, 2017.

The Table 4.5 indicates whether respondents have formal work or not. Out of the 85 respondents' 60 respondents representing 71% agreed that they have no formal work while 29% of the respondents said they are having formal work. This implies that all the respondents without formal work are likely to engage their children in child labour to earn additional income to support their families, which needs to stop, because it affects schooling of their children.

4.2: The Causes of Child Labour in the Shea Butter Processing Industry in Sagnerigu District.

Establishing the causes of child labour is major step to finding solution to the menace. The study sought to determine the causes of child labour among respondents. Table 4.6 details the causes established from respondents.



Table 4.6: Causes of Child Labour (perceptions of respondents)

Causes	Frequency	Percentage %
Poverty	30	35
Single Parents	15	18
No Education	24	28
Low income	16	19
Total	85	100

Source: Field Work, 2017.

Majority of respondents (35%) considered poverty as the main cause of child labour while 28% attributed it to lack of formal education of parents. 19% of respondents also said most families engaged their children just to add income to their family income, while 18% also insisted single parenting was a contributory factor to the menace of child labour. Basu and Van (1998) argue that the primary cause of child labour is parental poverty and that the solution to the problem does not lie only in the enactment of laws but also in empowering individuals economically to be able to provide education to their children (Basu, 1998).

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



4.3 Child Labour and School Attendance

The section discusses the relationship between children's school attendance and child labour.

The section encompasses areas such as working condition of children, duration out of school, the effects of child labour on school attendance as well as frequency of attendance.

Table 4.7 Work Status

Work	Frequency	Percentage %
Only work	3	15
Only school	7	35
Work/school	10	50
Total	20	100

Source: Field Work, 2017.

Table 4.7 shows that the proportions of children who only work were 15% of children interviewed, 35%, and who attend school as well as work constitute majority 50% of children interviewed said they work in one way or the other and still attend school. Galli(2001) The contribution of children is most of the time critical since children are sent to work when parents' earnings are insufficient to guarantee the survival of the family or are insecure so that child labour is used as a means of minimizing the impact of possible job loss, failed harvest and other shocks of the family's income stream.

From the qualitative data gathered the first point to note is that, working and school attendance are not straight alternatives. Until the age of 18, most working children attend school. Also, in the younger age range, increases in working mainly consist of children working while still

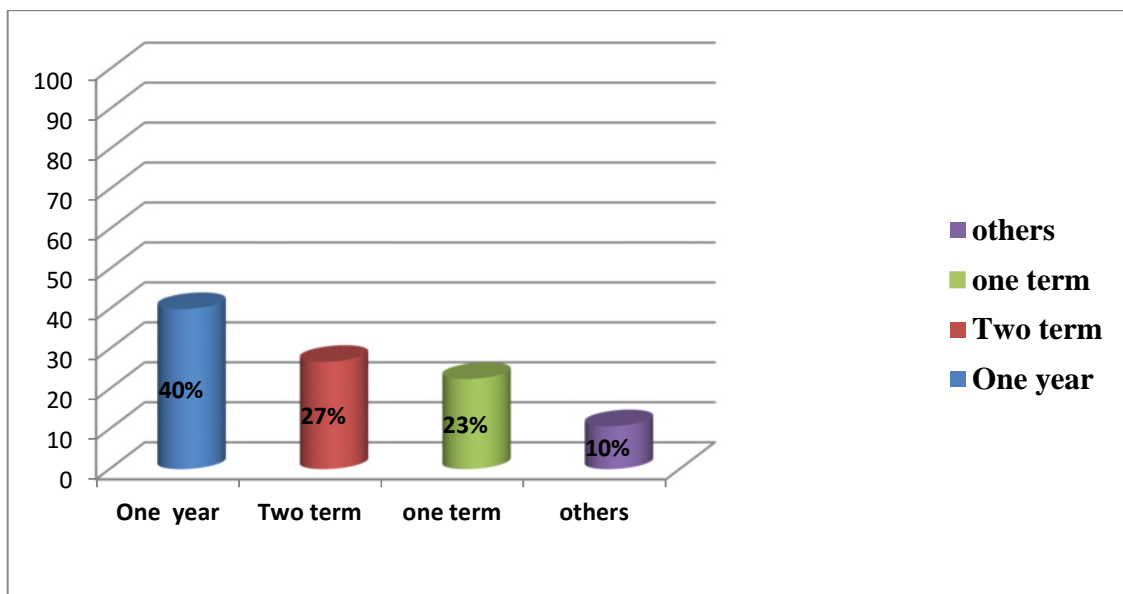


at school. It is only at age 17 that there is a clear movement out of school and into work (Field survey 2017). Combine work and schooling, and slightly more likely to only work. This could be because they also have greater housework duties. The solution to the problem does not lie only in the enactment of laws but also in empowering individuals economically to be able to provide education to their children (Basu, 1998).

4.3.1 Duration of children of respondents out of School.

It is important to establish the number of day's children working in Shea butter industry absent themselves from school, since that will be necessary to determine the drop-out rate. Figure 4.4 shows the number of times children are out of school within a year

Figure 4.2 Duration of children of respondents out of School



Source: Field work, 2017.

Figure 4.3 shows the number of times children are out of school within a year. Out of the 85 respondents 20 respondents representing 40% said their children left school one year ago, 14



respondents representing 27% left school/drop out two terms now, 11 respondents representing 23% of the children left school just one term while 5 respondents representing 10% left school by other's either than the one mention in the diagram.

4.3.2 Effects of Child labour on school attendance

Children's educational achievements are affected when they are engaged in child labour because they often have less time for their studies as compared to those who are not involved. Gaining deeper understanding into the effects of child labour helps to make effective recommendation for policy on child labour, particularly in the Shea butter processing industry. Table 4.8 presents the effects of child labour on school attendance. The 20 children who were interviewed were asked to indicate how their involvement in the Shea butter work affects their school attendance and performance. Their responses are presented in table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Effects of Child Labour on school attendance (multiple responses)

Attendance	Frequency	Percentage %
Lateness	15	75
Absenteeism	18	90
Sleeping in class	10	50
Low concentration	14	70
Low academic performance	12	60

Source: Field work, 2017

Table 4.8 indicates that 90 percent of children interviewed in the Shea butter processing industry said they absent themselves at least once in a week, 75 percent said they report to school late because of the work, 70 percent said they had low concentration during lessons in



class because of tiredness, 50 percent said they have been sleeping in class because they work at home.60 percent also said they were not performing well in class because they were not given time to study at home. During an interview with some of the children it came out clearly that children are involved in almost all the activities in the Shea butter processing including fetching water, cracking, picking, roasting, kneading and boiling for the extraction of the oil. Some of the activities can be seen in the pictures below (4.1&4.2)

Picture: 4.1



Picture: 4.2





During an interview with some educational administrators it came out clearly that the Shea butter activities affect the children’s school attendance. For instance, the head teacher of Kpene primary explained that some of the children in the community are being compelled to work in the Shea butter processing instead of attending school. His submission has been encapsulated in the narration as follows:

“ Some of the children come to school already tired and start to sleep in class during lessons, and when you ask them they will tell you that they were asked to roast Shea nuts for processing last night”

A 56-year Shea butter processor (Magaazia) at Malshegu opened-up why they cannot allow their children to go to school when they have a lot of work as: “We do not have enough money



to employ people to help us, because the profit margin is very little. We are therefore compelled to depend on our children for labour”.

The implication of the above narration suggests that the child labour is evident in the shea butter processing industry and affecting children’s school attendance. This supports the assertion made by ILO (2002) that child labour interferes with children’s education. Either school attendance is foregone in favour of work, or learning is inefficient, either because the children are not allowed to spend time doing their homework or because they are unable to pay proper attention in school because of fatigue (Canagarajah, & Nielsen, 1999). UNICEF’s study in Ghana and a review of similar studies by the ILO have shown that work has a detrimental effect on learning achievements in the key areas of language and mathematics. Heady (2003) also found that working children in Ghana spent an average of one hour per week less in school.

4.3.3 Frequency of Children’s School Absenteeism per Week.

Children school attendance is key to their educational achievements and for that matter anything that affects children’s school attendance equally affects their educational achievements.

Table 4.9: Frequency of Absenteeism per Week



Attendance	Frequency	Percentage %
Four days	10	50
Three days	5	25
All days	5	25
Total	20	100

Source: Fieldwork 2017

The table 4.9 indicates that, majority of the children interviewed, 50 percent said they absented themselves from school once in a week, that implies majority of respondents absented themselves from school each week which can affect their academic performance, 25 percent said they attended school three days every week, 25 percent also said they attended school every school day which implies their work at the processing Centre do not affect their school attendance. According to Gibbons et al (2003) child labour is associated with higher repetition and dropout rates. Child labour competes with school attendance and proficiency, children sent to work do not accumulate (or under-accumulate) human capital, missing the opportunity to enhance their productivity and future earnings capacity. This lowers the wage of their future families, and increases the probability of their offspring being sent to work.

During an interview with a head teacher of Hattoub Islamic basic school at Sagnerigu-Kukuo it came out clearly that the Shea butter activities affect the children's school attendance and academic work. His submission has also been encapsulated in the narration as follows:

“pupils of Shea butter processing parents absent themselves from school on some specific days in the week and when you ask them they said their parents asked them to help in the cracking of Shea nuts, roasting and fetching of water for the processing of Shea butter and



when you do a follow up it turns out to be true and some of them also come to school with their home works undone”

The implication of the above narration suggests that, child labour is a contributory factor affecting children’s school attendance and performance because children are not given enough time to play and learn which is against the declaration of the World summit for children (1990), that children are vulnerable and dependent. They are also curious, active and full of hope. Their time should be one of joy and peace of playing, learning and growing.

4.4 Strategies to Reduce Child labour

Child labour continues to inhibit the education of children in Ghana, a situation which needs an immediate solution. The story is not too different in the Shea butter industry. The study sought to find out from key stakeholders about the strategies that can help to reduce child labour in the Shea butter industry. Table 4.9 illustrates the strategies to reduce child labour



Table 4.10: Strategies to Reduce Child Labour

Strategy	Frequency	Percentage %
Sensitization	16	19
Enforce law	10	12

Poverty alleviation	52	61
Free education	7	8
Total	85	100

Source: Fieldwork 2017

From the Table 4.10 it can be seen that majority of respondents constituting 61% said that, poverty alleviation is the best way of reducing child labour, 19% also said sensitizing the public on the dangers of child labour will help reduce incidence of child labour, while 12% said enforcing the laws on child labour is the way forward in reducing child labour while 8% also said making education entirely free is the way forward in minimizing child labour.

Some of the education administrators suggested the best ways to curb child labour in the following narrations:

As also reported in Ghana Statistical Service report (GSS, 2014) they identify poverty and low incomes as some of the underlining reasons for child labour and until parents can support themselves financially children would continue to be used to help contribute to household incomes.

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

The constitution of the Republic of Ghana (1992) prohibits slavery and forced labour (section 16) and states that it is the right of any person “to work under satisfactory, safe and healthy



conditions” (section 24). Section 28 guarantees children “the right to be protected from engaging in work that constitutes a threat to ... (their) health, education or development”. As in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child every person under the age of 18 is defined as a child (Zdunnek, et al 2008).



CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The final chapter of this thesis work focuses on summary of key findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the study. It summarises key issues of the research results pertain to the work contained within and that may influence future research on the effects of child labour on children's education in the Shea-butter processing industry in Sagnerigu District.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

The study was undertaken with the view to assess the effects of child labour on children's education in the Shea-butter processing Industry in Sagnerigu District. It can therefore be concluded that there are more females' directly involved in the Shea butter processing industry in the research area than males. It can be observed from the data that, respondents ranging from the ages of 46-60 were majority which implies the Shea processors are mainly elderly women. It can also be concluded that those who had never been to school are the majority, which implies majority of Shea-butter processors in the study area has no formal education and that is worrying because it can undermine the adoption of improved technology. It can be inferred from the research conducted that majority of the respondents were married. Majority of children, (50 percent interviewed) absented themselves from school at least once a week and 25 percent twice a week which implies as much as 75% of all children absented themselves from school every week.



As far as practicable, the children themselves provided the information on their schooling and economic activities which imply the information gathered is from direct source, the children had the opportunity to speak for themselves. For the purpose of this research, the important schooling questions were how many days the child attended school in a week and as whether the child had attended school in the past twelve months. It is obvious from the research that respondents think poverty, single parenting, lack of formal education and low family income as the causes of child labour and that in trying to reduce child labour poverty alleviation strategies should be intensified targeting women who the majority in the Shea butter processing industry. The study established that lateness, absenteeism, low academic performance, sleeping in class, and poor concentration as the main effects of child labour in the Shea butter industry. Among the strategies mentioned to reduce child labour included sensitisation, enforcing child labour laws, poverty alleviation and making education free and compulsory for children.

It is obvious from the research that majority of respondents think poverty is the major cause of child labour and that in trying to reduce child labour poverty alleviation strategies should be intensified targeting women who the majority in the Shea butter processing industry.

5.2 Conclusions

From the results and discussions done so far the following conclusions can be made, effects of child labour on children's education in the Shea-butter processing Industry in Sagnerigu District was well understood by the respondents which can lead to the total reduction of child labour in the Shea butter processing industry in the research area.



Shea butter processors in the study area were mainly dominated by women who were aged between 46 and 60. They earned very little income to be able to pay for services. Most Shea butter processors in the study area had very little or no education at all and mostly married women. Poverty is seen to be the major cause of child labour, because the Shea butter processors do not earn enough to hire more hands to do their work, they rely on family labour which is mainly their children. As also reported in Ghana Living Standards Survey Round 6 (GLSS6) they identify poverty and low incomes as some of the underlining reasons for child labour and until parents can support themselves financially children would continue to be used to help contribute to household incomes. . Effects of child labour as revealed by this study included absenteeism, lateness, sleeping during lessons and poor concentration in class. The consequences of these effects can include poor performance or even dropout from school. The issue of public sensitization is also identified as one of the major strategies to minimize child labour.

5.3 Recommendations

Government need to apply laws on child labour. There are many laws in place protecting children and prohibiting child labour but these laws are not effectively enforced. Government need to apply the minimum legal working age to jobs in Shea butter industry by funding enforcement institutions including inspectorates.

The Government needs to also prohibit hazardous work for all children under 18 and define the list of hazardous activities as is required by their ratification of ILO's Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention 182.



The most important contributor to child labour is poverty. Government and private partners need to ensure that its poverty reduction strategies support the elimination of child labour. Shea butter processors should be supported with loans and other credit facilities to enable them implement modern technologies in processing Shea butter that will help to reduce the labour demand and minimize child labour. Another issue that makes children more vulnerable to child labour is the lack of access to good quality education. Government need to make efforts towards bridging the gap between urban and rural areas in provision of educational facilities.

Government need to also make efforts to ensure full implementation of the FCUBE programme to make education entirely free to all children of school going age. Governments should ensure that their educational programmes include rehabilitation of child labourers, Government need to pay special attention to the needs of orphans and vulnerable children who are more at risk of becoming child labourers. Government and non-governmental organizations should endeavour to identify and support single parents.



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APPENDICES

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Household Questionnaire for Shea butter processors

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

I IssahAdamwith Student ID: UDS/MEA/0023/15, an M.ED AGRICULTURE student from faculty of education Tamale campus of university for development studies wishes to administer this questionnaire to solicit your view concerning a research topic entitled, The Effects of Childlabour on Children’s Education: A Case Study of Shea butter processing Industry in the Sagnerigu District of Northern Ghana. The exercise is for academic purpose only; in partial fulfillment for the award of M.ED AGRICULTURE. I would appreciate it if you could assist by spending approximately thirty-five minutes (35) to complete this questionnaire. Please tick where necessary. Be assured that your responses will be treated with absolute confidentiality.

Community

Name of group.....



Section A: Background of Respondents

1. Age of respondent.
 - (a) Less than 20 years []
 - (b) 20-30 years []
 - (c) 31-40 years []
 - (d) 41-50 years []
 - (e) 51-60 years []
 - (f) Above 60years[]

2. Gender of household head.
(a) Male [] (b) Female []
3. What is your religious denomination?
(a) Christian [] (b) Moslem [] (c) Traditional religion []
(d) Other (specify)
4. What is your marital status?
(a) Married [] (b) Widowed [] (c) Single []
(e) Divorced [] (e) Separated []
(f) Other, specify.....
5. What is the highest level of education that you have attained?
(a) Primary [] (b) Middle/JHS [] (c) SHS/Technical []
(g) Post-secondary/Nursing [] (e) Tertiary [] Never been to school []
6. Aside Shea butterprocessing are you engaged in other forms of employment?
(a) Yes [] (b) No []
7. If yes to question 6, indicate the employment status.
(a) Working full time [] (b) Working part time [] (c) Casual/piece jobs []
(d) Other (specify)
8. Do you have children? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
9. If yes how many? (a) Less than 3 [] (b) 4 ---- 6 []
(c) 7----8 [] (d) 9---12 [] (e) Above 12 []

Section B: School Enrolment and Attendance

10. How many are in school? (a) Boys (b) Girls



11. If there are some not in schools, what are the reasons?
(a) Cannot afford school fees [] (c) No schools available []
(b) The children support me to work []
(e) Others, specify.....
12. How long have they been out of school?
(a) One term [] (b) Two terms [] (c) One year []
(d) Other, specify
13. How many are boys and how many are girls?
(a) Boys..... b) Girls
14. Is there any particular period they stay out of school?(a) Yes [] (b) No []
15. If yes what period and why?

Section C: Family and Childlabour

16. How many of your household members including you usually receive or earn an income? ---- (number)
17. What is the source(s) of your household income?
(a) Remittances [] (b) Salary/wages [] (c) Pension [] (d) Farming []
(d) Others (specify)
18. What is your monthly income?.....
19. Please tell me approximately how much money your household spends on average each month on education? GHC.....
20. Who takes care of the children’s educational needs?
(a) Father [](b) Mother [] (c) Both Father and Mother []
(d) Aunty [](f) others specify.....
21. Do your children engaged in income generating activities? (a) Yes [] (b) No []



- 22 If yes what kind of income generating activities do they do?
(a) Farming [] (b) Trading [] (c) Cattle rearing []
(d) Others (specify).....
23. Do your children help you in Shea butter processing? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
- 24 If yes why are they involved?
(a) I don't have people to support [] (b) They are not academically good
(c) I don't have enough income [] (d) others (specify).....
- (25) Are they paid for the work they do? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
- (26) If yes approximately how much do they earn in a day? GHC.....
- (27) What type of activity do they do in the Shea butter processing?
(a) Crashing of nuts [] (b) Grinding of nuts []
(c) Roasting of nuts [] (d) others (specify).....

Section D: Effects of Childlabour

- (28). Does your children involvement in Shea butter processing affect their school attendance and academic work? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
- (29) If yes give the reasons.....
.....
.....
- (30) If no give reasons.....
.....
- (31) In your opinion, what can done to minimize child labour.....
.....
.....



INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR CHILDREN/STUDENTS

Section A: Background of Respondents

1. Gender of household head (a) Male [] (b) Female []
2. Could you please tell me how old you are? (Last birth day).....
3. Your religious denomination (a) Christian [] (b) Moslem []
(c) Traditional religion [] (d) others, (specify)
4. What is your highest level of education?
(a) Primary [] (b) Middle/JHS [] (c) SHS/Technical []
(d) Post-secondary/Nursing [] (e) Tertiary [] (f) Never been to school []
5. How many people in this household are of school going age?
6. How many are actually in school?
7. If there are some not in schools, what are the reasons?
(a) Cannot afford school fees [] (b) No schools available []
(c) Other, (specify).....
8. How long have they been out of school?
(a) One term [] (b) Two terms [] (c) One year []
(d) Other, specify
9. How many days do you attend school in a week?
10. Is there any particular period you stay out of school?
11. If yes what period and why?
12. Do you do any form of work? (a) Yes [] (b) No []



13. If yes what kind of work do they do? (a) Household chores []
(b) Farming [] (b) Selling [] (c) Shea butter work/processing []
Other (specify).....
14. Are you paid for the work done? (a)Yes [] (b) No []
15. If yes approximately how much do you earn in a day? GHC.....
16. Why will you engage or allow to be engaged in any form of work?
.....
.....



INSTITUTIONAL SURVEY: SAGNARIGU DISTRICT ASSEMBLY

TEACHERS INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Date of interview
2. Status of respondent
3. To what extent in your view is child labour in your district?
.....
.....
.....
.....
4. What are the causes?
.....
5. What can be done to address it?
.....
.....
6. What policies or actions have you put in place to fight child labour in your district?
.....
7. What punitive measures or incentives to motivate people to limit these activities?
.....



INSTITUTIONAL SURVEY: SAGNARIGU DISTRICT

EDUCATION OFFICE

1. Date of interview
2. Status of respondent
3. To what extent in your view is child labour in your district?
.....
.....
4. What are the causes?
.....
5. What can be done to address it?
.....
6. What policies or actions have you put in place to fight child labour in your district?
.....
10. What punitive measures are put in place to minimize it?
.....



GUIDE FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

1. What is your understanding of child labour?
2. Does it exist in your area?
3. If yes how widespread is it in this area?
4. What are the causes of it?
5. What kind of work do you normally engage in?
6. What are the effects of child labour on your academic work?
7. How can we minimize these effects on your academic work?
8. What interventions are needed to solve the problem?



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